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**The Dalton Plan in ELT: the role of teacher and the role of
student**

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Z á s a d y p r o v y p r a c o v á n í :

Studentka se ve své diplomové práci zaměří na analýzu potenciálu daltonského plánu jako specifické pedagogické alternativy v procesech vyučování/učení anglického jazyka. Východiskem pro zpracování tohoto tématu bude představení hlavních principů daltonského plánu a jejich analýza ve vztahu ke klíčovým kategoriím autonomie a komunikativní kompetence žáka v anglickém jazyce. Jádrem této části práce bude rozbor možných rolí učitele anglického jazyka při využití specifických didaktických postupů daltonského plánu. Praktická část této diplomové práce pak bude empiricky podloženou komparativní studií rolí učitele anglického jazyka v tzv. daltonských blocích ve srovnání s nedaltonskými hodinami anglického jazyka. Výzkum bude realizován v prostředí české základní školy aplikující principy daltonského plánu.

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Abstract:

The main aim of this thesis is to develop awareness of the Dalton plan and its influence on the development of learner autonomy and communicative competence in ELT. It is suggested how the conditions in Dalton lessons affect the development of language skills, language subskills and different parts of communicative competence. This paper is also concerned with the influence of teacher roles and organisational forms on the development of learner autonomy and communicative competence.

The practical part contains the description of a small-scale research and its results. A comparative study of Dalton and non-Dalton lessons was implemented in order to find out whether teaching according to the Dalton principles positively influences; and provides suitable conditions for the development of learner autonomy and communicative competence in relation to the role of teacher, organisational forms, different parts of communicative competence, language skills and language subskills.

Key words:

ELT, the Dalton plan, learner autonomy, communicative competence, the role of teacher, organisational forms.

Souhrn:

Cílem této diplomové práce je představit Daltonský plán a nastínit jak učení dle daltonských principů ovlivňuje rozvoj žákovy autonomie a komunikativní kompetence ve výuce anglického jazyka. V teoretické části práce je naznačeno jak učební podmínky v daltonských hodinách ovlivňují rozvoj jazykových dovedností, prostředků a různých částí komunikativní kompetence. Tato část práce se rovněž zabývá rolí učitele a organizačních forem výuky při rozvíjení žákovy autonomie.

Praktická část obsahuje popis a výsledky provedeného výzkumu. Byla provedena komparativní studie daltonských a nedaltonských hodin. Cílem této studie je zjistit zda výuka anglického jazyka dle daltonských principů kladně ovlivňuje a také poskytuje vhodné učební podmínky pro rozvoj žákovy autonomie a komunikativní kompetence. Tato studie byla zaměřena především na úlohu organizačních forem výuky a na roli učitele.

Klíčová slova:

Výuka anglického jazyka, Daltonský plán, autonomie žáka, komunikativní kompetence, role učitele, organizační formy výuky.

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I. Introduction

“Most ideas about education are not new, but not everybody knows the old ones.” Eucudes (my translation).

Our society and educational system has been undergoing many changes. The requirements on individuals are increasing and one of the necessary abilities is to work well independently as well as in a team. It is not enough to be equipped with encyclopaedic knowledge but various abilities are vital. The recent reform of educational system reflects these requirements. Therefore the aim of education is not only transmitting information from the teacher to learners, but also developing competences that are close to learners' real life and practical behaviour, and necessary for practical living and the labour market. Although, the Dalton plan was developed in the beginning of the 20th century its principles correspond with reformed educational system and the requirements of nowadays society. The implementation of Dalton principles of freedom (responsibility), independence and cooperation influences the atmosphere in the classroom; and provides learners with specific working conditions which help learners to become independent responsible beings who are able and willing to communicate and cooperate with others for their common benefit. The question which arises is how much the Dalton plan influences learners' learning, and whether it provides learners with convenient conditions that make learners learning even more effective than learning in non-Dalton conditions.

The aim of this work can hardly be to answer such a broad question. But it may provide certain viewpoints on how the teaching according to the Dalton principles influences the development of learner autonomy and communicative competence in ELT. It also compares the suitability of Dalton and non-Dalton conditions, especially the role of teacher and organisational forms in relation to the development of learner autonomy and communicative competence in ELT.

It is necessary to note, that without any prejudice, the pronoun he is used to refer to the teacher and the learner. Words written in italics are used to express terms and titles of books. All Czech sources used in this work are translated by me. Size font 11 is used in some graphs.

II. Theoretical part

1. Main characteristic and principles of the Dalton plan

“The Dalton Laboratory Plan is not a system or a method. It is no longer school – it is life.” (Parkhurst, 1922, p. 19, 28).

Helen Parkhurst described the Dalton plan in the following way:

The Dalton Laboratory Plan is not a system or a method [...], it is not a curriculum. Practically speaking, it is a way of educational reorganization which reconciles the twin activities of teaching and learning. When intelligently applied it creates conditions which enable the teacher to teach and the learner to learn. (Parkhurst 1922, p. 28).

It is very difficult to present a definition of the Dalton plan as the Dalton plan is perceived and realised differently not only in different countries but also by each Dalton school. The following definition of the Dalton plan based on Parkhurst’s view was presented by P. Bakkum in 1957 and subsequently used by Roel Röhner and Hans Wenke (2000), and Alexander Polák (2004, p. 7).

The Dalton plan is a way of classroom and school organisation. It uses principles such as freedom and individual work in order to follow aims of conscious and active education towards responsibility and independence. Freedom and individual work in a teaching process are stimulated and defined by instructions or an assignment. Group work or traditional teaching can be preceded or followed by individual work. Individual work encourages cooperation as much as instructive lessons do. (Röhner and Wenke, 2000, p. 15 my translation).

Roel Röhner and Hans Wenke are Dutch specialists with theoretical and practical experience in organisation and management of Dalton schools and with further education of teachers. They wrote several books about the Dalton plan and significantly contributed to development and propagation of the Dalton plan. The Netherlands has been a country with the most developed theory of the Dalton plan and its realisation in practice.

There are more approaches when the description and number of Dalton principles are considered. Changes can be observed as the Dalton principles developed through out the history:

In 1922 H. Parkhurst formulated two principles (freedom and cooperation). A year later she introduced three principles (freedom, school as a community, pensum). In the same year she added another one (self-reliance). Dutchman S. C. Bokhorst presented four different Dalton principles (freedom, cooperation, self-reliance, efficiency) in 1924. Dutch specialist, P. Bakkum formulated in his work in 1953 the following principles (freedom, cooperation and individual work). (Rýdl, 1998, p. 20 my translation).

Three main Dalton principles (freedom, independence and cooperation) were accepted by Dalton schools at the end of the twentieth century.

1.1. Freedom – liberty – responsibility

Helen Parkhurst saw freedom as “the first principle of the Dalton Laboratory Plan. “ (Parkhurst, 1922, p. 16). There are two words with a very similar meaning – liberty and freedom in English. I would like to mention the differences in meaning in order to state one of the Dalton principles. The word liberty means “the right to do whatever you want without asking permission or being afraid of authority.” (Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English, 2003, p. 928). Liberty is absolute. But freedom is understood as “the possibility and necessity to make decisions and be responsible for them” (Rýdl, 1998, p. 21). The main difference is in responsibility. Therefore the word used to describe the Dalton principle is *freedom*.

Learners’ freedom in the Dalton plan is presented in the right to make their own decisions and choices. According to Rýdl, learners have a choice in the following:

- order of assignments (can start with an easy or a difficult one, can start with whatever subject)
- time needed for each assignment
- organisational form (individual work, pair work or group work)
- learning strategies
- material needed (computer, dictionary, textbook, etc.)
- choice of a working place (Rýdl, 1998, p. 22).

These ideas can also be seen in Parkhurst’s work.

From the academic, or cultural, point of view, the pupil must be made free to continue without interruption his work upon any subject in which he is absorbed, because when interested he is mentally keener, more alert, and more capable of

mastering any difficulty that may arise in the course of his study. (Parkhurst, 1922, p. 16).

Freedom in the Dalton plan is not restricted only to learners. Teachers also have their freedom. According to Rýdl, Moškvan and Bajer; it is represented in the possibility to make choices considering:

- type and amount of activities
- differentiation and individualisation (time, difficulty)
- the number of lessons devoted to independent work
- the way and frequency of testing learners' knowledge
- material offered to learners (computer, dictionary, textbook, etc)
- a method of evidence of accomplished work (Rýdl, 1998, p. 22-23, Moškvan and Bajer, 2004).

Freedom in the Dalton plan is closely connected to responsibility. Wenke and Röhner see the Dalton principle as “freedom which is chosen by a learner who is also given responsibility.” (Röhner and Wenke, 2000, p. 20 my translation). Learners are not only given freedom but also responsibility for the final outcome of their learning and also for the learning process. They should understand that learning is their task, not teachers' task. Being responsible makes learners feel more self-confident that is also very useful in real life. (Rýdl, 1998, p. 23). Teachers give learners some responsibility but not all of it. They still remain responsible for various things in the area of classroom practice and whole school policy. Moškvan and Bajer summarise teachers' responsibility:

- Discuss with learner continuously during the lessons and apart from them (in group or individually)
- Give advice for study
- Prepare the work-plan with the learners
- Prepare for the exams together with the learners
- Be aware of problems in other subjects and be able to react when it's necessary
- Take care of unusual absence
- Allow parents to come to school
- Propose the future learners' education together with the learners and their parents (after the discussion with the educational advisor) (Moškvan and Bajer, 2004)

Freedom as one of the Dalton principles can not be understood as chaos or absolute freedom – liberty. It is interconnected with responsibility which is strongly stressed. Consequently, three main principles for Wenke are not freedom, cooperation and independence but responsibility, cooperation and independence. (Röhner and Wenke, 2000, p. 20).

1.2. Independence in connection with individualisation and differentiation

The second Dalton principle of independence is closely connected to the development of learner's autonomy. "Learners learn especially by themselves and a teacher becomes an advisor." (Bajer, my translation). A specific Dalton technique used to develop learner autonomy, independence and cooperation is a delayed attention principle. Delayed attention is defined as a part of a lesson when learners must work without teacher's help. A specific symbol is applied to signal delayed attention. A teddy bear or a doll is very frequently used in classes with younger learners. The teacher is present in the classroom but learners must not seek his help. Learners must try to solve problems by themselves. If they need an advice they can ask other learners for help. The teacher will help them when the sign of delayed attention disappears. Learners learn to work independently, to ask their classmates for help and cooperate while delayed attention principle is applied. (Moškvan).

Independent learning is also a very important organisational element in classroom management. When learners work independently the teacher has more time to help those learners who really need his help. Therefore differentiation and individualisation are realised. (Röhner and Wenke, 2000, p. 21). Průcha suggests that realisation of differentiation and individualisation is vital in teaching learning process. To support his opinion, he presents Bloom's Theory of Mastery Learning. Benjamin Bloom claims that every learner can learn given topic if he learns in suitable conditions and has got enough time. Bloom argues that it is necessary take into account different learning styles and strategies of each learner; to individualise. (Průcha, 2005, p. 137, 139).

According to Carol Ann Tomlinson, individualisation means that "each learner has materials and tasks based on the very particular needs of that student." (Bafile, 2006). Her definition corresponds with Jarmila Skalková's opinion. Skalková suggests that individualisation is based on the fact that work is adjusted to each learner according

to his potential. She also notes that individualisation does not mean working individually but its goal is to create situations that enable each learner to learn in optimal conditions. (Skalková, 1999, p. 212). According to Skalková, the Dalton plan has played a very important role in implementing the principle of individualisation since 20s and 30s of the twentieth century. She characterises the Dalton plan as a “working method that enables a learner to acquire the curriculum individually and at his own pace.” (Skalková, 1999, p. 213 my translation). Tomlinson claims that it is impossible to “make such precise distinctions between each student and [...] to generate enough lesson plans to address the needs of each individual we teach.” (Bafile, 2006). She suggests differentiation because it looks at areas where learners’ needs meet. According to these areas the teacher can offer three or four options for learners but not thirty. (Bafile, 2006).

Tomlinson describes differentiation in the following way:

On some level, differentiation is just a teacher acknowledging that kids learn in different ways, and responding by doing something about that through curriculum and instruction. A more dictionary-like definition is: adapting content, process, and product in response to student readiness, interest, and/or learning profile. (Bafile, 2006).

Tomlinson and Eidson define the following terms:

- Content – what is taught and how are learners given access to the information that matter. It is also important to know what knowledge have learners already acquired.
- Process – is often used as a synonym to activities. “It describes activities designed to ensure that students use the key skills to make sense out of essential ideas and information.” (Tomlinson, 1999, p. 11).
- Products – are means by which learners demonstrate what they have learned and are able to do as a result of their learning.
- Readiness – is understood as “the current knowledge, understanding, and skill level a student has related to a particular sequence of learning.” (Tomlinson and Eidson, 2003, p. 3).
- Interest – what a learner likes to learn and think about, and likes to do.

- Learning profile – is defined as a learner’s preferred way of learning which is influenced by culture, gender, intelligence preference and learning style. (Tomlinson and Eidson, 2003, p. 3-5).

According to Tomlinson and Eidson, the learning environment is another very important factor influencing differentiation. It includes time, space, material and classroom rules. Learners who are the same age differ in their interests, their readiness to learn, their styles of learning and experiences. The differences in learners are significant enough to influence what students need to learn and the pace at which they need to learn. Therefore teachers should differentiate content, process, product and classroom environment according to learner’s readiness, interest and learning profile in order to increase the possibility that each learner will learn as much as possible and as efficiently as possible.

Rýdl presents different concept which contains three types of differentiation:

- Differentiation in content – learners learn topics of different level according to their abilities. There are more levels in one class.
- Differentiation in time – learners work at their own pace. There is no time limit.
- Differentiation in interest – learners are grouped according to their preference of different topics. (Rýdl, 1998, p. 30).

Three types of differentiation used by Rýdl correspond in certain aspects to Tomlinson and Eidson’s concept. In both concepts learner’s interest, level of knowledge, understanding and skill play very important roles and their differentiation is realised. Time differentiation is implemented in both concepts.

Dalton teachers provide learners with assignments on different levels according to their abilities. Learner can choose what optional tasks they will accomplish. There are usually more ways how to solve a problem or fulfil a task therefore content, process and conduct differentiation are realised. The learner is enabled to work at his own pace and working place. Various material and teaching aids are used for different tasks. Learners can choose the most suitable for them. The differentiation of learning environment, content, process and product takes place in Dalton lessons. Parkhurst says: “Not until learning is envisaged for the learner’s point of view will our youth come out from school really educated.” (Parkhurst, 1922, p. 105).

1.3. Cooperation

The last principle that Parkhurst stated in her own words is “cooperation or, as I prefer to call it, the interaction of group life” (Parkhurst, 1922, p. 16). Cooperation is characterised by people working together, helping and respecting each other. In the teaching learning process there can be the following interaction patterns: teacher to learner (s) or learner to learner (s). Cooperation does not mean that a learner learns under the control of teacher but the learner works together with the teacher and other learners during the learning process. (Bajer, my translation). Therefore the relationship between the teacher and learners is changed. The teacher is not a controller and an organiser but a participant and a resource according to Harmer’s classification. (Harmer, 1992, p. 235) Organisational form is another factor which significantly influences cooperation and is closely connected to the role of teacher. Harmer distinguishes four organisational forms: lockstep, pairwork, groupwork and individual study. Teacher’s role in lockstep is very dominant and learners have fewer opportunities to cooperate. Whereas, the teacher has a more passive role of a participant and a resource in pairwork and groupwork. Therefore learners can be more active and cooperate. Pairwork and groupwork are the most suitable organisational forms for the development of cooperation. Individual study requires passive role of a teacher, active role of a learner but cooperation is minimal. (Harmer, 1992, p. 243-253). Cooperation is not only very useful in teaching learning process but it is also a necessity in a professional life.

Learners who are taught according to Dalton principles “grow into harmonious, responsible beings, able and willing to lend themselves consciously to cooperation with fellows for their common benefit.” (Parkhurst, 1922, p. 15). In my opinion, the Dalton plan and its principles are not only useful when learning at school, but also prepare learners for real life. “It is culture acquired through individual development and through collective cooperation. It is no longer school – it is life.” (Parkhurst, 1922, p. 19).

2. History of the Dalton plan

The Dalton plan was named after High School for Boys and Girls in Dalton, Massachusetts in the USA. It was developed by Helen Parkhurst in the 1920s when she worked at this school. (Průcha, 2001, p. 30). The Dalton plan was created as a solution to a didactic – organisational problem. There were learners of different age in the classroom. Parkhurst was forced to create a new system that would allow each learner to have an educational program adapted to “his or her needs, interests, and abilities; to promote both independence and dependability; and to enhance the student’s social skills and sense of responsibility toward others.” (*The Dalton School : Overview*). The Dalton plan was named after this school in the town Dalton. In 1920 the American public was informed about the Dalton plan and it became popular. Parkhurst wrote her book *Education on the Dalton Plan* in 1922. The second edition was published within three months because the book was a big success.

In the 1920s the Dalton plan spread to many countries all round the world: China, Japan, Russia, Canada, Australia, India, South Africa and to Europe. It was very popular in the Netherlands, Poland and partly in the Czechoslovakia. The Dalton plan became well known and very popular because Parkhurst lectured in many countries. As the interest in the Dalton plan was decreasing through out the century, there were only few Dalton schools in the Netherlands in the middle of the twentieth century. (Rýdl, 1998, p. 7 – 9). The Dalton plan was revitalised in the second half of the twentieth century. There are more than 250 Dalton schools in the Netherlands now. It is the most in one country in the world.

The number of Dalton schools greatly varies in every country. The Netherlands is in the first place when the number of Dalton schools is considered. There are more than 240 primary (ISCED1) and lower secondary (ISCED2) schools and nineteen upper secondary schools (ISCED3). The Dutch Dalton upper secondary schools are the only Dalton high schools in the world. The Czech Republic takes the second place with four pilot schools and approximately fifteen other Dalton schools. There are three Dalton schools in Japan, and only one Dalton school in Australia, Austria, China, Russia and in the USA. (Moškvan and Bajer 2004, Tlustoš and Bajer). The Dalton School in New York is the oldest Dalton school in the world and the only one remaining in the USA. It was

founded in 1919 by the renowned progressive educator Helen Parkhurst. Parkhurst's visionary Dalton Plan remains the keystone of the school's progressive educational philosophy and is now the model for over 200 Dalton schools in other parts of the world. (Stein).

Dalton schools from all over the world are members of Dalton International.

Dalton International is an international organisation established in 1999 in order to promote cooperation on international level. The targets of this organisation are:

- To promote the Dalton education on an international level
- Dalton International wants to stimulate the innovation of the Dalton education by international exchange of expertise
- Organizing of a yearly international Dalton conference
- International course offering
- Teachers accreditation in the Dalton method
- International cooperation in development of curriculum models
- Assisting in school design
- Exchange of teachers
- Nomination of "Members of Dalton International" (Dalton International: targets).

The international cooperation helps to share experience and new perceptions. Therefore the Dalton plan can develop.

2.1. The Dalton plan in the Czech Republic

The Dalton plan was introduced in the Czechoslovakia before the Second World War by J. Úleha and V. Příhoda. The Dalton plan was realised especially by L. Žofková, J. Nykl and K. Čondl from the 20s to the 40s of the twentieth century. The successful attempts to implement the Dalton plan in Czech schools were interrupted by the Second World War and the period of socialism. There was no development of the Dalton plan because of this political system. Limited communication with foreign countries was re-established in 1990s, particularly with the Netherlands. New development of the Dalton education based on the Dutch model started in the Czech Republic. Four Dalton schools in Brno implemented Dalton elements in 1994. (Rýdl, 1998, p. 9 – 10). Czech Dalton schools are associated in Czech Dalton Association which was established in Brno in 1996 by four pilot schools.

Pilot Dalton schools are:

Chalabalova Dalton School

Křídlovická Dalton School
Husova Dalton School
Mutěnická Dalton School (Moškvan and Bajer, 2004).

The association organises visits to Dutch schools, Dalton educational courses, workshops and conferences. The annual conference is held in Brno. The association closely cooperates with the same organisation in Utrecht in the Netherlands. The conferences help to share the experience on the international level. The association also focuses on translation of textbooks and cooperation with CERNEDA. (*Asociace českých daltonských škol*). Czech Dalton schools are also members of Dalton International. “Today, more than twenty-five schools apply Dalton elements in education.” (Moškvan and Bajer, 2004).

Dalton principles are realised through an assignment in Czech Dalton schools. Pupils must accomplish compulsory work but also have the freedom to choose optional and extra activities. (Moškvan and Bajer, 2004) Laboratory and house are another two basic Dalton forms of education but none of them is used in Czech Dalton schools in the original form.

The reason seems to be one: there is no possibility to vary in the schedule, which must be clearly stated. Thus a laboratory became a part of any Dalton lesson: pupils are given time to work alone (with some schools, pupils have to plan to work independently in advance), with the possibility to consult a teacher. (Moškvan and Bajer, 2004).

Although, Czech Dalton schools use only one of the Dalton forms of education they still fulfill all Dalton principles and have the status of Dalton schools.

The Dalton plan is realized differently in different countries and also every Dalton school in the Czech Republic implements the Dalton plan in a different way. The following models were applied in three pilot schools in 2004:

- Husova Dalton School – subject model is used. Dalton assignments are realised within one subject. The focus is on planning and evaluation of work.
- Křídlovická Dalton School – The model of block lessons is applied. Several subjects participate in Dalton education during the whole school year. Dalton blocks repeat in a fixed timetable. Learners’ portfolios are stressed.

- Chalabalova Dalton School – campaign model is used. Dalton lessons are realized in various subjects in a specified period (Dalton block, day). Work planning and time organisation are stressed. (Moškvan and Bajer, 2004)

The application of the Dalton plan changes due to the development of the Dalton plan and the curriculum reform.

Teaching according to the Dalton plan helps to fulfill the aims of primary (ISCED 1) and lower secondary education (ISCED 2) stated in *Framework Education Programme for Basic Education* because Dalton principles correspond with most of them. Here are some examples of correspondence:

- Two of the aims of primary (ISCED 1) and lower secondary education (ISCED 2) are to “get pupils to engage in efficient, effective, open communication on all aspects of their life” and to “develop pupils’ abilities to cooperate and to value their own work and achievements as well as the work and achievements of others.” (Framework education programme for basic education, 2008, p. 11). Learners must communicate when they cooperate. Therefore the abilities to cooperate and communicate are developed together. The aims correspond with the Dalton principle of cooperation.
- Another aim of primary (ISCED 1) and lower secondary education (ISCED 2) is to “guide pupils so that they should become free and responsible individuals who exercise their rights and meet their obligations.” (Framework education programme for basic education, 2008, p. 11). This aim corresponds with the Dalton principle of freedom (responsibility).
- The aims to “stimulate and encourage pupils to creative thinking, logical reasoning and problem solving” and to “help pupils to discover and develop their own abilities and skills in the context of actual opportunities and to use their abilities and skills in combination with their acquired knowledge when making decisions regarding the aims of their own life and profession.” (Framework education programme for basic education, 2008, p. 11). are compatible with the Dalton principles of independence and freedom (responsibility). Learners learn different learning strategies and use the ones that are the most suitable for them in Dalton schools. They are encouraged to

find as many solutions to a problem as they can. Not only one answer is correct. Therefore creativity and problem solving are stressed.

Other aims of primary (ISCED 1) and lower secondary education (ISCED 2) are closely connected to the Dalton plan too. Pedagogical and didactical aspects of the Dalton plan also enable the development of key competences. (Jak aplikujeme Dalton v ŠVP).

To summarise, even though, the Dalton plan is seen as an alternative or innovative method of teaching, it is convenient for realisation of aims of primary (ISCED 1) and lower secondary education (ISCED 2); and the development of key competences stated in the *Framework Education Programme for Basic Education*.

3. Learner autonomy in ELT

“Tell me and I’ll forget; show me and I’ll remember; involve me and I’ll learn.”

Chinese saying

The aim of this chapter is to define who an autonomous learner is, what learner autonomy is and its importance in ELT. The influence of learning strategies, the role of a teacher and organisational forms on development of learner autonomy in ELT will be discussed in chapters 4.1. – 4.3.. Chapter 4.4. will deal with the relationship between the Dalton plan and learner autonomy. It will be presented how teaching according to the Dalton plan and its principles enables learners to develop their autonomy and become more independent, self-reliant and responsible.

The word *autonomy* comes from two Greek words *autos* (own, my) and *nomos* (law). The term learner autonomy has been developing since 60s of the twentieth century and is difficult to define precisely. (Rýdl, 1996, p.8). Various approaches can be found in the literature – it is debated whether learner autonomy should be understood as capacity or behaviour; whether it is defined by learner responsibility or learner control; and whether the development of learner autonomy is directly dependant on a complementary teacher autonomy. (Little, 2003).

Leni Dam defines autonomy in the following way:

Autonomy is when the learner is willing to and capable of taking charge of his own learning. Learner autonomy is characterised by a readiness to take charge of one’s learning in the service of one’s needs and purposes. This entails a capacity and willingness to act independently and in cooperation with others, as a social responsible person. (Gathercole, 1990, p. 16-17).

When learners can influence and are responsible for planning and conducting teaching learning activities they are more actively involved and learn better. Although, learners are in charge of their learning it does not mean an abdication of responsibility on the part of teachers. Autonomy is not a synonym for self-instruction. It is not learning without teachers. Teachers have a very important role even though developing learner autonomy implies a change of teacher role. Teachers must retire from the dominant role and should try to adopt the role of informant, participant, observant and be co-responsible for the process of learning. Teachers play a very significant role in

independent learning because learners need their help. Learners feel unsure and surprised when they are suddenly involved in decision making and organising. They participate in “choosing aims and purposes; materials, methods and tasks; [...] organising and carrying out chosen tasks; and criteria for evaluation.” (Gathercole, 1990, p. 16). Before learners can be responsible for their learning, they need teachers’ assistance in order to decide what the aim is, which resources they can use and what are the best ones for them. Learners find it very difficult to be responsible for their own learning because they are used to dominant teachers who are responsible for learners’ learning. Not every learner can become an autonomous learner; some learners can be resistant to autonomy. (Gathercole, 1990, p. 5, 7, 17, 23, 34, 65, 83). Dam defines an autonomous learner as

An active participant in the social processes of learning, but also an active interpreter of new information in terms of what she/he already and uniquely knows. It is essential that an autonomous learner is stimulated to evolve an awareness of the aims and processes of learning and is capable of the critical reflection which syllabuses and curricula frequently require but traditional pedagogical measures rarely achieve. (Gathercole, 1990, p. 17).

Dam’s definition of autonomous learner is in accordance with Chudak’s following description that Věra Janíková notes down

Autonomous learner is able to choose the subject matter, to outline its progression and to identify learning strategies that enable him to accomplish the aims of learning. The autonomous learner is also capable of evaluation of his learning achievement. (Janíková, 2007, p. 39 my translation).

The common phenomenon among learners is their passive role in the process of learning. They rely on teachers too much and are unwilling to take responsibility for the outcome of their learning. This applies for other subjects as well as for teaching English as a foreign language. David Little points out the advantages of learner autonomy and stresses that language learners must be autonomous in order to be efficient communicators. They must have

sufficient independence, self-reliance and self-confidence to fulfil the variety of social, psychological and discourse role in which they will be cast. This entails being aware of the socio-pragmatic requirements of the different situations in which they are called upon to use the target language. (Gathercole, 1990, p. 8).

Effective communication of language learners depends on skills that develop only through use. Learners do not learn enough by listening and watching. Learning by doing – communicating is more effective. Autonomous learners of foreign languages are the users of the language they are learning. They make the transition from learners to users most easily and through autonomy fulfil the communicative aims of their foreign language curricula. (Gathercole, 1990, p. 9 - 13).

3.1. Learning strategies influencing development of learner autonomy in ELT

It is not enough to encourage learners to become more independent and autonomous. Learners have to be taught the skill how to learn. First, they must be aware of different learning strategies and then find out the most effective ones for each learner. Janíková quotes Wendenová who stresses the importance learner's knowledge of different learning strategies and the knowledge how to learn effectively.

Successful or expert learners have learned how to learn. They have acquired the learning strategies, the knowledge about learning, and the attitudes that enable them to use these skills and knowledge confidently, flexibly, appropriately and independently of a teacher. Therefore, they are autonomous. (Janíková, 2007, p. 12).

Richards and Lockhart define learning strategies as

Specific procedures learners use with individual learning tasks. When confronted with a classroom learning task, such as reading a chapter of a book or preparing a written summary of a passage, the learner can choose several different ways of completing the task. (Richards and Lockhart, 1996, p. 63).

Tricia Hedge (2000: 76-79) distinguishes four different learning strategies: cognitive, metacognitive, communication and socio-affective strategies.

- Cognitive strategies are used directly in learning second language. They enable learners to deal with presented information by working on it in different ways. Examples of cognitive strategies are analogy, visual, auditory, writing things down, repetition and inferencing. (Hedge, 2000, p. 77-78).
- Metacognitive strategies include paying attention, seeking out practice opportunities, organising, "planning for learning, thinking about learning and

how to make it effective, self-monitoring during learning, and evaluation of how successful learning has been.” (Hedge, 2000, p. 77).

- Communicative strategies are used by learners in order to sustain a conversation and make themselves understood despite their imperfect knowledge of the second language. Examples are the usage of synonyms, paraphrases, mime, gestures, and cognate words from first language. (Hedge, 2000, p. 79).
- Socio-affective strategies provide learners with opportunities for practice. Examples involve conversations with native speakers, listening to radio or music, and watching TV in the second language. (Hedge, 2000, p. 79).

According to Hedge (2000) learners can learn different learning strategies and discover the most effective ones for them during learner training. They should also become aware of the fact that they must be active participants of their learning process and less dependant on the teacher who has a less dominant role in a teaching learning process. According to Scrivener, learner training “means work on teaching learning as well as teaching English.” (Scrivener, 1994, p. 189). Hedge defines learner training as

A set of procedures or activities which raises learners’ awareness of what is involved in learning a foreign language, which encourages learners to become more involved, active, and responsible in their own learning, and which helps them to develop and strengthen their strategies for language learning. (Hedge, 2000, p. 85).

When developing different learning strategies during learner learning, the focus is on cognitive and metacognitive strategies. Techniques are usually used by teachers are presented to learners in order to develop learners’ cognitive strategies and activate them at the same time. Learners can derive meaning of a word by using knowledge of affixation (to teach → teachER), look up words in a dictionary or guess meaning from sentences in a corpus. Learners can learn how to discover grammatical rules, for example by reading a text in past simple. Learners elicit the rule of –ed suffixation. When learners find out meanings and rules by themselves they remember it better. Therefore these strategies make their learning more effective. (Hedge, 2000, p. 90, 91).

One of the ways how to introduce different metacognitive strategies in the classroom is a discussion where learners share their own strategies which help them to

learn more effectively. The discussion can encourage other learners to adopt strategies which they find useful and attractive. Examples of metacognitive strategies are reading the same book in the first and second language at the same time, reading English newspaper and looking up unknown words, listening to new vocabulary on CD and monitoring progress by writing a diary. (Hedge, 2000, p. 91-94).

Being aware of wide range of different learning strategies enables learners to choose the most suitable ones for them and make their learning process more effective and efficient. It also helps them to rely less on the teacher, learn more independently and become autonomous learners. Therefore teachers should not teach only English but help learners to discover how to learn better, too.

3.2. The role of teacher influencing development of learner autonomy in ELT

Richards and Lockhart define a role as “the part taken by a participant at any act of communication”. (Richards and Lockhart, 1996, p. 97). The role of a teacher is dynamic, not static. The roles which teachers and learners choose to adopt influence classroom atmosphere, interaction patterns and learners’ learning. Teachers’ and learners’ roles change and overlap during a lesson. (Nunan and Lamb, 1996, p. 134). They change according to interpersonal aspects, task related aspects and teaching methods. Interpersonal aspects are social and psychological factors such as “views about status and position, attitudes and values held by individuals and group and individuals’ personalities.” (Nunan and Lamb, 1996, p. 134). Task related aspects are understood as “teachers’ and learners’ expectations about the nature of learning tasks and the way in which individuals and groups deal with learning tasks.” (Nunan and Lamb, 1996, p. 134). The role of teacher in teaching learning process is also influenced by the approach or methodology the teacher is following (Communicative Language Teaching, Audiolingual method, Silent way, Suggestopedia). (Richards and Lockhart, 1996, p. 98, 101). Each method is characterised by a different role of teacher as well as of learner.

- Audiolingual method – teachers are active and dominant, function as models and organisers. Learners have little control and are in a passive and inactive role.

- Communicative approach – teachers are facilitators, participants, counsellors and process managers. They are not dominant. Learners are active and have the roles of negotiators, interactors and participants.
- Silent way – teachers teach and test but also remain in a passive role. They do not function as models and do not direct. Learners are responsible for their own learning and must become autonomous and independent of teachers.
- Suggestopedia – teachers are organisers and controllers, must be active, authoritative and confident. Learners remain in a passive role and have little control over method or content. (Nunan, 1989, p. 194, 195; Nunan and Lamb, 1996, p. 141).

The different methods imply different roles for learners and teachers. The main difference is in teachers' dominance and learners' activity and participation in the learning teaching process.

Tricia Hedge uses Karavas-Dukas's framework to describe teacher roles related to classroom procedures as well as influenced by attitudes in the social and cultural environment. This framework contains nine different role categories:

- Source of Expertise – authoritarian stance (Instructor, Presenter, Pedagogist, Actor), supportive stance (Informant, Resource, Input provider)
- Management roles – Manager, Organiser, Director, Administrator, Arranger
- Source of advice – Counsellor, Advisor, Personal tutor, Psychologist, Listener
- Facilitator of learning – Helper, Guide, Catalyst for group discussion, Prompter, Mediator
- Sharing roles – Negotiator, Participant, Student, Cooperator
- Caring roles – Friend, Sister/Mother, Supporter, Caretaker
- Creator of classroom atmosphere – Entertainer, Motivator, Source of inspiration
- Evaluator
- Example of behaviour and hard work (Hedge, 2000, p. 28 – 29).

Hedge uses Karavas-Dukas's framework in addition to Harmer's framework. She criticises Harmer for dealing with roles related only to classroom procedures. (Hedge, 2000, p. 26 – 29).

Harmer distinguishes the following possible roles of a teacher: controller, assessor, organiser, prompter, participant, resource, tutor and investigator. The roles are characterised by the different degree of teachers' dominance and learners' activity.

The teacher as a controller is completely in charge of the class. He controls what and when learners do, when they speak and in what language. This role is appropriate when the teacher needs the attention of the whole class, for example introducing a new activity, giving feedback or explanation. Learners talking time, their possibility to participate and learn are very limited when teachers are in the role of controller therefore teachers should not accept this role as the only one they have. (Harmer, 1992, p. 236).

The teacher as an assessor corrects learners' work and organises feedback for them. Feedback should include the evaluation of content as well as form. Teachers use not too strict and formal correction during activities which are not focused on accurate reproduction. This type of correction is called gentle correction. It also helps to maintain friendly atmosphere of pairwork or freer conversation. (Harmer, 1992, p. 237-239).

The teacher as an organiser – the main teacher's job in this role is to organise activities as efficiently as possible and to check that learners have understood given instructions. It is necessary that teachers give clear instruction so that learners know precisely what, how and when to do. For this purpose learners' mother tongue can be used when necessary. Teachers in the role of an organiser do not intervene during a pair or group activity unless it is necessary to prompt or use gentle correction. (Harmer, 1992, p. 239-241).

The teacher as a prompter helps and encourages students, make suggestions and gives examples when it is necessary. Teachers should not take over and be dominant. (Harmer, 1992, p. 241).

The teacher as a participant – teacher's activity in this role is to participate as an equal in various activities. The teacher's participation can improve classroom atmosphere and learners have an opportunity to practice English with someone who

speaks better English than they do. The teacher must be careful not to play a dominant role when participating. (Harmer, 1992, p. 241).

The teacher as a resource – in this role teachers do not interfere when learners work. Learners contact teachers when they need their help. Teachers function as assistants, consultants and resources. They are also discrete assessors. (Harmer, 1992, p. 242).

The teacher as a tutor – this role is most frequent when learners work on their own, for example working on a project. A Teacher is contacted by learners to give them advices concerning planning, structure, clarifies ideas and points out errors in drafts and learning techniques. This role also includes other roles such as organiser, prompter and resource. (Harmer, 1992, p. 242).

The role of an investigator – this is the only teacher's role that does not relate teacher's behaviour to learners. It considers teacher's investigating into his own teaching, observing what works well in the classroom and what does not, improving old and trying out new techniques and activities. (Harmer, 1992, p. 242, 243).

Nunan and Lamb perceive the role of organiser as the most important and difficult one from the perspective of classroom management. (Nunan and Lamb, 1996, p. 138). They agree with Harmer that

the success of many activities depends on good organisation and on the students knowing exactly what they are doing. [...] The main aim of the teacher when organising an activity is to tell the students what they are to talk about (or write or read about), give clear instructions about what exactly their task is, get the activity going, and then organise feedback when it is over. (Harmer, 1992, p. 139).

Teachers in the role of controllers are the most dominant and teachers in the resource role are the less dominant. Learners' activity is most restricted when teachers are controllers and learners are most active when teachers are in the role of resource. The degree of teachers' dominance and learners' activity connected to teachers' role is displayed in the following line.

controller → assessor → organizer → prompter → participant → resource

Since 1960s there has been a tendency to move from teacher dominated classroom to more learner centred teaching learning process, independent learning, inductive approaches and cooperative arrangements in general education as well as in second language teaching. This has been strongly connected to a change in perception of traditional dominant teacher roles. Learners should become more autonomous and be co-responsible for their own learning. (Richards and Lockhart, 1996, p. 10, 107).

When learner autonomy is being developed the change in the role of a teacher is necessary. Teachers must adopt the role of prompter, participant, resource and tutor, and retire from the role of absolute authority. Teachers must give more space to learners to be more active and involved because learners learn more and better by doing and not just by listening and watching. Learners should become active participants, interpreters of their knowledge and be in charge and responsible for their learning. They should not be just passive recipients of knowledge but be active participant of teaching learning process. (Gathercole, 1990, p. 9, 11, 23).

3.3. Organisational forms influencing development of learner autonomy in ELT

It is believed that interaction between teachers and students is very important in the learning process. Learners have different learning styles, strategies and preferences. Some students are more active in the learning process and participate more than others. The learning process is more effective when there are changes of pace and focus during a lesson. It helps to maintain the concentration of learners. Allowing a range of interaction patterns and organisational forms gives learners different opportunities to use language and to become involved. There is no right or wrong type of organisational forms in the classroom but it is important to consider why it has been chosen. A variety of organisational forms makes lessons more interesting, reduces teacher talking time and helps to increase learner talking time. Harmer distinguishes the following organisational forms: lockstep, pairwork, groupwork and individual study. (Harmer, 1992, p. 143-153).

Lockstep is most commonly used organisational form, especially in the beginning of the lesson. Harmer defines lockstep as:

The class grouping where all the students are working with the teacher, where all the students are 'locked into' the same rhythm and pace, the same activity [...] a teacher controlled session is taking place. (Harmer, 1992, p. 143).

This organisational form enables teachers to teach large number of learners at the same time. It means that all students are provided with a good language model from the teacher. Teachers can be sure that everyone hears what is being said, everyone pays attention. Therefore this organisational form is usually used to give instructions and can precede subsequent activities which can be accomplished individually or in groups. Lockstep is often used when teacher controlled activities such as accurate reproduction take place.

Teachers are in the role of a controller and assessor, and their talking time is usually about 70% of the classroom time. This means that learners' talking time is only 30% and learners have little chance to participate, to talk. This is a big disadvantage of lockstep because not enough speaking opportunities for learners can badly influence the development of communicative competence which is one of the aims of teaching learning process.

Harmer stresses that lockstep expects that all learners work at the same pace. It means that teachers are too fast for weak learners and too slow for brighter learners. Teachers need to include other organisational forms such as individual work, pair or group work because lockstep does not allow teachers to individualise and differentiate; and learners have little opportunity to speak. Richards and Lockhart use the term whole-class teaching for this organisational form. Their description is very similar to Harmer's one. The main difference is that Harmer stresses the fact that learners work at the same pace, and Richards and Lockhart emphasise teacher's dominance and activity. (Harmer, 1992, p. 143-4; Richards and Lockhart, 1996, p. 147-9).

Pairwork provides lots of opportunities for using and learning new language. It enables learners to develop their communicative competence and to cooperate. Pairwork can be used for various activities such as drills, asking and answering questions, practicing a dialogue. Learners are much more active than in whole-class teaching. Teachers are not in a dominant role but adopt the role of assessor, prompter or resource.

One of the disadvantages is connected to the role of assessor. Teachers cannot manage to correct mistakes of all learners during pairwork. Therefore it is better to use activities focused on fluency and not on accuracy. Another disadvantage is the possible

unwanted use of mother tongue and off task behaviour. Time limit and efficient monitoring can help to solve these problems. Learners can be encouraged and more motivated if the result of pairwork is a product (a map, a list, an advertisement). The choice of a partner can also significantly influence pairwork activity therefore the decision how to put learners in pairs is very important. Unfortunately, “there seems to be no research to give answers to the ideal combination for either pairs or groups.” (Harmer, 1992, p. 145).

Pairwork provides opportunities for learners to be active, participate, cooperate and use the target language. It is also possible to use it for various activities and for development of different skills such as speaking, writing and reading. (Harmer, 1992, p. 144-5; Richards and Lockhart, 1996, p. 152-3).

Groupwork similarly to pairwork helps to increase the amount of learners talking time. It also offers a bigger possibility of discussion and a greater chance that the group will solve a problem because there are more people in the group. Groupwork gives learners a better chance to cooperate than pairwork as learners are not forced to work with just one particular learner. This organisational form enables learners to work more independently because teachers abandon their role as controllers and are in the role of assessor, prompter and resource. Teachers can circulate among groups and work with the group or individual learners individually. It can be used for various tasks to develop different skills. Each group can also do different things, activities at the same time and at the same classroom. Pairwork disadvantages, possible problems and their solutions apply to groupwork too. (Harmer, 1992, p. 145-7; Richards and Lockhart, 1996, p. 153-4). The following decisions influence successful groupwork.

- Group size – an optimum group size is determined by the task learners are doing. If the group is too large some learners may not participate. Generally, the size up to five learners is believed to be the best.
- Purpose – “group activities need a goal, procedures, and a time frame to accomplish them, if they are to be focused and productive.” (Richards and Lockhart, 1996, p. 153).
- Roles –it is essential that learners have different roles in a group during certain group activities. They can adopt roles such as a group leader, a secretary, mini-teacher, a presenter).(Richards and Lockhart, 1996, p. 153-4).

Group work provides greater opportunity for learners to practice the use of target language, develop cooperation and independent work than pairwork does. It can be used for various activities to develop different skills and subskills. The individualisation and differentiation are also possible because groups can work on different tasks at the same time and teachers can work with individual groups or learners individually when circulating and monitoring.

Individual study is the second most frequently used organisational form in the classroom. It is suitable for such activities as reading, writing and doing exercises from workbooks or worksheets. Teachers can assign activities on different level according to individual needs and abilities. Individual study enables learners to work on their own and at their own pace. The development of self-reliance is possible due to the teacher role of prompter and resource. On the contrary, it provides little opportunity for interaction among learners as well as among the teacher and learners. Learners may finish task at different times and be left with nothing to do. This problem can be solved by assigning extra voluntary tasks for quicker learners. Richards and Lockhart use the terms individual work for this organisational form. (Harmer, 1992, p. 148; Richards and Lockhart, 1996, p. 149).

Whole-class teaching organisational form is not very convenient for developing learner autonomy. Autonomous learners are active participants in teaching learning process and whole-class teaching does not provide enough opportunities for them to be active, independent and responsible because teachers are in a dominant role of controller and assessor. Learners learn more and better by doing than by listening therefore they need as much time as possible to practice the target language. Learners talking time is only 30% of lesson time during whole-class teaching. Whole-class teaching also provides little opportunity for learners to cooperate with teachers and does not enable learners to cooperate among themselves. To develop learner autonomy it is necessary to use other organisational forms such as pair and group work or individual study.

Pair and group work are more suitable organisational forms for development of learner autonomy because learners are enabled to be active, cooperate, work without a direct influence of teachers and be responsible for their own learning as well as for learning of their classmates. Learners can become more autonomous because teachers

are in less dominant roles of assessor, prompter and resource during these organisational forms. Autonomous learners must develop their independence, self-reliance and self-confidence. This can be achieved by individual study. This organisational form also gives learners chance to work at their own pace and each learner can accomplish tasks on different level.

The most appropriate organisational forms for development of learner autonomy are pair and group work, and individual study. Pair and group work give learners space to be active, to cooperate and to be responsible for their own learning. Individual study enables learners to work independently and to become self-reliant. Therefore teachers should use a combination of these three organisational forms in order to develop learner autonomy.

3.4. The Dalton plan and learner autonomy

The development of learner's autonomy is closely connected to the Dalton principles – independence, cooperation and freedom (responsibility). One of the aims of the Dalton plan is that learners become self-confident, self-reliant and responsible beings under the teacher's assistance/guidance.

The Dalton principle of freedom enables learners to make choice about the sequence of tasks, the time and learning strategies they need to use to accomplish them. Quite often learners can also choose whether they want to work individually or in pairs or groups. Learners make their own choices therefore it is not differentiation implemented by teachers. The fact that learners' have a chance to make important decisions about the learning process helps them to develop self-reliance and autonomy. Learners in Dalton schools cannot do whatever they want, as it may seem, because they are responsible for their learning process as well as for the outcome. Teaching learning process is not a one way flow of information from teachers to learners but learners actively participate on their learning. Main Dalton learner characteristics of responsibility and active participation correspond with features of an autonomous learner. (Röhner and Wenke, 2000, p. 20, 21).

Learners learn frequently by themselves and teachers adopt less dominant and passive roles. Teachers usually help learners only when asked. They act as prompters and resource. "The change of teacher role is absolutely necessary for Dalton pedagogy." (Röhner and Wenke, 2006, p. 42). It enables learners to become more active, self-reliant

and independent participants of the learning process. Dalton teachers also use delayed attention principle which is a specific Dalton technique used in order to develop learners' autonomy, independence and cooperation. Teachers are in the role of observer and learners cannot seek their help. This method is described in chapter 1.2.. Teacher' less dominant role in Dalton lessons corresponds with the role of teacher which is suitable for development of learner autonomy.

Whole-class teaching is substituted as often as possible by other organisational forms in Dalton lessons. Individual study, pair and group work are most frequently used. Individual study is a very important organisational element because it enables teachers to work individually with those learners who need help. It also gives learners a chance to work at their own speed and develop their self-reliance. Pair and group work are used very often to stimulate cooperation (one of Dalton main principles), learners' participation and lower their relying on teachers. When learners work in pairs or groups they are also more motivated to learn by the interaction with their classmates. (Röhner and Wenke, 2003, p. 29, 50). Dalton teachers use those organisational forms which are convenient for development of learner autonomy.

Reflecting the theory of multiple intelligence and development of different learning strategies are important in teaching learning process in Dalton lessons. Dalton teachers help learners to develop different learning strategies and discover the best one for them. They give instruction in various ways and do not always require one form of realisation of an assignment so that learners can choose different strategies how to accomplish given tasks. They are encouraged to find as many solutions of a problem as they can. (Röhner and Wenke, 2000, p. 105; Röhner and Wenke, 2006, p. 54). The possibility to use different learning strategies makes learning more efficient and easier for learners. They become more independent, self-reliant and develop their autonomy.

Teaching according to the Dalton plan helps to develop learner autonomy. A less dominant role of teacher and frequent use of other organisational forms but whole-class teaching in Dalton lessons give learners lots of opportunities to be active and participate on their learning. Learners can freely choose various learning strategies to learn required topics or solve problems. Dalton principles enable learners to become less dependant on teachers, more self-reliant, to develop their autonomy and the ability to cooperate.

4. Communicative competence

“It is possible to speak English that is grammatically correct, yet is still wrong.” (Scrivener, 1994, p. 138).

The aim of language teaching is to develop communicative competence. Its concept has gone through considerable development since Noam Chomsky’s theory of competence. Hedge (2000) and Richards and Rodgers (2001) refer to several notable theories of communicative competence, such as the studies by Hymes (1972), Halliday (1970), Canale and Swain (1980), and Bachman (1990). Richards and Rodgers consider Lyle F. Bachman’s model of what he calls language competence very complex. Nevertheless, it was extended by Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei, and Thurrell (1997). (Richards and Rodgers, 2001, p. 159-161).

In his linguistic theory Chomsky used the term *competence* to describe “the speaker – hearer’s knowledge of the language” and *performance* to define “the actual use of the language in concrete situations.” (Chomsky 1965 cited in Hedge, 2000, p. 45). Chomsky’s theory primarily concerns native speakers therefore it deals

with an ideal speaker-listener in a completely homogenous speech community, who knows its language perfectly and is unaffected by such grammatically irrelevant conditions as memory limitation, distraction, shifts of attention and interest, and errors (random or characteristic) in applying his knowledge of the language in actual performance. (Chomsky 1965 cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2001, p. 159).

It is very improbable that such ideal native speakers-listeners exist and impossible that they exist among non-native English speakers. Therefore Chomsky’s theory has been criticised for its narrow focus on the abstract abilities speakers possess that enable them to create grammatically correct sentences and exclusion of social and cultural knowledge which speakers need to understand and use linguistic forms. (Hedge, 2000, p. 45, Richards and Rodgers, 2001, p. 159).

According to Richards and Rodgers (2001, p. 159), Dell Hymes agreed with above mentioned criticism. He regarded Chomsky’s linguistic theory as sterile hence he incorporated communication and culture in his theory of communicative competence. Hymes coined the term *communicative competence* to contrast his communicative view of language and Chomsky’s theory of competence. For Hymes the communicative

element was “rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless. [...] The rules of speech acts enter as controlling factor for linguistic form as whole.” (Hymes 1972 cited in Hedge, 2000, p. 45). He included speaker’s knowledge as well as his ability to put that knowledge into use in communication. Hymes’s theory of communicative competence was extended by Canale and Swain’s concept which was upgraded by Bachman. (Hedge, 2000, p. 45, Richards and Rodgers, 2001, p. 159, 160).

According to Bachman (1990, p. 84), communicative competence or as he calls it *communicative language ability* consists of the knowledge of the language and the capacity for implementing that knowledge in appropriate, contextualised communicative language use. Bachman suggests three components that the framework of communicative language ability contains: language competence, strategic competence and psycho-physiological mechanisms. The term language competence is used by Bachman to refer to “a set of specific knowledge components that are utilised in communication via language.” (Bachman, 1990, p. 84). Strategic competence characterises the mental capacity for using the components of language competence in contextualised communicative language use. Strategic competence expresses the ability to relate language competencies to the context of the situation in which language use takes place and to the language user’s sociocultural knowledge. (Bachman, 1990, p. 84). By psycho-physiological mechanisms Bachman refers to “the neurological and psychological processes involved in the actual execution of language as a physical phenomenon.” (Bachman, 1990, p. 84).

Bachman divides language competence into two types: organisational and pragmatic competence.

Organisational competence is perceived by Bachman as

Abilities involved in controlling the formal structure of language for producing or recognising grammatically correct sentences, comprehending their propositional content, and ordering them to form texts. (Bachman, 1990, p. 87).

Organisational competence is further on subdivided into grammatical and textual competence. Grammatical competence involves the knowledge of vocabulary, morphology, syntax, phonology and graphology. Therefore a language user mastering grammatical competence is able to

govern the choice of words to express specific significations, their forms, their arrangement in utterances to express propositions, and their physical realisations, either as sounds or as written symbols. (Bachman, 1990, p. 87).

Textual competence includes the knowledge of the conventions for joining utterances together in order to form a text. Bachman considers spoken and written language therefore he includes the knowledge of rules of cohesion as well as rhetorical organisation in his concept of textual competence. (Bachman, 1990, p. 87-89).

Pragmatic competence is also subdivided into illocutionary and sociolinguistic competence. Both competences are according to Bachman “concerned with the relationship between utterances and the acts or functions that speakers (or writers) intend to perform through these utterances.” (Bachman, 1990, p. 89). Hedge interprets Bachman’s definition as follows

One element of pragmatic competence is knowing how to perform a particular function or express an intention clearly. In order for communication to be successful [...] messages must also be appropriate to the social context in which they are produced. (Hedge, 2000, p. 49)

Bachman defines illocutionary competence as the knowledge of the pragmatic conventions for performing acceptable language functions such as ideational, manipulative, heuristic and imaginative. Hedge (2000, p. 48) interprets this definition as the knowledge of how to use language in order to achieve certain communicative goals or intentions. Characterised by Bachman, sociolinguistic competence is the knowledge of the sociolinguistic conventions for performing language functions appropriately in given context in relation to sensitivity to dialect or variety, register, naturalness and cultural references and figures of speech. (Bachman, 1990, p. 94-98). It is obvious that language users need to possess social knowledge in order to select appropriate language forms according to use in different settings, and with people in different roles and with different status.

Even though the components of language competence are presented separately Bachman stresses that they are not separate and independent of each other, but interact with each other and with features of the language situation use. He says that “it is this very interaction between the various competencies and the language use context that characterises communicative language use.” (Bachman, 1990, p. 86). In other words, it

is obvious that perfect knowledge of linguistic forms is not sufficient to make a language user a communicatively competent one.

The latest concept of communicative competence is captured in *Common European Framework of Reference for languages: learning, teaching, assessment* which was first published in 2001. It is a document that describes the competences necessary for communication, the related knowledge and skills, and the situations and domains of communication. Communicative competence is here described as consisting of the following components:

- Linguistic competence – “the knowledge of, and the ability to use, the formal resources from which well-formed, meaningful messages may be assembled and formulated.” It includes lexical, grammatical, semantic, phonological, orthographic and orthoepic competence. (Common European Framework of Reference for languages, p. 109).
- Sociolinguistic competence – is concerned with the knowledge and skills such as linguistic markers of social relations, politeness conventions, expressions of folk-wisdom, register differences, dialect and accent. These skills are required to deal with the social dimension of language use. (Common European Framework of Reference for languages, p. 118).
- Pragmatic competence – refers to the knowledge of cohesion, coherence, discourse, identification of text types and forms, irony and parody. (Common European Framework of Reference for languages, p.13).

Communicative competence is seen as one of the necessary skills that learners must learn or acquire in order to participate effectively in communicative events. It is considered as one of the main aims of foreign language learning. Learning communicative competence is presented in Common European Framework of Reference for languages as

a matter of reception, production, interaction or mediation. It may be that the main stated objective of learning a foreigner language is to have effective results in receptive activities (reading or listening) or mediation (translating or interpreting) or face to face interaction. (Common European Framework of Reference for languages, p. 136).

In other words, learners learn language receptive skills (reading and listening) and productive skills writing and speaking) via oral or written communication. The

processes of production and reception are primary because they are necessary for interaction. In interaction at least two individuals participate in an oral or written exchange in which production and reception alternate and may overlap in oral communication. High importance is attributed to interaction in language use and learning because of its main role in communication. (Common European Framework of Reference for languages, p. 14).

Common European Framework of Reference for languages was developed through a process of scientific research and wide consultation; works such as Bachman's, Hymes's, and Canal and Swain's were used. Therefore this document is reliable. It contains not only description of communicative competence but also covers what learners need to acquire in order to achieve communicative competence. Therefore I decided to use this document for the purpose of this thesis. (Council of Europe Education: Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment).

4.1. Language skills and subskills in ELT

Learners need to learn language skills in order to communicate effectively and to achieve communicative competence. (Common European Framework of Reference for languages, p. 136). Communication can occur only through the use of language skills (reading, writing, speaking, and listening). Listening and reading are receptive skills because the reader or listener receives information but does not produce it. Speaking and writing are productive skills. "In order to use language skills competent users of a language need a number of subskills for processing the language that they use and are faced with." (Harmer, 1992, p. 17). In other words, to use skills learners also need to learn the language subskills: grammar, vocabulary, spelling and pronunciation. It must be stressed that skills or subskills do not exist in isolation. Scrivener says "there can be no speaking if you do not have the vocabulary to speak with; there is no point learning words unless you can do something useful with them." (Scrivener, 1994, p. 21). Therefore skills and subskills need to be taught in appropriate proportions. According to Scrivener (1994, p. 21), nowadays attention is given particularly to "listening and speaking (because in everyday life we often do far more speaking and listening than we do reading and writing)" and to grammar. Both skills and subskills need to be taught in context. Learners

need to be aware of the different ways language is used in different situations [...] (where we are, what we want to say and who we are talking to). [...] They need to know the difference between formal and informal use. (Harmer, 1992, p. 24).

To sum up, learners need to acquire language subskills, language skills and be able to use language appropriately in different situations in order to communicate and to achieve communicative competence.

4.1.1. Pronunciation

Pronunciation is one of the subskills that language learners need to master in order to become intelligible and be able to participate in spoken communication with native and non native speakers. Teaching pronunciation is realised on two levels: segmental and suprasegmental. Segmental level includes individual sounds and suprasegmental encompasses intonation, rhythm and stress. In English there are sounds (ð, θ) that are not in Czech therefore it is necessary to explain and show learners how to produce sounds correctly first. It is important that learners are taught pronunciation from the very beginning, that reception precedes production and spoken form precedes written form. (Scrivener, 1994, p. 140). According to Scrivener

While a number of English phonemes are familiar, some will be distinctly different. [...] In both cases, getting students to produce the sounds themselves can be difficult; it is necessary to raise their awareness of the fact that there is something to work on, and the first step is to get them *hear* the difference. Receptive awareness comes before productive competence. (Scrivener, 1994, p. 140).

Learners need to know correct pronunciation in order to be intelligible. Incorrect pronunciation can change the meaning of words, of the whole sentence or change speakers attitude thus it can cause confusion and misunderstanding. Therefore it is vital to teach and practice pronunciation in the classroom.

4.1.2. Vocabulary and spelling

Vocabulary is a powerful carrier of meaning. Especially beginners often manage to communicate in English by just using individual words and completely avoiding grammar. For example, they manage to convey the meaning successfully by saying

Yesterday. Cinema. And friends. Good film.. Therefore, teaching vocabulary in the classroom must not be underestimated or left as learners' homework. Vocabulary ought to be taught in the classroom and teachers should teach learners different strategies how to learn new vocabulary easily and more effectively. Teachers should also make sure that acquired vocabulary is practiced in lessons. The teaching learning process of vocabulary can be described in the following steps: presentation → practice → production. Scrivener notes down that teacher should help learners

at each of the following stages of learning vocabulary – when the learners:

- meet new words and understand their meaning(s) and the way they are used
- practice using words
- find ways that help them memorise the words
- recall and use the words appropriately (Scrivener, 1994, p. 74).

Scrivener summarises the role of vocabulary in the classroom as follows:

- Vocabulary is very important and needs to be dealt with systematically in its own right; not simply as add-on to grammar or skills lessons.
- Teacher's job does not finish as soon as a learner has first met some new vocabulary; we need to help them practice, learn, store, recall and use the items. [...]
- We need to distinguish between vocabulary for 'productive' and for 'receptive' recognition and adapt classroom work appropriately.
- We need to deal not only with single word lexical items, but also with longer, multiple word items. (Scrivener, 1994, p. 75).

Learners need to acquire words in written as well as spoken form. Therefore teaching spelling is closely connected to teaching vocabulary. The multisensory approach is used to make learners' learning easier and more effective. Harmer suggests the following ways of presenting vocabulary: use of real objects, pictures, mime, action, gestures, explanation and translation. (Harmer, 1992, p. 161-162).

Teachers must be aware that teaching new vocabulary is not translating. It is presenting the meaning in the context and in relation to other words, explaining how the use of word and its formation can change its meaning, and word's connection to grammar.

4.1.3. Grammar

Harmer uses *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* to define grammar as

(The study and practice of) the rules by which words change their forms and are combined into sentences. [...] The rules of the grammar are [...] about how words change and how they are put together into sentences. (Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English cited in Harmer, 1991, p 1).

Mastering of grammar rules is one of the conditions to acquire communicative competence therefore it is important to teach grammar in the classroom. The form, meaning, use and context need to be considered when teaching grammar. Harmer suggests that

teachers have to make decisions about what structure (*form*) to teach, and what use (*function*) the structure is to be put to. It is clear that when we introduce a new piece of grammar we must teach not only the form, but also one of its functions, and not only *meaning* but also *use*. (Harmer, 1991, p. 10).

In other words, learners need to learn how to form certain structures, how and when to use them, and what their meaning is in the given context.

Learning grammar is usually realised in three stages: presentation → practice → production. Learners notice new structure and became aware of the form, meaning and use during the stage of presentation. Then learners practice new grammar in controlled activities which focus on

limited options for use of language, limited options for communication, and accuracy. Typical restricted use activities are oral drills, written exercises, elicited dialogues, grammar practice activities and games. (Scrivener, 1994, p. 118).

Learners do freer activities in which they produce the target form during the production stage. (Hedge, 2000, p. 164).

Scrivener (1994, p. 128) distinguishes three different approaches of introducing grammar: presentation, self-directed discovery and guided discovery. Hedge uses the term *inductive approach* and the term *deductive approach*. Her description of inductive approach corresponds with Scrivener's description of self-directed discovery and guided

discovery. Presentation defined by Scrivener accords with what Hedge calls traditional deductive approach. (Hedge, 2000, p. 160-163).

The use of discovery technique can be motivating and very beneficial for learners' understanding of English grammar. Learners are involved in analytical study of the language which helps them to get the grips with the language. Their active involvement also makes it easier for them to remember the grammar rules, especially those which they discovered themselves. Teachers need to consider when to use discovery techniques, with what grammar, and with which learners because this approach can be confusing and difficult for learners. Presentation might be more appropriate when teaching more difficult grammar rules.

It is very important for learners to acquire the knowledge of grammar because it is necessary in order to develop communicative competence. It is vital to teach not only a form but also a meaning, use and context. Learners' acquisition of grammar is strongly influenced by the way it is introduced. Therefore teacher must decide whether to use inductive or deductive approach.

4.1.4. Speaking

Speaking is a productive skill. It is one of the most important skills and to master it is a priority for many language learners. The purpose of learning language is usually to enable learners to communicate in the target language and to participate in exchanging information. Speaking and listening are realised most often in everyday life therefore it is important to teach these skills.

Speaking needs to be taught in context in order to enable learners to speak competently in everyday life situations. (Scrivener, 1994, p. 21, 22). Learners need to develop the knowledge of contextual appropriacy which, according to Hedge, "means that the language chosen for particular message will depend on the setting, the relative status of the participants, and their role relationship." (Hedge, 2000, p. 261). There are two other significant factors that influence teaching speaking: accuracy and fluency. Hedge defines fluency as

responding coherently within the turns of the conversation, linking words and phrases, using intelligible pronunciation and appropriate intonation, and doing all of this without undue hesitation. (Hedge, 2000, p. 261).

Immediate correction is not appropriate during speaking practice that is focused on fluency. Teacher should not interrupt learners but make notes and provide feedback at the end of an activity. On the other hand, the instant correction is appropriate when speaking practice is focused on accuracy, for example intelligible pronunciation and grammatical and lexical accuracy. (Hedge, 2000, p. 261, 262, Scrivener, 1994, p. 68). Therefore teachers need to distinguish between speaking activities focused on accuracy and fluency.

Clear instructions, learners' knowledge of vocabulary, interesting topic, even participation, organisational form and teacher role are significant factors influencing speaking activities. An activity is successful when learners are interested in the chosen topic and are familiar with the needed vocabulary. Whole-class speaking activity may be useful but it offers very little speaking time to each learner thus pair or group work organisational forms are more suitable. Also the aim is to let the learners speak so the teacher should not be dominant and contribute a lot during the activity but wait till the end and provide feedback then, especially during speaking activities focused on fluency. (Scrivener, 1994, p. 59, 68).

Speaking focused on accuracy as well as on fluency need to be practiced and learners need to become familiar with the appropriate use of language in different situations in order to communicate effectively in the target language.

4.1.5. Writing

Writing is a productive skill. Quite often it is taught less often in comparison with other skills. One of the reasons is that "the need for longer, formal written work seems to have lessened over the years". (Scrivener, 1994, p. 156). People usually write only brief notes, diaries, postcards or fill in questioners. Despite this fact, writing is also very common in business English and for some learners it is vital in order to pass exams or take down notes during a lesson. Therefore it is still important to teach writing in the classroom. (Scrivener, 1994, p. 156).

A piece of writing should be appropriate to its purpose and also to its audience of readers. It is important for learners to be aware of the purpose and also of the readers of the writing because these facts influence the style and "the range of cohesive devices that are used to create complex sentences or to develop paragraphs. It also affects the range of vocabulary." (Hedge, 2000, p. 326). Hedge (2000, p. 321, 322) distinguishes

different types of writing according to the final products which differ in purpose, target audience, form and style: personal, social, public, study, creative and institutional. Teachers need to identify the type of writing that is relevant for learners to acquire.

Scrivener (1994, p. 157) distinguishes four types of writing:

copying → doing exercises → guided writing → free writing

The focus is more on accuracy towards the left of the scale. The importance of fluency increases towards the right of the scale. It is important that teachers help learners to develop accuracy in writing a text even though guided and free writing are a fluency activity. Learners need to become familiar with aspect of crafting a text: “of such things as how the parts of a text are linked through cohesive devices, how sentence structure can vary to develop meaning, and the role that punctuation plays.” (Hedge, 2000, p. 326).

Although, writing is not very often used in everyday life its teaching should not be neglected. The teacher needs to decide what type of writing is appropriate for learners to acquire and help them to become good writers in relation to accuracy as well as fluency.

4.1.6. Listening and reading

I will deal with both skills in one chapter because as Harmer (1992) and Scrivener (1994) point out, similar teaching procedures can be used. Listening and reading are receptive skills. In our daily life people do a lot of listening and reading and it is usually because they find it interesting or useful and have a purpose to achieve. People also have some expectations about what they are going to hear or read. Harmer suggests that the methodology for teaching receptive skills must reflect these facts about real life, and the tasks performed by learners must be sufficiently realistic and motivating for the learners to perceive a useful purpose for text study. (Harmer, 1992, p. 188).

Harmer (1992, p. 189) and Scrivener (1994, p. 150) use the same model for teaching receptive skills. It has five basic stages and one optional one:

- Lead-in – pre-listening/pre-reading introduction to the topic
- Pre-task work – is optional, work on vocabulary, prediction

- Set a clear task – the teacher sets clear tasks and makes sure that learners know what they are going to do, what their tasks are. It is vital that setting a task is followed by reading or listening and not vice versa.
- Learners listen or read the text – learners listen or read in order to perform the set task
- Feedback on task – teacher helps learners to find out if learners completed the task successfully and can repeat the previous stage if learners were unsuccessful. It is important to grade the task rather than the material. The focus should be on process rather than on product.
- Conclusion – tie up loose ends and lead to follow-on activities which might be some kind of follow-up task related to the text activities.

This task-feedback circle, as Scrivener calls it, can be used for listening as well as reading although different tasks are suitable for each skill.

According to Scrivener, there are two different types of listening exercises: *extensive* and *intensive listening*. Extensive listening is also called listening for gist. Learners' task is to gain an overall impression or understanding of what it is about. On the contrary, intensive listening is focused smaller portion of the tape. It is also called listening for detail. Learners are asked to elicit certain information from the listening. Scrivener also points out that it is hard to understand the gist of a piece without understanding some details. (Scrivener, 1994, p. 151).

Scrivener defines two basic approaches to a text: extensive reading and intensive reading. Extensive reading is also called fluent reading or gist reading. Its aim is to gain an overall understanding of a longer piece of text (an article, a story). It is not necessary for learners to understand individual words or sometimes even sentences. On the other hand, intensive reading is used with short text, sometimes even sentences; and learners need to understand, study information and language in detail. The term accurate reading is also used for intensive reading. (Scrivener, 1994, p. 152, 153).

Some activities are focused on increasing reading speed. There are two techniques: *skimming* and *scanning*. Skimming means reading quickly and getting the gist of a text. Learners don not need to read every word of the text. Skimming is concerned with searching main ideas, key topics and overall theme. On the contrary, scanning is quick reading with focus on specific piece of information. Learners quickly

search a text for key words that will enable them to focus on a small part of text which should provide them with the needed information. (Scrivener, 1994, p. 154).

Reading and listening are important skills that need to be practiced in the classroom. Teachers need to distinguish and implement two approaches in practicing these skills: extensive reading/listening and intensive reading/listening. Learners also need to become familiar with fast reading therefore skimming and scanning techniques should be practiced.

4.2. The Dalton plan and development of communicative competence in ELT

Although, the Dalton plan is seen as an alternative or innovative method of teaching, its pedagogical and didactical aspects are suitable for the development of key competences stated in the *Framework Education Programme for Basic Education*. Communicative competence is one of them and is defined by the abilities that learners will acquire by the end of their basic education. In order to achieve these abilities learners need to learn language subskills and skills, and be able to use them appropriately in different situations in order to communicate effectively.

The Dalton principles provide suitable conditions for learning language skills and subskills. The principle of freedom (responsibility) makes learners responsible for the process and for the outcome of their task/learning. It also provides them with freedom to accomplish a task in their own way. They can choose different strategies, organisational forms, materials and work at their own pace. The principle of independence enables learners to work without the dominant influence of the teacher. Therefore the learner is an active participant of the learning process. Learners learn more effectively when they are active. The principle of cooperation enables learners to learn how to cooperate with others. It helps them to learn how to use their “acquired communication skills to create relations that are needed when living together with other people and for high-level cooperation with other people.” (Framework education programme for basic education, 2008, p. 13).

To summarise, teaching according to the Dalton plan provides learners with suitable conditions for learning language skills and subskills therefore for the development of communicative competence.

5. Conclusion of the theoretical part

The aim of the theoretical part is to provide a general overview of this thesis and theoretical basis for the practical part. The very beginning of the paper is dedicated to the defining of the Dalton plan and its principles of freedom (responsibility), independence and cooperation. It also captures the development of the Dalton plan in the Czech Republic and abroad, and presents certain ways of its realisation.

The next chapter is devoted to learner autonomy; to its importance in ELT; and to the factors influencing its development such as learning strategies, the role of teacher and organisational forms. This chapter aspires to offer some suggestions how teaching according to Dalton principles can influence the development of learner autonomy in ELT.

The last part of the theoretical section is concerned with communicative competence and the development of its concept from the first one by Chomsky to the latest one captured in *Common European Framework of Reference for languages: learning, teaching, assessment*. According to this latest concept, communicative competence consists of three different competences that need to be developed, and suggests that learners need to master language skills and subskills in order to acquire communicative competence in ELT. This concept is used as a theoretical base for the research. This chapter also deals with language skills, subskills and suggestions how the implementation of Dalton principles influences the development of communicative competence in ELT.

To summarise, the theoretical part of this thesis focuses on the Dalton plan, the development of learner autonomy and communicative competence in ELT. It offers certain ideas how teaching according to the Dalton principles influences the development of learner autonomy and communicative competence in ELT. It serves as a theoretical basis for the practical part that aims to compare Dalton and non-Dalton lessons in relation to the development of learner autonomy and communicative competence in ELT.

III. Practical part

6. Research

The aim of the practical part of this thesis is to present a description of my small-scale research and its findings. The structure of the research, the school, the teacher and learners involved, research methods, data presentation, their interpretation and evaluation will be depicted in the practical part.

The research was conducted in the following stages:

- Setting the aim of the research
- Selection of the school, the teacher, the research design and data collecting instruments
- Implementation of piloting stage
- Data collecting via observation, interview and school educational programme
- Analysis of the collected data and of the school educational programme
- Interpretation and evaluation of the collected data

All above mentioned stages are chronologically described in the following pages.

6.1. The aim of the research and its background

It has been suggested in the theoretical part of the thesis that the development of learner autonomy and communicative competence is very important in the teaching learning process and is one of the aims of learning foreigner language at Dalton and non-Dalton lessons/schools. The aim of the research is to compare Dalton and non-Dalton English lessons in order to find out whether learners are provided with convenient conditions to develop their autonomy and communicative competence in Dalton and non-Dalton lessons. It is impossible to focus on all conditions influencing the development of learner autonomy and communicative competence which were discussed in the theoretical part because of the limited space provided for this thesis. Therefore I decided to focus on the following factors: teacher role, organisational form, development of different parts of communicative competence and language skills and subskills.

The research tries to answer the following questions:

- Q1: Do learners have suitable conditions to develop their autonomy in Dalton lessons in relation to organisational form?
- Q2: Do learners have convenient conditions to develop their autonomy in Dalton lessons in relation to the role of teacher?
- Q3: What language skills and subskills are more often developed in Dalton lessons?
- Q4: What part of communicative competence is more often developed in Dalton lessons?

The small-scale research was realised at a primary (ISCED1) and a lower secondary (ISCED2) Dalton school in Brno. This school has had a long experience with the implementation of the Dalton plan. I choose it because of the fact that some lessons are taught according to Dalton principles and some are not. Therefore some lessons are Dalton ones and some are non-Dalton ones. All observed lessons were taught by the same teacher. These facts enabled me to carry out my comparative study at this school. The research was conducted within a period of three and half months from the end of October to the middle of February. There were twenty-four lessons observed. Twelve lessons were Dalton lessons and twelve were non-Dalton lessons. All of them were taught by one experienced Dalton teacher and realised within three different grades: grade six, eight and nine. The learner's age varied from eleven to fourteen. There were 21 learners in grade six, 17 learners in grade eight and 18 learners in grade nine in English lessons. Long time experience has proved that usually two or three learners are absent therefore the number of learner in the class is below twenty in most English lessons.

6.2. Research methodology and data collecting instruments

The research design chosen for the purpose of this thesis is a case study. Švaříček and Šed'ová (2007, p. 99, 101) define case study as an empirical research design which aim is detail investigation and understanding of one single case or several cases. The core of the research is the collecting of real data. They suggests using the case study when an investigator has little or no influence over the current investigated situation and when the aim of the research is to find out how a program or a teaching

technique works or how and why it influences the participants of teaching learning process. Each Dalton school implements the Dalton plan in a different way therefore each school is unique, it is one specific case. I chose a case study as a design of the research because the research is focused on a specific case; the investigator had no influence on a current investigated situation and because of the aim of the research stated in chapter 6.1.. Švaříček and Šed'ová (2007, p. 101) propose that the case study design enables the investigator to use the following techniques to obtain needed data: documents, artefacts, observation and interviews.

I chose three data collecting instruments for my research: an observation, an interview and the analysis of school educational program of the investigated school. The use of observation is convenient in the classroom because it does not interrupt the teaching learning process and classroom atmosphere. The aim of observation is to record what is happening in the classroom and describe the observed situation. All recorded data via observation must be accessible by senses, for example organisational forms and teacher role; as in my case. There are various types of observation. I chose direct structured overt observation. My observation was direct because I, the observer, was present in the lesson and did not watch the record of the lesson. It was structured because the purpose and focus were known ahead. Two structured observation sheets were used. The teacher and learners knew that they are a part of a research therefore the observation was overt. By an observation only the data accessible by senses are collected therefore I decided to use an interview which enables an investigator to collect different data, for example: what participants are saying and thinking. (Švaříček and Šed'ová, 2007, p. 142-146). The aim of the interview is to gain information concerning teacher's ideas, opinions, attitudes and reasons for his actions recorded via observation sheets in relation to the development of learner autonomy and communicative competence. Švaříček and Šed'ová (2007, p. 158) recommend to use observation and interview in order to create a complex picture of a situation. I decided to use structured in-depth interview which is defined as: the investigator asks one participant of a research prepared open questions. The advantage of an interview is the possibility to reformulate questions or ask additional questions. (Švaříček and Šed'ová, 2007, p. 159, 160). The analysis of the school educational program was carried out in order to elicit data concerning the implementation of Dalton principles and the strategies used to

develop key competences in relation to learner autonomy and communicative competence at the researched school. Detailed description of data collecting instruments will be presented in the following chapters.

6.3. Piloting stage

Two structured observation sheets were used in this research. Both of them were used in Dalton and non-Dalton lessons. One observation sheet was made by adapting an observation list by Röhner (Röhner, 2007). Röhner's list is designed for primary schools. According to Röhner, this list can be used to observe the Dalton structure in order to compare it with other educational concepts and it is in a direct line with the 'checklist Dalton identity', used by the Dalton visitation committee. (Röhner, 2007). I used it to compare Dalton lessons and non-Dalton lessons in relation to the development of cooperation and learner autonomy. This observation list was used in a piloting stage in two Dalton and two non-Dalton lessons. Each Dalton school realises the Dalton plan in different way therefore Röhner's observation list was adopted according to the way of implementation of Dalton principles at the particular school and according to the aim of the research. Some categories were omitted because they are present in the self-designed observation sheet. Seven statements were used to describe what the learners and the teacher do in the classroom; what specific Dalton material is used and in what way.

- Learners – solve their problems alone or with help of another learner; work with delayed attention; work without the direct influence of the teacher.
- The teacher – prepares lessons situations in which learners can work independently; uses the delayed attention principle.
- Specific Dalton material – a sign of delayed attention; the use of assignments.

This observation sheet (appendix 1) focuses on the realisation of Dalton principles of freedom and independence; and special Dalton technique called delayed attention principle in relation to the development of learner autonomy.

The second observation sheet (appendix 2) was a self designed one. There are six categories in the observation sheet. The main ones are time, organisational form, focus on skill/subskill, communicative competence and teacher role. The category of activity is only supplementary and data from this category are not used in the research.

The category was implemented in order to obtain more complex description of an activity. The focus of this observation sheet is on organisational form, teacher role, the focus of an activity (skills or subskills) and communicative competence in relation to the development of learner autonomy and communicative competence. Harmer's classification of teacher role is used in the category of teacher role and Richards and Lockhart's classification of organisational forms is used in the category of organisational form. The concept of communicative competence captured in *Common European Framework of Reference for languages: learning, teaching, assessment* is used in the category of communicative competence. Because of the complexity of the observation sheet I wanted to be sure that the observer can manage to note down all the necessary information. Therefore the observation sheet was used in a piloting stage in two Dalton and two non-Dalton lessons. There were no changes needed.

An interview focused on the development of autonomy in relation to teacher role, organisational forms and delayed attention principle; and the development of communicative competence in relation to skills and subskills was planned after every observation. But during the pilot stage I realised that it is impossible so I decided to implement only one interview after all observations took place. The teacher was not influenced by the interview which can be seen as an advantage.

The piloting stage was realised in two Dalton and two non-Dalton lessons. It enabled me to verify the applicability and suitability of my two structured observation sheets. It was proved that certain changes needed to be made. After the adaptation, the observation sheets were used without any complication during the next stage of the research, data collection via observation. The piloting stage helped me to realise that it is possible to interview the teacher only once after the last observation, especially because of the time pressure.

6.4. Presentation of the data collected via observation sheets

There will be presented data collected via two observation sheets in this subchapter. The focus will be on the development of learner autonomy and communicative competence; and cooperation.

The category of *communicative competence* in the self-designed observation sheet (appendix 2) was used to observe and compare the development of three parts of communicative competence in ten Dalton and ten non-Dalton lessons. Figure 1 presents

how much time of the lesson was focused on the development of linguistic, sociolinguistic and pragmatic competence. Activities focused on the development of linguistic competence in Dalton lessons were implemented in 10,3% of the lesson and in 81,9% of the lesson in non-Dalton lessons. Activities focused on the development of sociolinguistic competence in Dalton lessons were realised in 30,1% of the lesson and in 6,1 % of the lesson in non-Dalton lessons. Activities focused on the development of pragmatic competence in Dalton lessons took place in 59,6% of the lesson and in 11,9% of the lesson in non-Dalton lessons.

Figure 1

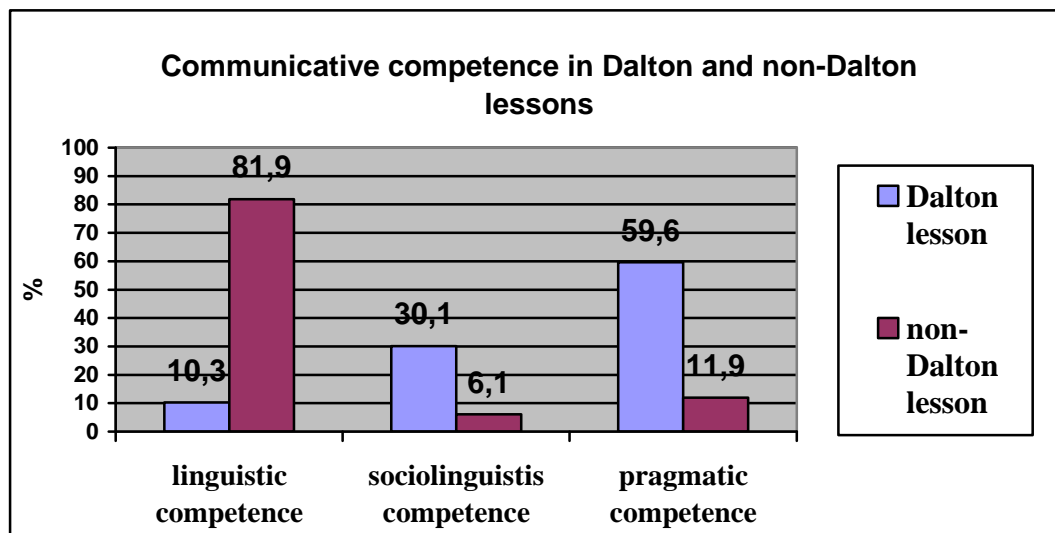
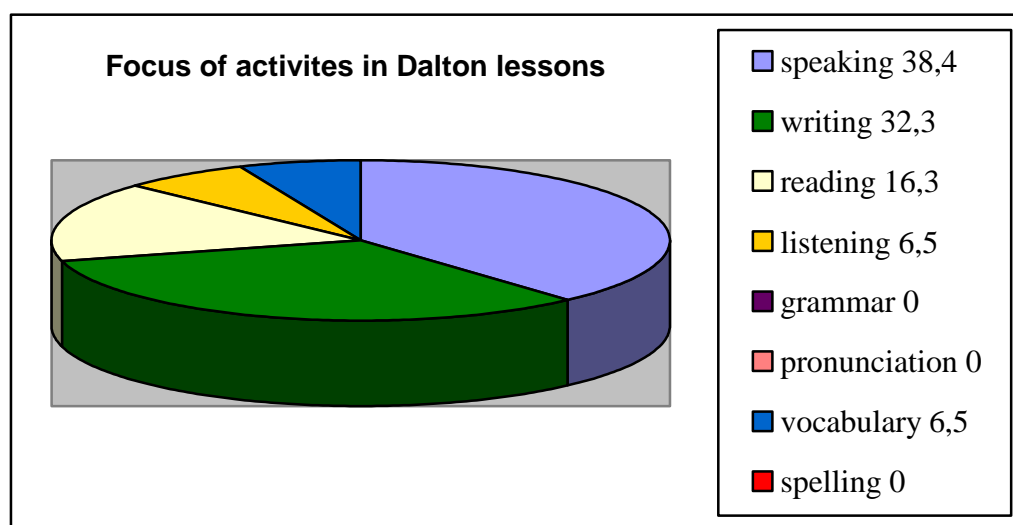


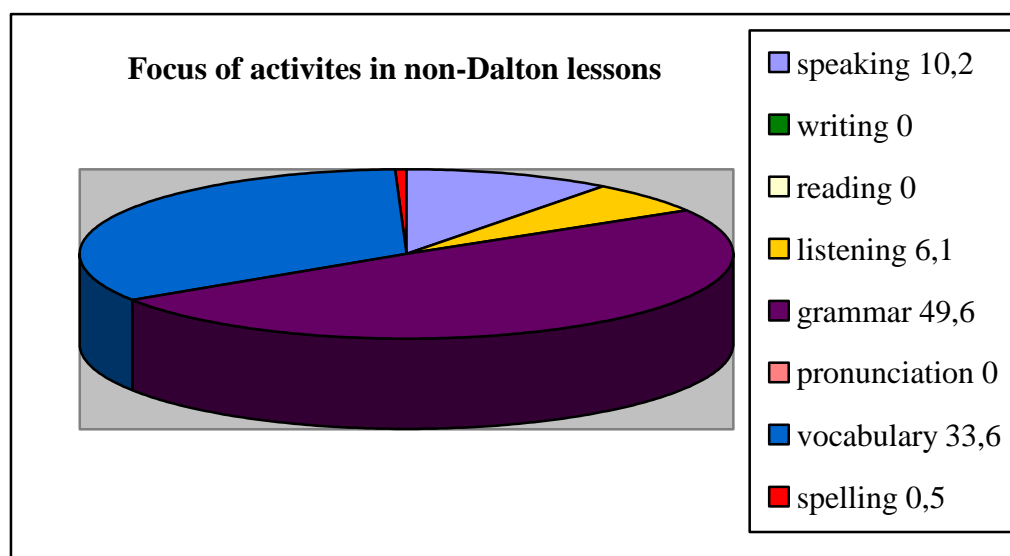
Figure 2



The category of *focus on skill/subskill* in the self-designed observation sheet (appendix 2) was implemented in order to observe and compare the development of language skills and subskills in relation to the development of communicative competence in ten Dalton and ten non-Dalton lessons. Figure 2 shows how much time of the lesson is used to develop certain skill or subskill in Dalton lessons. Most of the time is devoted to the development of skills such as speaking (38,4%), writing (32,3%) and reading (16,3%).

Figure 3 captures time of the lesson that is used to develop certain skill or subskill in non-Dalton lessons. Most of the time is devoted to the development of subskills such as grammar (49,6%) and vocabulary (33,6%).

Figure 3



The category of *organisational form* in the self-designed observation sheet (appendix 2) was used in order to observe and compare implemented organisational forms in relation to the development of learner autonomy in ten Dalton and ten non-Dalton lessons. Collected data are depicted in figure 4. Pairwork was used in 7,7%, individual work in 41,3% and whole-class teaching in (51%) of non-Dalton lessons. 24% of a lesson learners worked in pairs, 61,1% of a lesson learners worked individually and 25,5% of a lesson was organised as whole-class teaching in Dalton lessons.

Figure 4

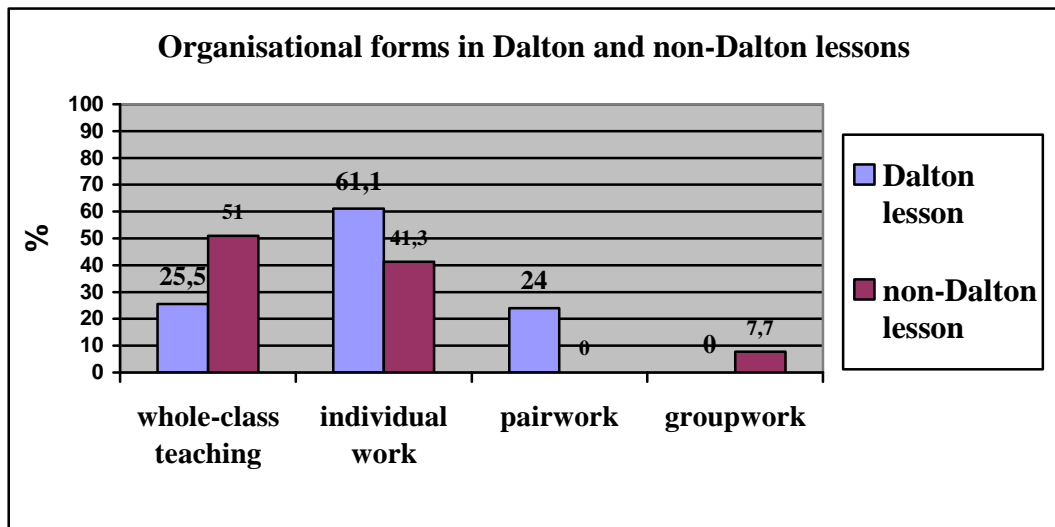
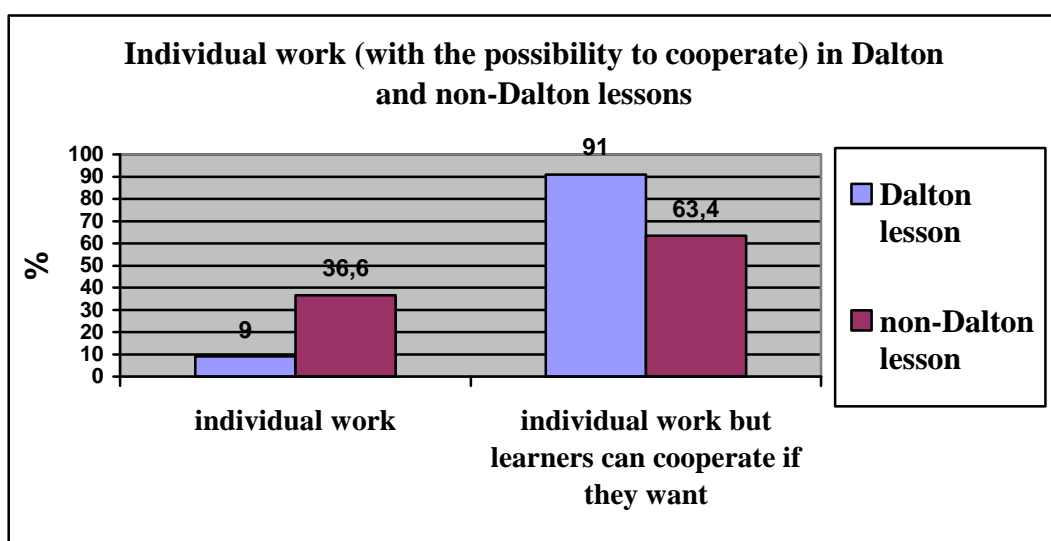


Figure 4 shows the time when at least some learners worked individually. The teacher often told learners to work individually but also allowed them to cooperate if they wanted. The learners had the freedom to choose whether they want to work individually or cooperate with others – work in pairs or groups.

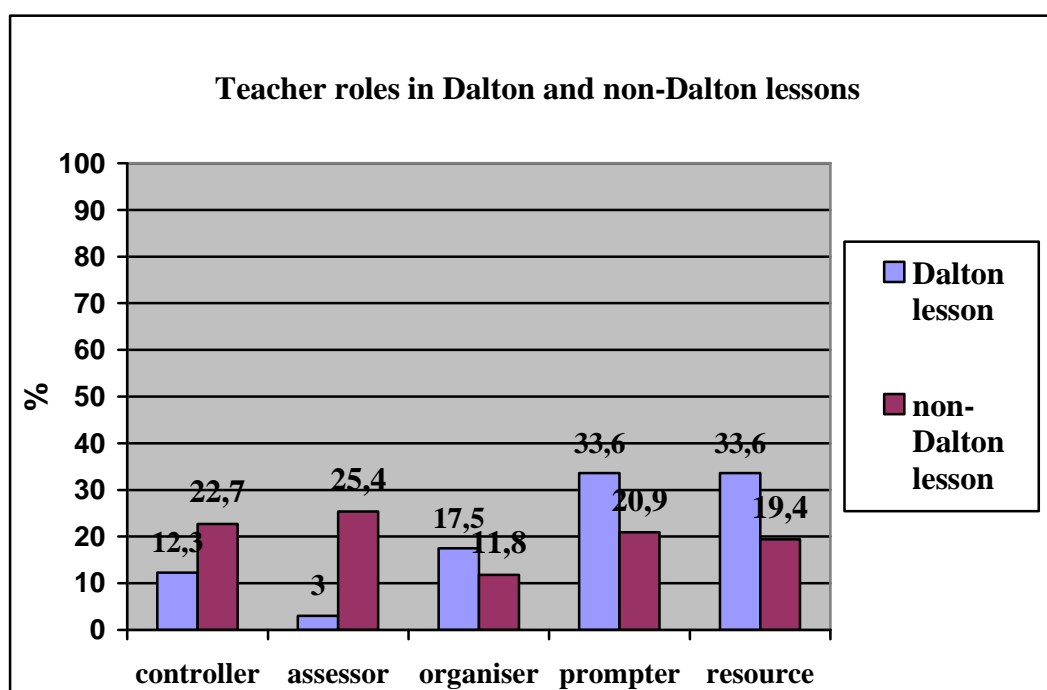
Figure 5 shows how much time out of the total individual work time learners had to work only individually and how often they were allowed to cooperate in Dalton and non-Dalton lessons. Learners were given a chance to choose whether they want to cooperate in 91% out of the total individual work time (61,1%) in Dalton lessons and 63,4% out of the total individual work time (41,3%) in non-Dalton lessons.

Figure 5



The category of *teacher role* in the self-designed observation sheet (appendix 2) was implemented in order to observe and compare different teacher roles in relation to the development of learner autonomy in ten Dalton and ten non-Dalton lessons. The collected data are presented in figure 6. Most frequent teacher roles are assessor (25,4%) and controller (22,7%) in non-Dalton lessons; and resource (33,6%) and prompter (33,6%) prevail in Dalton lessons. The role of prompter (20,9%), resource (19,4%) and organiser (11,8) are less common in non-Dalton lessons; and the role of organiser (17,5%) and controller (12,3%) are less usual in Dalton lessons.

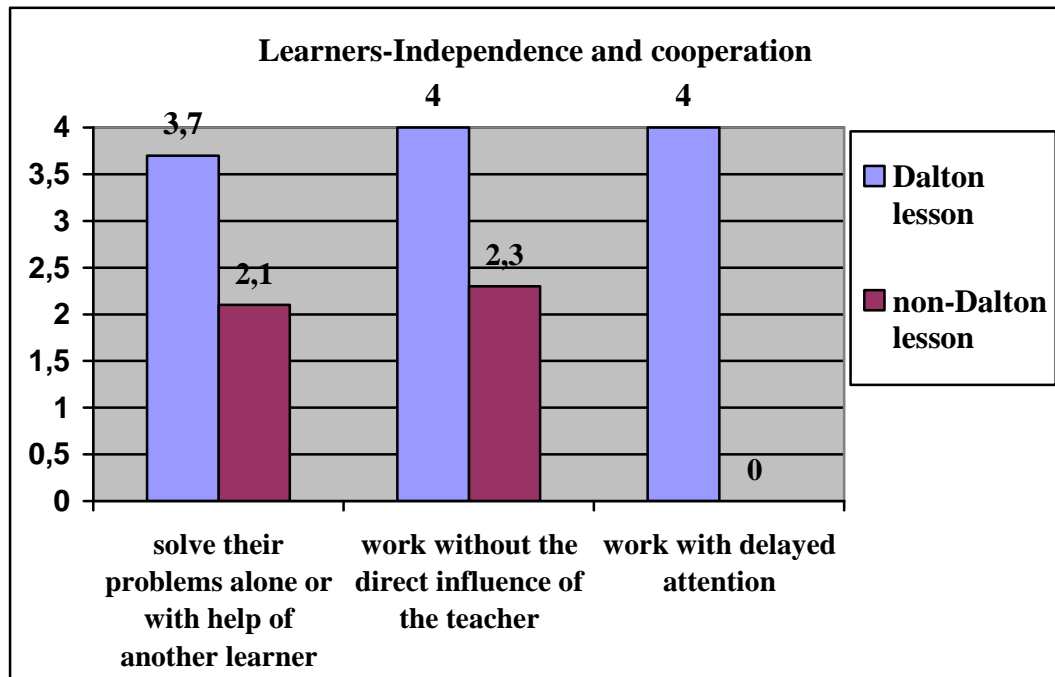
Figure 6



The categories of *work with delayed attention*, *work without the direct influence of the teacher* and *solve their problems alone or with help of another learner* in the observation sheet adapted from Röhner (appendix 1) were used in order to observe and compare the development of learner autonomy in ten Dalton and ten non-Dalton lessons. Figure 7 shows how often learners worked with delayed attention and without the direct influence of the teacher. Value 0 stands for never, value 2 for sometimes and value 4 for very often. Learners never worked with delayed attention (0) in non-Dalton lessons, only sometimes worked without the direct influence of the teacher (2,3) and

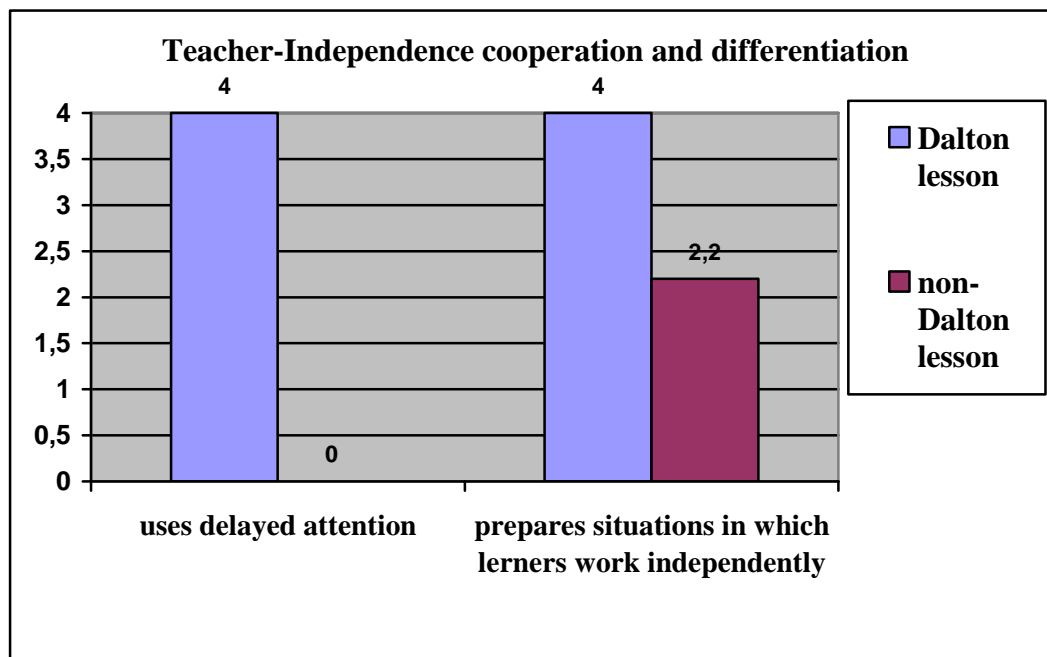
solved their problems alone or with help of another learner (2,1). On the other hand they very often worked with delayed attention (4), worked without the direct influence of the teacher (4), and solved their problems alone or with help of another learner (3,7) in Dalton lessons.

Figure 7



The categories of *uses the delayed attention* and *prepares situations in which learners work independently* in the observation sheet adapted from Röhner (appendix 1) were used in order to observe and compare the development of learner autonomy in ten Dalton and ten non-Dalton lessons. Figure 8 depicts how often the teacher prepared situations in which learners work independently and used delayed attention principle. Value 0 stands for never, value 2 for sometimes and value 4 for very often. The teacher very often prepared situations in which learners work independently (4) and used delayed attention principle (4) in Dalton lessons. The teacher sometimes prepared situations in which learners work independently (2,2) and he never used delayed attention principle (0) in non-Dalton lessons.

Figure 8



The observation sheet adapted from Röhner (appendix 1) contains the category of *specific Dalton material* which consists of two parts *a sign of delayed attention* and *the use of assignments*. Assignments and the sign of delayed attention were used in every Dalton lesson but were never used in non-Dalton lesson.

6.5. Presentation of the data collected via interview and school educational programme

As it was already mentioned in chapter 6.2., a structured interview was used. The interview was carried out in English, recorded and transcribed. The transcription of the interview is enclosed in Appendix 3. The data gained in the interview are dealt with and interpreted in the following chapter.

The school educational programme of the target school was analysed. Only the data concerned with implementation of Dalton principles and the strategies used to develop key competences in relation to the development of learner autonomy and communicative competence in ELT are used. They are presented in Appendix 4; and will be interpreted on the following pages.

6.6. Interpretation of the data

The aim of this chapter is to summarise, connect and interpret the data collected via observation sheets (DCI 1), the interview (DCI 2) and the school educational program (DCI 3); relate elicited data to the theoretical part; and answer the questions stated in the chapter 6.1.. The interpretation covers the factors influencing the development of learner autonomy and communicative competence such as: teacher role, organisational forms, the use of specific Dalton technique, teaching and practicing different parts of communicative competence, language skills and language subskills.

6.6.1. Development of learner autonomy in relation to organisational forms

It was mentioned that organisational form is a condition that significantly influences the development of learner autonomy. Organisational forms as individual work, pair and groupwork are more suitable for the development of learner autonomy than whole-class teaching. The results from DCI 1 in Figure 4 show that whole-class teaching is used in only 25,5% of time and other organisational forms are used in the rest of time of Dalton lessons. Whereas, whole-class teaching is used twice as often in non-Dalton lessons than it is used in Dalton lessons. This fact corresponds with the data from DCI 1 (figure 7) and from DCI 3. Data from DCI 1 indicate that learners solve their problems alone or with help of other learner and work without the direct influence of the teacher more often in Dalton lessons than in non-Dalton lessons. DCI 3 provides information that in order to realise Dalton principles learners are taught how to cooperate and become less dependant on the teacher. Therefore the conditions for the development of learner autonomy are more convenient in Dalton lessons.

The teacher explains his reasons for the use of different organisational forms in different lessons in DCI 2 by saying that in non-Dalton lessons he “explains stuff”. Whole-class teaching is suitable and commonly used for this activity. He also mentions that he uses individual work in non-Dalton lessons for practicing skills and that allows him to help learners who do not understand and really need his help. The teacher claims that he tries not to teach differently in Dalton and non-Dalton lessons and tries to be consistent in implementing the Dalton principles in both types of lessons. The implementation of Dalton principles is depicted in DCI 3. There is suggested that one of the ways of realisation of the Dalton principle of independence is the use of independent

work which is realised by an assignment in Dalton lessons (DCI 1). Individual work, pair and groupwork are most frequently used organisational forms for independent work. Advantages of independent work such as solving problems individually, working without the constant influence of the teacher, cooperating with other learners and working at own pace are stated. The use of assignment also enables teachers to differentiate because it contains tasks on different levels and learners choose how many extra tasks they will do. The information from DCI 3 together with the teacher's attitude towards teaching may help to explain the fact that other organisational forms but whole-class teaching are used most often in Dalton lessons (74,5%) and that whole-class teaching does not prevail in non-Dalton lessons but is equally often used (49%).

Learners are given freedom to choose whether to work individually or in pairs or groups. The teacher explains it in DCI 2 by reasoning that "everybody has right to not-feel fine that day, so it is up to them whether they would collaborate or not." and also points out that "nobody can force an adult to cooperate fruitfully if he is unwilling to." In other words, learners are not forced to cooperate but are in charge of their learning and have to make a responsible decision what organisational form suits them more. They are enabled to work autonomously. According to DCI 1 (figure 5), learners are allowed to choose whether they want to cooperate more often in Dalton lessons than in non-Dalton lessons. Therefore the Dalton lessons provide more suitable conditions than non-Dalton lessons in relation to the development of learner autonomy.

To conclude, both types of lessons are suitable for the development of learner autonomy because the use of whole-class teaching does not prevail and learners are often enabled to choose organisational form that is the most suitable one for them in order to accomplish a given task. These similar conditions can be explained by the teacher's endeavour to realise Dalton principles in both types of lessons. The Dalton lessons are more convenient than non-Dalton ones because whole-class teaching is used less often and learners can more often choose whether they want to cooperate or work individually.

6.6.2. Development of learner autonomy in relation to the role of teacher

The teacher role notably influences the development of learner autonomy. The teacher must not be dominant in order to enable learners to develop their autonomy. According to data elicited from DCI 3, the teachers at the target school give up their

dominant role, recede into background and give their “rule” to learners in order to help learners to develop their independence. The teacher in DCI 2 says that “being a Dalton teacher is a matter of mind-set: either you are able and willing to sacrifice your dominance to better development of pupils’ skills, or you are not.” He explains the dominant teacher role in non-Dalton lessons proved by DCI 1 by the “know-what-to-do” basis. In Dalton lessons learners know what kind of activities they are going to do during the whole lesson, whereas in non-Dalton lessons they do not. The fact that learners know what to do in Dalton lessons is supported by the results from DCI 1 showing that the teacher prepares situations in which learners work independently more often in Dalton lessons than in non-Dalton lessons. Learners need to know what to do in order to work independently and without the dominant influence of the teacher. The teacher role is less dominant in Dalton lessons and is described in DCI 2 as a role of a “helping guide” in Dalton lessons and a more dominant role of a “teaching guide” in non-Dalton lessons. This can be explained by the fact (DCI 2) that the teacher uses non-Dalton lessons for explaining (teaching) and Dalton lessons for practicing skills (only helping, not teaching).

To conclude, the dominant teacher roles of controller, assessor or “teaching guide” prevail in non-Dalton lessons; whereas less dominant roles of prompter, resource and “helping guide” are most usual in Dalton lessons. Therefore the conditions in Dalton lessons in relation to the role of teacher are more appropriate for the development of learner autonomy.

6.6.3. Development of learner autonomy in relation to the delayed attention principle

The delayed attention principle is a special Dalton technique which helps to develop learner autonomy. The results from DCI 1 (figure 7 and 8) prove that delayed attention principle was not used at all in non-Dalton lessons but was used very often in Dalton lesson. The teacher in DCI 2 gives the following reasons for using the delayed attention: it enables learners to feel responsible and to seek advice elsewhere but from the teacher. He says that learners “learn to re-read the instructions, ask their peers, consult study material etc.” He notes that seeking help from peers helps to develop better cooperation and “forces the student to re-think what he already knows in a way that he will be able to teach it”. Therefore skills, such as presentation and speaking are

practiced. Learners also learn to be less dependant on the teacher and find different ways how to solve their problems but asking the teacher for help.

To summarise, learners are responsible for the outcome of their work and it is up to them to how they achieve the task. The delayed attention principle enables them to work on it without the teacher's help, they are encouraged to cooperate and use study material. These conditions help learners to develop their autonomy. Dalton lessons provide more convenient conditions for the development of learner autonomy because the delayed attention is used only in these lessons.

6.6.4. Communicative competence – development of skills and subskills

The results of DCI 1 reveal that most time of the lesson is devoted to activities focused on the development of skills such as speaking, writing and reading in Dalton lessons. This fact is supported by information gained from DCI 2 as the teacher explains his point of view:

communicative competence is not only speaking itself. It covers all other areas such as expressing ideas clearly both in writing or speaking, understanding different types of text, using communication technologies or "creating relations" through communication. For such activities, the Dalton lesson seems to be more suitable.

Less dominant teacher role of a “helping guide” and individual work, pair or groupwork used in non-Dalton lessons enable learners to practice language skills actively.

According to DCI 1, most time of the lesson is devoted to activities focused on the development of subskills such as grammar and vocabulary; and the skill of speaking in non-Dalton lessons. Frequent speaking activities in non-Dalton lessons are explained in DCI 2 by the teacher's opinion that learners have

better possibility to develop their speaking skills in non-Dalton lessons. Even though it seems very "non-Dalton" like, direct questions addressed to individual students demand direct answers – and I really get the answers. (Because I like to open lessons with small-talk activities) In Dalton lessons it may happen, that the pupil does not speak at all – for example, if he is working alone.

The teacher also says that he feels responsible for explaining grammar to learners and lacks appropriate set of materials that would allow learners to learn from them by themselves. He sees himself as a “teaching guide” who explains things in non-Dalton

lessons. For explaining and teaching new topic, for example grammar, whole-class teaching which is used most often in non-Dalton lessons is suitable. The fact that grammar is mostly taught in non-Dalton lessons is supported by the DCI 1 results that reveal that 49,6% time of non-Dalton lessons is devoted to activities focused on grammar.

Even though the teacher feels responsible for teaching grammar he suggests that grammar is not everything and that it plays a minor role in everyday communication (DCI 2). His opinion supports the fact from DCI 3 that the aim of teaching/learning English is not the ability to create grammatically correct structures but the ability to communicate. Grammar is perceived as one of the parts of communicative competence that needs to be acquired. There are stated different strategies how to develop learners' communicative competence in DCI 3. One of the strategies is to teach learners how to defend and support their opinions by suitable arguments; to listen and to respect other people's opinions. Learners are taught to use English actively in everyday real-life situations.

To conclude, conditions based on the Dalton principles are more convenient for practicing skills than subskills. In Dalton lessons, learners work most of the time independently of the teacher which is not very suitable for explaining subskills, especially grammar because it is difficult to grasp and there is a lack of material that would allow learners to learn from them by themselves. The teacher is in a role of a "teaching guide" and explains in non-Dalton lessons. Therefore conditions in non-Dalton lessons are more suitable for teaching subskills. Most of the time activities focused on subskills as grammar and vocabulary take place in non-Dalton lessons. Whereas, activities focused on skills such as speaking, writing and reading are implemented in Dalton lessons. Learners learn different skills and subskills in Dalton and non-Dalton lessons therefore it is vital to use both types of lessons in order to develop all aspects of communicative competence.

6.6.5. Communicative competence – development of three parts

The results of DCI 1 (figure 1) reveal that most of the time of the non-Dalton lesson is devoted to the development of linguistic competence. On the other side, most of the time of the Dalton lesson is used for the development of pragmatic competence. Linguistic competence concerns mostly subskills and pragmatic competence involves

mostly skills thus these results correspond with results from DCI (figure 2 and 3). The explanation of findings is depicted in the previous chapter 6.6.4..

The significance of the development of sociolinguistic competence can be found in DCI 3. It is stated that learners need to be aware of the importance of good manners while communicating with English people. Therefore it is necessary to acquire certain grammatical structures to be able to express different degree of politeness. Learners also need to learn about different traditions and customs of foreign countries and their inhabitants. They need to practice the use of English in everyday situations. (DCI 3).

According to DCI 1, sociolinguistic competence is more often developed in Dalton lessons than in non-Dalton lessons. The results can be explained by different conditions in different types of lessons. The teacher describes the situation in Dalton lessons in DCI 2 in the following way:

You can see several patterns of everyday world, where people are trying to communicate in any possible way to "check out" a given task. So I guess the learning environment of a Dalton lesson is more "real-life" one, and that leads to conclusion that people develop their communicative competence not only through the means of communication within e.g. co-operation, but also when using other-than-textbook materials.

In other words, the Dalton principle of cooperation, freedom (to use various study material) and real-life environment in Dalton lessons creates more suitable conditions for the development of sociolinguistic competence.

To conclude, the conditions in non-Dalton lessons are more appropriate for the development of linguistic competence whereas the conditions in Dalton lessons are more convenient for the development of pragmatic and sociolinguistic competence. Especially the Dalton principle of cooperation and real-life activities in Dalton lessons help to develop sociolinguistic competence.

7. Conclusion of the practical part

The aim of the small scale research was to carry out a comparative study of Dalton and non-Dalton lessons in order to answer four questions related to the development of learner autonomy and communicative competence in ELT. These questions are stated in chapter 6.1.. The theoretical basis for the research was provided in the theoretical part of the thesis.

The first two questions are concerned with suitability of conditions in relation to the development of learner autonomy in ELT in Dalton lessons. The first question focuses on the use of convenient organisational form and the second question aims at the appropriateness of the role of teacher. The research results prove that the teacher was not in a dominant role; usually used individual work, pair or group work; and always used the delayed attention principle and assignments in Dalton lessons. The learners were enabled to be active, to cooperate and to work independently of the teacher. On the contrary, the teacher was mostly dominant and he used neither the delayed attention principle nor assignments in non-Dalton lessons. He also used whole-class teaching in non-Dalton lessons more often than in Dalton ones. Thus the learners were less active, had fewer opportunities to cooperate and to work independently in non-Dalton lessons. Therefore the conditions for the development of learner autonomy in ELT in relation to the role of teacher and organisational form are more suitable in Dalton lessons than in non-Dalton ones.

The last two questions are related to the development of communicative competence in ELT. The results of the research reveal that linguistic competence and language subskills, especially grammar and vocabulary are developed most of the time of non-Dalton lessons. Whereas, most of the time of Dalton lessons is focused on the development of language skills, pragmatic competence and sociolinguistic competence. The explanation of this outcome may be the different conditions in Dalton and non-Dalton lessons. Dalton principles of independence and cooperation; less dominant teacher role; and the use of other organisational forms but whole-class teaching provide suitable conditions for the development of language skills, pragmatic and sociolinguistic competence in Dalton lessons. On the contrary, more dominant teacher role of a “teaching guide” and whole-class teaching are more convenient conditions for the development of linguistic competence and language skills, especially grammar. It is

necessary to develop all aspects of communicative competence therefore it is important to include them in both types of lessons or to implement both types of lessons in the educational process.

In addition to the above presented results concerned with the development of learner autonomy and communicative competence in ELT; the research also revealed that the Dalton plan enables teachers to work with learners individually, to differentiate and to stimulate cooperation. It is possible mainly because of the use of suitable organisation forms and Dalton assignments.

Nevertheless, this small scale research worked with limited amount of data and concerned only one teacher thus it should not be used for general conclusions.

IV. Conclusion

The purpose of this thesis was to analyse and present the Dalton plan, and its positive influence on learners' learning, particularly on the development of learner autonomy and communicative competence in ELT. The aim was to prove the positive influence of the Dalton plan on the theoretical as well as on the practical one therefore this paper can be divided into two interrelated parts: practical and theoretical part.

The first part contains theoretical chapters dealing with the following topics: the Dalton plan and its principles, learner autonomy and communicative competence. This part offers arguments supporting the fact that teaching according to the Dalton principles positively influences the development of learner autonomy and communicative competence in ELT. The focus is on the role of teacher, organisational forms, language skills and language subskills. This part serves as a theoretical basis for the practical part.

The second part of this thesis is practical and contains the description of a small-scale research and its findings. The aim of this practical section is to prove what was suggested in the practical part – the positive influence of the Dalton plan on the development of learner autonomy and communicative competence in ELT in relation to the role of teacher, organisational forms, language skills and language subskills. In order to do so, the comparative study of Dalton and non-Dalton lessons was carried out. The research results proved the theoretical background true. It was revealed that the conditions are more suitable for the development of learner autonomy in Dalton lessons than in non-Dalton ones. It is due to the use of the specific Dalton technique of delayed attention, Dalton assignments, suitable organisational form and a less dominant teacher role. The conditions in the Dalton lessons also explain the results showing that the development of pragmatic competence, sociolinguistic competence and language skills takes place mostly in Dalton lessons; whereas the development of linguistic competence and language subskills is implemented in non-Dalton lessons. It was also found out that the Dalton plan provides teachers with the possibility to differentiate and enables learners to develop cooperation.

It is necessary to be aware that there are more factors influencing the development of learner autonomy and communicative competence in ELT in Dalton as well as in non-Dalton lessons. The comparative case study worked with limited amount

of data and the results should not be generalised. Thus this thesis presents only limited insight into the problematic. Nevertheless, in my opinion, this thesis provides a valuable insight into the implementation of the Dalton plan in ELT, especially in relation to the development of learner autonomy and communicative competence. It may be used as a basis for further researches since there have not been done many concerning this problematic.

V. Resumé

V nedávné době došlo v České republice ke změnám, které se týkají organizace, struktury a obsahu českého vzdělávacího systému. Cílem vzdělávání již není získání encyklopedických znalostí, ale utváření a postupné rozvíjení klíčových kompetencí, které jsou orientovány zejména na situace blízké životu a praktickému jednání. Jinými slovy, orientace je více na osobní dovednosti než na sumu poznatků. Z toho hlediska může být Daltonský plán výraznou inspirací. I když je Daltonský plán mnohými označován jako alternativní nebo inovativní způsob výuky, jeho pedagogický a didaktický rámec nabízí prostor k rozvoji klíčových kompetencí a naplnění cílů vzdělávání. Tato diplomová práce s názvem *Daltonský plán ve výuce anglického jazyka: role učitele a role žáka* se zabývá Daltonským plánem a tím, jak učení dle daltonských principů ovlivňuje rozvoj žákovy autonomie a komunikativní kompetence při výuce anglického jazyka.

Tato diplomová práce je rozdělena do dvou částí: praktické a teoretické. Tyto části jsou úzce propojeny. Teoretická sekce má tři komponenty, které shrnují současné poznatky o Daltonském plánu, autonomii žáka a komunikativní kompetenci. Jsou zde také uvedeny teoretické argumenty, že Daltonský plán pozitivně ovlivňuje rozvoj žákovy autonomie a komunikativní kompetence při výuce anglického jazyka. Praktická část je věnována výzkumu, jehož cílem bylo potvrzení teoretické části, tj. pozitivního vlivu Daltonského plánu na rozvoj žákovy autonomie a komunikativní kompetence v hodinách anglického jazyka.

První díl teoretické části se zabývá Daltonským plánem, jeho vznikem, vývojem a třemi základními principy svoboda (zodpovědnost), samostatnost a spolupráce. Je zde popsáno jak se výše uvedené principy uplatňují a projevují ve výuce. Princip svobody (zodpovědnosti) dává žákům volnost výběru úkolů, pomůcek, organizačních forem výuky, atd., ale také činí žáky zodpovědné za proces i výsledek jejich učení. Princip samostatnosti a používání daltonských úkolových listů umožňuje individualizaci a diferenciaci. Žáci pracují samostatně nebo spolupracují s ostatními žáky. Učitel má tudíž možnost individuálně se věnovat žákům, kteří opravdu potřebují jeho pomoc. Volitelné a extra úkoly v daltonských úkolových listech umožňují časovou a úroňovou

diferenciaci. S uplatněním principu samostatnosti a spolupráce úzce souvisí používání specifické daltonské techniky principu odložené pozornosti. Odložená pozornost znamená, že žáci se během samostatné práce musí spolehnout sami na sebe. Učitel jim po určitou dobu není k dispozici, pomůže jim později. Pokud potřebují pomoc, mohou požádat spolužáka. Odložená pozornost pomáhá žákům rozvíjet samostatnost, autonomii a učit se spolupracovat s ostatními.

Druhá kapitola této práce se věnuje vzniku Daltonského plánu a jeho vývoji v České republice i v zahraničí. Daltonský plán byl založen Helenou Parkhurstovou, která ho použila jako řešení didakticko-organizačního problému, který spočíval v přítomnosti žáků různého věku a úrovně v jedné třídě. Daltonský plán byl pojmenován podle místa vzniku, podle města Dalton ve Spojených státech amerických. V současné době je nejvíce rozšířen v Holandsku a v České republice. Byly založeny organizace Dalton International a Asociace českých daltonských škol, jejichž cílem je výměna zkušeností a poznatků, spolupráce a propagace Daltonského plánu jak na národní, tak i na mezinárodní úrovni. Děje se tak především na mezinárodních konferencích a výměnných pobytech, které jsou pořádány těmito organizacemi.

Další část teoretické části je věnována konceptu autonomie žáka a faktorům, které ovlivňují její rozvoj při výuce anglického jazyka. Zvláštní pozornost je určena učebním strategiím, roli učitele, organizačním formám a vlivu Daltonského plánu. Jsou představeny různé koncepty role učitele a organizačních forem. V praktické sekci je následně použita kategorizace rolí učitele podle Harmera. Jeho koncept je založen na míře učitelovy dominance, která významně ovlivňuje rozvoj žákovy autonomie. Rozlišení organizačních forem podle Richardse a Lockharta je použito v praktickém oddílu práce, protože nejvíce odpovídalo organizačním formám, které byly použity ve zkoumaných hodinách.

V neposlední řadě je zkoumán vliv Daltonského plánu na rozvoj žákovy autonomie, zvláště pak v souvislosti s rolí učitele, kterou učitel zaujímá a s organizačními formami výuky, které jsou používány v daltonském vyučování. Je argumentováno, že učitel velmi často zaujímá nedominantní role a obvykle používá jiné

organizační formy výuky než frontální. Zmíněn je také pozitivní vliv principu odložené pozornosti. Podmínky v daltonských hodinách jsou tudíž vhodné pro rozvoj žákovy autonomie v hodinách anglického jazyka.

Komunikativní kompetencí, jejímu vývoji a jejími komponenty se zabývají poslední kapitoly teoretické části. Je zde zachycen vývoj komunikativní kompetence od první teorie Chomského až po poslední koncept, který je zachycen ve *Společném evropském referenčním rámci pro jazyky*. Tento poslední koncept nezahrnuje jen komponenty komunikativní kompetence, ale také se zabývá tím, co si žáci potřebují osvojit, aby dosáhli komunikativní kompetence. Pro žáky je důležité osvojit si jazykové dovednosti (ústní a psaný projev, čtení, a poslech) a jazykové prostředky (slovní zásoba, mluvnické, výslovnost a psaná podoba). Z tohoto důvodu je část teoretické části práce věnována těmto jazykovým dovednostem a prostředkům. Je také zkoumán vliv a vhodnost podmínek daltonského vyučování na rozvoj komunikativní kompetence. Pro účel této práce je použit koncept ze *Společného evropského referenčního rámce pro jazyky*.

Praktická část je věnována popisu jednotlivých fází výzkumu, prezentaci, interpretaci a evaluaci dat. Cílem výzkumu bylo zjistit zda má výuka podle daltonských principů kladný vliv na rozvoj žákovy autonomie a komunikativní kompetence v hodinách anglického jazyka. Byla provedena komparativní studie daltonských a nedaltonských hodin anglického jazyka. Tato studie byla realizována ve třech třídách Brněnské daltonské základní školy. Všechny hodiny byly učeny stejným učitelem.

Ke sběru dat byly použity metody: strukturované pozorování, hloubkový rozhovor a analýza školního vzdělávacího programu zkoumané školy. Vhodnost záznamových archů určených pro záznam pozorování byla odzkoušena v pilotní fázi výzkumu. Tyto archy byly po potřebné úpravě použity v další fázi výzkumu k získání a následnému porovnání potřebných dat v daltonských i nedaltonských hodinách. Pro dotvoření komplexnosti situace byl proveden rozhovor s učitelem, který byl zaměřen na jeho názory, postoje a důvody k jeho chování a konání.

Následující kapitola praktické části se věnuje prezentaci získaných dat. Data získaná pozorováním, rozhovorem a analýzou školního vzdělávacího programu jsou v další kapitole integrována, interpretována a evaluována. Výsledky provedeného výzkumu prokazují, že výuka v daltonských hodinách podporuje rozvoj žákovi autonomie a jeho komunikativní kompetence více než výuka v nedaltonských hodinách. Také bylo zjištěno, že výuka dle daltonských principů podporuje spolupráci a umožňuje individualizaci a diferenciaci.

Daltonské hodiny jsou vhodnější pro rozvoj žákovi autonomie, protože učitel je v nedominantní roli a používá vhodné organizační formy výuky. Žáci pracují samostatně nebo spolupracují mezi sebou, což vede k zvýšení jejich aktivity a zodpovědnosti, a zmenšení jejich závislosti na učiteli. Výraznou pozitivní roli má také princip odložené pozornosti a používání daltonských úkolových listů.

Výzkum prokázal, že daltonské hodiny jsou vhodnější pro rozvoj jazykových dovedností, pragmatické a sociolingvistické kompetence. Naopak, nedaltonské hodiny jsou vhodnější pro rozvoj lingvistické kompetence a jazykových prostředků, hlavně mluvnice. Jedním z faktorů ovlivňujících tento výsledek je role učitele a vhodnost organizační formy. Frontální vyučování a dominantnější role učitele je vhodnější pro výuku jazykových prostředků, zvláště pak složité mluvnice. Méně dominantní role učitele a organizační formy výuky podporující spolupráci jsou vhodnější pro výuku jazykových dovedností, především mluveného projevu. Žáci jsou aktivnější a mají větší možnost používat, tudíž se učit anglický jazyk.

Je nutné zdůraznit, že je více faktorů, které ovlivňují rozvoj žákovi autonomie a komunikativní kompetence. Případová studie pracovala jen s omezeným množstvím dat. Proto by výsledky zkoumání neměly být zobecňovány a tato diplomová práce poskytuje jen limitovaný pohled na danou problematiku. Nicméně, dle mého názoru, tato případová studie prezentuje cenné informace o tom, jak Daltonský plán ovlivňuje rozvoj žákovi autonomie a komunikativní kompetence při výuce anglického jazyka. Protože v této oblasti nebylo provedeno mnoho výzkumů, mohla by tato práce a její výsledky být použity jako podklad pro další výzkumy.

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VII. Appendices

Appendix 1. Observation list for Dalton primary schools (adopted from Röhner Roel)

Observation list for Dalton primary schools (adopted from Röhner Roel)			
Class:	Date:	Time:	Subject:
Teacher:	Observer:		Dalton/non-Dalton lesson
LEARNERS			
			+++/+ / ± / - / - -
<input type="checkbox"/>	work with delayed attention		O O O O O
<input type="checkbox"/>	solve their problems alone or with help of another pupil		O O O O O
<input type="checkbox"/>	work without the direct influence of the teacher		O O O O O
TEACHERS			
			+++/+ / ± / - / - -
<input type="checkbox"/>	prepare lesson situations in which learners work independently		O O O O O
<input type="checkbox"/>	use the delayed attention		O O O O O
SPECIFIC DALTON MATERIAL			
			++/ +/ ± / - / - -
<input type="checkbox"/>	a sign for 'delayed attention'		O O O O O
<input type="checkbox"/>	the use of assignments		O O O O O

Appendix 2. Self-designed observation sheet

Observation sheet used in Dalton lesson/non-Dalton lesson						
Class:		Date:	Time:	Subject: English	Teacher:	Observer:
TIME	ACTIVITY	ORGANISATIONAL FORM	FOCUS ON SKILL/ SUBSKILL	LANGUAGE COMPETENCE	TEACHER ROLE	

Appendix 3. The interview with the teacher

I=interviewer, T=teacher, Q=question, A=answer

I: Dalton and non-Dalton lessons are taught in your school. Who or what decides how often and what is taught in Dalton lessons and non-Dalton ones?

T: It is solely up to the teacher to decide. The Dalton is not a “prescriptive” system that claims, *This is the only way to do it*. It is totally vice versa: it gives the teacher an opportunity to analyze the topic from various perspectives; it invites the teacher to become responsible for structuring the curriculum, lessons etc. You just have to respect the basic principles.

However, there is one agreed-upon principle that most of the teachers try to follow. If the subject is given one lesson a week in the schedule, the teacher is supposed to teach at least one “Dalton” lesson a month. Subjects with more lessons allocated divide the time proportionally.

I: Do you teach differently in Dalton and non-Dalton lessons? (e.g.: keeping Dalton principles)

T: I try not to. Using words of Helen Parkhurst, *Dalton is no method, it is an influence*. And to influence, your strategies have to be continuous. If you, for example, have totally different atmosphere in Dalton and non-Dalton lesson, the pupils will be curious about it. And I cannot imagine any way to explain the difference: it’s either teaching in a safe, challenging environment, or not. You can apply very similar equation to the rest of the principles as well.

I: Why do you use delayed attention?

T: There are many reasons. As I conclude in my to-be published e-book on inviting pupils to work independently, it is impossible to teach responsibility without offering one. A pupil must experience a feeling of being responsible. If you guide the class as a whole, you will always have some pupils who are unable to cope with the set pace: they are either too fast, or too slow.

Another reason is to allow pupils to seek counsel elsewhere than with the teacher. When you introduce the idea of delayed attention for the first time, there are at least 3 – 4 students who keep coming for help to you. It is their mind-set. The task of

delayed attention is to re-do the mind-set in a way that they learn to e.g. re-read the instructions, ask their peers, consult study materials etc.

Working with peers develops better co-operation and thus it helps to create friendlier atmosphere. Answering a peer, it forces the student to re-think what he already knows in a way that he will be able to teach it. And we get to a vast range of skills that are considered vital for this century, such as presentation, speaking etc.

I: Are you aware of the different roles you have in Dalton and non-Dalton lessons? (dominant x less-dominant). Can you explain why you are more dominant in non-Dalton lessons?

T: More or less. Being a “Dalton-teacher” is a matter of mind-set: either you are able and willing to sacrifice your dominance to better development of pupils’ skills, or you are not. So it is sometimes very difficult to point specific attitudes which I do not use, for example, in Dalton lessons. The topic of dominance in the Dalton lesson is very much alike as in non-Dalton lessons. The difference is basically in the “know-what-to-do” basis: with Dalton assignment, all the pupils know what is ahead of them, what kind of activities they are going to do etc. In non-Dalton lesson, they do not know what specific activities follow one another.

But when I think in terms of my activity, I am a helping guide more in the Dalton – because everybody knows exactly what to do as I created the activities, whereas in non-Dalton I am something like teaching-guide.

I: You use frontal teaching more often in non-Dalton lessons. Can you think of any reasons why you do so?

T: In English, I use the Dalton lessons for practicing a skill (like reading, talking etc.) In non-Dalton lesson I explain the stuff so those students who “get it” can work independently without me in Dalton lessons, while I help those who do not understand it. Meaning I help with specific cases of misunderstanding – and individually.

I: Why do you give pupils chance to decide whether to work individually or in pairs or groups?

T: Well, and why not? Everybody has right to “not-feel fine” that day, so it is up to them whether they would collaborate or not. In different set of activities, I define to work in pairs and in pairs only, in others students have to cooperate. It is just a point of “accurateness” for the topic.

And if you imagine real-life, nobody can force an adult to cooperate fruitfully if he is unwilling to. So, why create an artificial work environment?

I: Do you think that pupils have more opportunities to develop their independence, self-reliance and autonomy in Dalton or non-Dalton lessons? Why do you think so? (Use of delayed attention, teacher role, organisational form..)

T: It depends on what you define Dalton-lesson. I do lot of “non-Dalton” lessons that are totally different from what other teachers would call “common” lesson. In terms of our school (and my style) when pupils get a set of activities to work on (called “the Dalton” commonly), they have more opportunity to develop their skills. They know what to do, they know when to finish and it’s up to them if they need me or not.

On the other hand, I am finishing a project in Czech these days when the students did a lot more independent work than in Dalton (because of almost real-life experience), they had to cooperate to create result for not only their own, small group, but as a matter of fact, their “hard-work” influenced the result of the work of the whole eighth grade (meaning approximately 50 students). And I did not call the set of lessons Dalton lessons, because I did not want to reveal the steps of creating the final result. I kept them in the dark to motivate them: I wanted them to feel curious, *“Okay, we have it. Now, what’s coming next? What are we going to do with it?”*

I: You use activities focused on skills (especially on speaking, reading and writing) in Dalton lessons and activities focused on subskills (especially grammar) in non-Dalton lessons. Can you think of any reasons why you do so?

T: The real life is not about grammar. You don’t have to speak proper grammar, the real-life is more like “Communicate, or perish”. So I try to introduce activities that seem to simulate “real-life” experience; e.g. a letter arrives to your company and you have to deal with it. There is no teacher, just an Internet-dictionary. Or you meet colleagues at a water dispenser and chat. Etc. From this perspective, the grammar plays a minor role in everyday communication.

On the other hand, I still feel responsible for explaining the problem (which a grammar definitely is) to students, because I lack appropriate set of materials that will allow pupils to learn from them (to contrast, in Czech and other subjects I teach, like Media & Communication, I very often introduce totally new topics in Dalton lessons and use non-Dalton lessons to correct misunderstandings.) But I feel English grammar

is more difficult to grasp. However, once I explain it, I usually use students that get from my “lecture” to explain it to their peers. Young learners use a language and examples that differ from we adults use. Let them “translate” it into their language and help the rest.

I: Do you think that pupils have better conditions or more opportunities to develop their communicative competence in Dalton or non-Dalton lessons?

T: If I think of it more closely, I think they have better possibility to develop their speaking skills in non-Dalton lessons. Even though it seems very "non-Dalton" like, direct questions addressed to individual students demand direct answers – and I really get the answers. (Because I like to open lessons with small-talk activities) In Dalton lessons it may happen, that the pupil does not speak at all – for example, if he is working alone. So it is up to the teacher to monitor the class and adjust the situation. But communication competence is not only speaking itself. It covers all other areas such as expressing ideas clearly both in writing or speaking, understanding different types of text, using communication technologies or "creating relations" through communication. For such activities, the Dalton lesson seems to be more suitable. The pupils can do what they like - if they work on the assignment. So it is vary often that the class breaks into groups and in those groups pupils discuss not only the material, but also many other topics. Unfortunately, some of the discussions are not held in English. As a teacher, I am aware of it. But if you take a close look, you can see several patterns of everyday world, where people are trying to communicate in any possible way to "check out" a given task. So I guess the learning environment of a Dalton lesson is more "real-life" one, and that leads to conclusion that people develop their communicative competence not only through the means of communication within e.g. co-operation, but also when using other-than-textbook materials.

Appendix 4. The school educational programme of the target school.

Charakteristika školního vzdělávacího programu

Pojetí školního vzdělávacího programu

Úvod

V dnešní době je velmi těžké předpovědět, jaké pracovní umístění čeká naše žáky v budoucnosti. Proto se snažíme vést naše žáky k celoživotnímu vzdělávání. Informační revoluce, kterou prochází vyspělá západní civilizace, vede také k výrazné proměně způsobu práce s informacemi. Namísto budování rozsáhlých encyklopedických znalostí nastupuje budování dovedností, které jsou nezbytné pro život člověka v 21. století. Moderní trend evropské školy vede od školy transmisivního typu, kdy jsou veškeré informace žákům pouze předávány učiteli, ke škole konstruktivního typu, v níž si žáci za spolupráce mezi sebou a učiteli konstruují své vlastní vědomosti.

Základem program jsou nám čtyři pilíře vzdělávání, které podporuje mezinárodní organizace UNESCO:

- ✓ **učit se poznávat** – budovat si základní předpoklady pro úspěšnou komunikaci, otvírat se různým oblastem poznání,
- ✓ **učit se jednat** - to, co se žák naučí, musí být použitelné v praxi = profesní příprava se soustředí na univerzální dovednosti, učí flexibilitě, neotřelému a inovativnímu myšlení,
- ✓ **učit se žít mezi lidmi** – umět úspěšně komunikovat, spolupracovat a respektovat odlišnosti každého člověka,
- ✓ **učit se být** – umět stanovit si životní priority, být zodpovědný sám za sebe a své jednání a tím také za okolní svět.

Školní vzdělávací program vychází z více než desetileté zkušenosti s prací pomocí daltonských metod. Zavádění daltonských metod od roku 1994 nastartovalo inovační proces, v jehož průběhu jsme hledali a stále hledáme nejoptimálnější způsoby, jak usnadnit a zpříjemnit žákům vzdělávání. Program vychází z koncepce RVP pro základní vzdělávání a navazuje na inovační snahy, neboť zásady, které RVP předkládá, na naší škole v podstatě aplikujeme. Školní vzdělávací program je neuzavřený, stále se vyvíjející dokument, který bude neustále inovován na základě připomínek žáků, rodičů, pedagogů i pracovníků České školní inspekce.

Školní devatero

Základní kámen školního programu tvoří **DEVATERO zásad školního vzdělávacího programu.**

DEVĚT ZÁSAD

- ✓ samostatnost
- ✓ zodpovědnost a svoboda
- ✓ spolupráce
- ✓ individuální přístup
- ✓ komunikace
- ✓ tolerance
- ✓ tvořivost
- ✓ vědomí kultury

Samostatnost

Nech mě dělat a já pochopím.

Porozumět znamená zažít a vyzkoušet si. Snažíme se umožnit žákům, aby si probírané téma sami zpracovali, vyzkoušeli i zažili. Snažíme se žáky vybavit znalostmi a dovednostmi, které je připraví pro samostatné řešení problémů. Učitel se vzdává vůdčího postavení, ustupuje do pozadí a svou „nadvládu“ předává žákům. Když může žák pracovat na úkolu sám s vědomím, že vyřešení úkolu je jeho vlastním úspěchem, výrazně se posílí jeho motivace. Samostatné studování není memorování, ale přemýšlení a snaha pochopit a porozumět, nejenom zapamatovat si. Paměť v nás totiž může vzbudit dojem, že víme, třebaže vůbec nechápeme.

Svoboda a zodpovědnost

Důvěřuj mi, budu i já tobě.

Pojem svobody vnímá dnešní doba velmi mnohoznačně. Svoboda v pojetí naší školy se neřídí heslem „dělám si, co chci.“ Mluvíme o „svobodě s hranicemi“, kterou realizujeme předáváním zodpovědnosti žákovi. Zodpovědnost vede k úplné proměně vztahu mezi učitelem a žákem: namísto vševědoucího znalce odpovědí přichází „režisér“, který zorganizuje práci, zadá žákovi termíny, vybaví žáka všemi potřebnými materiály, poskytne žákovi nápovědu a pomoc tak, aby mohl žák uspět ve své roli. Záleží pak plně na žákovi samotném, nakolik se mu podaří „představení“ zrealizovat.

Spolupráce

Každý kamínek v mozaice je důležitý.

Na naší škole považujeme žáky, učitele i rodiče za partnery, kteří se spoluprací vzájemně obohacují. Partneři se nepomlouvají, ale domlouvají, partneři se respektují a společně plánují. Při neshodách společně hledají kompromisní řešení.

V hodinách žákům umožňujeme zvyknout si na týmovou práci, která mnohé z nich čeká v jejich profesním životě. Učí se spolupracovat na řešení daného úkolu, podílet se na vytváření pravidel práce v týmu a na utváření příjemné atmosféry. Spolupráci neomezujeme jen na výuku, škola úzce spolupracuje s vzdělávacími institucemi u nás i v zahraničí.

Individuální přístup

Každý je v něčem dobrý, nejtěžší je poznat v čem.

Individuální přístup nám umožňuje věnovat se všem žákům podle jejich schopností. Přenesení učitel zodpovědnost na žáka a ustoupí do pozadí během vyučování, získá dostatek prostoru i času, aby se mohl věnovat žákům talentovaným i méně talentovaným, hledat jejich silné a slabé stránky a ukázat každému žákovi, jak svých předností využít. Zároveň se snažíme „neubližovat pomáháním“ – u příliš velké pomoci a „vedení za ruku“ hrozí laciné přejímání názorů, zkušeností a znalostí, namísto toho, aby si žák tyto hodnoty tvořil sám.

Komunikace

Chceme školu, kde se děti nebojí zeptat

Snažíme se, aby se žáci nacházeli v otevřeném a bezpečném prostředí, kde mohou prezentovat, obhájit vlastní názor, naučit se mluvit na veřejnosti a kultivovaně argumentovat vlastními slovy. Učíme je, aby se naučili vyslechnout a respektovat názor druhého a nebáli se otevřeně hovořit o svých pocitech bez nebezpečí, že bude jejich názor zesměšňován. Komunikaci neomezujeme jen na vztah učitele a žáka. Chápeme, že pro dobrý chod školy je nepostradatelná i komunikace s rodiči a širokou veřejností.

Tolerance

Snažíme se v dětech pěstovat postoje a dovednosti, které žáky naučí domlouvat se s druhými, ačkoli mají jiný názor, jsou jiné národnosti nebo se liší v něčem jiném. Chceme, aby se žáci naučili předcházet nedorozuměním a konfliktům, a pokud tyto vzniknou, snažíme se děti vybavit dovednostmi, jak je řešit. Učíme děti nebát se odlišností a nesoudit podle prvního dojmu. Chceme, aby žáci byli citliví, vnímaví a tolerantní k odlišnostem, aby se nenechali svést k jednání na základě stereotypů v myšlení a jednání.

Přátelské prostředí

Ve stresu se nedá tvořit.

Tolerancí a otevřenou komunikací se snažíme vytvořit na škole přirozené přátelské prostředí, které napomáhá žákům k osobnímu rozvoji. Přátelské prostředí vybízí žáky k stále vyšším výkonům, ale bez stresu, strachu a odporu. Snažíme se, aby se žáci naučili oceňovat práci a chování sebe i druhých. S přátelskou atmosférou jde ruku v ruce také chápání pojmu ochrana zdraví, a to jak svého, tak druhých. Dobré vztahy a důvěra jsou také základem prevence sociálně–patologických jevů.

Tvořivost

Ptej se „Co kdyby...?“

Tvořivost a schopnost neotřelého myšlení je zaklínadlem úspěšného profesního života. Tvořivost vnímáme také jako dovednost, kterou je možno vhodně zvolenými aktivitami rozvíjet. Snažíme se žáky otevřít novým podnětům, dívat se na problémy z různých pohledů, zvažovat různé způsoby řešení problému. Díky přátelské atmosféře nemají žáci strach podělit se o originální nápady, které se na první pohled mohou zdát třeba ztřeštěné.

Vědomí kultury

Ptej se PROČ?

Současná doba zavaluje myšlení žáků hodnotami různé kvality. Chceme, aby žáci získali povědomí o historické a kulturní tradici nejen českého prostředí, ale aby si uvědomovali vztahy mezi různými, nejen evropskými

kulturami, aby se orientovali v kulturně pluralitním světě a chápali dědictví různých kultur jako prostor pro dialog a vzájemné obohacení.

Jak realizujeme daltonské zásady?

**„Dříve student chodil do školy, která mu stále něco vnucovala.
Dnes chodí do školy, aby uspokojil přirozenou potřebu vlastního
rozvoje.“**

Helena Parkhurstová

Základní principy Daltonu – zodpovědnost/svoboda, samostatnost a spolupráce vedou žáka k tomu, aby se stal aktivním účastníkem výchovně-vzdělávacího procesu. Umožňují vytvořit atmosféru podporující iniciativu, vyzývají k neotřelému myšlení a vytváří pocit z vnitřní svobody a radost z tvůrčí práce. Cílem je dovést žáky k tomu, aby se chtěly učit, a uvědomili si, jako roli v životě bude hrát zodpovědnost.

Daltonský plán jako jedna z aktuálních forem inovativního vyučování je neustále aktuální, ale současné také není nikdy definitivně uzavřeným systémem vzdělávání: jeho koncepce neustále ovlivňují aktuálními změnami ve společnosti. Pedagogický a didaktický rozměr Daltonu nabízí prostor na rozvíjení klíčových kompetencí. Naše škola není čistě daltonskou školou v „americkém“ pojetí Parkhurstové, většina učitelů však výuku připravuje v duchu zásad Heleny Parkhurstové. V hodinách vedeme žáky ke spolupráci a nezávislosti na učiteli a k zodpovědnému přístupu k práci. Vedle hodin s daltonskými prvky probíhají také tzv. daltony. Co je to „dalton“?

Podle toho, zda je téma vhodné, připravujeme obsah vzdělávacích oborů ve formě tzv. daltonských úkolů (neboli daltonů), které slouží ve všech fázích výuky, tedy od opakování a procvičování známého učiva až po studium učiva nového. Každý úkol je rozdělen do tří částí.

- ✓ **Část povinná** - obsahuje úkoly, které učitel považuje za základní pro zvládnutí daného problému. Žáci jsou povinni splnit tyto úkoly, ovšem v libovolném pořadí a libovolným způsobem (tzn. samostatně, ve spolupráci se spolužáky či s učitelem).
- ✓ **Část volitelná** - zde se soustředí úkoly, z nichž může žák vybírat. Nejčastěji se jedná o učivo, které osnovy specifikují jako rozšiřující.

Učitel sem zařadit práci, kterou považuje za aktuální (např. v testu zjistí, že žáci potřebují také dodatečné procvičení problematiky). U starších žáků se často objevuje například esej, různé typy procvičování na počítači nebo studium látky, která rozšiřuje základní informace.

- ✓ **Část extra-úkolů** - tato část poskytne žákům dostatek prostoru pro relaxaci a odpočinek. Učitel sem zařazuje i úkoly, které považuje za podstatné rozšíření problematiky. Jejich obsah slouží především žákům s hlubokým zájmem o danou problematiku.

Protože žáci od začátku práce znají všechny úkoly a vědí, dokdy je třeba úkol splnit, mohou úkoly plnit v libovolném pořadí. Díky tomu, že nejsou vázáni na učitele a ostatní spolužáky, postupují kupředu vlastním tempem, ale současně si také neustále hlídají vlastní rozvrh práce. Na konci každého daltonského úkolu (bloku a každé hodiny) máme čas vyhrazený hodnocení. Děti se učí formulovat, co se jim na hodině a práci líbilo, co se jim nelíbilo, jak se jim dařilo nebo naopak nedařilo jednotlivé úkoly plnit, a také se pokouší zhodnotit, jaké úkoly by jim měla učitelka připravovat, aby byla současně užitečná i zábavná.

Na prvním stupni pracujeme v tzv. **daltonských blocích**, jejichž délka je závislá na věku žáků. Daltonský blok míváme jedenkrát až dvakrát týdně, podle věku žáků a typu probíraného nebo opakovaného učiva. Na začátku bloku zadá učitel úkoly z různých předmětů. Když má žák splněny jednotlivé úkoly, vyznačí si na magnetické tabuli jejich dokončení a může si dále zvolit buď přichystaný úkol navíc, nebo se věnovat zájmové činnosti.

Pro druhý stupeň jsme vytvořili alternativu krátkým daltonským úkolům, dlouhodobé daltonské úkoly. Navazujeme na studijně-organizační dovednosti, které si s sebou přináší žáci z prvního stupně. Dlouhodobé úkoly dělí učivo do obsáhlejších celků a daltonský úkol se vypracovává v rámci několika hodin jednoho předmětu. Rozsáhlé daltonské úkoly, často i na čtrnáct dní, požadují, aby se zvýšil důraz kladený na přípravu a organizaci práce. Pro usnadnění práce a sledování pokroku jednotlivých žáků jsme vytvořili Daltonské záznamníky.

Způsob výuky klade důraz na pečlivou přípravu učitele, který žákům zadá úkoly z různých oblastí předmětu nebo předmětů. Od třetí třídy pracují žáci

běžně s encyklopediemi, dokáží vyhledávat informace, které pak sdělí ostatním spolužákům. O motivaci žáků při tomto způsobu práce není nouze. U menších žáků jsou to odměny do „záznamníčku“ (samolepky, razítka), větší žáci jsou odměňováni vhodnou formou přiměřenou jejich věku. Největší motivací všech je však volný čas, který získají po splnění úkolů.

Formou práce na daltonských úkolech se snažíme poskytnout našim žákům dostatek svobody a současně v nich vyvoláváme pocit zodpovědnosti za splnění zadané práce. Učíme je, jak plánovat a jak pracovat vlastním tempem. Děti často a rády pracují ve skupinách pouze s pomocí vyučujícího a ne za jejího vedení, takže se prohlubují vzájemné pěkné vztahy mezi žáky i vyučujícím ve třídě. Při práci se žáci volně pohybují po třídě a jsou vedeni k tomu, aby svým pohybem nerušili ostatní. Navíc velké množství rozličných aktivit, které mohou probíhat ve třídě současně, vytvoří dostatečně stimulující prostředí, které respektuje výukové návyky všech dětí. Zapojíme-li do práce všechny děti, zvykáme je na týmovou práci, která je čeká v budoucím profesním životě. Naučí se respektovat jeden druhého, hodnotit svoji práci ve spolupráci s učitelem i samostatně. Děti jsou vedeny k zodpovědnosti za svoji práci, mizí pasivita, zůstává prostor pro odpočinek i práci navíc, nejsou stresovány, je dostatečný prostor pro klidnou práci i u pomalejších dětí. Díky přehledným daltonským tabulím a záznamníkům ví učitel vše potřebné o práci dětí a jejich zájmech. Dospěli jsme k závěru, že žáci jsou mnohem samostatnější, zodpovědnější a také ohleduplnější k sobě navzájem.

Aplikované daltonské principy

- ✓ Dobře přístupný pracovní materiál - knihy, mapy, počítač apod.
- ✓ Instruktaž a závěrečný rozhovor, hodnocení – seznámení se s obsahem úkolů, hledání možných problémů, po dokončení zhodnocení práce
- ✓ Princip odložené pozornosti – část hodiny pro samostatnou práci žáků, kdy se každý spoléhá sám na sebe, případně na spolupráci žáků
- ✓ Zásada nerušit jeden druhého - nejvyšší forma spolupráce
- ✓ Dovednost požádat o pomoc a poskytnout pomoc – nejvíce se člověk naučí, pokud něco učí, aneb: „Když něčemu nerozumíš, napiš na to skripta.“
- ✓ Zodpovědnost za splnění úkolů v daném termínu - příležitost poznat a prožít uspokojení z dosaženého výsledku, trénink sebekázně a překonání nechuti k práci - „kde je vůle, tam je cesta“

- ✓ Označení všech splněných úkolů na tabuli nebo v záznamníku - účinná vizualizace pro učitele i žáka
- ✓ Kontrolní test – zpětná vazba o kvalitě vykonané práce a dosažených výsledcích.

Daltonská třídní pravidla

- Jen jeden mluví.
- Hlas se o slovo.
- Zůstaň u tématu.
- Nevyrušuj spolužáky.
- Dávej věci na své místo.
- Najdi si partnera pro spolupráci.
- Označ dokončenou práci.
- Zkontroluj si svoji práci.

Jestliže žáci pracují samostatně, učí se

- samostatně hledat řešení,
- pracovat, aniž by se neustále ptali učitele,
- navzájem si pomáhat,
- pracovat vlastním tempem,
- akceptovat vzájemnou pomoc,
- radovat se ze samostatně zvládnutého úkolu.

Individualizované vyučování, které vychází z Bloomovy teorie „mastery learning”, potvrzuje, že všichni žáci stejného věku se neučí stejně, důležité jsou podmínky, v nichž se žáci učí, když nejsou omezováni v čase a pracují svým tempem, získávají průběžně zpětnou vazbu o svém postupu a individuální pomoc při obtížích, je u všech možné ovládnutí určitého souboru poznatků a dovedností tedy dosažení osobního maxima. Otevřené vyučování, které aplikujeme znamená změnu klimatu školy a zahrnuje netradiční uspořádání třídy, změnu atmosféry třídy, práci v kruhu, jinou než tradiční organizaci práce, svobodně volenou práci, denní a týdenní plány a rozsáhlejší projekty.

Výchovně vzdělávací strategie školy

Následující tabulka ukazuje, jak na naší škole naplňujeme klíčové kompetence.

<u>Kompetence</u>	<u>Jak naplňujeme kompetence?</u>
Kompetence k učení umožnit žákům osvojit si strategii učení a motivovat je pro celoživotní učení	<ul style="list-style-type: none">✓ v učení klademe důraz na čtení s porozuměním, práci s textem, vyhledávání informací,✓ vedeme žáky k sebehodnocení (např. daltonské tabule, záznamníky, úkolové listy, formuláře),✓ vedeme žáky k plánování učení (např. daltonské tabule, záznamníky, úkolové listy, time-management v daltonu),✓ v průběhu 9. ročníku žáci zpracovávají ročníkovou práci, kterou prezentují na školní konferenci,✓ nabízíme žákům přístup k různým informačním zdrojům (např. knihovny ve studovnách, přístup na internet, multimediální učebnice, návštěvy kulturních institucí, exkurze),✓ pravidelně pořádáme tzv. „projektové dny“,✓ žákům umožňujeme realizovat vlastní nápady (např. školní časopis, webové stránky, projekty, příprava školních výletů, školních akademií),✓ poznatky nepředáváme žákům v hotové podobě, snažíme se žákům motivovat netradičními problémovými úlohami z praktického života, aby žáci sami plánovali a hledali různá řešení a byli schopni je obhájit,✓ v úkolech smazáváme rozdíly mezi předměty, aby žáci učivo chápali v širších souvislostech (např. volitelné úkoly v daltonských úkolech, různé referáty a prezentace na zvolená témata, využívání alternativních výukových metod, které vybízí k zapojování různých předmětů, projektové dny)✓ vedeme žáky k rozvíjení základních myšlenkových operací (srovnávání, třídění, analýza, syntéza, zobecňování, abstrakce),✓ umožňujeme žákům rozvíjet logické uvažování, kritické myšlení (např. práce s texty, aktivizující metody učení)
Kompetence k řešení problémů podněcovat žáky k tvořivému myšlení, logickému uvažování a řešení problémů	
Kompetence komunikativní	<ul style="list-style-type: none">✓ vedeme žáky ke vhodné komunikaci se spolužáky, s učiteli a ostatními dospělými ve škole i mimo školu,✓ učíme žáky obhajovat a argumentovat vhodnou

vést žáky v všestranné a účinné komunikaci

formou svůj vlastní názor a zároveň poslouchat a respektovat názor jiných (např. diskuse v hodinách a třídnických hodinách, prezentace referátů a ročníkových prací)

✓ ke komunikaci a informovanosti ve škole využíváme školní časopis Husí chrapot a webové stránky

✓ umožňujeme žákům využívat různé informační a komunikační prostředky (např. počítače, data-projektory, zpětné projektory, interaktivní tabule)

Kompetence sociální a personální

rozvíjet u žáků schopnost spolupracovat a

respektovat práci vlastní a druhých

✓ snažíme se žáky naučit základům kooperace a týmové práce,

✓ žákům se snažíme co nejvíce nabízet možnost práce ve skupinách,

✓ vedeme žáky k tomu, aby byli schopni zaujmout ve skupině různé role (např. losování rolí)

✓ pomocí různých aktivit ve škole i mimo školu umožňujeme žákům poznávat sebe sama, své dovednosti a schopnosti a jak jich využít (např. psychohry, diskuse, přehrávání rolí, akademie)

✓ vedeme žáky ke respektování společně dohodnutých pravidel chování, na jejichž formulaci se sami podílejí (např. společná tvorba „Charty třídy“)

Kompetence občanské

připravovat žáky jako

svobodné a zodpovědné

osobnosti uplatňující svá

práva a plnící své

povinnosti

✓ učíme žáky se samostatně rozhodovat a nést důsledky za svá rozhodnutí,

✓ ve třídních kolektivech si žáci společně stanovují pravidla chování a ty potom dodržují,

✓ vedeme žáky k vědomí, že i svoboda má hranice,

✓ vedeme žáky k toleranci a ohleduplnosti k jiným lidem, jejich kulturám a duchovním hodnotám, učíme je žít společně s ostatními lidmi (např. projektový den „Světová náboženství“)

✓ umožňujeme žákům ovlivňovat dění ve škole pomocí „Poradního sboru“ složeného ze zástupců tříd a pedagogického sboru,

✓ rozvíjíme vnímavost a citlivé vztahy žáků k lidem, ke svému prostředí i k přírodě

✓ klademe důraz na vytvoření příznivého klimatu ve třídě

Kompetence pracovní

pomáhat žákům poznávat

a rozvíjet své schopnosti i

reálné možnosti a

uplatňovat získané

✓ vedeme žáky k schopnosti přijmout hodnocení a vyvodit z něho závěry,

✓ vedeme žáky k sebehodnocení (např. daltonské tabule, záznamníky, úkolové listy, formuláře),

✓ nabízíme žákům informační a poradenskou činnost v oblasti profesní orientace (např. práce výchovného poradce, návštěva Informačního centra Úřadu práce)

- | | |
|--|--|
| vědomosti a dovednosti
při profesní orientaci | <ul style="list-style-type: none">✓ snažíme se žáky vést k osvojení si základních pracovních dovedností a návyků,✓ výuku doplňujeme o praktické exkurze,✓ výběrem volitelných i nepovinných předmětů pomáháme žákům při profesní orientaci |
|--|--|

Cizí jazyk

vzdělávací oblast: Jazyk a jazyková komunikace

vyučovací předmět: Anglický jazyk

Charakteristika vyučovacího předmětu

Časové vymezení předmětu

Anglický jazyk vyučujeme jako samostatný předmět v celkové dotaci 14 hodin.

6. ročník – 4 hodiny

7. ročník – 4 hodiny

8. ročník – 3 hodiny

9. ročník – 3 hodiny

Obsahové vymezení předmětu

Anglický jazyk je součástí vzdělávací oblasti Jazyk a jazyková komunikace. Výuka angličtiny navazuje na předměty 1.stupně. Anglický jazyk vnímáme jako jeden z nejdůležitějších cizích jazyků. Patří mezi základní jednacích jazyky mezinárodních organizací, proniká však i do každodenního života. S angličtinou se pravidelně setkáváme při práci s počítačem a technikou, v hudbě, prostřednictvím napsů na zboží a v obchodech.

Znalost angličtiny umožňuje každému komunikaci a dorozumění v cizích zemích, zlepšuje hodnotu člověka na pracovním trhu a rozšiřuje jeho kulturní obzory.

Smysl výuky anglického jazyka vidíme v jeho používání pro komunikaci, nikoli ve tvoření gramaticky bezchybných struktur. Gramatiku vnímáme pouze jako jednu z oblastí osvojování si jazyka. Ve výuce proto volíme témata z každodenního života a umožňujeme žákům, aby s těmito tématy pracovali.

Vzdělávací obsah

6. ročník – Friends and Family, Clothes, Sports, Shopping, Weather, Animals, Human Body, At the Doctor's, At the Restaurant (Food&Drink), Entertainment and Leisure Time

7. ročník – Family, School Subjects, Free Time, Transport.

8. ročník – London & New York, Travelling, Entertainment, School, Peer Relations, Dreams, Famous People, The World of Work, Style

9. ročník – Living in the past, Health and Fitness, Imagination, Fame and Fortune, Working Together, Our World

Organizační vymezení předmětu

Výuka anglického jazyka probíhá běžných i ve specializovaných učebnách (studovna, jazyková učebna) vybavených audiovizuální technikou, počítači s připojením na internet, příruční knihovnou. A interaktivní tabulí. K výuce anglického jazyka patří také návštěva divadelních představení v anglickém jazyce, video a internet.

Výchovně vzdělávací strategie

Kompetence k učení

- vedeme žáka k tomu, aby si uvědomil význam učení se anglickému jazyku,
- učíme žáka vhodné metody, jak si osvojit cizí jazyk,
- vedeme žáka k pochopení základní struktury jazyka.

Kompetence komunikativní

- vedeme žáky k aktivnímu používání anglického jazyka v každodenních, běžných situacích,
- vedeme žáka k týmové práci, ke komunikaci se spolužáky a s vyučujícími.

Kompetence k řešení problémů

- vedeme žáka k tomu, aby se snažil neulpívat na určitém slovíčku, ale snažil se použít své jazykové znalosti a dovednosti k opisu významu slova,
- při práci s textem vedeme žáka k pochopení smyslu celého textu, nikoli jen k chápání významu jednotlivých slov (doslovný překlad může zkreslit význam).

Kompetence sociální a personální

- vedeme žáka k vědomí, že „slušné jednání“ je základem komunikace v anglosaských zemích (např. podmiňovací způsoby apod.)
- vedeme žáka ke spolupráci ve skupině,
- vedeme žáka k upevňování dobrých mezilidských vztahů.

Kompetence občanské

- vedeme žáka k respektování druhých,
- vedeme žáka k respektování tradic a zvyků jiných zemí a národů,

Kompetence pracovní

- vedeme žáka k aktivní práci se slovníkem, k používání internetu a vhodných počítačových programů,
- vedeme žáka k tvorbě projektů.