

Univerzita Pardubice  
Fakulta humanitních studií  
Katedra anglistiky a amerikanistiky

## **Differentiation in ELT**

Diplomová práce

2005

Jana Krupičková

University of Pardubice  
Faculty of Humanities  
Department of English and American Studies

# **Differentiation in ELT**

Thesis

Author: Jana Krupičková  
Supervisor: Mgr. Pavel Brebera

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## **Diferenciace v hodinách anglického jazyka**

Diplomová práce

Autor: Jana Krupičková  
Vedoucí: Mgr. Pavel Brebera

2005

## ZADÁNÍ DIPLOMOVÉ PRÁCE

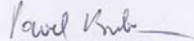
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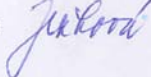
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Vedoucí diplomové práce: Mgr. Pavel Brebera

Podpis: 

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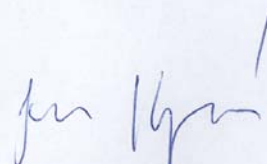
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Souhlasím s prezenčním zpřístupněním své práce v Univerzitní knihovně Univerzity Pardubice.

V Pardubicích dne 26. 02. 2005.



Jana Krupičková

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## **Abstract**

Over the past few decades differentiation has become an important tool with which to address individual students needs. The goal of differentiated learning is maximum student growth and individual success. Teachers are today appreciating that they need to be aware of differences that exist amongst learners in order for them to reach as many students as possible. Knowing how the learners differ from each other enables the tutors to adjust the teaching so that all needs are met. Such adjustments can be attained through differentiating various elements of the curriculum. For the purpose of this study three basic elements of the curriculum will be dealt with in detail. Namely: content, process and product.

In Czech literature differentiation, plus other essential terms such as differentiated teaching, differentiated learning, differentiated classroom and differentiation in content, process and product, have not been covered sufficiently, so there is still a considerable lack of information available. In the theoretical section this thesis tries to provide an insight into the differentiation in ELT, using the literature that is available, studies written primarily by foreign authors. The practical part of this thesis contains research conducted in a number of English lessons held at various Czech elementary schools. This research attempts to answer the question, if and to what extent is the learning and teaching differentiated in content, process and product in English lessons at Czech elementary schools.

## **Abstrakt**

V posledních letech se v pedagogice stále častěji hovoří o nutnosti diferencovat vyučování. Tato diplomová práce se zabývá problematikou diferenciací v procesech vyučování a učení anglického jazyka. Východiskem pro zpracování tématu byla prezentace různých typů faktorů determinujících existenci rozdílů mezi jednotlivými žáky. Každé dítě má mnoho individuálních rysů, jež musí být brány v potaz, pokud chceme, aby jeho učení bylo co nejefektivnější. Vyučující musí usilovat o uspokojení potřeb všech žáků a vzbuzovat v nich pocit individuálního úspěchu a radost z dosažení osobních dílčích pokroků. Když učitel dokáže na tyto individuální potřeby reagovat, umožní dětem zažívat při vzdělávání úspěch, dosahovat osobního maxima. Jedna z metod, jak tohoto dosáhnout, je pomocí diferenciací tří základních prvků kurikula. Těmi byly pro potřebu této práce zvoleny obsah, proces a produkt.

Jelikož téma diferenciací není v české literatuře dostatečně rozpracované, teoretická část poskytuje literární rešerši na toto téma, většinou práce zahraničních autorů. Jsou definovány pojmy jako diferencované vyučování a učení, diferencovaná třída, typy diferenciací atd. Cílem praktické části této diplomové práce je pomocí observací zjistit, zda a do jaké míry je vyučování anglického jazyka na českých základních školách diferencováno obsahem, procesem a produktem.



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## 1. INTRODUCTION

*“If a man does not keep pace with his companions, perhaps it is because he hears a different drummer”.* (Henry David Thoreau)

Differentiation is a word we are hearing more and more from educators lately. Differentiation is not a new trend; the concept has been around for several decades. However it is nowadays recognized to be an important tool for engaging students and addressing the individual needs of all learners in the foreign language education. There is no strict formula for differentiation. It is not a prescribed way of teaching and it is not an instructional strategy. Rather, it is a philosophy of teaching that includes a wide variety of adoptions. Differentiation is not something that teacher does only when he/she has time, and it will not occur immediately in the classrooms. In order for teachers to effectively differentiate, first of all they need to spend enough time to get to know their pupils on an individual and personalized level. Carol Ann Tomlinson (1995, 3) suggests that:

What we share in common makes us human. How we differ makes us individuals. In a classroom with little or no differentiated teaching, only students' similarities seem to take centre stage. In a differentiated classroom, commonalities are acknowledged and built upon, and student differences become important elements in teaching and learning as well.

Tomlinson continues that it is important for students to have multiple options for absorbing information, for making sense of ideas, and for expressing what they learn.

The theoretical section of this thesis constitutes a study of issues collected from a number of books and Internet pages. The second chapter deals with the individual differences of the learners, as these are proved to be extremely important for the teachers in order to differentiate effectively and reach as many students as possible. It is emphasised that these individual differences are studied in connection with learning a foreign language. The third chapter includes important terminology, in which not only the crucial “differentiation” and “individualisation” are defined, but also other essential terms, namely: “differentiated classroom”, “differentiated learning”, “differentiated teaching”, “differentiated curriculum”, as well as the classification of differentiation according to organizational issues. The fourth chapter deals with differentiation in content, process and product. This section presents the ways in which these three

elements may be differentiated. It is suggested that content may be differentiated by text, task or difficulty. Process may be differentiated by support, interest, time, flexible grouping and learning styles while product may be differentiated by outcome. The fourth chapter also serves as a basis for the practical part of this thesis.

The practical section analyses to what extent differentiation is used in English lessons at Czech elementary schools. The research method that was chosen for this study is observation and those observations are carried out at four different elementary schools. All together six teachers are involved and the total amount of observed lessons is thirty. As mentioned above, chapter three serves as the basis for this research, meaning that the lessons are analysed from three points of view: whether there was differentiation in content, in process or in product. Also, beyond this, what type of differentiation happened in these three elements. The range of this research does not allow identification of the causes of use/non-use of differentiation. But it would definitely be an interesting topic for further research.

The findings of this study should provide the readers with some interesting insights into differentiation and hopefully help them realize what areas of teaching and learning need to be improved when talking about differentiation.

## 2. INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

The biggest mistake of past centuries in teaching has been to treat all children as if they were variants of the same individual, and thus to feel justified in teaching them the same subjects in the same ways (Gardner, as quoted in Tomlinson 1999, 9).

The students in today's classrooms are very diverse. Coming from differing cultures and backgrounds, they possess varying levels of emotional and social maturity, have different learning styles and different individual learning preferences as a consequence. Their interests differ greatly both in topic and intensity. At any given time, they reflect differing levels of academic readiness in various facets of a single subject.

Today, educational research enables us to better identify those variables which can affect a student's performance at school. Once a teacher is aware of the differences that can exist among learners, he/she is more capable of differentiating the teaching in order to reach as many students as possible. However, as Lightbown and Spada (1993, 50) suggest, the study of individual learner variables is not easy and the results of research are not entirely satisfactory. Lightbown and Spada (1993, 50) claim that:

This is partly because of the lack of clear definitions and methods for measuring the individual characteristics. It is also due to the fact that these learners' characteristics are not independent of one another: learner variables interact in complex ways.

Lightbown and Spada (1993, 50) also note that so far the researchers know very little about the nature of these complex interactions. On the other hand they suggest that a sensitive teacher who takes learners' individual personalities and learning styles into account, should be able to create a learning environment in which virtually all learners can be successful in learning a foreign language. Therefore, it remains difficult to make precise predictions about how a particular individual's characteristics influence his or her success as a language learner.

Different authors have identified various ways of classifying the differences among learners, whilst the research on individual differences often permits multiple interpretations.

There are two main categories to be considered when talking about individual differences. Authors who have dealt with individual differences agree with a division

into these two categories: subjective or objective. For further information see, for example: Průcha (2002), Fontana (2003), Lightbown and Spada (1996).

a.) Subjective: Subjective differences are those that suggest how the child is genetically equipped for learning. These include personality, intelligence, learning styles and strategies, motivation, aptitude, age and more.

b.) Objective: Objective differences could be described as what comes from outside. That means such influences as education of parents, status of the family, differences between cities and villages, material background of the family and so on.

Listed below are the basic subjective factors that cause the diversity in today's classrooms. Considering the aim of this thesis, and the fact that it concentrates upon the individual differences in connection with learning English language, the subjective individual differences are considered to be the crucial ones for this study and therefore the details of objective determinants will not be discussed further.

## **2.1. Personality**

Personality is an important factor in foreign language learning and teaching. The knowledge of the pupil's personality is the precondition of the teacher's individual attitude towards the learner, which is the general principle in didactics. Lightbown and Spada (1996, 38) suggest that a number of personality characteristics have been proposed as being likely to affect a foreign language learning, but it is not easy to demonstrate these effects in empirical studies; moreover different studies that measure a similar personality trait produce different results. The issue of learners personality is very complex, therefore, considering the range of this thesis, it is not possible to deal with it in details. But for further information about temperament, character, introvert individual versus extrovert, stable versus non-stable and other terms connected with personality, see, for example: Čáp and Mareš (2001), Fontana (2003), Linhart (1981). Lightbown and Spada (1996, 38) further suggest that it is often argued that an extroverted person is well suited to language learning. Choděra (et. al. 2001, 39) also supports this opinion and goes even further. He suggest that for the most effective learning of a foreign language the best characteristics of the pupil are extrovert-stable-

sanguinik, whilst the least effective characteristics for language learning, he suggests, are introvert-non-stable-melancholic. To support his theory he uses Linhart's model. This is presented in details in Linhart (1981, 538). Choděra further suggests that this dichotomy may be presented with a degree of inaccuracy as communicative-non-communicative. There are other characteristics that seems to be important for language learning such as self-esteem, empathy, talkativeness and responsiveness, though as Lightbown and Spada (1996, 38) note, the available research does not show a clearly defined relationship between personality and foreign language learning.

## **2.2. Intelligence**

In a traditional view, Gardner (1993, 15) claims that the intelligence is defined operationally as the ability to answer items on tests of intelligence. He continues that:

The interference from the test scores to some underlying ability is supported by statistical techniques that compare responses of subjects at different ages; the apparent correlation of these test scores across ages and across different tests corroborates the notion that the general faculty of intelligence does not change much with age or with training or experience. It is an inborn attribute or faculty of the individual.

Kalhous and Obst (2002, 70) claim that, according to the older literature, intelligence was characterized as something that may be measured by intelligence tests, or as the ability to learn and to solve problems. However, traditional intelligence tests are thanks to the work of educational leaders like Howard Gardner and his Multiple Intelligence movement being challenged. He has broadened the definition of intelligence, or "being smart". Richards and Rogers (2001, 115) suggest that Multiple Intelligences refer to a learner-based philosophy that characterizes human intelligence as having multiple dimensions that must be acknowledged and developed in education. Gardner (1993, as quoted in Richards and Rodgers 2001, 115) argues that all humans have at least eight intelligences, but people differ in the strengths and combinations of these intelligences. Gardner also believes that all of them can be enhanced through training and practice. Gardner's eight intelligences are:

- Verbal/linguistic
- Logical/mathematical
- Visual/spatial
- Bodily/kinesthetic

- Musical
- Interpersonal
- Interpersonal
- Naturalist

Further description of particular intelligences can be found in Gardner (1993), Smith (2002).

Richards and Rodgers (2001, 117) further suggest that obviously language learning is closely linked to what MI theorists label “Linguistic Intelligence”. But MI proponents believe there it is more to language than what is usually subsumed under the rubric linguistic. Other aspects of language such as rhythm, tone, and volume are more closely linked to a theory of music than to the theory of linguistics. Other intelligences enrich the tapestry of communication that is called “language”.

Richards and Rodgers (2001, 115) believe that MI belongs to a group of instructional perspectives that focus on differences between learners and the need to recognize learner differences in teaching. The teachers need to be looking at learners as individuals that possess individual learning styles, preferences or intelligences.

According to Heacox (2002, 36) there are many ways in which the learners can use the multiple intelligences to make learning more effective. First of all the information about a child’s preferences can help him/her to make good choices when asked to decide how to learn something. Also considering personal strengths can give him/her some ideas about how to study more effectively. Multiple intelligences should also be considered when dividing class into groups.

There are several important things that one needs to be aware about MI. One of these is the fact that multiple intelligences are not meant to label the students; they simply give the information about an individuals learning preferences. The successful accomplishment of many students tasks require the use of more than just one intelligence to accomplish the task. Everyone is stronger in some areas (intelligences) than others, each having strengths and limitations. And of course there is no best way to learn. All are important.



### **2.3. Learning strategies and styles**

Learning strategies are specific actions and procedures that pupils use to learn a foreign language. Oxford (as quoted in Richards and Lockhart 1996, 63) defines learning strategies as “specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self directed, and more transferable to new situations”. Richards and Lockhart (1996, 63) also suggest the importance of promoting learners’ awareness and control of effective learning strategies, they discourage the use of ineffective ones.

There have been many attempts to classify learner strategies. Brown and Palinscar (as quoted in Chamot 1987, 72) distinguish metacognitive and cognitive learning strategies. Metacognitive learning strategies include thinking about the learning process, planning for learning, monitoring of learning while it is taking place, and self-evaluation of learning. It can be interpreted as an ability to manage one’s learning process. Cognitive learning strategies encompass manipulation and transformation of the material to be learned and are connected with a specific task and learning objective. It means dealing or interacting directly with what is to be learned. For more information see: Richards and Lockhart (1996), Mareš (1998) and Nunan (1995), who each use the same classification (metacognitive and cognitive learning strategies).

In comparison with learning strategies, Richards and Lockhart (1996, 59) suggest that learning styles (also referred to as cognitive styles) have been defined as characteristic cognitive and physiological behaviours that “serve as relatively stable indicators of how learners perceive, interact with and respond to the learning environment. Mareš (1998, 15) suggests that learning styles are stable characteristics of learner behaviour in the learning situation. Learning styles can also be considered as predispositions to particular ways of approaching learning and are related to personality types. Richards and Lockhart (1996, 59) also believe that differences in people’s learning styles reflect the different ways learners respond to learning situations.

Various authors have identified different ways of classifying the learning styles. In the Czech literature, however, this topic has not been covered sufficiently and there is still a considerable lack of information. The major source is Mareš’s “*Styly učení žáků a studentů*”.

For the purpose of this thesis the special attention will be paid to the classification according to the sensory modes. According to these theories, as Gregory and Chapman (2002, 20) suggest, learners can be divided as:

- Visual: they learn most effectively when they can see what they are studying, they like illustrations and pictures, and colour has an impact on their learning
- Auditory: these learners need to hear the information in order to learn, they absorb spoken and heard material easily and like to be involved in questioning rather than reading materials
- Kinesthetic: they learn best by doing and moving; they like to be physically involved in learning activities
- Tactile/Kinesthetic: They enjoy role-playing and simulations, they like the freedom and opportunity to move about the classroom

Another classification takes into consideration the pupils approach to learning and motivation. This classifies learning styles as surface, deep and strategic. The classification is in details described by Mareš (1988, 39). Another classification that Mareš uses is holists/global learners versus serialists/sequential learners. More information can also be found in Mareš (1988, 25). Nunan (1995, 170) distinguishes four types of learners according to their learning styles. These are: concrete, analytical, communicative and authority-oriented learners.

## 2.4. Aptitude

Foreign language aptitude, on its own, is probably one of the most thoroughly researched areas of language learning (Williams and Burden 1997, Nunan and Lamb 1999). Most language teachers would agree that individual learners differ in the ease with which they learn a foreign language. As Williams and Burden (1997, 94) suggest, it is assumed that their foreign language aptitude, which is the “ability to learn languages”, contributes to the fact. They continue that, because of the possible implications for language teaching, including the possibility of predicting the speed of learning, adjusting pace of teaching, excusing lack of success, there have been many attempts to measure language learning aptitude in a precise way. That is, regardless of the learner’s subjective feelings.

One of the attempts to measure language learning aptitude objectively was the set of researches conducted in the 1950’s and 1960’s by Carroll and Sapon, which was concerned with language aptitude testing.

Carroll and Sapon (as quoted in Ellis, 1985, 112) identified three major components of aptitude:

- Phonetic coding ability: consisting of the ability to distinguish phonemes, perceive and memorize new sounds
- Grammatical sensitivity: the individual’s ability to demonstrate awareness of the syntactical patterning of sentences of a language
- Inductive ability: consists of the ability to notice and identify similarities and differences in both grammatical form and meaning.

However these views were soon challenged. Nunan and Lamb (1999, 208) note that language learning aptitude started to be categorized as an “affective issue”, together with motivation and attitude. It was even openly admitted that “affective factors” are hard to “pin down” and the researchers also admitted that because of the fact that they are difficult to define, they are extremely difficult to measure, and that it is almost impossible to specify the contribution they make to the learning process.

## **2.5. Motivation**

Motivation is one of the most frequently studied issues connected with education. According to Williams and Burden (1997, 94), motivation “does not refer to a fixed trait or characteristics that individuals possess more or less of...” and “is more helpfully used to refer to a state of temporary or prolonged goal-oriented behavior which individuals actively choose to engage in”.

Literature describes different kinds of motivation. A distinction has been made between ‘integrative’ and ‘instrumental’ motivation. Nunan and Lamb (1999, 209) describe integrative motivation as, learning for the desire to identify with the culture, or community, that speaks the language. On the other hand the instrumental motivation means learning a language for purposes of study or career promotion, with the language serving only as an instrument with which to achieve these goals. Ure (1996, 276) suggests that another distinction, which is perhaps more useful for teachers, is that between ‘intrinsic’ motivation (the urge to engage in the learning activity for its own sake) and ‘extrinsic’ (motivation that is derived from external incentives). A third distinction which has been made (Brown 1987, as quoted in Ure 1996, 276) is that between ‘global’, ‘situational’ and ‘task’ motivation. The first one relates to the overall orientation of the learner towards the learning of the foreign language; the second has to do with the context of learning (classroom); and the third with the way the learner approaches the specific task in hand.

According to Gardner (1985, as quoted in Lightbown and Spada 1996, 39), the overall findings show that positive attitudes and motivation are related to success in foreign language learning. But the researchers are not able to identify how motivation affects the learning. They cannot say precisely whether it is the motivation that produces successful learning, or successful learning that enhances motivation. Gardner suggests that, when speaking a new language, the student is adopting some of the identity markers of another cultural group. It depends on student’s attitudes, learning a second language may be a source of enrichment or a source of resentment. If the only reason for learning a second language is external pressure, then internal motivation can prove minimal, with general attitudes towards learning a language possibly proving negative.

## 2.6. Age

Many researchers have been trying to figure out how the “age variable” affects learning. Ure (1996, 286) offers several assumptions about language learning. One of these is that young children learn languages better. But this assumption has not been confirmed by any research. On the contrary, Ellis 1994 (as quoted in Ure 1996, 286) suggests that, given the same amount of exposure to a foreign language, there is some evidence that the older the child the more effectively he or she learns. Ellis suggests that teenagers are probably the best learners overall. As the only exception to the general assumption she suggest that it is pronunciation that is learned more easily by younger children. The biggest discussion here centers on the question if there is a “critical period” for language learning and, if so, when this critical period takes place. According to Lenneberg 1967 (as quoted in Murphy 2000), “critical period” is: “A biologically determined period of life when language can be acquired more easily and beyond which time language is increasingly difficult to acquire.” Leneberg further suggests that, this critical period takes place at the age of puberty. However, for the process of differentiation, the question of age is not so crucial, because the children in a classroom are more or less the same age anyway so the teacher does not to be taking the “age variable” into account.

Obviously other criteria exist that could be considered when talking about individual differences such as gender influences, cultural/ethnic influences, and so on, however, for the purpose of my research, the six characteristics mentioned above are considered to be the crucial ones.

According to Gregory and Chapman (2002, 10) the teachers need to stop expecting the learners to adjust to the learning because the learning should really be adjusted to the learner. And these adjustments should obviously be based on the deep knowledge of the learner.

The knowledge of the learner is the first step towards the successful differentiation. Richards and Rodgers (2001, 115) suggest that after the differences between separate learners are acknowledged, analyzed for particular groups of learner, and accommodated in teaching, then the teaching process becomes most successful.

### **3. DIFFERENTIATION IN ELT**

The concept of differentiation is not the only matter to be discussed in this chapter. This is because the term is connected with other concepts such as individualisation, differentiated learning, differentiated teaching, differentiated classroom, differentiated curriculum and others.

#### **3.1. Individualisation**

As Skalková (1999, 212) suggests, that the principal of individualisation means that the work is adjusted to each learner, with the adjustments being based upon the knowledge of each learner's potential. She continues that it definitely does not mean that all learners work upon the same task individually. Skalková further notes that individualisation is closely connected to differentiation, with the goal of differentiation being to create such learning situations that it enables each learner to find optimal conditions for his or her learning.

Krejčová and Kargerová (2003, 28) define individualisation as a sort of differentiation, during which the heterogeneous classes are maintained and internal differentiation - which respects the individual differences among learners - takes places. So this kind of instruction actually supports the collective learning of pupils with different abilities.

Already, at the beginning of the twentieth century, there were attempts to use the principals of individualisation. An important role in these attempts, as Skalková (1999, 213) suggests, was the twenties and thirties Dalton's plan and Winnet system. Dalton's plan is based upon the theory of J. Dewey and was introduced by an American teacher called H. Parkhaust. Skalková characterizes Dalton's plan as a working method based on the fact that a pupil acquires the curriculum individually, at the pace which suits them. For more information about Dalton's plan see Rohner and Wenke (2000, 2003). Skalková (1999, 213) further suggests that the didactically better-developed form of individualised teaching is considered to be the Winnet system. Considerable individualisation of the working pace enables the above average pupil to absorb the curriculum in a shorter period, while the slower learners acquire it over a longer period, without being forced to do the particular grade twice.

Krejčová and Kagerová (2003, 27) offer several suggestions as to why individualisation is important. They claim that we need to individualise if we want each child:

- To develop his/her personality
- To have a chance to reach his maximum potential
- To experience success and perceive the learning positively
- To be responsible for his/her own learning
- To respect others and to be tolerant to their differences
- To develop his/her interests, to use his/her previous knowledge and experience

### **3.2. Differentiation**

It is obvious that differentiation is a complex conception. Authors are divided in their definitions and define it from various points of view.

Convery (1999, 4) has a definition that may be proposed as a basic one. He describes differentiation as “a process by which teachers provide opportunities for pupils to achieve their potential, working at their own pace through a variety of relevant learning activities.”

Other definitions are more complex.

Carol Ann Tomlinson (2000) describes differentiation as follows:

Differentiation is simply attending to the learning needs of a particular student or small group of students rather than the more typical pattern of teaching the class as though all individuals in it were basically alike. The goal of a differentiated classroom is maximum student growth and individual success. Personal success is measured, at least in part, on individual growth from the learner's starting point--whatever that might be. Put another way, success and personal growth are positively correlated.

Heacox (2002, 5) defines differentiation as:

Differentiation means changing the pace, level, or kind of instruction you provide in response to individual learners needs, styles, or interests. Differentiated instruction specifically responds to students progress on the learning continuum – what they already know and what they need to learn. It responds to their best ways of learning and allows them to demonstrate what they have learnt in ways that capitalize on their strengths and interests.

Theroux (2004 – Differentiating Instruction) defines it thus:

Differentiation means creating multiple paths so that students of different abilities, interests, or learning needs experience equally appropriate ways to absorb, use, develop and present concepts as a part of the daily learning process. It allows students to take greater responsibility and ownership for their learning, and provides opportunities for peer teaching and cooperative learning.

In another words differentiation means getting the best out of every pupil so that they are able to show what they know, what they understand, and what they can do. It also means having high expectations for all students and adjusting learning so that their needs are met- from the struggler right through to the most gifted student.

General principals of differentiation are neatly summarized by Tomlinson (1995, 9) who refers to them as “set of beliefs”.

- The differences in students are significant enough to make a major impact on what they need to learn, the pace at which they need to learn it, and the support they need from teachers and others to learn it well.
- Students of the same age usually differ in several of these aspects: in their learning styles, their readiness, their interests, their life circumstances and their experience
- Students will learn best when supportive adults push them slightly beyond the point at which they can work without assistance.
- Students will learn best when they can make a connection between the curriculum and their personal interest and life experiences.
- Students learn more effectively when classrooms and schools create a sense of community in which students feel significant and respected.
- The goal of any school should be to maximize the capacity of each individual student

### **3.3. Differentiation is NOT**

Quite a lot has been written about what differentiation is, how we differentiate in a classroom and so on. However, one needs to be careful to avoid some common misunderstandings about differentiation. Authors such as Heacox 2002, Forsten 2002,



Tomlinson 2000, 1999, 1995 and Gregory and Chapman 2002, warn that differentiation is NOT:

- Grading particular students harder than others
- Allowing students who finish a required task earlier than others to play games
- Having more advanced learners do extra work, book reports etc.
- Assigning more work, at the same level, to high achieving students
- Grouping students into cooperative learning groups that do not provide for individual accountability, or do not focus upon work that is new to all of them
- Focusing upon students weaknesses and ignoring their strengths
- A different lesson plan for each student each day
- Students spending a significant amount of time teaching material which they have already mastered to others who have not yet mastered it

Tomlinson (1995, 6) suggests that many teachers think that they actually differentiate teaching when they ask some students, who seem to understand the topic that is being taught quite well, to answer more complex questions in a discussion, or to share advanced information on a topic, or grade some students a little harder or easier on an assignment in response to the students perceived ability and effort, or let students select which questions to answer or skip on a test. Tomlinson claims that such modifications definitely reflect a teacher's awareness of differences in student profiles and, to that degree, the modifications are movement in the direction of differentiation. These modifications are not necessarily ineffective or bad strategies on the teachers' part, rather she calls them "micro-differentiation", or tailoring, suggesting that they are often just not enough.

### **3.4. External and internal differentiation**

From the organizational point of view we can classify differentiation as external and internal.

According to Kasíková and Valenta (1994, 9) the External differentiation can either be:

- Differentiation through school (type of institution), in this case for example it can mean the parallel institutions, such as elementary school and gymnasium.
- Differentiation through the homogenous classes (within one school)

These classes can either be:

- a.) Homogeneous classes according to quantitative criteria.
- b.) Homogeneous classes according to qualitative criteria.

Šimončičová (1985, 14) suggest that quantitative differentiation occurs through measuring the child's IQ, the results of their test scores, and grades. Cipro (1966, 95) even mentions the term "exclusively quantitative differentiation", which estimates the general intelligence as the only factor that affects the successful learning in any field or subject.

On the other hand, the qualitative differentiation respects children's different abilities, skills and interests. It is also based on previous experience and learning style.

Internal differentiation means differentiation within one class. Kasíková and Valenta (1994, 9) use the term intra-class grouping. In this case the criteria of division can again be either qualitative or quantitative, and of course the combination of both brings the best results.

### **3.5. Differentiated classroom**

If we look at the elementary schools in general, we always find pupils who struggle with learning, others who are gifted and perform beyond expectations, with the remainder somewhere in between. Within these three groups individuals also learn in different ways and have differing interests. To be able to meet the needs of all the students teachers need to differentiate in their classrooms.

There are visible differences between differentiated classrooms and classrooms where no differentiation at all takes place. Tomlinson (1995) and Heacox (2002) suggest that teachers who attempt to apply differentiation in their classrooms should keep several basic principles readily to mind. However general these principals may seem, they are fully relevant to ELT as well. Firstly, they need to use many instructional arrangements and to try to avoid whole class instructions most of the time. There should not be a uniform way of assessment; instead teachers need to be able to assess students in multiple ways. Assessment needs to be ongoing and diagnostic in order to understand

how to make instruction more responsive to learners' needs. Time shall be used flexibly in accordance with student needs. Students' differences should be studied as a basis for planning and should not be simply marked or acted upon when problematic. Excellence needs to be defined in large measure by individual growth from a starting point. Students should regularly be offered interest-based learning choices with multi-option assignments frequently used. The teacher should not be the one who solves the problems all the time; students need to help each other, and the teacher, to solve the problems. Multiple materials need to be provided, not just a single text.

Tomlinson (1995, 35), in her study about differentiated classrooms, identified four characteristics that shape teaching and learning in an effective differentiated classroom. These are summarized below:

1. The assessment is ongoing and is built into the curriculum. Teachers realize that not all students need a given task or segment of study. Also, they continuously try to assess students readiness and interest, provide additional support and guidance when needed and they extend students exploration when there are indications that an individual student is ready to move ahead.
2. In a differentiated classroom, flexible grouping is consistently used. Students often work in many instructional patterns. It can either be in pairs, in groups, or individually. Whole-group teaching is usually used for introducing new ideas, when planning and when sharing learning outcomes. Sometimes the tasks are constructed to match the learning style, at other times they can be interest-based.
3. Instruction is concept-focused and principle-driven. This means that all students need to have the opportunity to explore and apply the key concepts of the subject being studied. They further need to understand the key principles upon which the study is based. Such teaching enables struggling learners to grasp and utilise powerful ideas and, at the same time, encourages the advanced learner to expand their understanding and application of the key concepts and principles. This kind of teaching stresses understanding, or sense making, rather than retention and regulation of fragmented bits of information.
4. In a differentiated classroom the students are active explorers, with the teachers guiding their explorations. There are varied activities going on simultaneously in a differentiated classroom and that is why the teacher works more as a guide, or facilitator of learning, than as a dispenser of information. Students need to realise that they are

responsible for their own work and for planning, because such centeredness offers them greater ownership of their learning.

The ten characteristics that Heacox (2002, 12) suggests as being the most important for creating a supportive classroom environment for differentiation are listed below. She suggests that a supportive classroom environment:

- Promotes acceptance of differences
- Affirms that all students have learning strengths
- Acknowledges that students learn at different rates and in different ways
- Recognises that for work to be fair, it must sometimes be different
- Acknowledges that success means different things to different people
- Allows students to work with varied study partners for various purposes
- Recognises that the key to motivation is interest, and that all students have different interests
- Promotes personal responsibility for learning
- Supports and celebrates student success in challenging work
- Honors everyones work

To summarise, in a differentiated classroom every student has an opportunity to succeed. A single experience with success is enough to encourage a student to approach new learning situations with confidence and motivation. In a differentiated classroom there is less frustration due to confusion or boredom, plus there should also be a balance between student-selected and teacher-assigned tasks and working arrangements. This balance will vary to a certain degree for each student, based upon the nature of the task, the classroom conditions and so on.

If the teacher starts with differentiation in his, or her class, it is also quite important to help students and their parents to understand, and feel comfortable with, the new make-up of the classroom. After an initial period of uncertainty, most students and parents respond quite positively to a setting that children as individuals and where learning is active and engaging.

### **3.5.1. Heterogeneous versus homogenous classrooms**

According to Stover (2004), differentiation is most necessary in heterogeneous classrooms. He continues that one could suggest that there should be classrooms in which every student is on the same level and thus avoid the need for differentiation. But

there are several reasons why it is not beneficial to have whole classes in which every student is on the same cognitive level (homogeneous classrooms).

Amongst those reasons Stover (2004) suggest that, it is necessary to consider that once a child is given a label and tracked into homogenous classroom, he/she tends to remain stuck on that track. Teachers with homogenous classes risk developing limited expectations for their students. Even though the students may be at a similar cognitive level, they may vary greatly in the way they learn. Also those homogeneous classrooms tend to have a limited variety of social interactions, though even within them there will certainly be differences amongst students. No two people learn in the precisely the same way no matter how similar their cognitive levels are. All the people choose different paths of learning based upon our previous experiences, prior knowledge, learning styles and comfort levels.

On the other hand, Stover (2004) claims that a heterogeneous classroom can offer a number of great benefits, for example that the students are exposed to a variety of types of people, thus adding to their social experience. Moreover, students are not being labeled, there are loud and clear differences between them in a heterogeneous class, therefore teachers will be more likely to try to acknowledge these differences, unlike in a homogenous classroom where the assumption exists that a solitary method of teaching will fit all students.

### **3.6. Differentiated learning**

According to Convery and Coyle (1991, 1):

Any group of learners, whether it is a set, a stream, a band or a mixed ability class, is made up of a number of very different individuals. As teachers, our job is to get to know these individuals very well in order to be able to match learning as closely as possible to their needs and abilities.

Convery and Coyle (1999, 4) further suggest that if teachers keep in mind that each learner is an individual, it becomes plainly evident that learning is an individual process. Each pupil has his own learning needs and learning styles, as well as learning preferences. No two children learn in an identical manner, therefore identifying and

understanding pupils' learning preferences is therefore essential for being able to create a differentiated learning scenario in ELT classroom. Differentiated learning is a construct, which has been used in classrooms to successfully work with students who have different abilities. It is inexcusable for teachers to think that all students in their classroom can be taught with the same curriculum, with the same outcome. Differentiated learning provides students with individualised learning, tailored to their specific needs.

It is important that students are offered learning tasks which are appropriate to their learning needs, rather than just to the grade and subject being taught. For those teachers who start with differentiated learning in their classroom, differentiation may begin by varying the content, process or product for each group of learners. Differentiation in content, process and product will be discussed in the next chapter.

### **3.7. Differentiated teaching**

Hall (2004) suggests that differentiated teaching requires teachers to be flexible in their approach to teaching, plus they need to be able to adjust the curriculum, and the way they present the information to the learners, rather than to expect students to modify themselves to suit the curriculum. She continues that differentiated teaching is based upon the premise that instructional approaches vary and are adapted in relation to individual and diverse students in the classroom. Hall also claims that in order to differentiate teaching it is necessary to recognise the varying background knowledge, preferences in learning and interest within students and then to react responsively. In her opinion, through differentiated teaching, students of differing abilities may be approached in the same class.

Teachers may sometimes worry that in order to start with differentiated teaching they will need to throw out all of their planning and expertise of previous years. This is a great mistake, teachers simply need to start at the point at which they already are, because many of them have been using differentiation without even realising it. Good differentiation means that the teacher examines how well he/she is providing variety and challenge in learning, how they identify who among the students is best served by the

current plans, then modifies these plans as needed in order that more students can be successful learners.

Tomlinson (1995, 7) mentions one important fact - that is that differentiated teaching needs to be more qualitative than quantitative. In her opinion many teachers incorrectly assume that differentiating teaching means giving some students more work to do, others less. Although such approaches to differentiation may seem to have an adequate rationale, they are usually ineffective.

The reason why ELT needs to be differentiated is because there is no evidence that treating all students alike makes them all equally successful. On the other hand, if we engage the students at the knowledge level they are, addressing their needs, their learning will become more effective and efficient. When teachers try to differentiate they need to ask themselves on what basis should they differentiate. Different authors would probably identify different ways of differentiating the teaching. Next section will present several strategies that can be used for differentiating of the teaching. Later chapter four will suggest how can three basic elements of the curriculum (content, process and product) be differentiated.

### **3.7.1. Strategies for differentiating teaching**

Heacox (2002), Gregory and Chapman (2002), plus other authors, offer a list of what they call strategies through which teaching may be differentiated. They suggest that these strategies are useful when a teacher wants to focus upon individual or small group needs within a unit, or topic of study, explored by all members of a class. The ones which are summarised below are the basic ones that help in differentiating teaching.

**Acceleration/Deceleration:** Accelerating or decelerating the pace at which students move through the curriculum is the first method of differentiating teaching. Students demonstrating a high level of communicative competence can work through the curriculum at a faster pace. On the other hand students who are experiencing difficulties may need modified activities that will allow them to work at a slower pace, yet still be able succeed.

**Compacting Curriculum:** Compacting the curriculum means that the teacher assesses the knowledge, skills and attitudes, providing alternative activities for those students who have already mastered curriculum content. Students who demonstrate that they do not require instruction move on to tiered problem solving activities, while others receive instruction.

**Tiered Activities:** These are series of related tasks of varying complexity, all relating to essential understanding and key skills that students need to acquire. Teachers may assign these activities, as an alternative way of reaching the same goals, taking into account individual student needs.

**Buddy-Studies:** An idea which permits two or three students to work together on a project. The expectation is that all may share the research and organisation of information, yet with each student completing an individual product in order to demonstrate the learning that has taken place and be accountable for their own planning, time management and individual accomplishment.

**Learning Centres:** Such centres may contain both differentiated and compulsory activities, though a learning centre is not necessarily differentiated unless the activities are varied by complexity, taking into account different student ability and readiness. It is important that students understand what is expected of them at the learning centre, with the structure provided varying according to student independent work habits.

**Learning Contracts:** This is a written agreement between teacher and student, which results in the learner working independently. The contract helps students to set daily and weekly work goals and develop management skills. It also helps the teacher to keep track of each student's progress. The actual assignments will vary according to specific students needs.

**Adjusting Questions:** During large group discussion activities, teachers direct the higher level questions to the students who are best equipped to handle them and to adjust questions accordingly for student with greater needs. All students are answering important questions that require them to think, but the questions are targeted towards their ability or readiness level.

Obviously there are many other strategies for differentiating instructions; these suggested above are the basic ones.



### **3.8. Differentiated curriculum**

Tomlinson (1995, 1999) defines curriculum as:

The subject matter that teachers and students cover in their studies. It describes and specifies the methods, structure, organization, balance and presentation of the content. It is a plan of instruction that details what students are to know, how they are to learn it, what the teacher's role is, and the context in which learning and teaching will take place.

Průcha, Walterová and Mareš (2001, 110 - my own translation) claim that curriculum has three basic meanings. Firstly it is training program, project or plan. Secondly it is the duration of a study and its content. And thirdly it is all the experience that children gain at schools during the activities connected with school; planning and assessing of this experience.

Farmer (1996) suggests that curriculum differentiation is a broad term that refers to “the need to tailor environments and practises to create appropriately different learning experience for different students.”

It is very important for teachers to differentiate curriculum in response to their students needs. Since differentiation assumes that learners possess different levels of knowledge and experience and different curricular goals, learners may need to experience the curriculum from varying entry points. The goal of differentiation is to make sure that the curriculum is engaging and appropriate for all learners.

The biggest mistake is that the teachers often do not start with “where the children are” in terms of level of knowledge, but instead with the teaching of the requirements of a pre-determined, time-allocating curriculum.

Obviously students will learn best when they can make a connection between the curriculum and their personal interests and life experiences. According to Nancy Bosch (2001 – Differentiated Curriculum) there are several principles of differentiated curriculum that should be followed by teachers in order to make learning more effective. Those principals include the development of independent or self-directed study skills, allowing for in-depth learning of a self selected topic within the area of study, integrating basic skills and higher-level thinking into the curriculum, focusing

upon open-ended tasks, developing research skills and methods, encouraging the development of products that use new techniques, materials and forms and encourage the development of self-understanding. She further claims that differentiation is not about more classwork or home work, it is about taking a regular curriculum topic and exploring it in greater depth and complexity.

Tomlinson (1999, 11) identifies three basic elements of the curriculum that need to be differentiated in order for all students to be able to learn effectively. These three elements are content, process and product, all of which will be dealt with in detail in the following chapter.

#### **4. DIFFERENTIATION IN CONTENT, PROCESS AND PRODUCT**

Convery and Coyle (1999, 6) suggest that, since individual authors have identified different ways of differentiating, to a certain extent it does not matter too much which type of differentiation is being used. The important thing is that the teacher tries to match learners and activities. Various authors suggest plenty of areas of learning that can be differentiated, but for the purpose of this thesis it was suggested that Tomlinson (1995, 1999, 2000) be studied as a basic source. She claims that there are several key elements that guide differentiation in the education environment and further identifies three basic elements of the curriculum that can be differentiated. These are Content, Process and Product. Tomlinson continues to report that, by differentiating these three elements, teachers offer different approaches to what students learn, how they learn it, and how they demonstrate what they have learned.

Maker (1982, as quoted in Farmer 1996) presents a model of differentiated curriculum that suggests that curriculum needs to be differentiated in terms of learning environment, content, process and product. Renzulli (1997 as quoted in Farmer) agrees with differentiating content, process and product, but adds two further elements of the curriculum, these being classroom and teacher.

Theroux (2004 – Differentiating Instruction) also agrees with differentiating the three elements mentioned above and suggests that a teacher who is beginning to differentiate learning in the classroom may begin differentiation by varying the content, process or product for each group in the class. Later, when the teacher becomes more confident using differentiation, he may start differentiating in all three elements of the teaching process for some students. The essential curricula concepts may be the same for the whole class, but the complexity of the content, learning activities and product will vary so that all students are being challenged and no students will become frustrated.

##### **4.1. Content**

Tomlinson (1999, 11) characterizes content as the knowledge, skills and attitudes we want children to learn and the materials, or mechanisms, through which this is accomplished. Content encompasses the means by which students will become

acquainted with information (through textbooks, videos, computer programmes, lectures and so on).

Content is what a student should come to know (facts), understand (concepts and principles), and be able to do (skills) as a result of a given segment of study (a lesson, a learning experience, a unit). (Tomlinson 1999, 43)

Heacox (2002, 10) suggests that teachers differentiate content:

- a.) When teacher pre-assess students' skills and knowledge, then match learners with appropriate activities according to readiness.
- b.) When teacher give students choices about topics to explore in greater depth.
- c.) When teacher provide student with basic and advanced resources that match their current levels of understanding.

Theroux (2004- Strategies for Differentiating) notes that in order to differentiate content, the students need to be pre-tested. By doing this, the teacher can identify those students who do not require direct instruction. Students who do understand the concept can skip the instruction step and go on to apply the concepts. This strategy was described earlier in the text and is called "compacting the curriculum".

This pre-assessment or pre-testing, can involve any method, strategy, or process which could be used to determine student's current level of readiness (prior mastery of knowledge, understanding or skills). This allows the tutor to meet students at their level of knowledge. The teacher can use, for example, devices such as a pre-test, a checklist, observation, questioning and so on.

As Tomlinson (1995, 46) suggests, some students will be ready for more complex, multifaceted, abstract, and independent approaches to exploring or absorbing ideas, whilst other students may still require fairly simple, concrete and single-faceted approaches to the same information, or ideas.

Written below are the three examples of how content may be differentiated in a class where not all of the students need the same information, presented in the same way, over the same time span. This is a conclusion drawn from the chapter two section that deals with individual differences. These three types of differentiation are: differentiation by text, by task and by difficulty. As Convery and Coyle (1999, 6) suggest, in practice there is a good deal of overlap between these so therefore any activity may simultaneously involve two, or even three, of the above.

#### **4.1.1. Differentiation by text**

Differentiation by text is the first way offered by Convery and Coyle (1996, 7) for differentiating the content. Here students are working with spoken or written materials at different levels of difficulty, yet working on the same subject, or topic area. The teacher ensures that all pupils cover the same ground even though he/she is matching different levels of complexity to the students differing individual needs. For example, as Convery and Coyle (1996, 7) suggest, the teacher can use an authentic recording of an weather forecast which may be appropriate for the learners with higher level of communicative competence, yet other learners could listen to a commercially-produced cassette recording of an imaginary weather forecast. Another suggestion is to use authentic articles from a British newspaper or magazine for the more successful learners, with others using an article from a course book, possibly further adapted by the teacher to support the learners that require more help.

#### **4.1.2. Differentiation by task**

Another possibility for differentiating content is through the differentiation of the task. Convery and Coyle (1996, 7) suggest that in this way the learners are working on the same text, but the tasks which they are required to fulfill can be graded in difficulty and matched to differing needs and abilities. One simple example of a differentiated task is, when taking part in a listening exercise, the learners with lower levels of communicative competence are required to identify only a minimum amount of information, whereas the more advanced learners may be asked to identify more information, or could be set a more open-ended task. Also, when performing a reading activity, the weaker learners may be assigned the tasks whereby they read for the gist, without needing to understand all of the words in the text. Meanwhile the more advanced learners can be assigned to search for specific information.

Tomlinson (1999, 51) suggests a simple method by which to differentiate a grammar lesson by task. All students will be working with the past tense of the verbs and working with the same text. The first group, who are having difficulty with grammatical concepts in general, will work with pattern drills in which most of a sentence is in English. However, each sentence uses a verb in native language and students must

supply the correct form of the past tense in English. The teacher ensures that the missing verbs are regular. A second, more advanced group has a similar activity, but they will encounter a greater number and complexity of missing words, including a few irregular verbs. Another group of students work with the same sentences as the second group, but in this instance virtually all of the sentences are in mother tongue and must be translated into English.

#### **4.1.3. Differentiation by difficulty**

As mentioned earlier, Convery and Coyle (1996, 9) suggest, that when considering differentiation by difficulty, there is some overlap with differentiation by text. According to Convery and Coyle (1996, 9), this kind of differentiation may be used if the teacher wants a particular group of learners to study something, which would not be appropriate for all students (this could be via a more complex point of grammar, the reinforcement of a point covered in an earlier lesson and so on.) The teacher then groups the learners by ability and work is then organized to match the ability needs of each group.

For this kind of differentiation by difficulty it is extremely important to pre-test students in order to discover which level of knowledge they are. Tomlinson (1999, 11) uses a term “readiness”. According to her “readiness” involves ascertaining the student’s prior mastery of knowledge (facts), understandings (concepts and principles) and skills relative to a unit of instruction, subject or course. Readiness shows how well a students knowledge, understandings and skills match a topic, or tasks.

#### **4.2. Process**

Heacox (2002, 11) defines process as the “how” of teaching. It is a presentation of the content, including the activities for the learners, the questions that are asked, as well as the teaching methods that are used.

Theroux (2004 – Differentiating Instruction) defines it thus:

Differentiating the process means varying learning activities, or strategies, in order to provide appropriate methods for students to explore the concepts. It is important give students alternative paths to manipulate the ideas embedded within the concept.

Heacox (2002, 11) notes that the teacher can differentiate the process by adding greater complexity, or abstractness to tasks. He/she can engage students in critical and creative thinking, or can increase the variety of ways in which they are required to learn. Whilst the content remains stable, the ways by which students are able to learn or process the information are different.

Tomlinson (1995, 53) mentions one important thing, this being that when students encounter new ideas or information, they need time to run the input through their own filters of meaning. As they try to analyse, apply, question, or solve a problem, they need to make sense of it before it becomes “theirs”. She continues that:

This processing, or sense making, is an essential component of instruction because without it, students either loose the ideas, or confuse them. Any effective activity is essentially a sense-making process, designated to help a student progress from a current point of understanding.

Tomlinson (1995, 53) further suggests that students process and make sense of ideas and information most easily when their classroom activities:

- Have a clear purpose
- Focus on a few key ideas
- Guide them in understanding the ideas and the relationship among them
- Offer opportunities to explore ideas through varied modes (visual, kinesthetic, spatial, musical)
- Help them relate new information to previous understandings
- Match their level of readiness

Presented below are examples of how the process might be differentiated. Five various types of differentiation are suggested. These are: differentiation by support, by interest, by time, by flexible grouping plus interaction patterns and by learning styles.

#### **4.2.1. Differentiation by support**

As Convery and Coyle (1996, 8) suggest, the teacher can ensure that differentiation takes place through the amount of additional support offered to learners of all abilities

in terms of time, resources and tasks. However, they also suggest that this support does not need to be in the form of extra teachers, or assistants, in the classroom, as this would probably not be possible at all schools.

The additional support can be provided in various ways. Convery and Coyle (1996, 8) suggest that if students work independently on a task, with instructions in the target language, the teacher may prepare a support card to which students can refer without having to go directly to him or her. This card may be in the form of a checklist, perhaps containing symbols or mother tongue when appropriate. Other forms of support that can be mentioned are posters with common classroom instructions, posters with useful phrases and new vocabulary etc. When considering the language lesson, the basic way to provide additional support when children work on an exercise is to give them the possibility of using dictionaries. Also, when the students are working in groups the method enables the teacher to work with a small section, or any individual that needs extra help, or extra revising of what has already been covered.

#### **4.2.2. Differentiation by interest**

Convery and Coyle (1999, 9) suggest that the learners who are offered an opportunity to study something they are really interested in will be more highly motivated. The impact of motivation on foreign language learning is also discussed in chapter two. Learners need to be allowed to deal with something that interests them personally therefore they should be given a degree of choice in selecting activities. This choice can include, for example, choice in the skill involved (listening, speaking, reading, writing), choice in the use of equipment (video, listening station, computer), or choice in topic or subject matter. The learners motivated by the freedom of choice may complete more tasks than they would normally do.

#### **4.2.3. Differentiation by time**

During the different activities within the lessons pupils will complete their work at different moments, because not all learners work at the same pace. Coping with the pupil who always finishes first and the pupil who never seems to complete a task can be



equally difficult. Listed below are several ways that may help when dealing with this problem, suggestions formulated by Tomlinson 1999, Heacox 2002, and Gregory and Chapman 2002.

1. The teacher should always set one or two tasks that he/she knows that everyone will complete by the end of the session. This can help to prevent the feelings of failure in pupils who never manage to complete a piece of work.
2. The teacher can try to match pupils according to the pace of their work. In some cases a faster worker can help a slower one. On the other hand, the teacher may prefer homogenous groupings, which allow groups to take more work.
3. It is quite handy to have a range of activities, related to the subject matter, available for pupils who tend to finish early. This gives them something to get on with and prevents them from distracting others who are still working. Such material might include various quizzes, crosswords, word searches and so on.

#### **4.2.4. Differentiation by flexible grouping**

Flexible grouping is often needed to facilitate differentiated teaching. The term “flexible grouping” is extensively used by Heacox (2002), Tomlinson (1995), Gregory and Chapman (2002), Forsten, Grant and Hollas (2002), and others.

Gregory and Chapman (2002, 70) suggest that everyone has both strong and weak areas of ability and interest. It is necessary to place students in groups that maximize their instructional time based on their performance levels. Gregory and Chapman (2002, 70) note that:

Grouping flexibly allows students to move according to their demonstrated performance, interests and varied knowledge base level. Students are grouped to meet their instructional, emotional and personal needs. If a group of students gets along socially they will usually meet the instructional expectations.

Heacox (2002, 85) even suggests that the flexible use of student groups is at the very heart of differentiated teaching. She says that, when grouping flexibly, teachers create instructional groups and prescribe specific activities that respond to students learning needs. Flexible grouping is not used daily, but as it is needed. The needs and circumstances determine who students work with. Group size can vary, depending upon

the number of students with similar learning needs. Flexible groups shall be formed when some students need more time spent on instruction, or on a basic application activity, while others require a more advanced or fresh content. It is also necessary to realize that in order to break the pattern for students who tend to be placed in either re-teaching or advanced groups, to form groups based on interest or learning preferences from time to time.

Grouping should not be simply a choice, nor a fun alternative to normal whole-class, or individual, activities. It is necessary for teachers to continually think about how the ways that they organize classroom activities provide opportunities for interaction that will support and encourage learning. The activities need to be structured in a way that students have opportunities to interact in wide variety of participation structures.

Heacox (2002, 88) further suggests that it is quite important to try to make this kind of differentiation invisible to students, in order to avoid feelings of hurt. She says that the key to making differentiation invisible to the pupil is to vary teacher's instructional strategies. Sometimes the teacher should select the groups for them, but sometimes they should have the opportunity to select their own grouping or a partner.

Flexible grouping is closely connected to what authors such as Richard and Lockhart (1994, 146) refer to as interaction patterns. They talk about individual work, pair work and group work and suggest that through interacting with other student in a pairs, students are given the opportunity to draw on their linguistic resources in a non-threatening situation. Indeed, it is through this kind of interaction that researchers believe many aspects of both linguistic and communicative competence are developed. Compared to pair work, Gregory and Chapman (2002, 71) suggest that using groups may also be extremely effective as members of the small group work together in cooperation. By using group's ideas and talents their learning will accelerate.

#### **4.2.5. Differentiation by learning styles**

Heacox (2002, 11) says that in the classroom, where the teaching is differentiated by process, the way the tutor teaches reflects the learning styles and preferences of his students.

As described in chapter two, individual learners have their own preferred learning styles, and also when talking about multiple intelligences each student has stronger and weaker intelligences. Convery and Coyle (1996, 10) suggest that by varying the way in which new material is presented the teacher is providing opportunities for learners to respond in different ways. That is why teachers need to provide a variety of approaches and activities to ensure that a variety of preferences are catered for over a period of time.

Convery and Coyle (1996, 10) suggest several possible ways in which new material can be presented. These include, for example: real objects, posters, video, listening exercises, slides, flashcards, assistant or any other visitor, symbols, mime, ICT and others.

Heacox (2002, 36) suggests that information about learner's preferences can help teachers make good choices when deciding how the student will learn something, or when assigning him/her a choice of project. Thinking about individual student strength can give the teacher ideas on how they might study more effectively.

For example visual learners may need to see both pictures and written text in order to help them remember new vocabularies. On the other hand auditory learners would prefer to hear the vocabulary several times in order to acquire it. We should also take learning styles into account when creating groups. A group project can be extremely successful if all the pupils in the group have similar learning styles. For example a group, where all of the learners are kinesthetic learners, could make a successful skit, or perform a fairytale, in foreign language. On the other hand, sometimes it can be interesting to mix people with different learning styles together in one group. Tasks might be divided so that each member is working in a preferred area. For example a person who is visual learner does the writing, while the person who is the auditory learner does the speaking. The project may be more successful if everyone gets to work in a way that he or she prefers.

### **4.3. Product**

Product is how students demonstrate what they have learned; it is the outcome of teaching.

Tomlinson (1999, 43) characterizes product as a “vehicle” through which a student shows (and extends) what he or she has come to understand, and is able to demonstrate, as a result of a considerable segment of learning.

Heacox’s (2002, 11) definition of product is more complex:

Products are the end results of learning. For example, a product may be something tangible, like a report, brochure, or model; it may be verbal, like a dialogue, speech, or debate; or it may involve action, like a skit, mock trial, or dance. Products reflect what student have understood and proven able to apply. You may ask students to create products that match their learning strengths or you may ask them to practice working in the areas that are not their strengths.

Thoroux (2004 – Differentiating Instruction) suggests that by differentiating the product we mean varying the complexity of the product that students create and through which they demonstrate the mastery of the concepts. The learners with lower level of communicative competence may have reduced performance expectations, while on the other hand the more advanced students may be asked to produce work that requires more complex or advanced thinking. There are many sources of alternative product ideas that a teacher can use and it is definitely motivating for students to occasionally have choice of product.

#### **4.3.1. Differentiation by product**

Convery and Coyle (1999, 7) suggest some interesting ideas about how to differentiate by product. For example when students are asked to write a letter to a friend the results tend to differ, from a few lines of factual information, to a more substantial piece of descriptive and imaginative nature. The most important thing that the teacher needs to realize when differentiating by outcome is to decide in advance what the expected outcomes will be and to communicate those to learners. For example students can be asked to write a letter containing approximately 150 words, with set assessment criteria such as:

All of you must:

- use at least five of the new vocabulary items we studied this week
- use the imperfect tense correctly
- use the model provided to help you

Some of you might

- be creative and humorous
- extend and develop the model provided

Convery and Coyle (1997, 8) further suggest that it is important for all of the students feel that their work is appreciated by their teacher and that they have the opportunity to share their work in the classroom.

Convery and Coyle (1997, 16) also offer another example of differentiated worksheet, where tasks are graded in difficulty.

Task one may require learners simply complete sentences by filling in gaps

Task two may require learners to write sentences based on a model

Task three may require learners to write their own sentences and is open-ended.

This chapter has presented the ways of differentiating content, process and product and will be used as the basis for the following practical section. It has suggested nine possible ways of differentiating by content, process and product and the activities observed will be analysed from these points of view. Obviously there exist overlaps between certain types of differentiation, while certain activities may include differentiation in more areas.

## **5. THE PRACTICAL SECTION**

### **5.1. Introduction to the practical section**

The practical section of this thesis provides an overview of the findings from my research. These were conducted in English language teaching classrooms at elementary schools in Pardubice. My initial idea on what to concentrate upon within my research arose from my clinical year experiences, which took place in Sweden. Differentiated teaching and learning was heavily used there and I felt that the teaching and learning at elementary schools in Sweden were extremely effective. This raised my curiosity of how differentiation is used at Czech elementary schools.

The purpose of this study has been to observe and examine if, and to what extent, differentiation in content, process and product takes place in the English lessons at our elementary schools. The research tries to answer three questions.

1. To what extent is the differentiation used in lessons in general? In other words, how many observed activities included differentiated learning and how much time in the lessons did differentiation actually occurred.
2. How much is differentiation used in content, process and product? This means comparing these three elements.
3. By what means are these three elements (content, process, product) being differentiated.

The parameters of this research does not allow space for the identification of the causes of the use/non-use of differentiation. Although that would definitely be an interesting topic for further research, the real purpose of this study is simply to describe the situation at Czech elementary schools. I am not attempting to discover whether or not the lack of differentiation at our schools is due to the unwillingness of teachers to differentiate, due to the curriculum, due to the lack of time or, due to other reasons.

I believe that my findings will provide the reader with a number of interesting insights into differentiation. It is worth noting that the study provided me with an opportunity to analyse how learning and teaching is differentiated, comparing the situation with elementary schools in Sweden. It has definitely helped me to improve my teaching

abilities and aided me in appreciation of which areas of teaching needs to be improved at our elementary schools.

## **5.2. Organisation of research**

The primary method used in this research was observation, carried out over a six-week period beginning November 12<sup>th</sup> 2004 and finishing on the 20<sup>th</sup> December 2004. This research took place at four different institutions, all elementary schools, and included observation of six English language teachers. All schools were situated in a city with about one hundred thousand inhabitants. Three of the establishments were ordinary housing estate schools, the other situated in the suburbs. One of them offered extended sports education and another provided extended math education. Neither of the schools had languages groups which were divided according to any quantitative or qualitative factors, nor was there any internal differentiation. It follows that the total number of lessons observed by me was thirty, five for each of the six teachers. No special criteria was employed in choosing of those whose lessons were observed, though all were women aged between 28 and 40. The primary individuals involved in the study were elementary school pupils aged between the 9 and 15, fourth grade to ninth grade.

## **5.3. Research method**

The method used to collect data was a non-participant observation. After consulting the literature: Gavora (2000), Nunan (1992), and Richards and Lockhart (1996), observation was decided upon as the best method for this kind of research. Each lesson was recorded on its entirety on a sheet of paper. This recording sheet (see Appendix one) includes such factors as the number of the pupils that were present, when the lesson took place (date and the time of the day), the name of the teacher plus that of the elementary school, and the textbook that was used. It then described what was happening during each phase of the lesson, what did the pupils do, also the teacher, what the activity was about, the aim of the activity and also the timing of the activity. There was a continual use of a stopwatch. Each phase of the lesson was carefully timed and measured, as were the activities when differentiation occurred. On completion of any observation an analysing session always subsequently took place.

Data from the recording sheets were analysed and transmitted into a structured observation sheet (see Appendix two) consisting of several columns. It was divided according to different activities which took place. The individual activities were then each examined from three points of view, namely content, process and product, with the three elements then further divided into subsections. The content was examined to see whether there was differentiation by task, differentiation by text, or differentiation by difficulty. The process was further examined for differentiation by support, differentiation by interest, differentiation by time, differentiation by flexible grouping, or differentiation by learning style. The final product was examined just from one point of view - differentiation by outcome. If an activity was differentiated by any of the nine ways mentioned above, it was then also examined for the number of minutes spent in that particular activity, whether it was during the whole activity, or just part of it.

After observation of all thirty lessons and analysing of all collected data was completed, the findings were transmitted into a chart with the observed data (see Appendix three) in order to be easier to work with later. This chart proved to be quite effective when constructing the graphs and calculating the results.

Before the first lesson to be officially observed I actually conducted two pilot observations. I used my two video recordings from the clinical year and made the observation on my own teaching performances. In these cases I was able to record all of the information to the structured observation sheet (Appendix two) immediately, because I could pause the videotape whenever more time was needed to analyse the situation or, if experiencing problems with timing the activities or, if extra time was required to describe the kind of differentiation that was taking place. When making the second video recording I decided not to use the pause, considering it an impossible way to conduct the observation. The difficulty was due to not realizing during particular activities what to fill into the columns and whether differentiation took place or not. I was under a continual time pressure and needed longer to analyse the situation in my head. For this reason I found it necessary to change the method of conducting these observations. Matters improved when I simply put down on a separate piece of paper everything that was occurring in the lessons, and later analysing it. Summing up the observation included three steps:

- 1) Recording the whole lesson on a recording sheet (Appendix one)



- 2) Analysing the recording sheet and transmitting the data into the structured observation sheet (Appendix two)
- 3) Creating a chart from all data obtained (Appendix three)

The next chapter will present the data that was collected during the observations. The data presentation will be divided into three sections, the first showing how much differentiation was used in the lessons in general, the second presenting how the differentiation was used in terms of content, process and product, with the last section displaying which types of differentiation appeared in these three areas (content, process and product.) The fact that the data from all three subsections are interconnected means that they will be interpreted together in the chapter seven. The conclusion will follow in the final chapter.

## 6. PRESENTATION OF OBTAINED DATA

### 6.1. To what extent is the learning/teaching differentiated

Firstly, the research tries to answer the question relating to what extent learning and teaching is differentiated at Czech elementary schools. As mentioned above, thirty lessons were observed, within which 102 activities took place—an average of three to four activities per lesson. Each activity was then analysed from nine points of view – nine possible ways of differentiating. As Figure 1 shows, the differentiation took place in 42 activities out of the 102, with some of those displaying differentiation in more than just one aspect (e.g. the activity was differentiated by outcome plus interest). Therefore, in all, any kind of differentiation occurred 51 times. The graph in Figure two suggests that almost 50% of the activities included differentiated learning or teaching. This might appear to be quite a satisfying number, considering that the teachers used differentiated teaching and learning in half of their lessons.

Figure 1

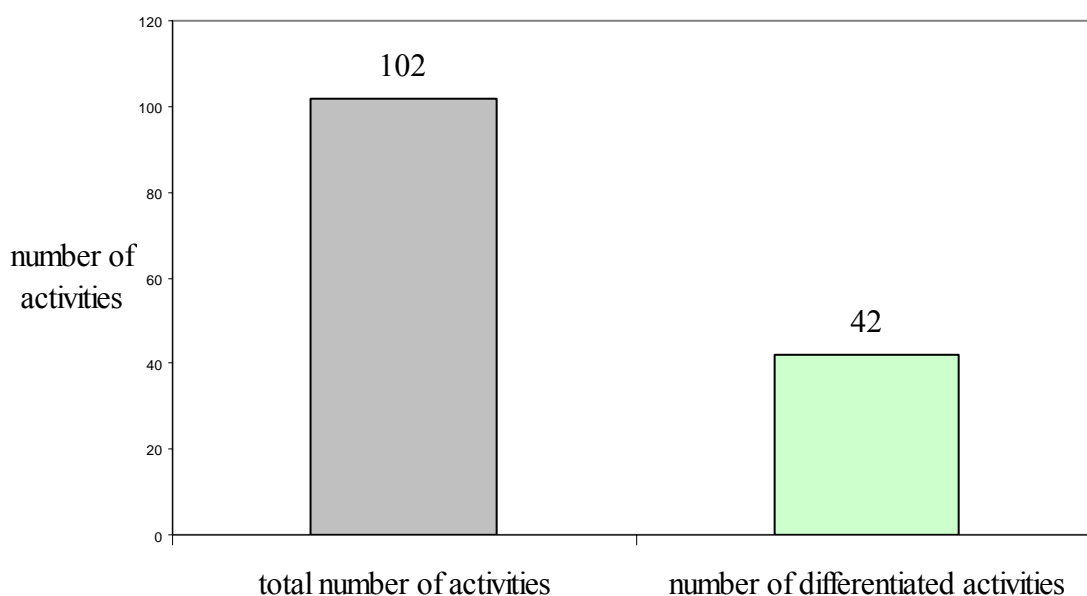
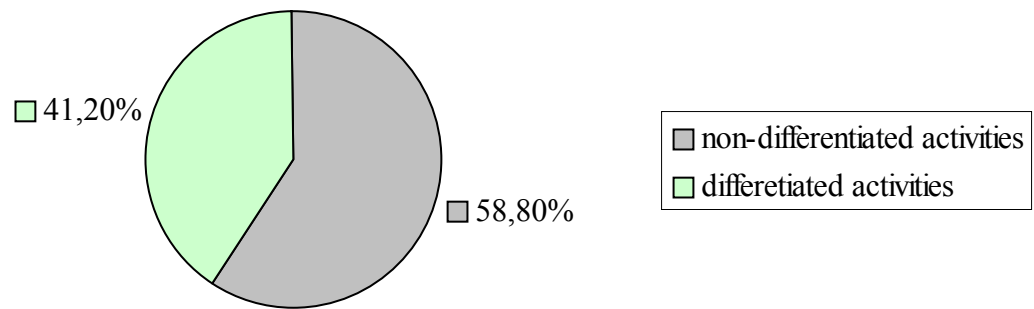


Figure 2



But one needs to realise how long the differentiation occurred during each activity. Figure 3 shows the total amount of minutes that the differentiated learning and teaching took place during the observed periods.

Figure 3

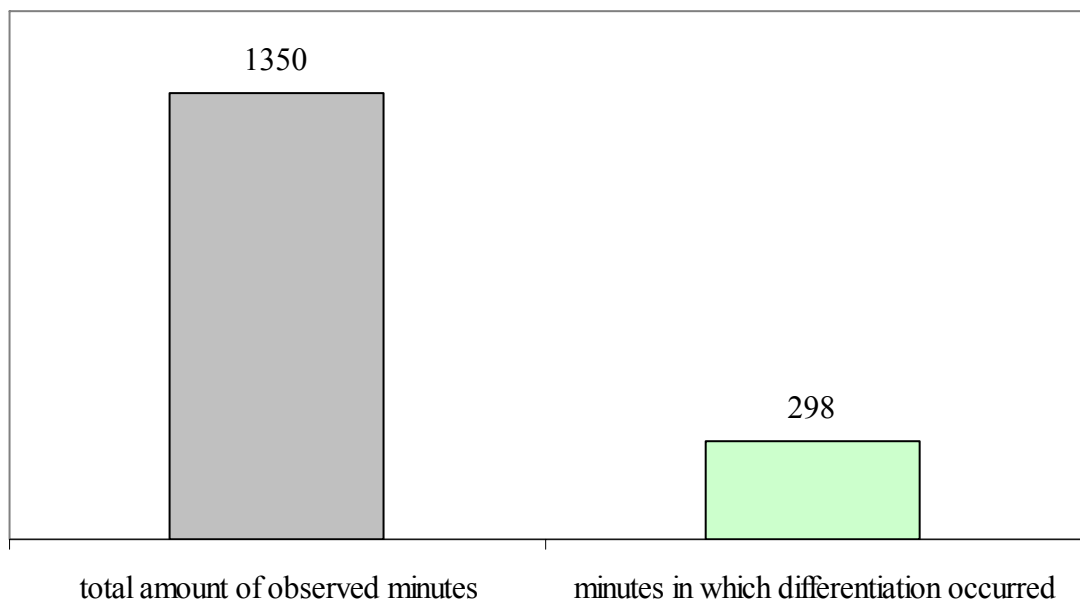
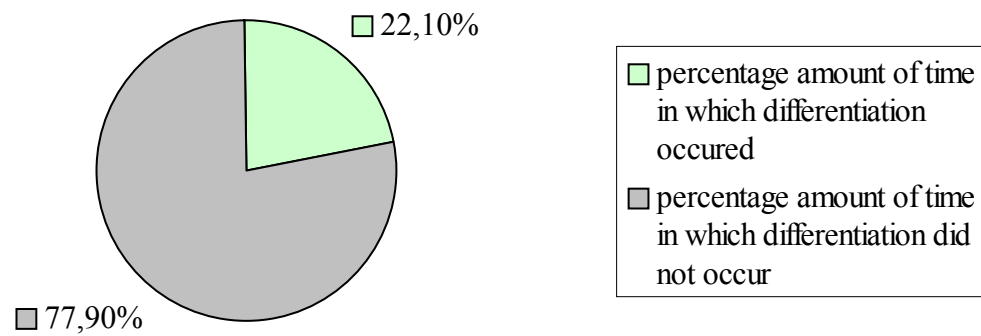


Figure 4



Considering that the thirty observed lessons added up to a total of 1350 minutes, the number during which differentiation took place amounted to 298 of them. Figure 4 shows the percentage as approximately 22.1% of all the learning and teaching processes being differentiated. Figure 4 further suggests that it was definitely not 50 percent of the whole teaching and learning period that was differentiated. Chapter seven will attempt to analyse and compare Figure 2 and Figure 4, then suggest how it is possible that these two numbers differ so greatly.

The next sections will compare to what extent differentiation is being used in Content, Process and Product, with closer examination of particular forms of differentiation later on, e.g. through text, task, support and so on.

## 6.2. How much is the differentiation used in Content, Process and Product

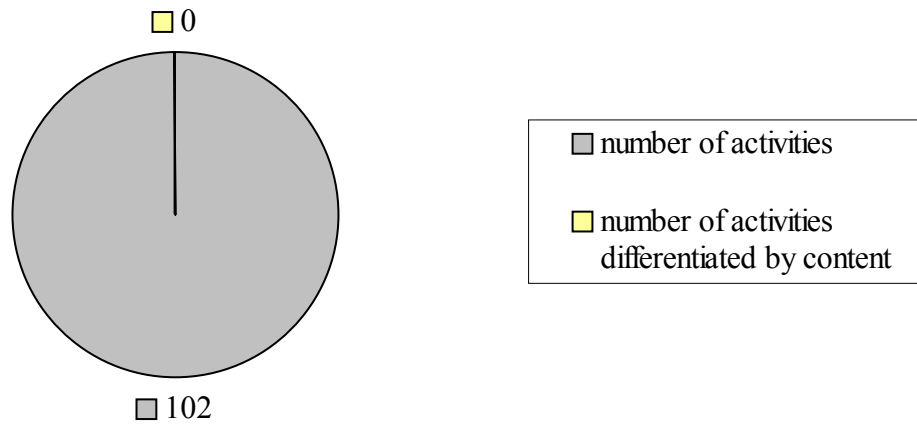
As described in chapter four, teaching may involve modifications in one or more of the following areas: content, process, and product. It is not expected, nor necessary, for the teachers to differentiate all three elements at one time, however it sometimes occurs. This section presents the data relating to the extent that learning and teaching is differentiated in content, process and product. The exact numbers were also obtained from analysis of the observation sheets (see Appendix three). Figure 5 shows in how many activities out of the 102 there were:

- a.) Differentiation in content
- b.) Differentiation in process
- c.) Differentiation in product

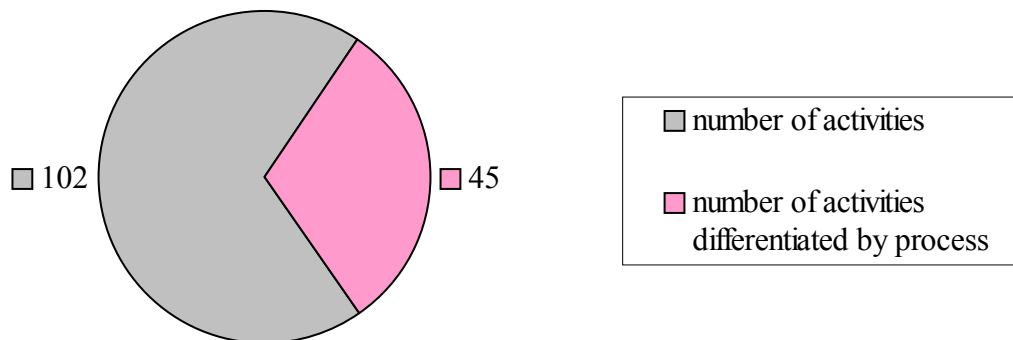
It is necessary to mention that differentiation, as such, occurred in 42 activities, though sometimes during an activity differentiation of more than just one element took place (e.g. process and product). That is why the total number adds up to 51, meaning that 51 times some form of differentiation occurred.

Figure 5.

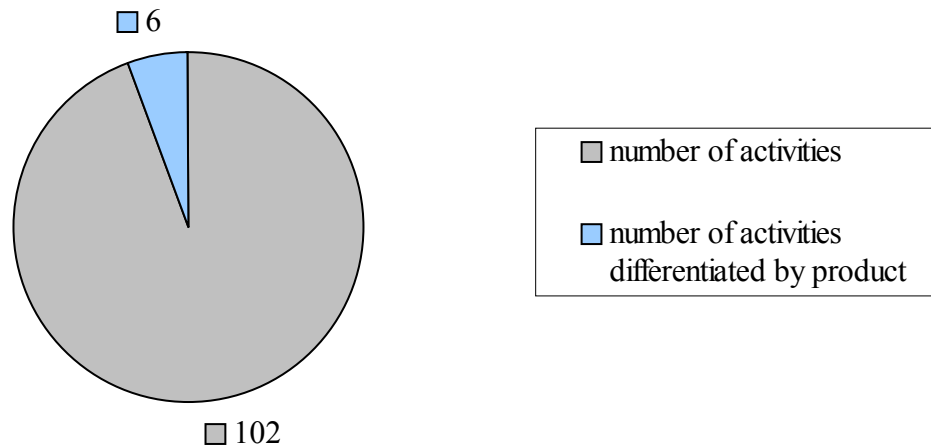
a )



b )



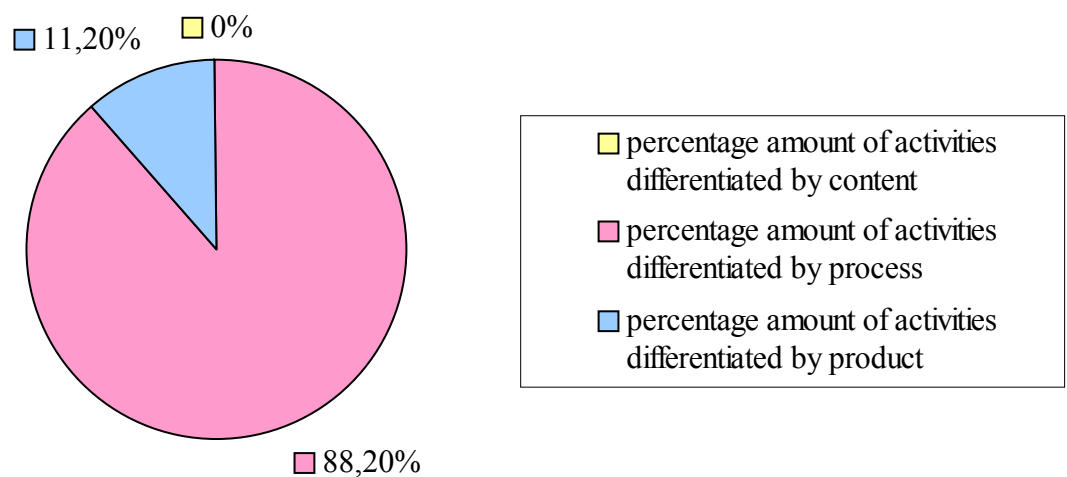
c)



If Figure five is expressed in percentages it shows that 0% of the activities were differentiated by content, 44,1% differentiated by process, and 5,9 % differentiated by product.

Figure 6 displays the distribution of the content, process and product as such. The graph shows what percentage of the differentiation that took place occurred in process, or in product. The content is not represented at all, since there was no differentiation by content in the observed lessons.

Figure 6.

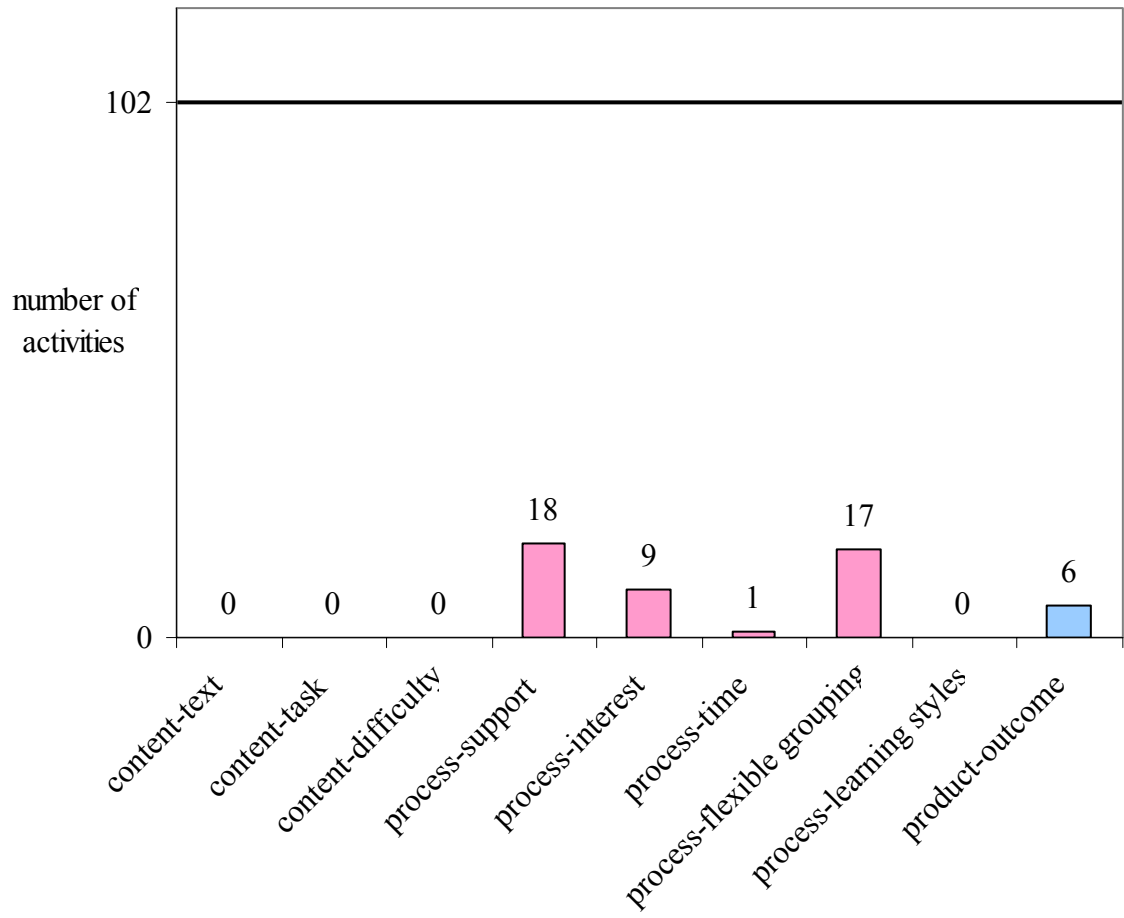


### **6.3. How is Content, Process and Product differentiated**

The last data to be discussed is the presentation of which types of differentiation appeared in the three elements: Content, Process and Product. All together nine aspects were examined, three in Content (differentiation by text, by task and by difficulty); five in Process (differentiation by support, by interest, by time, by flexible grouping and by learning styles); and Product (differentiation by outcome).

Chapter 6.2. has already suggested that there was no differentiation whatsoever in Content. So in the 102 activities in total no differentiation by text, task or difficulty took place. The situation with differentiation by Process differs greatly. In this area differentiated learning and teaching was conducted 45 times. As Figure 7 shows, differentiation by support appeared in 18 activities, by interest took place in nine activities, by time in only one activity, by flexible grouping in 17 activities and differentiation by learning styles was not utilised at all. In the area of differentiating the Product, only one aspect of differentiation was examined, namely differentiation by outcome, which occurred in six of the 102 activities.

Figure 7





## **7. INTERPRETATION OF THE OBTAINED DATA**

This chapter will interpret the data presented in the chapter six. Because all of the data was connected in a way this chapter will not be divided into three sections, as in chapter six, but rather it will be analysed all together. Firstly the figures two and four from the section 6.1., will be compared, and then the analysis of differentiation in content, process and product will follow.

### **7.1. Comparison of graph two and four**

Firstly, attention is paid to differentiation in general. From the data section, we discover that two figures show the percentage of differentiation that occurred in the observed lessons. Figure 2 shows that 41.2% of the activities were differentiated, with Figure 4 showing that the total amount of time that was differentiated amounted to 22.1 %. The two percentage figures differ greatly, so therefore the question arises as to which of the two provides a truer picture in regards the amount of differentiation at Czech elementary schools.

Graph relates just how many activities of any kind differentiation occurred, though does not take into account whether the whole activity was differentiated, or whether it was merely a brief section of a particular activity (for example if the children were working in pairs throughout the whole activity, or if it was just for the two minutes when they were reading an article). This graph simply suggests in how many activities an attempt was made to differentiate. So the conclusion that could be drawn from Figure 2 is that, in almost half of the activities that took place in observed lessons, the differentiated learning and teaching was conducted. That could be considered a satisfying result.

Immediately after my two pilot observations and the consecutive analysing sessions I realised that, without putting down the exact minutes during the activities, the data collected would not be accurate. Therefore special attention was paid to timing when recording the actual lessons on the sheet of paper throughout all research. Continual use of the stopwatch was extremely important in order to get an accurate picture of what was happening in the lesson and, most importantly, how long the actual differentiation lasted during the activities in progress.

And this can also be seen from the results, where suddenly the amount of time where differentiation takes place shrinks by half (from 41% down to 22%). Unlike graph two, graph four focuses only upon time, presenting the percentage of the minutes in which the differentiation occurred. It does not look at the activity as such, whether it was differentiated or not, but presents exactly how many minutes of that particular activity were differentiated.

So coming back to the initial question, whether it is Figure 2 or Figure 4, which provides the more accurate picture regarding differentiation at Czech elementary schools. I would suggest that the second one, which shows approximately one fifth of the learning and teaching process as being differentiated, is the more accurate. In this we talk in terms of minutes, which can quite accurately be measured. On the other hand the first graph merely gives us the number of activities, we do not know how long the individual activities lasted, nor the percentage of time that they were actually differentiated. The same situation occurs when talking about lessons; the fact that there was differentiation in 22 lessons out of 30 could also prove quite misleading, this statement cannot offer up a true picture about differentiation either.

Obviously the whole research could possibly prove more accurate if a greater number of lessons were to be observed, plus involving more teachers at further elementary schools. However, in my opinion, involving six different teachers at four different institutions seems a satisfying compromise. It would definitely be an interesting topic for further research to compare how much differentiation is used by older generations of teachers compared to more recent graduates of the pedagogical faculties. The newer trainees are definitely being pointed towards the area of differentiated teaching and learning than in the past. Another interesting direction would be to observe the extent that differentiation is used at alternative elementary schools, in comparison to regular elementary schools.

## **7.2. Differentiation in Content**

Figure five and six suggest that there was no differentiation at all in content. Three possible ways of differentiating by content were examined; these were differentiation by task, text and difficulty. During the 30 observed lessons 102 activities, differentiation by task, text or difficulty, did not occur.

### **7.2.1. Text**

Children were always working with the same text and study materials, they had identical articles and audio recordings, the teacher made no attempt to provide some students with more advanced texts. Learners with higher levels of communicative competence were never challenged with texts that would require them to make extra effort, nor did the teachers try to help the learners with lower level of communicative competence with simplified materials. All text was at exactly the same level of difficulty. Teachers never matched different levels of complexity to students of differing needs. No form of pre-testing, which could aid the teacher in matching the learners to more suitable activities, ever took place in any of these thirty observed lessons. Explanations were not sought but we may hypothesize that one of the possible explanations for the teachers never differentiating text in their lessons could be that they find it too time consuming to prepare extra materials for the children, another is the fact that teachers are not used to pre-testing children. They are satisfied that all the children are on the same level and need to learn the same things using the same materials. Another explanation could be that the children are not used to working with differing materials, so some might feel discriminated against by the teacher if offered different text to others. No matter what the causes of non-use of differentiation by text are, this condition needs to be changed if the learning is to become more effective.

### **7.2.2. Task**

When considering differentiation by task, again the obtained data suggests that no differentiation at all took place in the 30 observed lessons. Like with the text, the tasks were also exactly the same for all children at all times. Also, despite a clear observation that the teachers involved had many opportunities to modify a particular task in some way, none ever did so. They neglected to ask “better learners” (without any pejorative meaning, referring to current performance) to answer more complex questions, or to write more extended reports. In several lessons it was observed that the teacher allowed the pupils who had already completed a task to sit passively, without working, rather than offering them further tasks that might prove more challenging and more time-consuming for them. Several times it was observed that, after reading an article in a

students book, there were several questions to answer. The teacher required just the first five in their exercise books to be answered, no more, so those students with higher level of communicative competence were obliged to sit quietly for five minutes, without doing anything. They could have been told by the teacher to work on further questions as well, but were not. When working on a writing exercise, the children were never given a task with more open-ended possibilities. Always everyone was given the same instructions on what was expected from him or her. The explanation for non-use of differentiation by task could be similar to the conclusions of chapter 7.2.2. - either unwillingness by teachers to prepare more tasks for the children, or a lack of information about individual pupils leading to a consequent inability to accurately assess the learners and assign them more suitable tasks

### **7.2.3. Difficulty**

As with text and task, no differentiation took place in regard to difficulty either. There is certainly overlap in differentiation by difficulty with text as well as by task. I observed whether or not the learners were grouped by ability for the purpose of learning during any activity, whether the teacher used any arrangements in order to have a particular group study more advanced materials, to complete more difficult tasks, or to be more challenged in the learning process. The results of the observations showed that minimal pair work and almost no group work took place, so talking about group work where the groups would be constructed according to ability is simply out of context.

To sum it up, it seems that there is a great need to raise the awareness of how content can be differentiated in English lessons. It will be necessary to considerably alter the attitude of the teachers, as well as adapting many teacher training seminars so that they would begin their careers with differentiated teaching in content.

### **7.3. Differentiation by process**

In process, five possible ways of differentiating were examined. Altogether 45 activities were differentiated by process and Figure seven presents the distribution in these five categories.

### **7.3.1. Support**

Differentiation by support occupies almost 35% of all the differentiation that occurred in the 30 observed lessons. The results of this research show that differentiation by support is the most commonly used form of differentiation at Czech elementary schools. However, one needs to appreciate that, if we say that 18 activities out of 102 included differentiated teaching and learning, it does not necessarily mean that the whole activity was differentiated. In more than half of the activities the actual support lasted only for two to five minutes. But the important point here is that the attempt has been made to differentiate. Chapter four suggests that differentiation by support takes place in the amount of additional support offered to learners of all abilities, in terms of time, resource and task. Out of the 18 activities where differentiation by support occurred, 11 of those instances featured differentiation in the form of extra help from the teacher. While children were working on an activity, the teacher spent extra time with one pupil, either explaining what to do, or practising pronunciation, or helping with exercise and so on. Yet this form of help never took more than several minutes. Three times the teachers used dictionaries as a form of additional help, since the children were supposed to write a story and the ones who might like to use dictionaries were offered the choice, if needed. In the two other cases they were reading articles from magazines. The level of difficulty was not very high, but the teacher offered the possibility of using dictionaries and four learners actually chose to do so. In the four remaining activities that were differentiated by support the additional support was provided in a form of resources, with children given the opportunity to use grammar charts during one exercise. Approximately one third of the students took advantage and used them. Also, in another activity, when practising present perfect tense, the teacher suggested that those learners who were unsure about the usage of this grammar pattern should go to the back of the classrooms where posters were hung, to check them out and revise the process before they started work on the exercises. Five out of fifteen students took this opportunity. In general quite a variety of support was offered to the learners in lessons observed by me. But it still does not seem to be enough, considering that, in the remaining 84 activities the children were not offered any extra help whatsoever. This seems an alarming finding.

### **7.3.2. Interest**

It is obvious that, when children are given the opportunity to study something that interests them, they become more highly motivated and will work with greater effort than if simply assigned a normal task. That is why it is so important to routinely offer the children the choice of activity, topic, or procedure of how to do something. Out of the 102 activities which took place in the observed lessons, children were offered choice and selection, according to their interests, nine times in total. Five of these nine activities were based on the same pattern, with the teachers asking the children what kind of game they would like to play or practise e.g. numbers, or parts of the body, and so on. Also, at the end of a lesson, if the children had behaved well, the teachers would ask whether they would like to play a game for the last ten minutes, plus what kind of game that should be. Children would usually choose to play games like bingo or bang, for practising the cardinal or ordinal numbers. They also played the game relating to “who is the mysterious man”, for practising questions. The four remaining activities differentiated by interest did not include games. The first activity was a writing one, with children asked to prepare a two minute presentation about a topic that they were interested in. They were given ten minutes to write down as much about this topic as possible, then they were supposed to finish it at home in order to fully present the resultant piece at the next lesson. Each of the kids wrote about something different, all trying to write down as much as possible and eagerly prepared to look up more information on the Internet, in order to make their presentation more interesting. The reason is simple; they were presenting something that they were either interested in, or good at, therefore wanted to make it look appealing even for everyone. The other two activities differentiated by interest occurred when children were given a freedom to choose the movie they would be working with during the next few lessons. If the teacher selected the movie, some children would possibly be interested, but most would not enjoy it simply for it having been the teachers choice, therefore an enforced decision to watch this particular movie. By selecting the movie themselves it was at least partly decided that the activity might be successful and children maybe would like being involved. The last activity that was differentiated by interest was an interview that pupils were supposed to do in pairs. They were give a choice to select who will be the interviewed famous person according to their interest; whether it would be a pop star, an actor, a sportsmen and so on.

In general it could be said that most of the activities that were differentiated by interest were quite successful. Children were definitely more involved than at other moments and they appreciated the freedom to choose according to their interest.

### **7.3.3. Time**

Differentiation by time is one of the crucial ways by which to help make the learning and teaching process much more effective. That is why it is quite alarming that there was just one activity, out of more than 100, where differentiation by time occurred. The teachers simply never considered that not all learners work at the same pace, yet accepted that all of them will complete their work at different points. Whenever any of the learners finished earlier than others, they were simply asked to be quiet, not to disturb and wait until everybody else was done. This usually resulted in the learners starting to chat, leading to the teachers stopping the activity early and beginning the checking process, or with another activity. The slower learners were consequently not given the opportunity to complete the activity. Learning could be so much more effective if only the teacher had a file prepared with extra quizzes, activities and extending exercises. Neither did the teachers ever ask the more advanced learners to help to the less successful ones. One instance where observed differentiation by time actually took place was during an activity where children were working with animals and they were required to complete two exercises from a workbook. After the first child was done, he was given a crossword with extended vocabulary concerning animals. The teacher actually waited until the last child was done, yet moved the faster ones on to work with the crossword. It is quite disappointing that such differentiated activity occurred only once, because it shows that so much precious time is wasted during the lessons as children sit around waiting for their slower colleagues to finish.

### **7.3.4. Flexible grouping**

All together children were grouped 17 times during the total of 102 activities. After differentiation by support, this proved to be the second most frequent form of differentiation. However, it needs to be said that, not even in one of these activities were children grouped according to their interests, varied knowledge base level, demonstrated

performance, learning styles or learning needs. All the differentiation by grouping proved to be in a form of changing instructional patterns. It is interesting to note that, not once did there occur any form of group work, with pair work taking place in all 17 instances. The pattern for creating these pairing was always the same, these being simply that children sitting next to each other always worked together. Not even once did teachers attempt to create the pairs according to some educational pattern. Most of the pair work took place during the reading activity, one pupil would read and the other translate, or they both read in English, taking turns. Six times children were supposed to work in pairs during workbook activities, working on exercises. On one occasion an excellent example of pair work occurred when children were required to do interviews. And three times there was an option whereby children could choose either to work with their neighbour on exercises, or work alone. In all three cases the children chose to work in pairs. To summarise, the flexible grouping actually did not take place at all, the only form of grouping that occurred was partnership, pair work without real principals or patterns at all, just convenient cooperation based upon classroom geography.

#### **7.3.5. Learning styles**

Differentiation by learning styles did not occur at all in the 30 observed lessons. There was no attempt at all to take into account that children may have different learning styles or that they may prefer learning in different ways. The new material was always presented in the same manner and the teachers did not provide students with variety of approach, or activity, in order to ensure that a range of preferences were catered for. It seemed that the teachers never thought about student strengths in order to get ideas on how the learner might study more effectively. The reason for this could be that the teachers never really had the opportunity to find out what their pupils preferences actually were, having never had the opportunity to test the children, simply because it is not done at our elementary schools. For this reason the fact that teachers are not differentiating their teaching through learning styles should not necessarily be considered a fault on their part, but rather as a fault of the whole system of education. At elementary schools today it seems almost unreal to consider a situation where the teacher would enter the classroom, inform the learners that today they would be learning new vocabularies and would then divide them into groups according to whether they were visual, or auditory learners. It does not happen. To be able to differentiate by



learning styles, teachers would first need to get to know their learners in detail, because only then could progress possibly be made.

#### **7.4. Differentiation by outcome**

Figure five suggests that six activities out of 102 were differentiated by outcome. This results in approximately 6% of all activities being differentiated.

It is interesting to note that three out of these six activities appeared in the lessons of one particular teacher, who used differentiation by outcome quite effectively, whilst the remaining three activities happened in classes of another teacher. The other four teachers observed did not differentiate by outcome at all.

The first teacher referred to, who differentiated by outcome three times, employed various methods to do so, initially requiring the children to write a postcard to a friend, as if they were away on holiday. She instructed all to write down the address in a proper way, add greetings and tell about the weather. Furthermore she suggested that if some pupils wanted to, they could also write about what they were doing during their holiday, describe where they were staying and relate any interesting experiences. By giving this extra instruction, she enabled the more advanced learners to make use their skills, whilst also challenging them in a way. The less able learners completed the postcard at much the same time as the faster learners, with their extended instruction. The good thing was that the more advanced learners were not sitting there bored, because logically they would have been waiting for others to complete the task at basic level.

The second occasion when the teacher differentiated by outcome was again during the writing activity. Children were working in pairs (not only was the activity differentiated by outcome, but also by grouping) and they were challenged to make a list of the differences between people and animals. The teacher wrote eight basic questions on the blackboard, which included the differences that they were discussing during the lesson and which all of the children should have been able to remember and recall for their particular list. The teacher further suggested that they had a choice, either to create a poster with the differences, or to use drawings to explain ideas, or something totally different. It was obvious that the children really appreciated having the choice between

these two variants. Discussions proved lively, as the advantages and disadvantages of each choice were debated, then, once they had chosen, they worked eagerly. It was definitely a successful decision by the teacher to give the students an opportunity to choose. The third time this particular teacher was differentiating by outcome was during an activity when they were talking about interviews. The children were once again instructed to work in pairs, the task being to prepare an interview. The teacher gave them a choice to interview either a pop star or an actor, then another about whether the interview should be for a newspaper, magazine, radio or television. Furthermore it was their own decision whether to present it orally as a broadcasting live from the radio/TV station, or as a reading being made aloud from a newspaper or magazine. Again this activity proved to be extremely successful, almost certainly due to the fact that the children could plan it themselves, deciding how their production would look and be presented. The teacher was clearly highly experienced and had realised that she could definitely motivate children more if she gave them a choice in the product.

In these last two activities in particular, the children were especially excited and motivated, putting in far more effort than is typical. In the main this was clearly due to their direct input and interest, with them having real choice and influence about how their final presentation would appear.

The second teacher used an identical way of differentiating by outcome in all three activities. Here, the children were supposed to prepare a revision of vocabulary for his/her neighbour, preparing any kind of quiz, crossword or gap filling activity etc. in order to check whether the child sitting next to him/her had learnt the vocabulary. They generally had about ten minutes for this activity and enjoyed it a lot, always attempting to come up with new ideas and more interesting activities. The only requirement made by the teacher was that they had to use the five new vocabularies in the quiz/crossword etc. Again this kind of differentiation seemed to work extremely well in the classroom. It was motivating for the children and they all seemed to be involved 100%.

So, in general the use of differentiation by outcome seemed really useful and appropriate in all of these six activities. It is a pity that such a small number of activities were differentiated in this way, but progress is definitely being made, especially in comparison to the examples of differentiation by content, which is simply not happening at all in our schools.

## 8. CONCLUSION

Differentiation has become increasingly important over the past few years. This is because children come from different cultures and have different backgrounds and therefore every child has different learning preferences and interests. The task for English teachers at elementary school level is to try to respect all of these differences and adjust the teaching and learning to benefit each individual.

The aim of this thesis has been to discover to what extent teachers at Czech elementary schools in English lessons employ differentiation methods. Before the actual research could be conducted it was necessary to do the bibliography survey. This primarily consisted of books of foreign authors, since there are too few Czech authors writing about differentiation, especially in terms of ELT.

It has definitely been an interesting discovery to find that, in our pedagogical and psychological literature, it has only been a very small number of authors who have studied and written several monographs about differentiation, otherwise most relevant Czech authors just fleetingly mention this term, or devote just a chapter or two to the topic in their works.

The lack of materials available may be one of the reasons why differentiation in ELT is still not commonly used at Czech schools. And if any kind of differentiation actually takes place it is usually as a result of teachers acting intuitively, utilising their years of experience, yet without actually having any guiding principles, formal differentiated learning, or teaching, in their minds.

The reason for choosing differentiation as the topic of my research is because, according to the materials available, there hasn't been a similar study conducted before at our elementary schools. Having experience of differentiation being used in elementary level education in Sweden raised my curiosity to research what the situation is currently like in our country.

The results of the study have shown that the Czech educational system still has a long way to go before differentiation becomes an everyday technique in the school system. The data I have gathered here shows that, in terms of time, 22% of all learning and teaching has been differentiated in some way. Closer examination suggests that almost

all of this differentiation happened in just two areas, these being differentiation by support and differentiation by flexible grouping. In other observed areas differentiation still seems to be taboo, appearing quite rarely.

In future it will be extremely important to raise awareness of differentiation. It would be wise to start at the pedagogical faculties, to offer students courses on differentiation and to explain to them how to teach more effectively and reach more students through differentiated teaching. Also the teachers at Czech elementary schools should be offered the possibility of attending courses on differentiation in order to broaden minds.

It is not simply a matter of informing the teachers, it is quite important to involve the parents in the process too. It should be explained that each child is different and that is why they should work on different tasks, at differing pace, ultimately assessed according to variable criteria.

Hopefully the results of this study will provide the reader with some interesting insights into differentiation and raise awareness about what it actually means to differentiate in classrooms.

The aim of this study has been to monitor the situation at Czech elementary schools, not try to analyse or suggest the causes of use/non-use of differentiation. Nor has it tried to suggest ways of improving the situation, it simply attempts to relate the current situation in relation to the matter at our schools.

But identifying the causes of non-use of differentiation at our schools in English lessons could definitely be an interesting topic for further research.

## Resumé

V posledních letech se v pedagogice stále častěji hovoří o diferenciaci. Diferenciace není nový trend nebo nová metoda vyučování, koncept diferenciaci se prosazoval již před mnoha lety. Diferenciace velmi úzce souvisí s individualizací. Problém individualizace a diferenciaci se zrodil počátkem minulého století. Tehdy také bylo v těchto dvou oblastech definováno vše podstatné, co se dnes už ve světě jen obměňuje a obohacuje. Principy však zůstávají stejné. Učitelé se snažili uplatňovat princip individualizace už od prvních desetiletí minulého století - významnou roli v těchto snahách sehrály Daltonský plán a Winnetská soustava.

Tato diplomová práce se zabývá problematikou diferenciaci v procesech vyučování/učení anglického jazyka. Východiskem pro zpracování tohoto tématu byla prezentace různých typů faktorů determinujících existenci rozdílů mezi jednotlivými žáky. Každé dítě má mnoho individuálních rysů, jež musí být brány v potaz, pokud chceme, aby jeho učení bylo co nejefektivnější. V dnešní době přichází děti do škol z různých kultur, mají odlišné rodinné zázemí, liší se v zájmech, mají různé styly učení a preference. Je nutno si uvědomit, že každá lidská bytost je jedinečná. Každé dítě pracuje a učí se svým specifickým způsobem. Když učitel dokáže na tyto individuální potřeby reagovat, umožní dětem zažívat při vzdělávání úspěch, dosahovat osobního maxima. Teprve když si učitel tyto rozdíly plně uvědomí, může být schopen ve své třídě diferencovat. Individuální zvláštnosti jsou charakteristiky, jimiž se žáci navzájem liší a které mohou ovlivnit jejich chování, prožívání a učení. Může jít o zvláštnosti subjektivní, jako jsou například integrita osobnosti, temperament, inteligence, styly učení, motivace, vlohy pro učení se cizím jazykům a další. Nebo také zvláštnosti objektivní, kam řadíme například sociální zázemí, etnickou příslušnost, dosavadní životní zkušenosti, kulturní rozhled a další. Tato diplomová práce se individuálními zvláštnostmi zabývá z pohledu učení se cizímu jazyku. Velmi důležité je, aby učitelé přestali očekávat, že se žáci přizpůsobí výuce. Výuka by měla být naopak přizpůsobována jednotlivým žákům. A tato přizpůsobení by měla být založena na dokonalé znalosti jednotlivých studentů. Znalost individuálních zvláštností žáků je prvním krokem k úspěšné diferenciaci.

V úvodu práce je diferenciacie klasifikovaná dle organizačního hlediska na vnější a vnitřní. Diferenciacie vnější může být buď diferenciacie školou nebo homogenními třídami. Tyto homogenní třídy mohou být dále diferencovány dle kvalitativních nebo kvantitativních kritérií. Diferenciacie vnitřní probíhá v rámci jedné třídy.

Různí autoři poskytují různé definice diferenciacie. Cílem diferenciacie je vytvářet a poskytovat takové situace, které by umožnily každému žákovi dosáhnout maximálního rozvoje a osobního úspěchu. Znamená to měnit tempo učení a náročnost učení v závislosti na individuálních potřebách žáka, protože rozdíly u jednotlivých studentů jsou natolik významné, že ovlivňují, co se student potřebuje naučit, jakým tempem učivo vstřebá a jaké množství podpory potřebuje od učitele. Žákům různých schopností, zájmů a studijních potřeb musí být nabídnuty rovnocenné podmínky ke vzdělávání. Diferenciacie ovšem neznamena známkovat některé žáky přísněji než jiné, dávat studentům s vyšší úrovní komunikativní kompetence více úkolů, nebo dokonce vytvářet jiný učební plán na každý den pro každého studenta.

Předpokladem diferencovaného přístupu je pestrost, flexibilita, dynamičnost a otevřenost učitele. Učitel musí být schopen přizpůsobovat učivo a způsob, jakým učivo prezentuje žákům, a ne očekávat, že se žáci adaptují. Diferenciované vyučování musí být spíše kvalitativní než kvantitativní a jeho cílem by měl být optimální rozvoj jedince pomocí individualizovaného přístupu. Diferencovaná třída se značně liší od běžných tříd. Ve třídě, kde probíhá diferencované vyučování, se uplatňuje mnoho organizačních forem výuky, nepřevládá frontální vyučování. Žáci by neměli být hodnoceni dle jednoho kritéria a porovnávání s ostatními, nýbrž hodnoceni průběžně a informování o diagnostických pokrocích, které v učení dělají. Čas musí být užíván flexibilně dle potřeb studentů. Rozdíly mezi žáky by měly být brány jako základ při plánování. Učitel by na ně neměl pouze upozorňovat, pokud nastane problém. Žákům by měly být poskytnuty různorodé materiály ke studiu.

Různí autoři navrhuji různé způsoby a různé oblasti kurikula, jež mohou být diferencovány. Pro tuto diplomovou práci bylo navrženo použít studií Carol Ann Tomlinson (1995, 1999, 2000) jako základní. Podle Tomlinsonové existují tři základní prvky kurikula, které by měly být diferencovány: obsah, proces a produkt. Diferencováním těchto tří prvků mohou učitelé ovlivnit, co se studenti učí, jak se učí a jak prezentují, co se naučili. Učitelé, kteří chtějí začít s diferenciací ve svých třídách,

mohou nejdříve modifikovat jen jeden z těchto tří prvků, postupně, až si budou jistější, mohou diferencovat všechny tři oblasti.

Obsahem jsou znalosti, dovednosti a postoje které chceme, aby si žáci osvojili, a mechanismy, s jejichž pomocí je tohoto dosaženo (učebnice, přednášky, počítačové programy, video a audio nahrávky atd.). Diplomová práce dále navrhuje tři možné způsoby, jakými může být obsah modifikován. Za první textem – to znamená, že studenti pracují na stejném tématu, ale s materiály na různých úrovních obtížnosti. Za druhé úkoly – žáci pracují s identickými materiály, avšak úkoly a otázky, které mají plnit, jsou odstupňovány dle množství a obtížnosti. Za třetí obtížností – žáci jsou děleni do skupin podle úrovně jejich znalostí a pracují na různých úkolech.

Procesem se míní prezentace obsahu, tj. jakým způsobem je žákům učivo předáváno. Týká se aktivit, které probíhají, otázek, které jsou pokládány, stejně jako metod a strategií, jež učitel k výkladu užívá. V oblasti procesu je představeno pět možných způsobů, jak tento prvek kurikula modifikovat. Jako první je zmiňována diferenciací podporou. Učitel by měl poskytovat podporu žákům všech schopností, a to formou pomoci nebo prostřednictvím materiálů a pomůcek, jež by usnadnily učení. Další možností, jak diferencovat proces, je flexibilní využívání času. To znamená umožnit žákům, aby pracovali svým tempem, dle svých možností a schopností. Třetí formou diferenciací je rozdělování dětí do skupin. Práce vysvětluje pojem flexibilních skupin. Další formou diferenciací procesu je přizpůsobování výuky dle učebních stylů jednotlivých dětí. U této formy je nezbytně nutné znát jednotlivé učební styly a preference žáků. Bez předchozího testování je tato forma diferenciací vyloučená. Poslední formou je diferenciací podle zájmů žáků. Pokud je dětem dána možnost zabývat se něčím, co je zajímá a baví, budou mnohem více motivováni a zapojeni. Posledním prvkem kurikula zmíněným v této diplomové práci je produkt. Produkt je výsledek učení – prezentace toho, co se studenti naučili.

Cílem praktické části této diplomové práce bylo zjistit, zda a do jaké míry je vyučování anglického jazyka na českých základních školách diferencováno obsahem, procesem a produktem. Primární metodou použitou pro tento výzkum byla observace. Observace byly provedeny na čtyřech základních školách, v hodinách šesti angličtinářů, v rozmezí měsíců listopadu a prosince. Celkový počet pozorovaných hodin byl třicet. Observace probíhala ve třech fázích. V první fázi byla celá hodina detailně zaznamenána na

observační arch. Druhou fází byla analýza odpozorované hodiny a zaznamenání výsledků analýzy do druhého strukturovaného observačního archu s kolonkami jednotlivých pozorovaných typů diferenciacie. Třetí fází bylo přenesení všech získaných dat do souborné tabulky, z níž byly později vyvozeny výsledky pro grafy a tabulky. Rozsah tohoto výzkumu nedovoloval, aby byly identifikovány a zkoumány příčiny, proč je diferenciacie užívaná v malé míře, proč jedni učitelé diferencují a jiní nikoliv atd. Účelem bylo pouze monitorovat situaci na našich základních školách. Výsledky naznačily, že v českém školství diferenciacie stále není dostatečně zakořeněná a užívána je velmi omezeně, v některých oblastech vyučování vůbec.

Práce dále naznačuje, že je nutné zvýšit povědomí o diferenciaci u učitelů. Zdůrazňuje důležitost začlenění nauky o diferenciaci na pedagogické fakulty a navrhuje nabídnout stávajícímu učitelskému sboru možnost dále se v této oblasti vzdělávat. Jako jedna z příčin malého povědomí o diferenciaci se nabízí fakt, že v české literatuře se tomuto tématu - a diferenciaci v hodinách anglického jazyka zvláště - věnuje velmi málo odborníků, tudíž je nedostatečné množství materiálů ke studiu. Dále je zdůrazněn fakt, že je nutno provést osvětu nejen mezi učiteli, ale také informovat rodiče o tom, co vlastně diferenciacie znamená, a proč děti pracují různým tempem na různých úkolech a jsou jinak hodnoceny. Tato studie by měla poskytnout náhled do problematiky diferenciacie a pomoci zvýšit povědomí o této oblasti didaktiky.



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## **Appendix**

Appendix 1 A – Recording sheet. Sample

Appendix 1 B – Recording sheet. Sample

Appendix 2 A – Structured observation sheet. Sample

Appendix 2 B – Structured observation sheet. Sample

Appendix 3 A – Chart with obtained data. Sample

Appendix 3 B – Chart with obtained data. Sample

Appendix 3 C – Chart with obtained data. Sample

Appendix 1A: Recording sheet - Sample

Date: 15/11/04, 9<sup>00</sup>

Class: 7.C

Number of children present: 21

Teacher:

School:

Textbook: Open Door

ACTIVITY 1

0-10 min

Tridnice + omluvny. "Look at the word lists ... Teacher in front of the classroom, kids taking out the lists with vocabulary from their exercise books. "Repeat every word after me three times." Teacher says a word from the list, kids say it after her, quietly three times. Some of the kids ignore the activity, are silent, several just pretend that they speak, are not opening mouth. Some kids are not able to catch up, it is too fast for them. Teacher doesn't do a word at all, she quietly takes one word after another. she is in front of the blackboard all the time. It is about 40 words on the list - 10-15. It is going on forever, deti strovo nevnimaju, jen to po ucitelke typu opadaju. ... After they read all 40 words together, she says that they need to learn first ten words by next week, another ten ...

ACTIVITY 2

10-24 min

"Let's speak about animals. ... Probita to vsetina v sestine - vyzvahuji vedeli, ze je jedna dnuj zvirat (wild/domestic). ... ucitelka si pisala tabuli ...

ACTIVITY 3

24-45 min

"Open your students books page ... Hame tady novy clanek, ... na posledech. ... ucitelka se ptala kdo toho bolle doplnil, deti odpovedaju ze to vobec nestihaly a nervuju velmi. ...

Appendix 1B: Recording sheet - Sample

Date: 24/11/04

Teacher:

Class: 6D

School:

Number of children present: 12

Textbook: Open Doors

ACTIVITY 1

0 - 15 min

Tridnica + omladinci. Vrtelka reka ze dnes budou trenovat rozhovory ve dvojicich. Budou trenovat tojeni otazek a odpovedi na ne. Navrhne ditum, ze to budou rozhovory reporteri se clanky mi osobnostmi. Lele ratim polhna v casti. Pet sedi pomera postaradani, ve vpradu u tabule. Chviri se s detma bavi obecne, co za typy otazek se davaji, jak by mela vypadat odpoved, ake davaji priklady. Pet dostanou to mu ab, si to pripravily. Da jim moznost by rozhovory pripravit upli jak chviri, mela si vybrat formu pro noviny, radio, televizi, jeste to budou predvadet na zivou scenu bez papiru nebo zist. Vrtelka jim co u otazky sem rozhovor ma obsahovat. Nezadavaji jim do toho, mekava je an @ min pracoval. Pet sou involved, bavi je to proto ze to melou psat, podle sebe, region omezeni instrukcama, dleji to mit co nejlepsi. Vymyšli si logicky otazky, uctelka sedi vpradu a bava si pise, tsi po 10 min je premeni a reka, ze maji dohled a natrenovat doma a zika to budou predvadet pred tridou. (FG) (ut) (in) Vsechny deti se radly byt zapjene v aktivit and enjoying it. I had the freedom of choosing how will the final product look like. Vrtelka pracuje zaci sedici vedle sebe spolu, nebyla takova moznost nebo navrch udelat parv jinak, podle nejzleji kritiku.

ACTIVITY 2

15 - 30 min

Open your exercise books, we will practice numbers. Teacher says a number in English and children are supposed to write it down with words into their exercise books. Teachers stand in front of the classroom & dictates the numbers. Kids work independently, neradi se se sousedem, jsou potichu a v tichu. Vrtelka reka celkem asi deset slov. (FG) Paduzubina jedneho po druhem, chviri k tabuli a opsuje uctela ze se jim na tabuli. Deti sleduji si to maji kontrolovat v ruce a poprvi padit opravit. Vrtelka pozorne sleduje tabuli a kdyz vedlo udelat chybu tak ho opravu. (FG) Pal si vsichni spolcne ty ctisloby stou z tabule nahlas. Maji se nahladet kdo mel 1 chybu, 2 chyby atd. b' rem bylo aby mi deti potrenovaly psani radovych ctisloby.

ACTIVITY 3

30 - 45 min

Teacher says that they will practise the numbers bit more. She gives the kids the opportunity to choose in what way they would like to practice it. The kids scream as a one man BINGO. The teacher agrees, says it is a good choice for practising both ordinal & cardinal ctisloby. Vrtelka re ovcio filw burtily na bengo a pyglit s ctislama. Deti jsou nadstine, aktivita je bavi, vrtelka mada nhal uctela sprave, neda soultazi work, aktivita je efektivni. Normalni ctisloby jim jsou celkem snadny, u radovych delaji vice chyb ale proto ze hodne svazi. Chviri as to zlyten hodny.

Appendix 2A: Structured observation sheet – Sample

	Activity 1	Activity 2	Activity 3
Text	pro všechny stejné, stejné množství slov i cizí	žádná diferenciace	všichni poslouchají, stejnou hakerávkou, pročetli obrovský text, nepochytili se, nerozumí
Task	všichni stejný úkol, číst slovíčka 3x za sebou, opakovat na hlas počítka	napíše co nejvíce... u každé řádky např. všichni umí sepsat slova, ale trochu méně, musím napad v té době, že všichni čítají se a jejich práce není z toho maximum	všichni mají odpovědět na stejných deset otázek
Difficulty	žádná diferenciace, obličnost na stejné úrovni	stejná úroveň	obličnost na stejné úrovni pro všechny
Support	žádná, všichni samostatně	žádná, všichni samostatně	žádná, žádná pre-faching nebo pomoc při psaní, když to byli úplně ztraceni a jen seděli
Interest	napravo neúčastná formu pro vizuální slova, děti přítomně, naprosto opakování po uč, nebaví to je to	žádná, žádná diferenciace, žádná by interest	obhled nebaví, emocii a učebnice
Time	def. v čase žádná, všichni musí číst stejné slova, někteří nestihali, ztráceli se, nebaví obhled	všichni stejné čas na napájení, každý učitel, která aktivita byla obhled, že někdo pře nebo jiné, us nebaví dvoje práce	všichni stejné čas na doplnění odpovědi, nebaví přečetl z toho, že a ne, zda to potvrdí, stejně znovu
Flexible grouping	všichni sedí v lavicích	ne, paralelní práce, museli být silniha	všichni pracují samostatně, nebaví se zůstat ani z sousedem nic
Learning styles	absolutně nebaví obhled, všichni nablas opakovat po učitelce, každý přítomně do papíru	nesolidnost, všichni napad svitáka	nebaví si dny obhled
Outcome	stejně pro všechny, opakovat slovíčka po učitelce a tím "se naučit významost jejich"	stejný úkol, napíše co nejvíce, učitel	pro všechny stejné, odpovědět na stejných deset otázek podle volební

Appendix 2B: Structured observation sheet – Sample

	Activity 1	Activity 2	Activity 3
Text	no space for it ⊕	same, no space for differentiation ⊕	the same, working with cardinal/ordinal numbers ⊕
Task	task same for everyone, as the interviews ⊕	same, write down the numbers ⊕	the same, getting five numbers in a row by saying correct numbers ⊕
Difficulty	no differences in difficulty, all aimed the same task ⊕	same level of difficulty for all the children ⊕	the same for everyone, no adaptations to anyone ⊕
Support	teacher didn't provide any extra support, no dictionaries, she was behind ⊕	no extra support to anyone, didn't use any support materials, teacher help ⊕	no extra support offered to anybody, all work individually ⊕
Interest	they were given a choice of whether they will interact, some of them were interested in music so they chose a pop song, some of them in film so they chose an actor etc. They enjoyed the activity a lot, everyone worked at the task that they were interested in ⊕	activity was not very exciting for them, obviously didn't enjoy it but was necessary ⊕	children were given the opportunity to choose an activity according to their interests. All of them agreed on the activity → were motivated, enjoyed it & the activity was very effective. They were given a choice to select activity according to their interest → resulted in involvement of all the pupils. ⊕
Time	everyone had equal amount of time, if somebody didn't finish → finish others! ⊕	everyone had same amount of time for writing down #'s + checking, no diff ⊕	no adjustments in time, all had equal cuttings for everything through the same ⊕
Flexible grouping	children were working in pairs throughout the activity, expected, effective, but the pairs were created according to their own effort, just two boys sitting next to each other. Always the same pairs. No attempt to group flexibility ⊕	everyone worked on his own ⊕	no groups, each child worked on his own ⊕
Learning styles	no attention paid to learning styles ⊕	no attention paid, no space for it ⊕	no attention paid to learning styles ⊕
Outcome	children had a choice of product were given the opportunity to choose how the interviews would look like. No strict instructions about form, it was all up to them & they definitely highly enjoyed their freedom of creating the according to them ⊕	everyone expected the same outcome, the same ten #'s ⊕	same for everyone, no space for differentiation ⊕









## ÚDAJE PRO KNIHOVNICKOU DATABÁZI

Název práce	Diferenciace v hodinách anglického jazyka
Autor práce	Jana Krupičková
Obor	Učitelství anglického jazyka
Rok obhajoby	2005
Vedoucí práce	Mgr. Pavel Brebera
Anotace	Diplomová práce se zabývá problematikou diferenciací v procesech vyučování/učení anglického jazyka. Teoretická část prezentuje různé typy faktorů, jež determinují existenci rozdílů mezi jednotlivými žáky. Jsou vydefinovány klíčové koncepty individualizace a diferenciací a prodiskutovány možné způsoby diferenciací, potenciálně využitelné v hodinách anglického jazyka. Praktická část prezentuje výsledky výzkumného šetření, realizovaného pomocí strukturovaného pozorování v hodinách anglického jazyka na ZŠ. Cílem toho výzkumu bude identifikovat, jaké druhy diferenciací jsou v hodinách anglického jazyka využívány a v jaké míře.
Klíčová slova	Differentiation Individualization Individual differences Dynamic differentiation Differentiated teaching Differentiation in content, process, product