

UNIVERSITY OF PARDUBICE
FACULTY OF ARTS AND PHILOSOPHY

MASTER THESIS

2008

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**DEVELOPING SELF-EVALUATION
SKILLS IN PUPILS IN ELT CLASSROOM**

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Akademický rok: 2006/2007

ZADÁNÍ DIPLOMOVÉ PRÁCE

(PROJEKTU, UMĚLECKÉHO DÍLA, UMĚLECKÉHO VÝKONU)

Jméno a příjmení: **Dana KREJZOVÁ**
Studijní program: **M7503 Učitelství pro základní školy**
Studijní obor: **Učitelství anglického jazyka**

Název tématu: **Developing self-evaluation skills in pupils in ELT classroom**

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

Diplomová práce bude věnována jednomu z klíčových aspektů vzdělávací reformy v České republice, a to kvalitativně odlišnému přístupu k hodnocení výsledků učení u žáků - v daném případě ve výuce angličtiny jako cizího jazyka. Diplomandka se zaměří zejména na problematiku sebehodnocení a jeho rozvoje u žáků.

V teoretické části práce budou na základě analýzy dostupných zdrojů shrnuta teoretická východiska. Pozornost bude věnována obecným zásadám poskytování zpětné vazby, konkrétně pak strategiím a technikám hodnocení v procesech učení / vyučování anglického jazyka. Autorka bude zároveň reflektovat rozpracování základních principů problematiky v programovém dokumentu - v Rámcovém vzdělávacím programu.

Na základě teoretických východisek autorka v rámci vlastního šetření provede akční výzkum, zaměřený na rozvoj dovednosti sebehodnocení u žáků mladšího školního věku.

Rozsah grafických prací:

Rozsah pracovní zprávy:

Forma zpracování diplomové práce: tištěná/elektronická

Seznam odborné literatury:

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Datum zadání diplomové práce:

30. dubna 2007

Termín odevzdání diplomové práce:

31. března 2008



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V Pardubicích dne 30. listopadu 2007

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank doc. PhDr. Michaela Pířová, M. A., Ph.D. for all her guidance and immense support she provided me with. I would also like to thank my family, friends and colleagues for always being there for me when I needed it most.

ABSTRACT

Changes of the educational system in the Czech Republic have lead not only to changes in the teaching methods but also to changes in evaluation forms. Self-evaluation is the highest but most difficult skill learners should strive to acquire. This thesis consists of two parts. The first part is aimed at providing theoretical basis for the action research conducted and described in the second part of the thesis. The research focuses at developing self-evaluation skills in young learners of the English language.

KEYWORDS

evaluation; self-evaluation; action research; learning styles; learning strategies

NÁZEV

Rozvoj dovednosti sebehodnocení žáků ve výuce anglického jazyka

ABSTRAKT

Změny ve vzdělávacím systému české republiky vedou nejen ke změnám učebních metod ale také ke změnám hodnocení. Sebehodnocení je nejvyšší ale také nejtěžší dovednost, kterou by žáci měli získat. Tato diplomová práce se skládá ze dvou částí. První část poskytuje teoretický základ pro výzkum, který je popsán v části druhé. Výzkum se zabýval rozvojem sebehodnotících dovedností u žáků mladšího školního věku při výuce anglického jazyka.

KLÍČOVÁ SLOVA

hodnocení; sebehodnocení; akční výzkum; učební styly; učební strategie

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I. INTRODUCTION

This thesis focuses on the development of self-evaluation in young learners in English lessons. Self-evaluation is a fairly new topic that has already provoked a lot of discussion.

Due to the changes in the educational system in the Czech Republic there has been a lot of debate over different methods of teaching together with evaluation and assessment. However, these two terms are not usually distinguished in Czech.

The first chapter of the theoretical part summarizes changes in the educational system in the Czech Republic. It is followed by an explanation of basic terminology related to evaluation and assessment. The question of individual learner differences and motivation is touched upon briefly, followed by the main issue of the thesis, self-evaluation. Self-evaluation is further described as a path leading to learner autonomy and possible ways of reaching this goal are outlined.

The chapter focused on self-evaluation provides an overview of its functions, aims and outcomes. It also shows some examples of how to develop self-evaluation in young learners.

In the following chapter, one of the self-evaluation techniques, portfolio, is discussed. It shows types of portfolios and again provides a possible procedure of creating one. This chapter also refers to the *European Language Portfolio* that has been lately in the centre of attention.

The question of teaching vocabulary and listening together with a very brief overview of techniques of its assessment is dealt with in the final chapters of the theoretical part of the thesis.

The practical part of the thesis describes an action research which attempted to introduce self-evaluation and its advantages to pupils.

Throughout the paper, learners and pupils are referred to as “he” and the teachers are referred to as “she”. This decision was made without any gender prejudice.

In the practical part the “learner” is referred to as the “pupil” due to the fact that I talk about specific children and the term seemed more appropriate. However, the anonymity of all the pupils was kept. It is also important to add that all the translations of sources other than English are my own.

II. THEORETICAL PART

1. Education at the Beginning of 21st Century

“How long can we keep preparing today’s children for tomorrow’s problems in yesterday’s schools with the day before yesterday methods?”

Considerable changes in society and its demands on people have inevitably caused major changes of the educational system in the Czech Republic, that have happened during the last few years.

The quote stated above is an often presented opinion that points at the fact that teachers cannot continue using the same methods of teaching and evaluating since the shift in educational goals (i.e. learner autonomy) becomes more than just evident.

In 2001, the Ministry of Education have issued so-called *White Paper (National Programme for the Development of Education)* in which it is clearly stated that whereas education was formerly based on passing knowledge on to the pupils without schools having much to say in what and how they will be teaching, the educational reform that is now happening concentrates on preparing pupils for autonomous lifelong learning. The *White Paper* (2001, p. 14), also asserts that learners should be acquiring skills needed in today’s society and therefore have bigger chance “to survive in the changing conditions of employment and the labour market”.

The Education Act No.561 (2004, p. 2) defines, apart from other issues, general principles and goals of education, and it also explains the system of educational programmes. It is imprinted in the *White Paper* (p. 15) that one of the main aims of an educational system is „the development of human personality”.

In the *White Paper* (2001, p. 39) the “multi-level education programme” is introduced and defined. It includes *The Framework educational programmes* (“*national curricula*”) and *School educational programmes* (“*school curricula*”). The former provides general aims of education. The latter, *School Educational Programme*, is created in accordance with *national curricula* but by every school individually. Based on the specific *school curricula* teaching in schools should be realized and implemented, having also its own aims and conditions based on *national curricula* already mentioned.

This new conception of curriculum is based mainly on developing skills and on acquiring values while combining educational content and goals with stress put on the acquisition of key competences¹.

Hand in hand with changing ways of teaching goes the need to imply different ways of assessment and evaluation. An important issue schools deal with is whether (and to what extent) the pupil has achieved key competences and goals of school educational programme. As stated in the *White Paper* (2001, p. 40):

Education will have a new orientation: *to learn how to know* - managing methods of learning, using information and communication technologies, avoiding a flood of trivial information but learning how to process information, turn it into knowledge and apply it, being able to think and assess critically; *to learn how to act and live together* – to be able to work both independently and in teams, to communicate openly with others, to manage conflicts, to respect different views

In other words, education is starting to concentrate on different goals and to use different ways and techniques to achieve them. As is defined by *The Framework Educational Programme* (2005, p. 12), one of the main aims of education is the development of key competences since they provide the basis of further learning and life in today's society in general. The key is to acquire learning strategies and to motivate learners in their development, thus creating autonomous learners.

Autonomous learners should be able to evaluate themselves in accordance with given criteria and since self-evaluation is the key skill learners should strive to master, it is the main topic of this thesis, and will be further discussed throughout the paper. The question of evaluation and assessment will be discussed leading us to the core of this paper. That is preceded by discussion about learner autonomy and different learning styles and strategies.

First, the differences in the Czech and English language terminology will be discussed and then the terms formative and summative assessment will be explained. At the end of the chapter, the issue of marks as a form of an assessment will be briefly touched upon.

¹ Universally used and required competences combining knowledge, skills and attitudes (Hučínová, 2005)

2. Evaluation and Assessment

“Tell them what they will learn, teach them what you have promised to teach them, and test them on the grounds of what you have been teaching them.”

(Pasch, et. al, 1998, p. 109)

As mentioned above, the question of Czech and English terminology is an issue that needs to be discussed. As Slavík (1999, p. 35) claims, Czech pedagogical publications see little difference between the terms evaluation and assessment therefore these terms are quite often used interchangeably and Slavík also brings few examples of such practice. On the other hand, non-Czech authors see clear differences between these two terms. However, opinions about the meaning of the terms greatly differ.

In other words, authors provide us with a broad display of what assessment and evaluation means to them. It was noticed that there is not a particular unified way of using the terms. Some authors provide similar definitions of these two terms while others use the terms in opposing ways. That creates a lot of difficulty in understanding the terms and its usage. Below I will mention some views on the terminology.

As Arends explains: “the term assessment usually refers to the full range of information gathered and synthesized by teachers about their students and their classroom.” Furthermore, Arends (1991, p. 198) points out the ways of collecting such information, as for example “verbal exchange” or other “formal means such as homework, tests, and written reports.”

Jill Hearne (2007) claims that by assessment some authors mean “the process of observing learning; describing, collecting, recording, scoring, and interpreting information about a student’s or one’s own learning”.

According to Brown (2004, p. 4), assessment is “an ongoing process” that happens “whenever a student responds to a question, offers a comment, or tries out a new word or structure, the teacher subconsciously makes an assessment of the student’s performance.” Adding also that “a good teacher never ceases to assess students, whether those assessments are incidental or intended.”

Jill Hearne (2007) further points out that an “assessment can have a positive connotations and consequences when it is used as a tool for learning”. That means that

assessment is also used as a way of teaching students that not only outcome is important but also the learning process, when carefully evaluated, can be helpful.

Brown (2004, p. 4) tries to compare assessment to tests and says that:

[an] assessment is a popular and sometimes misunderstood term in current educational practice. You might be tempted to think of testing and assessing as synonymous terms, but they are not. Tests are prepared administrative procedures that occurs at identifiable times in a curriculum when learners muster all their faculties to offer peak performance, knowing that their responses are being measured and evaluated.

On the other hand, the term evaluation is, namely by Freedman & Houtz (2004) defined as „a judgment or determination of value [...] placed on some performance.“

Arends (1991, p. 199) also summarizes the term evaluation as “usually refer[ing] to the process of making judgements, assigning value, or deciding on worth.” To exemplify, Arends (ibid.) further claims that: “a test, [...] is an assessment technique to collect information about how much students know on a particular topic.” While pointing out that: “Assessing a grade, however, is an evaluative act because the teacher is placing a value on the information gathered on the test.”

Slavík (1999, p. 112) states that evaluation should be informative and it becomes a guide for the pupil of what and how he is supposed to do something, it should not be a punishment for something he has not done or he has not managed.

After going through the definitions presented in literature, some of which I have mentioned above, I have decided that throughout this paper the term assessment will be used primarily as a term describing learning processes and their formal measurement. The term evaluation, will be used in connection to any process of judgment and deciding on value and worth of ones work based on Arends (1991, p. 199).

It should be stressed that when quoting, the original term will be kept even in case of not being used in accordance to what has just been agreed on.

Next, the issue of formative and summative assessment will be discussed and followed by providing some evidence on motivation by marks.

2.1 Formative and Summative Assessment

“Assessment is not only the means but also the objective of learning and teaching”

(Slavík, 1999, p. 139)

Freedman & Houtz (2004) define so-called formative assessment as “any form of assessment, such as quizzes, tests, essays, projects, interviews, or presentations” where the main aim is to help students to look at their work while still working on it and before it becomes the final product.

Kolář and Šikulová (2005, p. 32) state that formative assessment is based on finding out learner’s weaknesses and on offering help to improve those, to which Cangelosi (2006, p. 109) adds, that this assessment of learners considers and compares with specific goals in mind. Therefore a learner is assessed according to how well he has done a certain task.

Similarly, *White Paper* (p. 53) clarifies that learners should be assessed “principally with respect to their individual performance.”

Arends (1991, p. 199) explains that: “formative evaluation is collected prior to or during instruction and is intended to inform teachers about their students’ prior knowledge and skills in order to assist with planning.”

Brown (2004, p. 6) explains formative assessment as:

evaluating students in the process of ‘forming’ their competencies and skills with the goal of helping them to continue that growth process. The key to such formation is the delivery (by the teacher) and internalization (by the student) of appropriate feedback on performance, with an eye toward the future continuation (or formation) of learning.

The other term that needs to be defined, is summative assessment.

Freedman & Houtz (2004) describe it as “a judgment about a final product or about the quality of performance at the end of an instructional unit or course.”

Similarly, Arends (1991, p. 199) sees summative assessment as “efforts to use information about students and programs after a set of instructional activities has occurred.” Arends (*ibid.*) adds that “its purpose is to summarize how well a particular student, group of students, or the teacher has performed on a set of learning goals or

objectives.” Summative assessments are “designed so that judgements can be made about accomplishments.”

Although opinions differ, for the purposes of this thesis, it is important to state that formative assessment will be used with regards to concentrating on learners as individuals and their learning processes. When providing the learners with feedback, the language should always be informative and should not judge the learner as a person. On the other hand, summative assessment will concern the pupils’ final products.

2.2 Assessment and Motivation

“Flowers are weeds when there are too many of them or they are in the wrong place.”

(Halliwell, 1992, p. 24)

There are many different forms of assessment. However, for the purposes of this thesis only the question of marks, especially when used as a tool for motivation, will be touched upon briefly.

Marks are definitely the most commonly used form of assessment in our schools. There have been debates over substituting marks with oral evaluation and unsuccessful attempts were made to do so (as stated in Kolář, Šikulová, 2005, p. 79).

As claimed by Ziegenspeck (2002, p. 38), marks can have motivational effect but usually only in good learners. While Kopřiva (1994, in Kolář and Šikulová, 2005, p. 83) adds the dimension of comparison to the learner’s peers which can have a very negative effect.

He (ibid.) also warns that marks lack the “what to do next”, and “how to reach my goals” dimension. According to Kolář and Šikulová (2005, p. 83) this can be helped by adding an oral commentary but it is still not enough. Especially because teachers usually express verbally the same as what the mark means, they do not add any of the dimensions of what to do next, how to continue with learning and goals achieving. Hence the learners who do not have the top marks may not feel motivated towards further learning.

It becomes clear that as such, marks do not have all the functions that assessment should provide. For instance, as already mentioned above, motivational function or a function of clear information about how to reach ones' goals.

Amonašvili (1987, in Kolář and Šikulová, *ibid.*, p. 82) claims that the learners' tendency to learn to achieve good marks is already evident in 3rd graders. I believe that is quite alarming. Learners should be shown why they are learning and how to reach their goals regardless of marks or any other formal assessment form.

The problem, as Kolář and Šikulová (2005, p. 79) see it, does not lie in the assessment form the teachers primarily use but rather how they use it. They (*ibid.*) also point out that the teachers should use different forms of assessment wisely, and always know what purposes it will serve.

To sum up, Kolář and Šikulová (*ibid.*) remind us that it is not possible or advisable to change the forms of assessment without first changing the overall conception of teaching and learning. That corresponds nicely with the changes described in chapter 1 and furthermore it means that this time the change should be successful hence, society is being prepared for it too.

3. Learning Styles and Strategies

“To learn is to develop relationships between what the learner knows already and the new system presented to him, and this can only be done by the learner himself.”

(Barnes, 1976, in Dam, in Sinclair, McGrath, Lamb, 2000, p. 48)

Every person is different, every learner is different. Every learner also uses different strategies to remember, recall and use information he is presented with. We are all individuals and learn in different ways.

Many authors have tried to classify learners according to their specific learning styles and strategies they use when learning. Researchers have created numerous definitions and classifications, some of which will be looked at in the following subchapters. For the purposes of the following research it is vital to introduce different learning styles and strategies hence these will be further used in the research.

3.1 Learning Styles

Richards and Lockhart (1996, p. 59-60) describe learning style as “predispositions to particular ways of approaching learning [...] [that] are intimately related to personality types.” Richards and Lockhart (ibid.) further claim: “Differences in people’s cognitive styles reflect the different ways people respond to learning situations.” As Richards and Lockhart (ibid.) suggest, learning style and cognitive style refer to the same idea. Richards and Lockhart (ibid.) provide a few examples of what they mean by their definition of learning style. For instance:

some people are willing to take risks and to make guesses without worrying about the possibility of being wrong, while others try to avoid situations where there is such a risk. Some people learn best when they use visual cues and write notes to help them remember, while others learn better through auditory learning, without writing notes.

Similarly, Knowles (1982, in Richards and Lockhart, 1996, p. 60) recognizes four possible cognitive styles according to which learners can be divided. Each learning style has its own characteristics:

- **concrete learning style** – learners actively process information, they prefer verbal or visual stimuli or physical involvement in learning
- **analytical learning style** – learners are serious about learning, are independent and enjoy solving problems, they prefer a logical, systematic presentation of new materials
- **communicative learning style** – learners need personal involvement, they prefer a social approach to learning and enjoy discussions and group-work
- **authority-oriented learning style** – learners are responsible but dependable, they need structure and prefer traditional classroom

A few other authors, for example Wright (1987, in Harmer, 2001, p. 42) or Willing (in Harmer, 2001, p. 43) also define four main learning styles. They provide us with different terms but the ideas behind these groups are to some extent similar. Since learning styles are to a certain extent unobservable, the time devoted to the following research is not sufficient to deal with these. Therefore other theories will not be further discussed.

Gardner (in Harmer, *ibid.*) has introduced a well known theory of “**Multiple Intelligences.**” According to Gardner everyone has a combination of different intelligences, for example “mathematical, musical, interpersonal, spatial, emotional, etc.” However, not one person has same proportion of the intelligences. One learner’s “mathematical intelligence might be highly developed” while his “interpersonal intelligence [...] might be less advanced”.

Teachers have to consciously make decisions about the teaching methods and activities they employ in their classrooms hence learners are not the same.

Correspondingly, Harmer (2007, p. 16) claims that every learner is different and every learner responds differently to different stimuli. Some learners need “*visual stimuli*” to learn successfully, others may need “*auditory input*” or “*kinaesthetic activity*”. As mentioned in Harmer (*ibid.*), this model is called “**Neuro-Linguistic Programming (NLP)**”. This model explains that some learners need to hear things to remember them better (auditory input). Whereas learners that prefer visual stimuli, need to see what they are supposed to learn. Some learners need to be “involved in some kind of physical activity” which he refers to as kinaesthetic activity.

We all are to some extent affected by the stimuli just mentioned but some learners need mostly one or another to learn successfully. Although opinions on what is a learning style and how to define and categorize it differ, I have decided to use the division last mentioned. Therefore for the purposes of my action research I will use the NLP model.

3.2 Learning Strategies

“It would be a mistake to assume that learners come into the language classroom with a natural ability to make choices about what and how to learn.”

(Nunan, 1995, in Harris, 1997, p. 4)

A question whether strategies can be taught has been causing a lot of debate recently. According to various scholars and also to Krashen and Brown’s (2007) article *What is Academic Language Proficiency?* “strategies can be taught directly and consciously learned.” They (*ibid.*) claim that “we can determine effective strategies by

examining ‘good language learners’ [...] [and] once we isolate the strategies we can teach them to students.”

Many authors, such as Richards and Lockhart (1996), Harris (1997), Thornbury (2002), Bygate (1987), Wright (1987), Carter and McCarthy (1988) and others have dealt with the issue of learning strategies. Some authors provided clear definitions, whereas others described learning strategies only in connection to a specific skill or sub-skill. A very detailed overview of how strategies are defined by various authors is provided by Ellis (1994).

Richards and Lockhart (1996, p. 63) point out that although cognitive styles as described in the previous sub-chapter are to some extent stable, “learning strategies are the specific procedures learners use with individual learning task.” While adding that: “An important aspect of teaching is to promote learners’ awareness and control of effective learning strategies and discourage the use of ineffective ones.”

Wenden and Rubin (1987, p. 16-17) describe how teachers themselves can encourage strategy use. Teachers may do so by “provid[ing] an environment which facilitates the [strategy] identification by students of those strategies which work best for them.” Similarly to Richards and Lockhart (1996, p. 63), Wenden and Rubin (1987, p. 16-17) claim that teachers can “suggest alternative strategies for organizing and storing information and [...] encourage students to consider which strategies work best for them.”

Moreover, Wenden and Rubin (ibid.) claim that since it is not possible for teachers to notice all the learning strategies the learners use and therefore it would be “difficult to determine how each student learns best, students must be taught to help themselves.” The fact that learners should be the best judges of their learning is also vital in regards to their autonomy and life-long learning.

In like manner, Williams and Burden (1997, p. 145) remind us that some strategies are used consciously but others unconsciously. Similarly to what was mentioned above, sometimes “a strategy can be observed, such as when we repeat words aloud, and sometimes they are not observable, such as when we try to work out rules in our heads.”

Numerous classifications of learning strategies have been introduced. Some differ only in their terminology, others differ in their definitions completely. For the

purposes of my thesis I have found the following classification according to O'Malley et. al (1985, in Brown, 1994, p. 115) together with the classification of communicative strategies, provided by Tarone (1981, in Brown, *ibid.*, p. 119) worth mentioning and will further use them in my research.

O'Malley (1985, in Brown, 1994, p. 115) recognizes three main categories of learning strategies:

- **metacognitive strategies** –strategies that involve planning for learning, thinking about the learning process as it is taking place, monitoring of one's production or comprehension, and evaluating learning after an activity is completed
- **cognitive strategies** – more limited to specific learning tasks and involve more direct manipulation of the learning material itself
- **socioaffective strategies** – have to do with social-mediating activity and transacting with others

In Brown (1994, p. 116-117) the table with examples of each strategy is provided. The metacognitive strategies include self-evaluation. The cognitive strategies are for example: “repetition, translation, grouping, note taking, deduction, imagery, auditory representation, keyword, contextualization” and others. The socioaffective strategies are “cooperation” and “question for clarification”.

It has to be noted that alongside learning strategies there is a category of “communication strategies”. And as Brown (*ibid.*, p. 118) explains: “While learning strategies deal with the receptive domain of intake, memory, storage and recall, *communication strategies* pertain to the employment of verbal or nonverbal mechanisms for the productive communication of information.”

It is sometimes not possible to clearly distinguish between learning strategies and communication strategies due to the fact stated by Tarone (1983, in Brown, *ibid.*). He claims that “comprehension and production can occur almost simultaneously.”

Communication strategies, according to Tarone (1981, in Brown, *ibid.*, p. 119) are classified as follows together with their sub-categories:

- paraphrase
 - **approximation** (use of a single target language vocabulary item or structure, which the learner knows is not correct, but which shares enough semantic features in common with the desired item to satisfy the speaker)
 - **word coinage** (the learner makes up a new word in order to communicate a desired concept)

- **circumlocution** (the learner describes the characteristics or elements of the object or action instead of using the appropriate target language item or structure)
- borrowing
 - **literal translation** (the learner translates word for word from the native language)
 - **language switch** (the learner uses the native language term without bothering to translate)
- **appeal for assistance** (the learner asks for the correct term)
- **mime** (the learner uses nonverbal strategies in place of a lexical item or action)
- avoidance
 - **topic avoidance** (the learner simply tries not to talk about concepts for which the target language item or structure is not known)
 - **message abandonment** (the learner begins to talk about a concept but is unable to continue and stops in mid-utterance)

Although there are many more strategies and their classifications, for example by Oxford (1990, in Richards and Lockhart, 1996, p. 63-65), not all will be presented here. A few more examples of learning strategies will be provided in chapter 7 and 8, since they deal with a skill and a sub-skill on which self-evaluation of learning strategies will be introduced in the following research and therefore I found it more useful to state them there.

To conclude, Bialystock (1990, in Harris, 1997, p. 5) points out that it is “more fruitful to teach Learning Strategies than Communication Strategies.” While further claiming that “some of the more complex Communication Strategies will develop only once Learning Strategies have allowed pupils sufficient access to the language.”

I cannot agree more. I believe that once the learner is able to use a learning strategy correctly he can apply it to any given task or situation he is confronted with.

As was previously mentioned, strategies can be taught, therefore teachers should try to do so. However, Bialystock (1985, in Brown, 1994, p. 124) stresses: “Teachers cannot always expect instant success in [...] effort [of facilitating learners’ autonomy] since students often bring with them certain preconceived notions of what “ought” to go on in the classroom.”

Unfortunately, regardless of the changes in our educational system, it is still common practice that learners develop strategies of how to survive at school. Williams and Burden (1997, p. 147) explain that many learners will learn how to cope “with

demands of the school curriculum”. They will also “find ways to meet the requirements imposed by teachers” which will result in using “strategies which will pay off in the classroom situation but serve no useful purpose in later life.”

That is a problem which, as discussed throughout this paper, should make teachers realize how important it is to introduce steps needed for developing learner autonomy via successfully acquired self-evaluation. That would consequently lead to learners seeing education and learning not as a necessary evil but as a way of developing their autonomy in learning. This issue will be further discussed in the following chapter.

4. Autonomous Learning and Motivation

“Possession of strategies for gaining subject matter knowledge and acquiring language are the tools necessary for autonomy, which is the primary goal of education.”

(Krashen, Brown, 2007)

As already mentioned, in our society we are required to master new skills all the time; certainly more than in the past. The term lifelong learning is becoming widely accepted. Learners in our schools should be taught how to take responsibility for their own learning hence after their formal education in schools they will be required to further expand their knowledge and capabilities in their professional and personal lives. However they also have to be somewhat motivated to do so.

Harmer (2001, p. 53) explains that motivation is “closely bound up with a person’s desire to achieve a goal.” Further he (ibid.) discusses the short and long term goals, claiming that short term goals are much easier to reach and therefore there is a higher chance of increasing their motivation to further learning and goal achieving.

The definition of the concept of autonomous learning has been provided by many authors, although the term is sometimes perceived as self-explanatory.

Little (in Gathercole, 1990, p. 7) states: “Autonomy is **not** synonym for self-instruction; [...] autonomy is **not** limited to learning without a teacher.” To which Dam (in Sinclair, McGrath, Lamb, 2000, p. 49) complements by describing autonomous learning as “what takes place in situations in which the teacher is expected to provide a

learning environment where the learners are given the possibility consciously to be involved in their own learning and thus become autonomous learners.”

As Dam (ibid., p. 49) also points out, within an institutional context, autonomous learning is therefore: “the means as well as the aim of the development of learner autonomy. As a result of this, evaluation autonomous learning must include an evaluation of the process as well as the outcome.”

Dam (in Gathercole, 1990, p. 17) claims that:

Greater influence/responsibility on part of the learners in planning and in conducting teaching-learning activities will lead to a greater degree of active involvement/better learning in the actual teaching-learning situation, which again will influence the learner’s potential for evaluation the process.

Dam (in Sinclair, McGrath, Lamb, 2000, p. 50-53) further lists formats and types of autonomous learning evaluations such as self-evaluation, written evaluations in form of diaries, and so on. Dam (ibid, p. 50) shows that through self-evaluation learners “cover, to a large extent, the elements involved in and when learning – elements that were introduced in evaluation during the teacher initiated and directed activities.” Learners evaluate their “linguistic competence², own performance, social behaviour and responsibility as regards individual work as well as group work even from a beginner’s level”.

However, autonomous learning produces similar doubts as self-evaluation does. As Dam (ibid., p. 58) puts it, many teachers still believe that “It is the teacher’s job to teach.” Adding other teachers’ concerns: “Will they learn enough? What about the weak learners? What about the difficult learners?” Further to mention “waste of time/lack of time” or “the learners’ ability to act responsibly”, and others.

In *The Practice of English Language Teaching*, Harmer (2001, p. 335) draws attention to the fact that learners “need to develop their own learning strategies, so that as far as possible they become autonomous learners.” He addresses the reader with some general ideas of how “teachers can promote autonomous learning”. At first, Harmer (ibid., p. 336) states that teachers should provide the learners with “strategies for dealing with different kinds of activities and problems and offer them different learning-style alternatives to choose from.” The next step would be discussion about

² One component of communicative language competence (*Common European Framework of Reference for Languages*, p. 13)

how the learners learn, what they find difficult and on the contrary what do they consider easy and why. Harmer (ibid.) continues with suggesting

discuss[ions] [with learners about] how and why they remember certain words and not others [...] and what they might do to help them with the less memorable or difficult words (writing their own sentences, looking for them in anything they read, reading more, memorizing lists). They can also be encouraged to evaluate their own progress [...] by answering questions about how well they think they have learnt the material in the last few lessons. [The learners can] reflect on the language itself: they can list the most difficult grammar they came across, or say what their favourite ten new words have been in the last fourteen days. [...] Students can be given specific strategies for better learning. This may be given in the form of 'learning hints'

My position for the practical part builds on the above stated ideas and suggestions by Harmer in *The Practice of English Language Teaching*.

According to Harmer (2007, p. 21), in *How to Teach English*, learners have to "become active learners (rather than passive recipients of teaching)." And he (ibid.) also suggests possible steps of how "to gradually extend the students' role in learning" as follows:

- [learners] make their own dialogues after they have listened to a model on an audio track
- individual students [...] investigate a grammar issue or solve a reading puzzle on their own
- [learners] look for the meanings of the words and how they are used in dictionaries
- [learners] do various kinds of homework, such as written exercises

All of the above are considered being good first steps on the road to learner autonomy. Harmer (2007, p. 21-22) also points out the advantages of learners' use of monolingual learners' dictionaries, which are dictionaries "written only in English, but which are designed especially for learners" while adding that "at earlier stages of learning, good **lingual dictionaries** serve the same function and allow the students a large measure of independence from the teacher."

For the purposes of my research, I have found acceptable all the above stated ideas of possible steps helping learners to become autonomous.

Next, the question of autonomous assessment will be briefly dealt with.

4.1 Autonomous Assessment

Slavík (1999, p. 112) defines autonomous assessment as “an assessment that a pupil can do, understands at least to a certain degree and which he can explain or justify if needed.”

As a way to autonomous assessment, Slavík (1999, p. 138-139) sees the importance of pupils learning how to learn and to further deal with their learning styles and mistakes which should be taken as a chance to understand and realize rather than as something negative that needs to be gotten rid of.

Another example of autonomous assessment could be a contract between a learner and teacher or self-evaluation which will be further discussed in the following chapter.

To sum up, learner autonomy should be a goal every teacher should lead her learners to achieve. Autonomous assessment as well as various steps needed in order to achieve learners autonomy have been considered.

The core of this paper is the development of learners self-evaluation skills further leading to autonomy and therefore the question of self-evaluation, its functions, aims and outcomes are discussed in the following chapter.

5. Self-evaluation

As described in the first chapter, all the changes in our educational system are inevitably leading to wider and more common use of self-evaluation which as already mentioned leads to learner autonomy. In the literature available I have found some definitions of self-evaluation, however it seems that some authors treat the term as self-explanatory. Others, on the other hand, tried to explain why self-evaluation is important or what it leads to.

Heaton (1990, p. 122) describes it as a following procedure:

Students are asked to assess themselves each week according to the most appropriate grades listed on a simple form. The students then show [their teacher] their forms at the end of the week and briefly discuss their results individually with [their teacher's]. Whenever possible, [the teacher] can compare [his] own grades with the grades which students have awarded themselves. [...] Sometimes part of the first lesson the following week can be spent on discussions of the completed forms.

Little and Perclová (2001, p. 53), raised similar questions to Dam (in Sinclair, McGrath, Lamb, 2000, p. 58), such as: “‘How can learners possibly assess themselves?’, ‘Do they know enough?’, ‘Can they be objective?’, ‘Can self-assessment be reliable?’”. I believe the answer is “yes”. As stated above, learner’s evaluation is usually compared to the teacher’s one therefore it can be edited or further modelled.

*The Common European Framework*³ (p. 191) defines self-evaluation as “judgements about your own proficiency” while further pointing out that self-evaluation “can be an effective complement to tests and teacher assessment.” Consequently, *The Common European Framework* (ibid.) states criteria needed for self-evaluation to increase its accuracy. One of these assessment criteria is to be connected with “clear descriptors defining standards of proficiency” while another assessment criteria is to be “related to a specific experience”.

However, as stated in *The Common European Framework* (p. 192) the main value of self-evaluation lies in its use as a motivational aspect of learning by “helping learners to appreciate their strengths, recognize their weaknesses and orient their learning more effectively.”

Petty (2004, p. 352-3) sees self-evaluation as another form of formative assessment. Self-evaluation is used by the pupil as a tool for realizing his strengths and weaknesses. It also helps the pupil take responsibility for his learning which can be achieved by having regular teacher-learner meetings and talks, as similarly claimed by Heaton (1990, p. 122) above. During these talks the pupils should be encouraged to state their own learning aims and goals and how successful they were in reaching them.

On the contrary, some authors, for instance, Kolář and Šikulová (2005, p. 123) regard self-evaluation not as a form of formative assessment but as something that developed naturally from formative assessment. Personally, I believe that both possibilities just mentioned are partly correct and it would be difficult to state which one is more true.

It is imprinted in the *School educational programme* of school where the research for this paper has been conducted that pupils should use self-evaluation techniques regularly and cooperate with the teachers when deciding about future aims and ways of reaching their goals. However, this form of evaluation has been used very

³ European document setting standards for language learning (*Common European Framework of Reference for Languages*, p. 1)

little so far. It is more difficult to develop this skill when only one teacher is trying to do so. That could have been one of the reasons for the difficulty I have had after collection of the ground data for the research which will be explained in more detail in the practical part of the paper.

5.1 Functions of (Self)-evaluation

Different authors, namely Slavík (1999, 16-21), Kolář and Šikulová (2005, p. 44-55), Kyriacou (2004, p. 121-123) and Rakoušová (2008) distinguish various number of evaluation functions. Some even state up to eleven functions. For the purpose of this thesis, I have selected the main functions taken from Rakoušová (ibid.) and Kolář and Šikulová (2005, p. 44-55) which are, “informative”, “diagnostic” and “motivational”.

Rakoušová (2008) defines informative function of self-evaluation as the most important one. Through such, the learner realizes the processes of his learning and aims he has achieved. Self-evaluation gives feedback not only to the learners but to their parents and teachers. Rakoušová (ibid.) sees the diagnostic function of self-evaluation in the teacher choosing appropriate methods and forms of teaching in accordance with the learners achievements and additional goals. Then, it has to be established whether the learner has achieved his set goals.

To conclude, a learner who is aware of his goals and how to achieve them, can never be unmotivated towards learning. He knows what he is capable of and how to go about his own learning. Therefore he never sees mistakes or something that he has not accomplished yet as a failure but as a challenge and will further continue expanding his learning skills and strategies to reach his goals.

5.2 Aims of Evaluation and Self-evaluation

Every day, for every thing we do we are being evaluated somehow. Whether we are being evaluated or whether we evaluate ourselves, evaluation should always be focused somehow. Chris Kyriacou (2004, p. 121) describes what such evaluation or assessment should look like. As he points out, in every evaluation, the question “why are we evaluating” should be answered.

Kyriacou (ibid.) defines six main aims of self-evaluation. The first aim is to help the pupil to see or realize whether he managed to reach the aims or goals that were set.

Through using backward relation the pupil or teacher can uncover problems or misapprehensions that might have occurred in the learning process.

Kyriacou (ibid., p. 122) explains the second aim of evaluation. It should show the pupils their progress while assessing it in accordance with the standard. The third aim is to motivate the pupils. The fact that pupils are evaluated leads to better organization of pupil's work and this can be based on so-called internal motivation⁴ or external motivation⁵ or, even better, some sort of well balanced combination of both. The fourth aim of self-evaluation is to have a basis for decisions connected with pedagogical and educational needs of every individual.

The fifth aim is to ensure that the teacher is aware of where, on the scale of educational needs, the pupil is. Marks at the end of school year, for example, can be decided on grounds of such evaluation. The last aim is to show pupil's readiness for further education. Therefore the teacher, before evaluating a pupil, has to be well aware of the goals she wants to achieve by this particular evaluation.

According to (Kolář, Šikulová, 2005, p. 124) if the pupils know the aim of their own activity, and are therefore aware of what they are supposed to learn, they can decide what learning strategies they will use and plan their own work with given objectives in mind. This can be encouraged, if the teacher, for instance, writes the aim of the lesson on the blackboard, together with some concurrent aims and pupils or the teacher can cross out goals they have already reached.

Kolář, Raudenská and Fruhaufová (2001, in Kolář, Šikulová, 2005, p. 124) claim that the more specific and measurable these aims will be, the easier it will become for pupils to evaluate themselves. Similarly, well stated criteria will help pupils and teachers with their evaluation.

Nunan (2004, p. 149) in *Task-Based Language Teaching* points out that although "self-assessment has been criticized on the grounds that not all learners are accurate judges of their own ability, this criticism misses the point to some extent, which is to involve learners in their own learning processes."

Cram (1995, in Nunan, 2004, p. 149) similarly asserts what the "major purpose of self-assessment" is, explaining that through self-assessment the learners get the

⁴ Influences coming from inside the learner (Williams, Burden, 1997, p. 120-121)

⁵ Influences coming from outside the learner (Williams, Burden, 1997, p. 121)

chance to realize their own skills and knowledge while taking their aims of learning into consideration.

Fisher (2004, p. 140) claims that self-evaluation leads to active looking at ones learning processes which should lead to ability of self-knowledge and self-esteem. That should be the main purpose for introducing self-evaluation.

This sub-chapter has provided some basic aims self-evaluation has. The next chapter will discuss the possibilities of developing self-evaluation skills in learners which will be further used in the research part of this thesis.

5.3 The Development of Self-evaluation Skill

Before looking into different ways of developing self-evaluation skills, I consider it important to mention a statement found in Kolář and Šikulová (2005, p. 124) and Slavík (1999, p. 112). They similarly mention the necessity of starting with a quality teacher evaluation before asking the pupils to use self-evaluation. I view it as a vital aspect of successful lead-in to learners self-evaluation.

Authors, such as O'Malley and Pierce (1996, p. 39) bring another useful suggestion on how to start with developing learners' self-evaluation skills. They state: "If you are new to student self-assessment, you should start small. [...] begin with one assessment at a time and gradually build a repertoire of self-assessment approaches and techniques that most closely match your instructional goals. [...] However, it is important to remember that self-assessment is a *process* through which students must be led." While they (ibid.) further claim that: "Teaching students to evaluate their progress begins with realizing that students will be learning new skills. As such, they will need plenty of opportunities to learn and apply these skills with feedback from you on how they're doing."

Grecmanová and Urbanovská (2007, p. 68) together with O'Malley and Pierce (1996, p. 41) show that the skill of self-evaluating can be developed by letting learners set their own learning goals, usually with their teacher's cooperation. The learner is therefore learning to state his own learning and personally important objectives which he consequently evaluates.

Grecmanová and Urbanovská (ibid.) provide a list of what the learner should become clear about. Firstly, he needs to realize what he would like to learn and

understand. Secondly, what skills he would like to master or obtain. Consequently, which personal traits he would like to develop and also what specifically he has to do in order to reach his long term goals; these he has to break down into smaller goals, of which, setting the specifics is a requirement, so that on such basis the learner can consider whether his goals are attainable.

Grecmanová and Urbanovská (ibid.) also claim that the learner should be guided towards recognition of criteria our society has set and also to determine his own criteria. Moreover, the learner has to be conscious of criteria he is evaluating; the outcomes of the learning process, his own cooperation in the learning process (to what extent he has been involved, for example).

Rakoušová (2008) similarly shows that apart from already mentioned cooperative goals and criteria stating what is also important is the fact that evaluation covers a broad area of learner's work. A learner should define up to what extent he has reached his goals. Some schools created learners' notebooks where the learner evaluates his results according to given criteria together with his teacher. Both Grecmanová and Urbanovská (2007, p. 68) and Rakoušová (2008) explain the use of learners' notebooks and interactive diaries and state them as tools for successful self-evaluation.

Brewster, Ellis and Girard (2002, p. 65) point out that "even children as young as five can be asked to assess their work." While mentioning that the their self-evaluation can have a "pictorial form". To that, Little and Perclová (2001, p. 56) add a suggestion saying that young learners can use "symbols, perhaps a happy face to indicate success and a sad face to indicate the contrary" when evaluating themselves. That would just be the initial phase. Eventually, the learners should be able to evaluate themselves in English. An example procedure stated by Little and Perclová (2001, p. 47) is that after the teacher discusses the learning goals with pupils in Czech she produces a poster in English stating what they agreed on.

Another important issue is mentioned by Fisher (2004, p. 147) who sees as particularly important to employ every day, weekly, half-term or term evaluation time with each pupil.

Likewise, while talking about self-evaluation sheets, Brewster, Ellis and Girard (2002, p. 65) state that "self-assessment sheets can either have a general format for use

at the end of each lesson or unit of a coursebook, or a specific format related to a particular learning opportunity”. Thus complementing to Fisher’s idea stated above.

To follow, Brewster, Ellis and Girard (ibid.) warn against using written evaluation too soon or with learners that are too young. In other words, “a teacher-led question/answer session obviously allows more spontaneity and flexibility as the teacher can pursue an unanticipated point that may arise, and pupils also benefit from listening to their peers.”

As explained in *Young Learners* by Phillips (1993, p. 11-12), feedback plays a “vital part of the language learning process.” The author further states a few ideas of how to implement feedback or self-evaluation into the learning process, such as going through the learner’s folder and stating “five useful pieces of language that they have learned” and get the learners to “write sentences such as these on a regular basis: *I am good at ..., I am not good at ..., I am going to ... next week.*”

To conclude, Rakoušová (2008) claims that if a teacher wants to teach a learner to evaluate himself, a whole range of different types of self-evaluation processes which are well combined together need to be introduced so that the process leads to specific goals and the outcome becomes the learner’s competence.

5.4 Positive Outcomes of Self-evaluation

Grecmanová and Urbanovská (2007, p. 66) state that one of the most important outcomes of regular self-evaluation of the pupil’s activity and its outcomes is the pupil’s realization of his own learning; what is his learning style, which learning strategies were successful and which were not and therefore will not be used again. Consequently, the pupil is able to state what he is good at and what is beyond his reach at the moment. All of which also leads to higher self-esteem and motivation to learning. The learner is also ready to deal with difficulties and does not give up easily.

All the above is similarly claimed by Urbanovská (2004, in Kritické Listy, p. 4) who in like manner further explains that the learner chooses learning tasks in such a way that would make his future learning perfect. The learner also knows why he was unsuccessful and will choose such learning strategies that will help him avoid repeating his mistakes. Adding that the learner will learn something from his mistakes, he will not perceive them as a threat.

Scott and Ytreberg (1990, p. 7) also state the positive effect of self-evaluation in children, and claim that: “[it] can be done in very simple terms, stressing the positive side of things and playing down what the pupil has not been able to master. Nothing succeeds like success.”

To conclude, it is vital for learners to be introduced to self-evaluation slowly and in well prepared steps. The teachers should provide a good model and use such techniques that would further develop learners’ responsibility for learning. That can be achieved via own goal setting and taking decisions about learning strategies they use. All that further leads to self-knowledge and motivation for further personality growth.

The next chapter will introduce another technique teachers can (and are advised to) use in the lessons for the purposes of developing self-evaluation skills.

6. Portfolio

As preceded above, another self-evaluation technique that is becoming widely used is the learner’s portfolio. Most authors define portfolios in a similar way, sometimes the only difference is terminology as will be shown in this chapter and its subchapters.

O’Malley and Pierce (1996, p. 14) describe portfolio as: “a purposeful collection of student work that is intended to show progress over time”, specifying that many teachers would like to use portfolios since, especially in the last decade, they have become very popular, while on the other hand they are aware of the fact that not many teachers use them due to the amount of time “required for the teacher to collect the information or to score the students’ performance”.

Similarly, Košťálová (2004, in *Kritické Listy* 13, p. 8) defines portfolio as a collection of all the work a student has created.

While Wolf (in O’Malley and Pierce, 1996, p. 36) claims that: “A portfolio is a unique opportunity for students to learn to monitor their own progress and take responsibility for meeting goals set jointly with the teacher.” Unfortunately many teachers are still afraid to give students “this much control” over their learning.

Luckily, many teachers also realize the potential portfolios have which can be seen through what Hana Košťálová (2004, in *Kritické Listy* 13, p. 7) suggests in her article. She states that teachers who do not believe in only transferring knowledge to

students can but benefit from using them. She (ibid.) adds: “At school, portfolio is not valuable because we collected something, even if that something is student’s own works, but because of what it allows us to do”.

As O’Malley and Pierce (1996, p. 38) claim: “The key to using portfolios successfully in classroom is engaging students in self-assessment.” Teachers have a very important role, and that is to help pupils to become independent evaluators of their own work and progress together by being able to set future goals for themselves.

Kastlová and Podepřelová (2006, p. 100) point at another important aspect, which is to teach pupils to show their progress also to their parents who, in cooperation with the teachers, should be able to positively support their children by appraisal.

To sum up, portfolios can be primarily used for various purposes by different teachers. Yet, the most general division remains the same and follows in the next sub-chapter together with a brief explanation of what a *European Language Portfolio* is.

6.1 Types of Portfolio

Portfolio is a way of combining three important parts of language learning. Knowledge of ones achievements to date, knowledge of what the learner’s goals are and a selection of materials he has created or his achievements, including formal examinations.

The Common European Framework defines so-called *European Language Portfolio* which consists of three main parts:

- **Language Passport**, in which the learners assess their language proficiency and language skills to criteria stated in *The Common European Framework*.
- **Language Biography**, which involves learners in planning their future goals.
- **Dossier**, which is a selection of materials that learner has decided to include and that shows his learning achievements.

European Language Portfolio has also a version for younger learners called *the Junior Version*. Since the research conducted in this thesis involves young learners, this version is considered appropriate and of interest.

Similarly, O’Malley and Pierce (1996, p. 37) distinguish three main types of a portfolio as “a showcase”, “a collections portfolio” and “an assessment portfolio”.

O'Malley and Pierce (ibid.) define these as follows. The first type, a showcase portfolio, primarily displays student's best work and can be seen as equivalent to Dossier mentioned in *The European Language Portfolio*. The second type, a collections portfolio, includes all of a student's work "that shows how a student deals with daily class assignments", and accordingly, can be seen as Language Biography. The third type, the assessment portfolio which is described as "focused reflections of specific learning goals that contain systematic collections of student work, student self-assessment, and teacher assessment." Entries in such portfolios are selected with both student and teacher and are also evaluated by both according to set criteria.

Let us have a look at further use of portfolios as viewed and suggested by O'Malley and Pierce and Košťálová.

Terminology concerning portfolios can differ. In particular, the terms O'Malley and Pierce (ibid.) and Košťálová (2004, in *Kritické Listy* 13, p. 8) use. O'Malley and Pierce (1996, p. 37) mention "'portfolio night' where portfolios can be discussed with teachers, students and parents" which can be seen as equivalent to "portfolio mini-conference" suggested by Košťálová (2004, in *Kritické Listy* 13, p. 8). Furthermore, O'Malley and Pierce (1996, p. 37) also mention "working folders" as another term for "collections portfolios", which is a term that Košťálová (2004, in *Kritické Listy* 13, p. 8) uses in a likewise sense.

6.2 The Procedure of Creating a Portfolio

An example of how to create a portfolio is given by Košťálová (2004, in *Kritické Listy* 13, p. 8).

According to her, portfolio is primarily a collection of all the work a learner has created. Later, the learner decides what to keep in his portfolio and it becomes a "documentary portfolio" (which can be seen as equivalent to O'Malley and Pierces' showcase portfolio). Košťálová (ibid.) furthermore suggests, that in the next phase the pupils are expected, or at least encouraged, to organize a "portfolio mini-conference" where they introduce to their classmates work they are proud of, together with stating what has not gone so well and then they can take their classmates' advice on how to improve their work next time.

For the purposes of my research, I have found the idea of starting with collections portfolio which consequently develops into a show-case portfolio and eventually even assessment portfolio as beneficial. Furthermore the pupils in the consequent research will be introduced to the idea of a portfolio via Chit Chat 2 Diary. It contains a simple language passport and a language biography. It is constructed so it would appeal to young learners and is primarily focusing learners' awareness to learning strategies. The third part of the portfolio, Dossier (to use the terminology of *European Language Portfolio*), will be introduced by creating an English folder. This folder will be used for storing any material the learners will find useful or anything that they will have created in the lessons.

To sum up, one of the most widely used self-evaluation techniques, portfolio, and its positives have been discussed above. For the purposes of my research, some theory concerning teaching vocabulary and listening has to be tackled. This skill and sub-skill has been used as grounds for introducing self-evaluation to my pupils which was done via introducing different learning strategies, most of which were already mentioned in chapter 3.2, and some of which will follow in the next two chapters.

7. Teaching Vocabulary

“Without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed.”

(Wilkins, D., in Thornbury, 2002, p. 13)

As teachers and learners agree vocabulary is one of the key elements needed in language teaching and learning and therefore it became a widely discussed topic although this was not always the case. The importance of grammar was stressed (Allen, 1983, p. 1-3) together with notions that vocabulary is so complex it is no worth to be taught.

Allen (1983), Thornbury (2002), Kastlová and Podepřelová (2006), Scrivener (1994) and many other authors are interested in ways vocabulary is taught and learnt. Most of them agree that it is vital for teachers to consider learners' different learning styles and strategies used when learning.

Allen (1983, p. 7), similarly with Kastlová and Podepřelová (2006, p. 22) state that for successful vocabulary learning, the learner has to be presented with new vocabulary via use of as many senses as possible.

In *Techniques in Teaching Vocabulary* by Allen, (1983, p. 12-13) it is claimed that the learner has to feel the urge to use the vocabulary for purposeful communication and once this requirement is fulfilled, the learner is more likely to remember and further to use the vocabulary learnt.

Thornbury (2002, p. 30) adds that “memory of new words can be reinforced if they are used to express personally relevant meanings”. That is similarly claimed by Allen (1983, 12-13) while consequently suggesting ways of showing meanings of words to the learners. Examples of which are: “pictures, explanations in the students’ own language, definitions in simple English, using vocabulary that the students already know”.

Commands and real objects, or “realia” as Hadfield and Hadfield (1999, p. 4) call them, are also considered to be useful in learning new vocabulary. Thornbury (2002, p. 30) supports this argument and says: “Learners need to be actively involved in the learning of words.”

Allen (1983, p. 30) further shows that the need for learning a word can be created through guessing games, actions performed in response to commands, picture dictations or discussions of pictures drawn by members of the class.

In other words, the importance lies in introducing vocabulary that is somehow connected with the learner’s life, and getting the learner to use the new vocabulary in sentences that are somehow relevant to his life or that are dealing with topics that the learner is interested in.

Furthermore, Kastlová and Podepřelová (2006, p. 23) suggest the use of rhymes, poems, songs and other devices which are common for young learners since these are much easier for young learners to remember. As they point out, words, phrases or sentences that are connected to rhythm are easy for learners to hold in their memory.

Thornbury (2002, 75-76) mentions the importance of “tight meaning-and-form-fit” which means that new vocabulary should be presented in such a way that the form and meaning are presented closely together.

Although some authors prefer the presentation of form first others prefer the opposite, I personally believe that what is of more relevance is the above mentioned meaning-and-form-fit rather than a rigid vocabulary presentation type.

Hadfield and Hadfield (1999) in *Presenting New Language* seem to adopt only the first mentioned approach. Nevertheless, for the purposes of my research, I have found some of the vocabulary presentation ideas from this book useful.

Thornbury (2002, p. 75-76) notes that also the difficulty and the teachability of new words (whether they can be easily explained or demonstrated) has to be taken into account. The meaning can be presented in many ways, for example: “translation, real objects, pictures, actions/gestures, definitions, explaining situations.”

Moreover, Thornbury (2002, p. 77) discusses the advantages and disadvantages of using direct translations in the English language classrooms, seeing advantages of direct translation especially in times when a very fast understanding is needed, specifically when a lot of random vocabulary incidentally pops up and has to be dealt with immediately. The disadvantages are clear, and as it is evident from the above pages, the need of direct translation for effective learning is very seldom.

To complement the issue of direct translation the question of dictionaries should be tackled. In *How to Teach Vocabulary*, Thornbury (2002, p. 74) sees the use of dictionaries as “a tool” and “a resource for vocabulary learning”. Thornbury (*ibid.*, p. 66) also raises the question of monolingual or bilingual dictionaries which was already briefly touched upon in chapter 4, page 16, although taken from a slightly different angle.

Thornbury (2002, p. 61) further mentions several advantages and disadvantages of dictionary use. I have selected two advantages and one disadvantage that may be of further importance in my research. The advantages being that bilingual dictionaries help the learners with production, speaking and writing. And also the fact that bilingual dictionaries disrupt minimally reading and listening activities. The disadvantage can be seen in the chance of not finding the correct equivalent to a word.

For the purpose of my research I have found the comments about the use of dictionaries helpful and worth mentioning. I will work with 4th graders, therefore it would not be very reasonable to use monolingual dictionary.

Another important issue that should be briefly noted is the question of productive and receptive vocabulary. Scrivener (1994, p. 74) explains that productive vocabulary is vocabulary we use and receptive vocabulary are such words we understand but are unlikely to produce ourselves. Although most words that young learners are taught will immediately be used, the focus should be on receptive skills rather than on productive skills.

To briefly conclude, learning strategies were claimed to be aimed at receptive skills while communication strategies on productive skills.

Thornbury (2002, p. 88) also addresses the issue of involving learners in presenting new vocabulary. Apart from “**elicitation**”, he also uses the term “**association networks**” or as Bowen and Marks (1994, p. 100) call them, topic areas, evolving around a new word or a new topic. The learners have to draw a map or a diagram consisting of words that are somehow, even if remotely, connected with the given word.

According to Fisher (2004, p. 71), all techniques or methods that somehow depict thoughts (the connections between thoughts, structured graphs or word overviews) are an excellent way of learning. They are called “mind maps” and visually symbolize mutual relationships.

Bowen and Marks (1994, p. 103-105) consequently state a number of strategies that are helpful when memorizing and recalling vocabulary:

- association with a mental image or picture.
- association with a situation, topic or story.
- association with a need of some kind (personal significance).
- association with another word (same language; native language).
- association with a feeling (positive; negative).
- association with a smell, sound or movement.

As Bowen and Marks (*ibid.*, 105) further note, the above mentioned mental associations can not only “extend teachers’ range of options when presenting vocabulary” but, and maybe even more importantly, “give teachers more chance of being in touch with individual learners’ preferred learning styles.”

For the purpose of my research, I have found the vocabulary learning strategies of Bowen and Marks useful, together with Thornbury’s elicitation techniques and associations network. I will use them in the practical part of this thesis.

To sum up, when teaching vocabulary, teachers have to remember that every learner has different learning style and that his strategies to learn also vary. Therefore, the teachers should employ such vocabulary presentations and learning tasks that would satisfy most of the learners present and they should change their routine every so often. Teachers should also include the use of dictionaries as another strategy of how to teach vocabulary. This will lead to greater independence in learners and consequently to the much desired learner autonomy.

7.1 Vocabulary Assessment

As already mentioned, the way of checking whether the learners have really learnt what they think they did can happen, for example, either via informal talks with the teacher or by formal assessment measure, tests.

According to Bowen and Marks (1994, p. 102), due to the limitations of our short term memory, it is usually useless to test “lexical items shortly after they have been presented to learners”.

To add, Bowen and Marks (*ibid.*) suggest that vocabulary should be tested in a similar way as it was presented. That way learners are more likely to recall the words from their long-term memory to which it was stored not only via some repetition but “through some kind of association”.

There is much more to be said about vocabulary assessment, however due to the nature of my research and its limited space for introducing all the methods mentioned above, I will not further discuss this issue.

I should also explain at this point that often vocabulary and listening activities are closely correlated as may be evident from the fact that some of the methods for teaching vocabulary may also be used for teaching listening which is discussed in the final chapter below.

8. Teaching Listening

“What does it mean for a native speaker to have understood what someone has said to him? As soon as you start thinking about this question seriously you find that you want to introduce some hedges.”

(Brown, Yule, 1983, p. 58)

The above quotation is, in Brown and Yule (1983, p. 58-59) followed by an example sentence: “‘Shut the door’, bellow[ed] his father at him.” The learner of English would have to understand the message hidden behind these words and hence understanding differs in different situations. In our example, the learner has to also grasp the mood of the speaker and “the context in which it occurs” which consequently determines the listeners reaction, verbal or non-verbal.

Similarly, Harmer (2007, p. 135) claims that learners “need to be able to recognise **paralinguistic clues** such as intonation in order to understand mood and meaning.”

Recently, much has been written and researched about listening comprehension although previously, as Brown and Yule (1983, p. 54) suggest, it was believed that “the student would just pick it up somehow in the general process of learning the foreign language.”

Brown and Yule (1983, p. 57) further explain that since it is impossible to “process every word and [...] to try to work out *all* that is involved in the literal meaning of the utterance”, the real “aim of a listening comprehension exercise should be for the student to arrive successfully at a reasonable interpretation”.

Similarly, Anderson and Lynch (1988, p. 11) in *Listening*, introduce the term “coherent interpretation”. Coherence is dependant on what we know about the speaker, the situation in which the message has been said “and the world in general”.

Apart from being able to listen for paralinguistic clues, as mentioned by Harmer (2007, p. 135), he also stresses the importance of learners being able “to **listen for specific information** (such as times, platforms, numbers, etc.), and sometimes for more **general understanding** (when they are listening to a story or interacting in a social conversation).”

As Harmer (ibid.) also points out, several listening strategies can be employed when designing a listening activity. Namely, “encourage students to listen as often and as much as possible”, “help students to prepare to listen” and “once may not be enough.”

Harmer (ibid.) also suggests: “Encouraging students to listen as often and as much as possible” can apart from other ways be provided not only via CD’s or the Internet but also via the teacher herself given that most of the time she uses English in the lessons to give the learners more listening input. To which Bowen and Marks (1994, p. 136) add that apart from the teacher being the “model [...] for learners to imitate, [...] [and] listen to”, the teacher can also support meaning “by facial expression, gesture and body language.”; therefore: “The speaker can respond to verbal and non-verbal signals from the listeners, and the process can be interactive.”

As also discussed by Harmer (2007, p. 134-136), many other features and principles concerning listening, for example “encourag[ing] students to respond to the content of a listening, not just the language”. Listening that students perform in the classroom or listening that they do outside the classroom, for their own pleasure, or non-authentic and authentic listening. The latter, referring to listening which is not in any way adapted for purposes of learning English could (but will not in this thesis) be further discussed.

Švecová (2006, p. 6) claims that learners learn also by “listening to instructions and performing them.” Thus, listening activities should include a lot of “movement and physical involvement”. She (ibid.) further claims: “By listening to instructions and following them, children can develop understanding before they speak. Physical response not only activates their memory and teaches them to think in the language, but also makes learning enjoyable, playful and fun.” She (ibid., p. 7) also advises the teacher to use “a lot of body language in class. [The teacher] can point at objects, show what [she] mean[s], mime, make gestures or facial expressions, and let the learners imitate the actions.”

To conclude, as in real life, there should always be some purpose in the listening and the learners should know it in advance. We use different listening strategies depending on the situation and reason for our listening. Hence the learners should be somehow acquainted with what they are going to hear, via pictures, predicting content

or vocabulary. Those are also excellent means of providing learners with visual cues of the listening context.

For the purposes of my research I found the above mentioned suggestions applicable and will further use them together with the points mentioned in the following sub-chapter.

8.1 Listening Assessment

“Grade the task not the material.” (Bowen, Marks, 1994, p. 137)

As rightly represented by the above quote, Bowen and Marks (ibid.) stress the fact that the teacher should “ensure that the demands associated with the mechanics of the task don’t inhibit the learners’ chances of achieving it.”

Bowen and Marks (ibid.) explain that test tasks should “require non-linguistic or minimally linguistic responses (ticking boxes, filling in details on a map, etc.)”. The fact that learners may not be able to do the task could stem from other than listening reasons. Those could be, for instance, lack of time to write lengthy answers which the learner might not remember (that has nothing to do with his listening skills). Another reason could be that the learner has difficulty with spelling and therefore he loses valuable time on issues unrelated to listening as such.

Mead and Rubin (1985) point out that listening tests should include material that “model[s] the language that students might typically be expected to hear in the classroom, in various media, or in conversations.” They also add that the materials should be fairly short and interesting in their nature since “listening performance is strongly influenced by motivation and memory”.

Another test Mead and Rubin (ibid.) suggest is “a performance test that requires students to select a picture or actually perform a task based on oral instruction.”

To conclude, listening is one of the most important skills a learner should acquire when learning English. It is closely connected to vocabulary teaching and learning. Unfortunately, again, despite the fact that much more could be said about listening and its assessment, due to the limitations this paper has, it has to be left out.

III. PRACTICAL PART

9. Aim of my Action Research

Educational studies ... are a 'practical science' in the sense that we do not only want to know facts and to understand relations for the sake of knowledge, we want to know and understand in order to be able to act and act 'better' than we did before.

(Langeveld, in Bell, 1993, p. 16)

The aim of my research is to introduce self-evaluation to the pupils I teach and to develop the habit of self-evaluation. I would like to show them different self-evaluation techniques and explain the positive outcomes self-evaluation brings.

The idea is to show the pupils how self-evaluation can be used. I will use one skill and one sub-skill, namely, listening and vocabulary, and via these show the pupils the benefits of self-evaluation and why it is important to master the highest skill of evaluating oneself.

Through self-evaluation, the pupils should consequently realize their key learning styles and strategies. It is helpful not only for their further learning at primary school but also, and even more importantly, for their autonomy and life-long learning.

10. Action Research Theories

Slowly, the profession as a whole is realizing that, no matter how much intellectual energy is put into the invention of new methods (or new approaches to syllabus design, and so on), what really matters is what happens when teachers and learners get together in the classroom. Being a good classroom teacher means being alive to what goes on in the classroom, alive to the problems of sorting out what matters, moment by moment, from what does not. And that is what classroom research is all about: gaining a better understanding of what good teachers (and learners) do instinctively as a matter of course, so that ultimately all can benefit.

(Allwright and Bailey, 1991, xv-xvi, in Bailey, Curtis, Nunan, 2001, p. 133)

Many scholars deal with the question of action research, trying to explain its principles and focus. Nunan (1992) provides us with a good overview of the definitions of action research. Kemmis and McTaggart (in Nunan, 1992, p. 17) see it as having three main characteristics. According to Kemmis and McTaggart (ibid.) these are:

Action research is carried out by practitioners (classroom teachers), it is collaborative and it is aimed at bringing about a change.

Whereas Nunan (1992, p. 211), in spite of agreeing with the first characteristic that Kemmis and McTaggart (in Nunan, in Edge and Richards, 1993, p. 42) have stated, requires different three components. These are: a question, data, analysis and interpretation.

Even though Cohen and Manion (in Nunan, 1992, p. 17) previously included collaborative issue as well, later (in Bell, 1993, p. 6) they leave it out and define action research as:

essentially an on-the-spot procedure designed to deal with a concrete problem located in an immediate situation. This means that the step-by-step process is constantly monitored (ideally, that is) over varying periods of time and by variety of mechanisms (questionnaires, diaries, interviews and case studies, for example) so that the ensuing feedback may be translated into modifications, adjustments, directional changes, redefinitions, as necessary, so as to bring about lasting benefit to the ongoing process itself.”

Nunan (1992, p. 18) expresses his opinion that although “collaboration is highly desirable, I do not believe that it should be seen as a defining characteristics of action research.” While supporting his claim with a few plausible reasons and examples, such as the fact that it is not always possible and desirable to do collaborative research or that it will not always bring about a change. However, as long as the main characteristics of action research are met, those being “a question/issue, data, and interpretative analysis”, we can talk about an action research.

Richards and Farrell (2005, p. 12) see action research which refers to “teacher-initiated classroom investigation” as two dimensional, where *research* “refers to a systematic approach to carrying out investigations and collecting information that is designed to illuminate an issue or problem and to improve classroom practice.” The word *action* is described as “taking practical action to resolve classroom problems.” Furthermore Richards and Farrell (ibid., p. 171) point out that:

action research takes place in the teacher’s own classroom and involves a cycle of activities centering on identifying a problem or issue, collection information about the issue, devising a strategy to address the issue, trying out the strategy, and observing its effects.

In *Learning to Teach*, Arends (1991, p. 479) claims similarly, adding that in many aspects action research is like any other research since “it is the process of asking questions, seeking valid and objective answers, and interpreting and using the results.” Arends furthermore states that “it differs from some other kinds of research in that its goal is to produce valid information and knowledge that has immediate application – in this instance for teachers or their students.”

Correspondingly, Bell (1993, p. 7) points out that as any other research, action research also needs to be carefully planned and depending on the “nature of information required” the methods for gathering data should be selected.

Arends (1991, p. 479) adds that although action research uses the theory of scientific research, its aim is to bring about changes in the classroom, and “it is not intended to inform the larger research or educational community.”

Although Průcha (2002, p. 429) argues that action research is but a “fashion” that will fade out and will not have any considerable effect on advancement of pedagogy as a science, I personally believe that action research is a very good way of finding out more about one’s teaching and classroom reality, especially for novice teachers. They come to the classrooms knowing a lot of theory, however as will be further mentioned, that is often not enough and I perceive action research as a great possibility to change this fact.

What has just been said, also corresponds to Cangelosi’s (2006, p. 278) claim that novice teachers are armed with a lot of theory which does not necessarily make them good or experienced teachers. Emphasis is laid on further development of each novice teacher, in connection with an experienced teacher or at least by getting a lot of feedback.

Likewise, Richards and Farrell (2005, p. 171) shows that action research not only brings practical improvements in the classroom but through action research “teachers can develop a deeper understanding of many issues in teaching and learning as well as acquire useful classroom investigation skills.”

Bell (1993, p. 7) similarly sees action research as being “attractive to practitioner-researchers who have identified a problem during the course of their work, see the merit of investigating it and, if possible, of improving practice.”

Various researches have stated different models of doing action research. Some are very similar or even the same, for example Richards and Farrell (2005, p. 183) and Kemmis and McTaggart (1981, in Arends, 1991, p. 480-481) who have both designed cycles that continue when needed. These cycles go as follows: plan, act, observe, reflect and when the issue is further to be tackled, then again: plan (revised plan), act, observe and reflect. The only difference between these two authors is the terminology. While Kemmis and McTaggart (ibid.) name the steps as above, Richards and Farrell (2005, p.183) use terms: plan, intervene, data, reflect, and continue with another cycle in the same way as Kemmis and McTaggart (1981, in Arends, 1991, p. 480-481).

Some researchers have added additional steps, for example van Lier's model as shown and explained in Bailey, Curtis and Nunan (2001, p. 136-137) or Burns (2002, in Richards and Farrell, 2005, p. 175) and Richards & Lockhart (1994, in Richards and Farrell, 2005, p. 174-175). Van Lier's model (1992, in Bailey, Curtis, Nunan, 2001, p. 136), together with other models here mentioned, "allows for the fact that the original goals of an action research project often evolve over time."

Likewise Cohen and Manion (in Bell, 1993, p. 6) state that another vital characteristic of action research is the fact that "the task is not finished when the project ends." Personally, I have known from the start that my action research is but a beginning of a longer period of research and planning that should lead the pupils to being able to evaluate themselves and realize their strengths and weaknesses.

For the action research I have conducted, I decided to employ the model stated in Nunan (1992, p. 19). This model includes seven basic steps. The first one is called Initiation (or "problem identification" as in Nunan (in Edge and Richards, 1993, p. 42)), the second one is called Preliminary investigation. The third is Hypothesis, followed by Intervention, Evaluation, Dissemination and the last step is a Follow-up.

According to Richards and Farrell (2005, p. 178) when deciding on topics for action research "we emphasise the importance of choosing issues that can be fairly readily explored and that are likely to lead to practical follow-up."

To which the author of *Doing Your Research Project*, Bell (1993, p. 16) adds that "whatever the size and scope of the study, you will in all cases analyze and evaluate the information you collect and you may then be in a position to suggest action which will bring about changes in policy and / or improvements in practise."

Question of reliability is touched upon by Harmer (2001, p. 347) who adds that “the more methods we use for data collection, the more reliable our analysis is likely to be. By weighing up our journal entries, our observations, and our students’ written responses, we will be in a good position to decide on future action.

For my research I have used a questionnaire, two interviews and I kept a simple teaching journal. Bailey (1990, in Nunan, 1992, p. 120) sees teaching journals as diaries about “a language learning or teaching experience, documented through regular, candid entries in a personal journal and then analyzed for recurring patterns or salient events”. Nevertheless, some critics, as mentioned in Nunan (1992, p. 123) claim that these diaries are just a “ground-clearing or hypothesis-raising preliminaries to real research, but they are not of themselves valid or reliable means of doing research.” I believe journals can present interesting data, especially when looked at some time after they have been written. My journal was very simple. Into my lesson plans I have noted brief statements of how the pupils have reacted to the learning strategies or self-evaluation techniques we have done or when something unexpected or interesting happened. An example of a lesson plan with such a note is attached to this thesis. See Appendix 1.

To conclude, action research is defined in various ways. Yet, most researches agree that it is a research happening in a classroom, done by a teacher and it leads to realization of issues important for the teacher. It also shows the potential of consequent longer-term research and helps especially novice teachers.

Some general data about the research I have carried out will be provided in the following chapter.

11. My Action Research – General Data

The research was carried out at a primary school which is situated near the centre of a city of about one hundred thousand inhabitants. This school is one of the larger schools in the city, and it counts about five hundred pupils from which about a third attend so-called sports classes.

The researched group of pupils attend the 4th grade sports class. It means that pupils have good study results and quite often (since they perform athletics) they are, or they are lead to being, very individualistic. Due to many competitions they crave not only feedback as such but especially good marks. I am the researcher as well as the

teacher in the class of sixteen pupils. There are eleven girls and five boys. They all have very good study results.

The group is fairly small therefore I am aware of the fact that the outcome of the action research will not be used in a larger community. However, it will be of a great importance to me. I am positive that there will be consequent actions taken in order to further work with the findings and to continue developing self-evaluation skills in the pupils. I am already planning further steps and possibilities of using other self-evaluation techniques in the classroom. The researched group has previously had one year of English lessons with a different teacher. I have started the research after about three months of teaching them. The research lasted from the beginning of December 2007 until early March 2008.

11.1 Step 1. - Initiation (Problem identification)

Very soon after having started to teach this group of pupils have I realized that they were highly motivated and extremely eager to learn. In my opinion, their motivation mostly stemmed from their good results and their high learning potential. The pupils were used to getting a large amount of marks (usually good ones of course) and frequently required formal testing. As I have found out via personal talk with their class teacher the pupils have always been getting an extensive number of marks not only in English lessons, but in other subjects too. As discussed in chapter 2.2 (page 7-8) marks can have a positive effect on motivation, yet also very negative effect. That depends on the mark.

I employ different teaching methods than their previous teacher and (as discussed in chapter 1 and 2.2.) changes in teaching should go hand in hand with changes in assessment and evaluation. For that reason I have decided to aim my research at developing self-evaluation skills in young learners. It goes without saying that self-evaluation should not replace testing as such, but it should be used as a tool for pupils to realize what and how well they have learnt and consequently, over the time, for them to require less marks and formal testing because they would know how they are “doing” concerning their learning. I should also state that I had to learn how to provide more frequent feedback and formative assessment.

Due to countless possibilities of how to approach this issue, I had to limit my action research somehow. As was already mentioned in chapter 9 I have decided to teach (or introduce at least) some basic self-evaluation techniques and skills on one language skill and one language sub-skill, listening and vocabulary. Prior to the action research, as a little preview of self-evaluation, I have given the pupils a picture of a fish with “fish scales” that were to be coloured by the pupils when they have felt they have done something well. This idea was taken from Kolář and Šikulová (2005, p. 153). It was not much of a surprise for me that the pupils usually wanted to colour in a fish scale for getting a star for their homework or for getting a good mark.

11.2 Step 2. - Preliminary Investigation

In order to examine the issue it was necessary to collect information about it. The baseline data were collected via questionnaire and also via a short one-to-one, structured, interview. The questionnaire was taken in the classroom and the interview was taken right outside the classroom with individual pupils. The reason for this was that such young learners are likely to repeat or even parrot what someone else has already said without really thinking about it. The research etiquette concerning anonymity was kept.

At the time when the questionnaire was handed in and the interview was conducted there were only thirteen pupils present, five boys and eight girls. They both happened in the same day with same pupils. The aim of the interview was to find out how the pupils were assessed and evaluated in the past and if they ever evaluated themselves. An example questionnaire is attached, see Appendix 2.

Unfortunately, the baseline data collection lead to some misunderstandings from the parents side, (as I was told by the headmistress, I have personally not spoken to any parent about the issue) together with the headmistress of the primary school where I have carried out the research. Personally, I believe that this actually proves that schools should but are not always using self-evaluation as one of the ways of evaluation and how broader public, especially parents should also be informed about all the changes educational system in the Czech Republic is undergoing.

The questionnaire included three questions, one being a test of answer reliability that is called a “control item”, according to Chráska (2007, p. 165). Although I have

piloted the questionnaire on my colleague, at the end I have decided to leave it out on the spot due to the puzzled questions the pupils addressed me with.

As based on Chráska (2007, p. 169-170), I have tried to make the questions as understandable and short as possible considering the pupils' age. That was also a reason for the questionnaire being in Czech rather than in English. The questionnaire did not include instructions of how to fill it in, since it was explained to the pupils together with the reason for the questions and the questionnaire in person prior to filling it in. I believe it did not compromise the collected data in any way.

Questionnaire

The questionnaire asked only two simple questions. In question number one, pupils could choose more than one answer. Such a type of question is called "listing". (Bell, 1993, p. 77) and falls into the category of "closed (structured) items" (Chráska, 2007, p.166).

In the second question the pupils were meant to choose a statement that was true to them, and add either "It is difficult for me" or "it is easy for me" or "something in between". This question type is, according to Bell (1993, p. 77), called "a scale".

The questionnaire is translated below and it's original version is in the attachments as Appendix 2. :

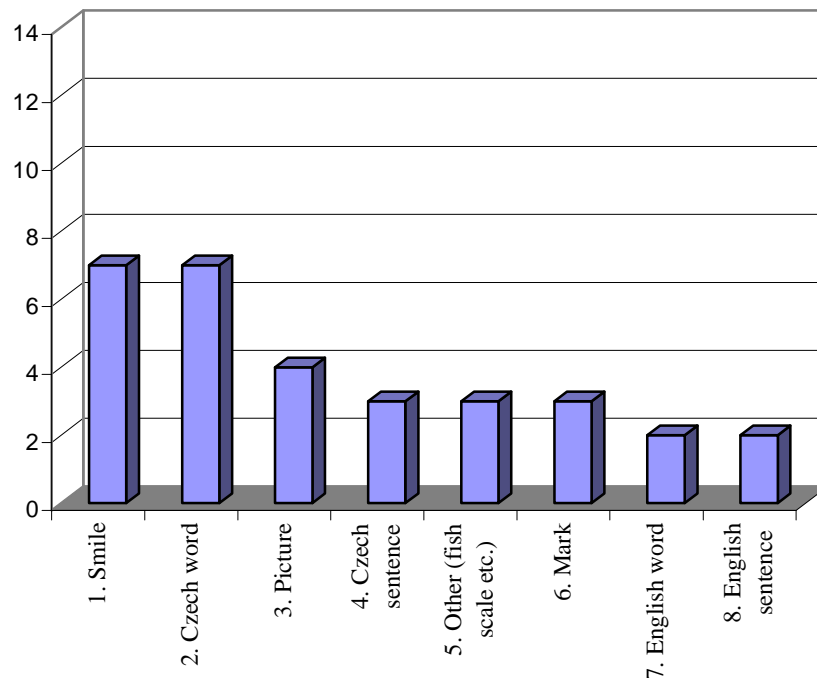
1. My most favourite way of saying what I have done well is:
 - a) picture
 - b) smile
 - c) word – Czech x English
 - d) sentence – Czech x English
 - e) mark
 - f) other answer

2. When I evaluate my own work/achievement I do so via; it is easy-difficult-something in between:
 - a) picture
 - b) smile
 - c) word – Czech x English
 - d) sentence – Czech x English
 - e) mark
 - f) other answer

Question No. 1

The answers to question number one were as follows and are also shown in Graph 1 below. Seven pupils have chosen smile as their favourite way of showing that they have done something well together with seven pupils that stated a Czech word as their most favourite way of expressing their success. A picture was chosen by four pupils, Czech sentence, mark and other way (for example fish scale) were all ticked by three pupils. An English word as well as an English sentence were both stated by two pupils. See Graph 1 below:

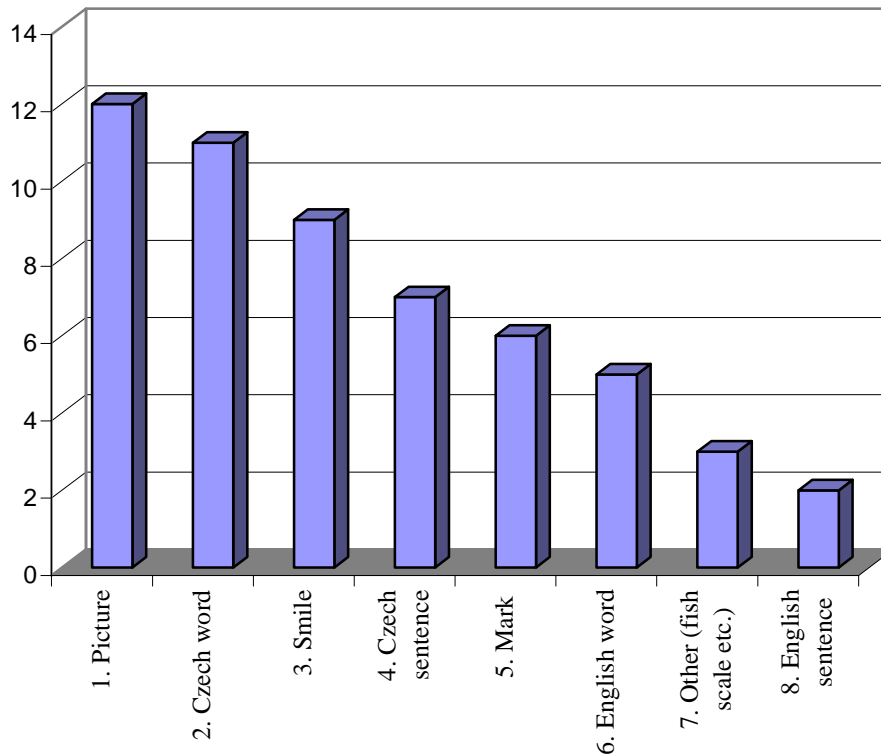
Graph 1 - The most favourite way of self-evaluation



Question No. 2

Question number two has allowed me to create a scale from the easiest to the most difficult, which is shown in Graph 2 below and reads as follows. The easiest form of evaluation was a picture, chosen by twelve pupils. Eleven pupils have chosen Czech word as the second easiest. The third was smile ticked by nine pupils. The fourth place was given to a Czech sentence with seven pupils seeing it as an easy way of evaluating their achievements. The fifth was, rather surprisingly for me, a mark, chosen as easy by six pupils. The sixth place was granted to an English word, by five pupils. And the seventh place belonged to an English sentence together with other (fish scale) ways, chosen by two pupils.

Graph 2 - The easiest way of self-evaluation

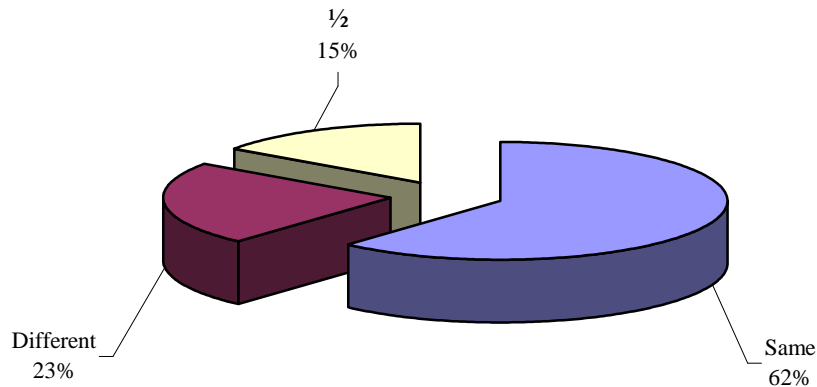


When both questions were evaluated it was fairly evident that the easiest type of evaluation was also seen as the most favourite. One of my hypotheses, as will be mentioned below in chapter 11.3 was that what is easily expressed is not always also the most favourite therefore at the beginning of the research this hypothesis was not proved truthful. At the time of collecting this data, the pupils just started to get acquainted with self-evaluation techniques so I did not even expect this to prove otherwise.

However, when I looked at the individual questionnaires, and examined both questions in a same questionnaire, I found interesting discrepancies. As I noticed, some pupils have ticked a smile as their most favourite way of self-evaluation yet wrote that it is also the most difficult means of evaluation. This other analysis could serve as a proof of whether the pupils understood the questions fully.

The findings have shown that in eight questionnaires the pupils' answers have corresponded with each other. Three questionnaires have had major discrepancies between the answers and two pupils had one answer that corresponded and one that did not. See Graph 3 below.

Graph 3 - Discrepancies in answers



Interview

To collect further data, I have also had a one-to-one interview with all the pupils. For an abstract of the interview see Appendix 3. Questions such as “How were you assessed last year?” or “Have you ever evaluated yourself?” were asked. The interview questions have revealed that all the pupils were used to marks as their main type of an assessment. Five pupils said, that giving mark was also accompanied by a short oral comment.

Eight pupils have said that about once a week they have been asked to express how they liked or disliked the lesson/s either by clapping hands or booing. Certainly this cannot be taken as self-evaluation or peer evaluation since it does not consider what the pupils learnt, it only shows their attitude towards the lesson. It only evaluates how they enjoyed the lesson. I do not believe this to be a correct way of evaluating how much have the pupils learnt and what are their further learning goals.

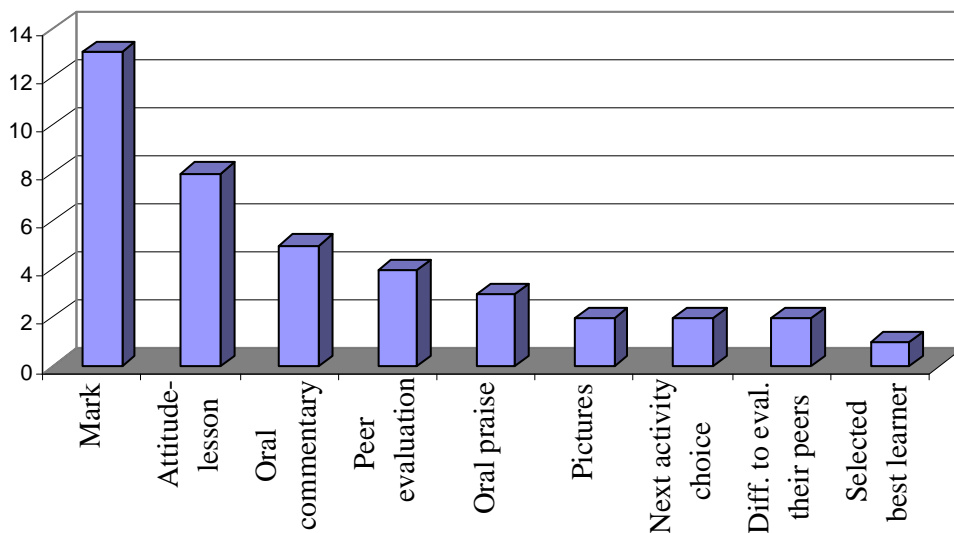
Two pupils have remembered getting pictures as a form of feedback. Three pupils stated being orally praised by an English word, for example: “Great. Perfect.” Two pupils have also recalled being praised by games or by allowance to decide what activity they would like to do next. That can have motivational effect.

Previously they have never evaluated themselves although occasionally they have evaluated their peer’s work by using a mark scale. This was consequently checked by the teacher and the mark was changed when it did not fit the teacher’s assessment. This was expressed by four pupils. Two of which also added that they found it fairly

difficult to do so. One pupil has also mentioned that once every half a year they selected one pupil who they thought was the best learner.

Personally, I see danger in such an activity which can lead to disillusionment in weaker pupils. They might feel that since there is no way they would ever be selected as the best learner even when they tried, they might lose the motivation to learn. In this respect, self-evaluation avoids such an outcome hence its main point is not to compare pupils but to compare individual pupil's progress. (See Graph 4 below)

Graph 4 - Inicial interview



From the above findings it is obvious, that the initial stage of the pupils' self-evaluation skill is very low. Clearly, they have not reached the phase of self-knowledge and self-esteem yet.

11.3 Step 3. – Hypothesis

Here, the hypotheses or research objectives should be stated. According to Verma and Beard (in Bell, 1993, p. 18) a hypothesis can be defined as:

a tentative proposition which is subject to verification through subsequent investigation. It may also be seen as the guide to the researcher in that it depicts and describes the method to be followed in studying the problem. In many cases hypotheses are hunches that the researcher has about the existence of relationship between variables.

One of my hypotheses was that the pupils were so used to marks as a means of their feedback and praise that they will feel reluctant to obtain a different way of

feedback. Possibly, they might see it as another way of how the teacher finds out how well they are doing in their process of learning rather as a way of their own evaluation.

Another hypothesis which will have a “longer-term objective” (Bell, 1993, p. 16) is that eventually the pupils will realize that the easiest way of self-evaluation may not always also be the most preferred one. The assumption being that although some ways of self-evaluation are easy it may not be possible to express everything the pupil would like to through this type of self-evaluation. An example: the pupil might find it easy to evaluate himself via a smile, smiley face or a fish scale whereas at the same time his most favourite way of evaluation might be a Czech sentence (later English sentence). He may realize that it gives him the opportunity to fully express not only what he has achieved but also how will he continue to progress in his learning.

11.4 Step 4. Intervention - Developing an Action Plan and Observing its Effects

On the basis of the collected data I have developed a plan “for acting on this information to bring about changes in the classroom.” (Richards and Farrell, 2005, p. 178)

I have also, as similarly suggested by Richards and Farrell (ibid., p. 182) employed changes in the classroom practices, specifically in the forms of assessment and evaluation.

Richards and Farrell (ibid., p. 178) claim that “once a strategy for implementing the change has been developed, it then needs to be implemented in the classroom and the effects of the change observed.”

I have slowly introduced a few self-evaluation techniques, namely, the fish scales, the pupil’s Chit Chat 2 Diary and the “learning styles” sheet, (see Appendices 4 and 5) together with showing pupils useful learning strategies. We have also created a folder but at this point it is still in a form of a collections portfolio, as described in chapter 6. In the near future, I would like to, together with the pupils, set criteria for works that can be included in the learners’ portfolio. Also I would like to formally introduce *The European Language Portfolio-Junior Version*, although I see the pupils’ Chit Chat 2 Diary as a language passport itself due to the nature of tasks included.

At first, after completing a task the pupils were asked to non-verbally (smile, thumbs up, etc.) express to what extent (or how well) do they believe they have accomplished the given task.

As already mentioned, together with the pupils learning how to evaluate themselves, I was also learning. In particular, I was learning how to give more feedback and use formative assessment together with informative language which is needed as good grounds for self-evaluation. Therefore the pupils were provided with a model of how to evaluate and how to use informative language when evaluating themselves. I also started to tell the pupils aims of the lessons and also aims of particular tasks together with stating criteria needed for successful completion of the task.

An overview of techniques and strategies I have used within my research is provided below:

Chit Chat 2 Diary

Chit Chat 2 Diary is designed as a portfolio type. It helps the pupils to realize their achievements after each topical unit. First three diaries we have completed together, at school during the lesson. The pupils took the consequent diaries home to be filled in which I have seen as a chance for parents to get acquainted with them.

Questions in Chit Chat 2 Diaries are usually based on some translation, recalling of listening activities and stating whether the pupils have found those difficult or easy. Last questions usually ask how well the pupils have managed the whole unit. Questions such as: “Why?” or “What helped you to ...?” are somehow implemented. When I have gone through all the diaries I have noticed that at first, this “Why” and “What helped you to ...” questions presented a lot of difficulties for the pupils. Eight pupils even avoided them completely and in class they told me that they do not know the answer to those questions. Starting from units three and four this began to change. All the pupils suddenly always answer these question somehow. Example answers to the question “What helped you to remember the direction instructions?” being: “waving my hands”, “that some words rhymed” or “left sounds like a lion[in Czech]”. For more answers see Appendix 5.

At the end of each task, lesson or time period we have evaluated the pupils' progress. As already mentioned in the theoretical part, in chapter 5.3, page 22, it is important to evaluate in regular intervals.

Learning styles

Based on the NLP model described on page 10, I have designed a sheet that was attempting to tackle an issue of different learning styles. For two weeks, at the beginning of each lesson, the pupils were asked to put a tick in one of the squares. At the end of the lesson they expressed how well they think they achieved what was stated in the column they ticked via a smiley or frowning face. I also required them to accompany this by an oral explanation. When they said they would draw a smiley face I asked them to show me that they really are, for example, able to use the words in a sentence correctly.

The options on the sheet were as follows (see Appendix 4.):

- I understand new words when I hear them (+ - I see them on a picture)
- I understand new words when I see them written (+ - I see them on a picture)
- I am able to correctly repeat/say a new words and/or to translate it from Czech to English
- I am able to use a new word correctly in a sentence or in a dialogue
- Notes

Learning strategies

As already mentioned, I have decided to develop pupils' self-evaluation skills on one skill and one sub-skill. Therefore whenever we have done any listening or vocabulary task or presentation (or both since it is usually difficult to deal with one without the other), I have tried to show pupils a new learning strategy (as described in chapter 3.2) they could use to tackle the task successfully. Their Chit Chat 2 Diaries are also full of hints on how to learn which proved to be of interest of the pupils. I have also kept notes on my lesson plans sheets on how well the individual strategies worked and whether pupils seemed to be able to use them with my help or independently. My notes were considered when drawing final conclusions of my research.

Teacher vs. pupil evaluation

One important aspect of self-evaluation is the fact that pupils need to learn how to assess themselves realistically. As one pupil, from the researched group, claimed: “we are usually either under- or over-estimating ourselves”. He said so absolutely correctly. Pupils in general do not know how to evaluate their achievements. They are used to teachers doing so, completely relying on the teacher’s evaluation and further identifying themselves according to those.

As already discussed in chapter 5, page 17, and elsewhere, it is important to compare the teacher’s grades with the grades the pupils award themselves. For that reason, in my research I have I tried to draw a comparison between the pupil’s self-evaluation and my own evaluation. To do so, I have primarily used the Chit Chat 2 Diary and consequent tests or observations as a tool of finding out whether our evaluations differ or are the same, at least to an extent.

I usually asked whether anyone would colour in a fish scale for anything they think they have done well in that lesson or task. Straight after that I have asked how would they justify it. Then I have also evaluated them by stating why I think they should colour in a fish scale. Therefore I have provided a model of informative statements as suggested in the theoretical part of this thesis. I have to admit that it is not always easy, I am not used to that, I have personally never done it before consciously and since I realize how important my model is, I was often really nervous and scared I will not do it correctly.

After some time, I observed that pupils try to use similar language to mine, but not as sophisticated and well aimed. Based on my notes also regular aim and criteria setting proved helpful.

When we were discussing their Chit Chat 2 Diary entries, where was, for example stated: “How many sports can you name?”, after the pupils answering the question I always asked them to tell me the answers or to write them down. That way I could see whether their evaluation is correct. I have also used tests, taken from the Chit Chat 2 classbook to see whether the pupils have learnt what they were meant to. An example test is shown in Appendix 6.

Final data collection

At the time the final data were collected there were again only thirteen pupils present, again five boys and eight girls. Therefore I trust the data to present fairly relevant outcome.

Due to the complications I have described in chapter 11.2, page 41, I decided to collect the final data via interview with all the pupils present in the classroom, again during a normal lesson. However, this time the pupils were assigned a group-work task and while they were working on the task, I joined each group and spoke to them. They also had their Chit Chat 2 Diaries ready at hand. I have asked them a series of five questions to which all of them answered without any order. I have not used any technical support. I only relied my memory and notes taken consequently.

The previous decision about collecting base-line data outside the classroom and with individual pupils proved to be of more value since (as expected) the pupils had to think only for themselves. Whereas this time, although some pupils tried to think “outside the box” most of them thought a little and then joined the thoughts of the rest of the group.

Yet, to avoid answers such as “I do not know” the pupils were promised a star if they proved to be thinking about their answers. I believe it succeeded especially with some pupils hence most of the pupils in each group were really trying hard and even gave me examples of what they considered as beneficial in their learning.

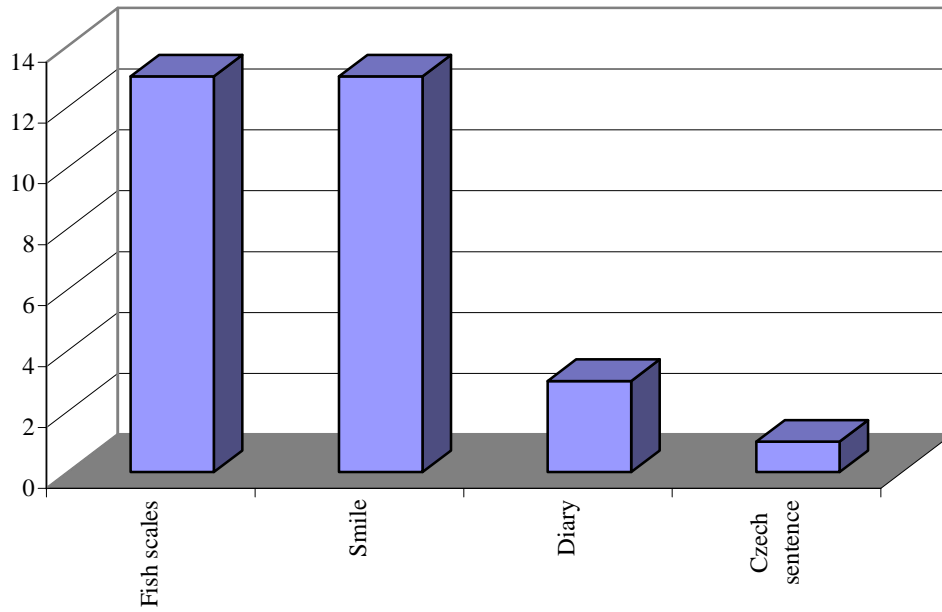
Due to the nature of the data collection I can provide exact numbers only as far as my memory allowed me unlike with the previous data collection techniques. Reasons for that were already provided.

The pupils were asked five questions. Each is stated below together with the answers.

Question No.1 - Which kind of self-evaluation do you like most?

The Graph 5 below shows the preferred self-evaluation as being fish scales stated by thirteen pupils and smiley faces, stated by the same number of pupils. The Chit Chat 2 Diary is preferred by three pupils, and even a Czech sentence was mentioned once. The pupil also stated that doing so is very hard.

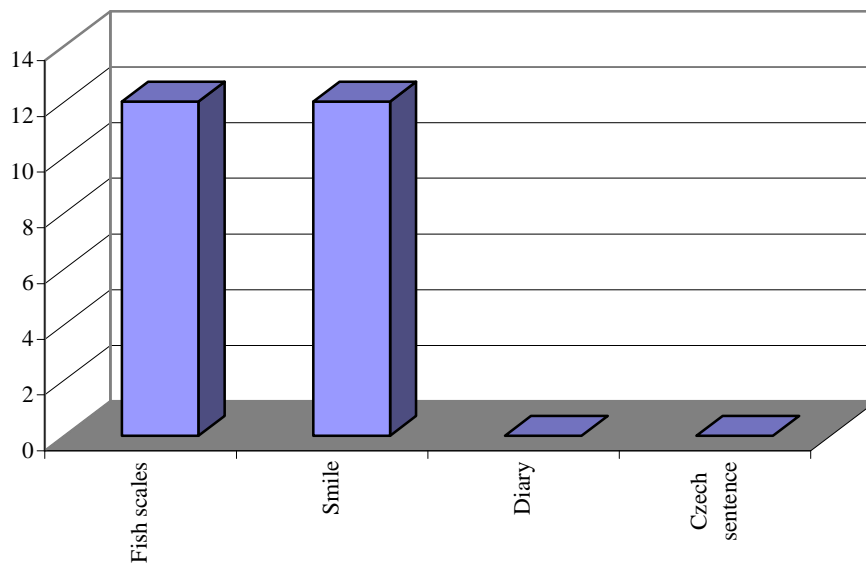
Graph 5 - The most favourite kind of self-evaluation



Question No.2 - Which kind of self-evaluation is the easiest for you?

Graph 6 below shows which self-evaluation technique do the pupils find the easiest. Here two types of self-evaluation got the highest score. For twelve pupils a fish scale is the easiest means of self-evaluation and for the same number of pupils it is the smiley face. No other self-evaluation kind was mentioned.

Graph 6 - The easiest kind of self-evaluation

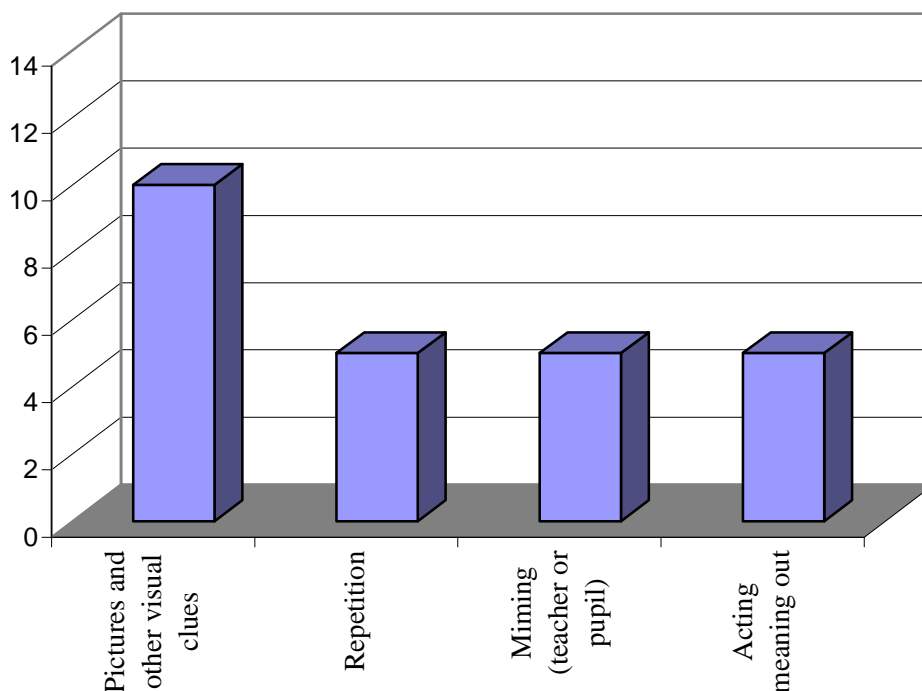


As opposed to the initial questionnaire, this shows that the pupils are becoming to be aware of what it means to evaluate themselves. Still, due to the time limitation this action research had there is little chance of them already realizing the benefits of expressing themselves via whole sentences even if those would be in Czech at first. However, as I have noticed one pupil seems to prefer to express himself via a Czech sentence. He told me so and I have also noticed that on his “learning styles” sheet once, instead of drawing a face he wrote a sentence. (See Appendix 4)

Question No.3 - What helps you when we are doing a listening exercise or when you listen to me(the teacher)? Is there anything you do now that you were not used to do? Is there anything that helps you to understand?

Ten pupils mentioned that it was helpful that they were regularly working with pictures and other visual clues when doing listening exercises. Five pupils said that the fact that the teacher repeated what was said differently or used different ways of expressing what was said together with miming and acting the meaning out was helpful. Same number of pupils mentioned that they found useful to mime themselves or otherwise react to listening stimuli. All the statements just mentioned were also claimed to be done this year and not previously. (See Graph 7 below)

Graph 7- Listening (strategies)



Question No.4 - What helps you when we are learning new vocabulary, when you are supposed to understand a word or when you are supposed to get the meaning of a word? Is there anything you do now that you were not used to do? Is there anything that helps you to understand, remember or guess the meaning of new words?

Ten pupils mentioned rhymes and songs together with pictures and actions (giving example of how they acted out new vocabulary connected to sports) and saying for example: “It helps me to see the pictures we use and to hear the word at the same time, then I am able to remember it better.”

Five of them also remembered and claimed it useful to create and further use posters with mind maps, pictures, dialogues and sentences all connected to one topic. One pupil explained: “I try to link new words with something I know already or to words that are somehow connected. It also helps me when I am actively working on creating a poster and that I can cooperate with my friends.”

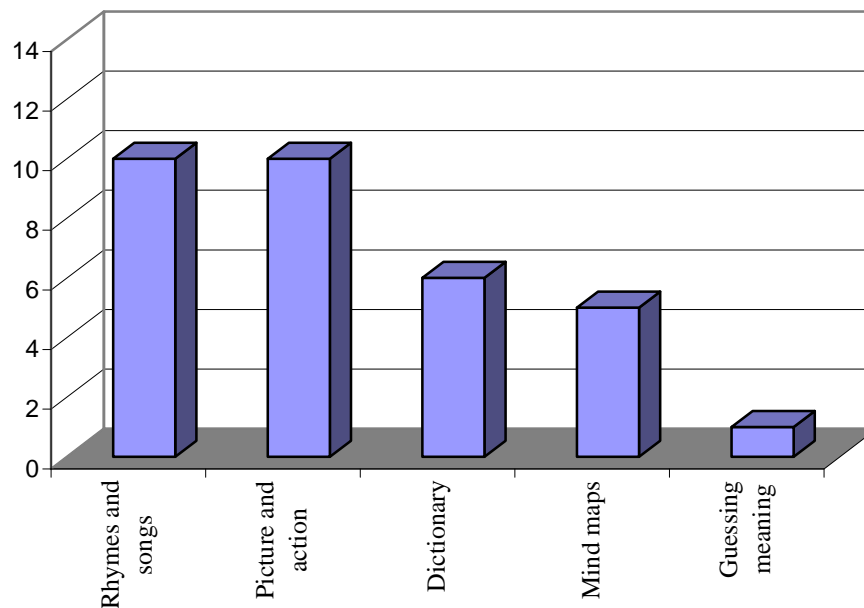
One of the pupils have also said that now he knows what to do in case of not understanding a new word. First, he tries to gather a meaning from the context, if that does not help, or there is little context to provide such an aid, he either asks another group member, but most often he takes his pocket dictionary and finds the word himself.

Five pupils also mentioned the use of their pocket bilingual dictionaries. To exemplify, one pupil said the following: “Now, when I do not know a word, I look it up in a dictionary.” Another pupil proudly claimed that he became really good at working with a dictionary and that he was previously not allowed to use one on regular basis. He further explained that what is also good is that he can still refer to me and ask about a word which for example has more meanings in the dictionary and I help him to choose the one he should use in a given context. That is another learning strategy, as explained in chapter 3.2 and chapter 4, page 16.

That proves that the pupils are aware of the structure of a dictionary and understand that many words have more than one meaning. They are also able to find the pronunciation of an unknown word which helped them, for example when trying to come up with a poem based on a weather vocabulary.

See Graph 8 below.

Graph 8 - Vocabulary (strategies)



Question No.5 - Do you like filling in the Diary? Why? What do you think that you are learning by doing so? Do you find anything else in your folder helpful to your learning? How?

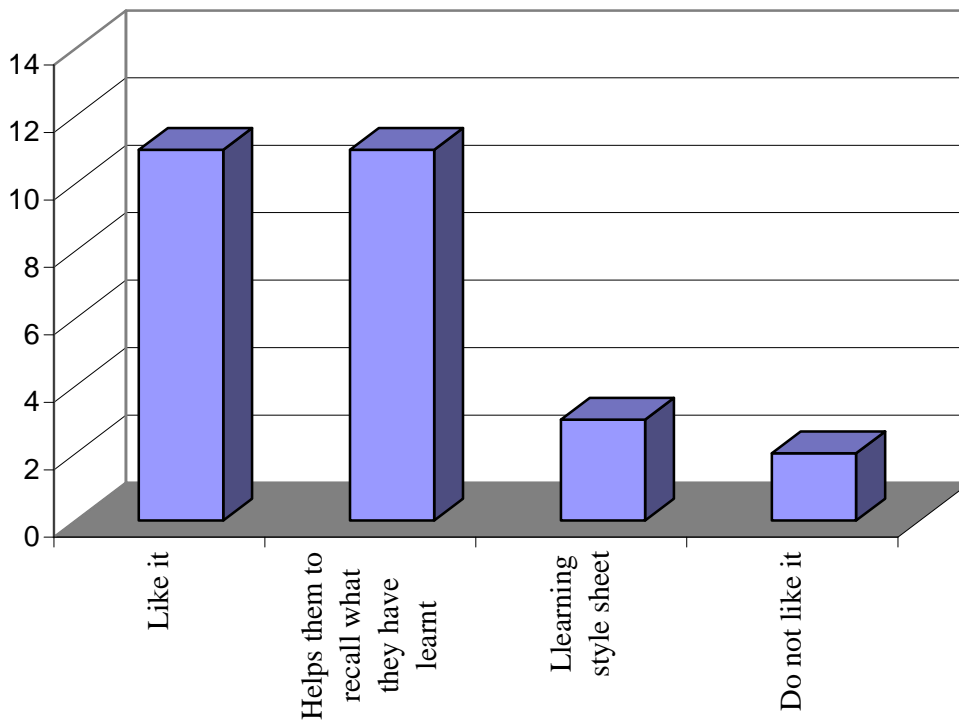
Here, only two pupils said they do not particularly enjoy working with the Diary, whereas eleven pupils pointed out that they enjoy working with it and sometimes even colour it in therefore using it in the same way as they are using the fish scales.

All eleven pupils realized that it helps them to recall what they have learnt and realize what they have achieved. Via the Diary they can also see their progress and what type of learning most suits them.

Three pupils recalled the “learning style” sheet and commented positively about it. One of them said that it helped him to see that he needs to see and hear a new word to remember it better. Another pupil explained that he realized that drawing pictures instead of direct translation also helps him to remember new vocabulary.

See Graph 9 below.

Graph 9 - Chit Chat 2 Diary



11.5 Step 5. – Evaluation

Data collected throughout the action research will be evaluated here. The aim of the research was to introduce self-evaluation to the pupils to an extent that they would require it as means of evaluation and feedback. Furthermore two hypothesis were meant to be proven.

It follows from the data provided before, that this group has proved to react really well to the researched topic. Pupils are using more strategies when learning and are more independent in working on their tasks. That could be observed especially when they were cooperating in groups while working, for example, on posters which included not only what they have learnt in the lessons but also extra information they were supposed to find themselves.

Based on my journal and the final interview, I can state that ten pupils are now aware of and consciously use specific strategies (of course they do not label it that way) when learning vocabulary and listening. The most preferred strategies proved to be visual aids, rhymes and songs, the use of dictionary and mind-maps together with

miming, acting out and repetition. The pupils use more strategies when dealing with vocabulary tasks than with listening.

Four pupils now require self-evaluation on regular basis. They remind me to do so, especially when I forget to evaluate a certain task. I have made comments of such questions in my journal. They were for example: “Can I colour in a fish scale today?” or “When are we going to fill in the Diary for Lesson 5?” and so on. That I see as being the first step of their realization of its importance; the fact that they require self-evaluation rather than asking for marks and tests which some of them did at the beginning of the academic year.

The final interview also revealed that three pupils are aware of their preferred learning style, that being a combination of visual-auditory. However, I think that the “learning styles” self-evaluation sheet was introduced too early into the research. Most of the pupils did not realize its outcomes. Having said that an interesting finding was made. One pupil has written a short sentence in the box where a smiley or frown face was meant to be. Instead of a face he wrote: “I do not understand everything, but I guess the meaning.” This particular “learning styles” sheet is provided in Appendix 4.

Eight pupils are now able to answer the “Why” questions in their Chit Chat 2 Diaries whereas at the beginning they were not able to do so. This transition happened after the third or fourth diary entry. I take that as a proof that their beginning ability to evaluate themselves and to think about their learning has increased rapidly. Eleven pupils enjoy working with the Chit Chat 2 Diaries and also consider it beneficial for recalling what they have learnt. See Appendix 5.

It is evident from the tests and my other notes that self-evaluation did not in any way hinder the pupils learning processes. It is clear from the tests they have passed that they did acquire the knowledge they were supposed to. An example test is provided in Appendix 6.

However, at least three pupils still do not show much evidence of realizing their preferred learning style or use of learning strategies. They also show little thought when completing their Chit Chat 2 Diaries which otherwise provides beneficial input regarding learning as such.

On the other hand, I believe that strategies that pupils use when learning vocabulary or doing listening tasks will become internalized for their learning in general.

I believe that my first hypothesis that pupils are so used to marks they will feel reluctant to a different way of feedback and evaluation was proven untrue. Hence, when I looked at the data collected, it is clear, that pupils not only do not require tests and marks that often anymore but more importantly, they require to evaluate their work on regular basis. Therefore I see them at the beginning of their path to learner autonomy.

However, that does not mean that all the pupils lost their positive attitude towards tests; as a proof, there is one pupil in the class that was always very eager to be tested. I suppose it is so due to the excellent marks this pupil always had and has to this date. Marks provide the primarily source of external motivation for this particular pupil. As I have noticed via my notes, this pupil is still fairly reluctant to evaluate himself.

My second hypothesis that the easiest way of self-evaluation may not be their most favourite was also proven untrue. It surely is bound to the fact that the research has only been carried out for three months. I have to mention one pupil who stated that he prefers to evaluate himself via a Czech sentence although he perceives it being fairly difficult. He is also the one who used a sentence instead of a smiley face in the “learning styles” sheet I have mentioned already.

I have to point out another issue which I consider a great achievement. The class is focused on sports and due to the nature of the sports they do, the children usually become very individualistic. I have realized that although they are normally very competitive, for example when we play games, they have not tried to compete with each other at all whilst self-evaluating. I have never noticed them either say or write anything that would try to be comparative to their classmates. Whether it is due to the model they have had or for other reasons, I cannot clearly state since that would require further investigation into the issue but I have to admit I am really glad about this.

I am aware of the limitations this research have had, starting with time limit and the fact that Christmas holidays were included in the research period. Nevertheless, I consider the research as very successful in its initial aim, which was to introduce self-evaluation to the pupils and show them how different techniques can be used and what benefits they can have. Some possible follow up steps are described in the next chapter.

Those I would like to soon introduce in my class yet I have to point out that there are many other possible research areas I could tackle. One of them was already stated one paragraph above.

As a last comment I would like to provide a little personal reflection of the experience gained while carrying out the research. I have to confess that I have more than enjoyed working on this issue and I am further going to work with it as long as I teach those pupils but on the other hand I should state that at times it was getting really difficult probably since I had no experience in the field of self-evaluation and I had to learn together with the pupils. Unfortunately at the school where this research was carried out, at the moment, there are not many teachers employing self-evaluation techniques into their teaching and there are none that do so in a language class. There are but a few who do self-evaluation with their pupils on regular basis. They are the class teachers of the younger pupils therefore they spent more time with them and know them better since they have been teaching them for several years which is something I also consider important.

11.6 Step 6. – Dissemination (Share the Findings with Others)

“The teacher runs a workshop for colleagues and presents a paper at a language conference.”

(Nunan, 1992, p. 19)

Surely, running a workshop or present a paper would be a great outcome of the action research I have conducted but apart from discussing the issue with few of my colleagues (two teachers of English and one teacher of Czech language who also tries to employ self-evaluation into her teaching, together with a teacher of German who is slowly working on the same task too) there is little will in hearing about it let alone having have to act upon it.

As I have mentioned in chapter 11.2, page 41, there was a problem with the preliminary data collection which was connected to many teachers unwilling to change but a little bit in their teaching routine or in their beliefs about teaching and learning. I believe that it is a pity and might further result in difficulties in implementing the

School Educational Programme at this particular school. Some evidence of which is already apparent.

11.7 Step 7. – Follow-up

The last step of action research cycle is called follow-up which is self-explanatory. I will present some ideas of how to further continue working on the pupils' self-evaluation and which I will use in my lessons.

Diary

I would also like to continue working with their Chit Chat 2 Diaries while drawing attention to the pupils own diary taking which I would like to introduce.

The above stated idea goes hand in hand with writing a self-evaluation note or a letter to oneself, which was another suggestion by Phillips mentioned in chapter 5.2 on page 23.

Portfolio - European Language Portfolio (Junior Version)

At the moment, I already count on using the *European Language Portfolio - the Junior Version* as means of further developing self-evaluation skills in the pupils.

Likewise, I would like to systematize the use of their own portfolios which we started to create at the beginning of the academic year. So far we have used their Chit Chat2 Diaries and collected materials they have created. Therefore in the next few months I would also like to concentrate on stating the criteria for what goes into the portfolio and hence create a so-called showcase portfolio, as mentioned in the theoretical part of this paper, chapter 6, page 26.

Goal setting – Cooperation of Pupils and Teacher

As previously discussed in the theoretical part, especially in chapter 5.2, it is very important for the pupils to be able to state or participate on stating their learning objectives and planning their work themselves. Young pupils should always set more short-term goals rather than only long-terms goals. Unfortunately the 4th graders I teach have never had a chance to do so. Therefore I did not consider it possible at the beginning of the research. I have also taken into account that (as mentioned in the

theoretical part) one should start “small” and decided this would be one of the things I would introduce gradually.

Self-evaluation Sheets Signed by the Teacher

As mentioned for example by Rakoušová (2008), I would like to develop self-evaluation sheets for the pupils which would be signed by me as the teacher when I would agree with the pupil’s evaluation. On the other hand, if the self-evaluation was totally incorrect, for example, statements would not use informative language or pupils would be under evaluating or overestimating their evaluation, I as the teacher would not sign it. I would ask the pupil to evaluate himself again while guiding him how to do so more accurately.

IV. CONCLUSION

To conclude, the topic of this thesis was to introduce self-evaluation to young learners. One of the aims was to include self-evaluation in the lessons and provide the pupils with basis for future development of the highest evaluation skill learners can achieve. It involves learners in the processes of learning and further leads to the much desired learner autonomy.

Individual learner differences were considered when discussing learning styles and strategies needed for successful learning and acquiring the key competences. These are stated in *The Framework Educational Programme* and are also a way to achieving learner autonomy.

The theoretical part provided a baseline for the research conducted in the practical part. Different ways of collecting data tried to ensure reliability of the research. However, due to the low sample of learners the validity of the research is quite low. On the other hand, for my purposes the data collected are of great value.

The data provided evidence that it is possible to successfully introduce self-evaluation even in classes where the learners are not used to any autonomy at all and are used to marks as their only way of feedback. Very soon after starting the research were the pupils able to realize some of the learning strategies they use while learning. Some strategies proved to be used more often than others. Only further research would show whether the pupils are applying these strategies also to other learning situations.

Due to the time limits this research had, it was not possible to look further into the issue of self-evaluation. On the other hand, it is evident that even after relatively short time the learners were able to make a habit out of the various self-evaluation techniques we were using and require self-evaluation themselves.

Therefore, the research can be perceived as successful although there is still a lot more to achieve with these particular learners, examples of which are provided in the last.

V. RESUMÉ

Tématem této diplomové práce je rozvoj sebehodnocení žáků v hodinách anglického jazyka. MŠMT v roce 2001 vydalo *Bílou knihu*, ze které vychází *Rámcový vzdělávací program*. Změny výukových metod, které oba dokumenty přináší, vedou následně ke změnám hodnocení. Zavést jedno bez druhého a dosáhnout požadovaného efektu nelze. Takové pokusy se v minulosti objevily, ale vedly k neúspěchu. Nyní je ale půda připravena jak na změny metod výuky, tak na změny hodnocení.

Tato práce je rozdělena do dvou hlavních částí - teoretické a praktické. Teorie poskytuje základ pro výzkum popsany v druhém oddíle.

První kapitola se zabývá změnami v současném školství České republiky. Cílem těchto změn je vychovávat samostatné osoby schopné uplatnit se v dalším životě. S tím souvisí rozvoj klíčových kompetencí⁶, jež vedou k celkovému osobnostnímu růstu a žákově autonomii. Tato samostatnost předpokládá, že si je žák schopen sám nebo s pomocí učitele stanovit své cíle a posléze zhodnotit, do jaké míry byl úspěšným v jejich (s)plnění.

Druhá kapitola se zabývá pojmy hodnocení. V českém jazyce se velmi často tento výraz používá jak pro hodnocení, tak pro vyhodnocování. Anglický jazyk tyto dva termíny rozlišuje, avšak různí autoři na ně nahlíží rozlišeným způsobem. Pod pojmem hodnocení se tak může skrývat jak průběžné hodnocení žákovy práce, tak i hodnocení konečné.

V podkapitole o hodnocení je načrtnut rozdíl mezi sumativním a formativním hodnocením. Sumativní je nejčastěji používáno při hodnocení nějakého produktu a dochází při něm k srovnávání jednotlivých žáků. Naopak formativní hodnocení se zaměřuje na proces a vždy se vztahuje pouze k jednomu žákovi, u kterého porovnává současný rozvoj s ohledem na výsledky dosažené v minulosti. Jelikož hodnocení je často viděno jako možná forma motivace, v další podkapitole je rozebrána otázka známek jako motivačního prostředku. Ve své knize *Hodnocení žáků* uvádí Kolář a Šikulová (2005), že jako motivační prostředek fungují pro žáky pouze známky dobré. Dále uvádí, že známka zdaleka neplní všechny funkce kladené na hodnocení. Chybí zejména funkce informativní. Ačkoli bývají známky doprovázeny slovním komentářem

⁶ Univerzální znalosti a dovednosti žáků, které běžně potřebujeme ve svém životě a které jsou využitelné v mnoha životních i pracovních situacích. (*Rámcový vzdělávací program*, 2005, s.14)

učitele, zcela postrádají informaci o tom, co a jak může žák udělat pro dosažení cíle. Slovní komentáře známek se totiž zpravidla omezují na popis toho, co je vyjádřeno číselnou hodnotou (tj. kde žák chyboval, jak měl správně řešit aj.).

Autoři Kolář a Šikulová (2005) dále tvrdí, že učitel by měl vhodně volit a používat různé druhy hodnocení. Poukazují také na hrozbu, kterou s sebou přináší změny způsobů hodnocení izolované od změn forem výuky.

Potřeba formativního hodnocení vyplývá také z toho, že každý člověk/žák je jiný, a má-li být jeho „učení se“ efektivní, potřebuje znát vlastní učební styl. Musí vědět, jak se mu nejlépe učí a jaké učební strategie mu vyhovují. Toho může dosáhnout také vhodným rozvojem sebehodnocení.

V následující kapitole je tedy podán přehled učebních stylů a strategií. Někteří autoři klasifikují učební styly dle toho, jak žák přistupuje k učení. Knowles (v Richards, Lockhart, 1996) definuje čtyři základní učební styly. Žák, který upřednostňuje tzv. konkrétní učební styl, preferuje aktivní zapojení do výuky spolu se slovními a vizuálními podněty. Druhý typ - analytický bere své učení velmi vážně a sám se pouští do systematického rozebírání učebních problémů. Třetím typem je komunikativní styl učení, při němž žák potřebuje osobní zapojení, preferuje diskusi a práci ve skupinách. Čtvrtým typem je učební styl orientovaný na autoritu, u něj je žák velice zodpovědný, ale také zcela závislý na učiteli, proto upřednostňuje klasické učební styly (například frontální vyučování).

V této kapitole jsou dále rozebrány další dva modely učebních stylů. Prvním je Teorie rozmanitých inteligencí H. Gardnera, který rozlišuje osm základních typů inteligence: verbální, logicko-matematickou, prostorovou, hudební, tělesně kinestetickou, interpersonální, intrapersonální a přírodní. Dle této teorie má každý člověk zastoupeny všechny druhy inteligence, ale pokaždé v jiném poměru. Další dělení se zaměřuje především na to, zda učení probíhá hlavně na základě vizuálního, hlasového nebo kinestetického podnětu. Při svém výzkumu jsem pracovala právě s tímto modelem.

Dalším faktorem ovlivňujícím naše učení jsou strategie. Autoři rozlišují strategie učební a komunikativní. Krashen a Brown (2007) tvrdí, že je možné se těmito strategiím naučit. Nejprve se definují učební strategie, které používají úspěšní žáci, a tyto se pak cíleně představují ostatním. Ti je pak, v ideálním případě, přenesou i na další situace. Nejčastěji se používá rozdělení učebních strategií podle O'Malleyho (1985), na

metakognitivní, kognitivní a socioafektivní. Metakognitivní strategie jsou ty, při kterých žák přemýšlí nad učebními procesy a hodnotí úkol, který splnil. Kognitivní strategie více využívají přímou manipulaci s učebním materiálem a při užití socioafektivních strategií je nutný kontakt s jinými lidmi.

Podskupinou učebních postupů jsou již zmíněné komunikativní strategie. Tarone (v Brown, 1983) je rozděluje na parafrázování, vypůjčování slov, vyhledání pomoci, neverbální strategie a vyhýbání se úkolu. Tyto učební a komunikativní strategie byly použity při výzkumu, který je dále popsán.

Pokud je žák schopen reálně zhodnotit svoji práci dle předem stanovených kritérií, vede to k dosažení žákovy autonomie. Ta je jedním z hlavních cílů vzdělávání a je jí věnována další kapitola.

Autonomie neznamená, že se žák učí sám bez učitele, ale to, že je schopen si stanovit své učební cíle, naplánovat postup, jakým jich může dosáhnout, a posléze zhodnotit, zda se mu cíl podařilo splnit. Při učení cizího jazyka je například práce se slovníkem jedním z možných prostředků rozvoje žákovy autonomie.

V další kapitole je vysvětlen pojem sebehodnocení, jsou předloženy jeho funkce, cíle a konkrétní ukázka toho, jak je možné sebehodnocení rozvíjet. Sebehodnocení s sebou ale nese podobné otázky, které vyvolává pojem autonomie; „Je žák schopen se sám hodnotit?“, „Může být sebehodnocení objektivní?“ a další. Odpověď na tyto otázky je „Ano“. Je kladen důraz na nutnost zapojení žáků do stanovování učebních cílů a kritérií pro jejich splnění. Žáci jsou pak lépe schopni zhodnotit, zda daná kritéria splnili a do jaké míry, popřípadě se rozhodnout, co musí udělat pro to, aby byli příště úspěšnější.

V následující kapitole je představen jeden možný typ sebehodnocení, a to portfolio. Evropské jazykové portfolio vydané Radou Evropy má tři části. Jazykový pas, Jazykový životopis a Sbíрку prací a dokladů. Stejně tak jsou rozdělována i portfolia, která jsou již v praxi běžně používána. Je zde také zdokumentován jeden ze způsobů, jak si založit vlastní portfolio a jak s ním dále pracovat. Nejprve může být pouhou sbírkou materiálů, později si žáci spolu s učitelem mohou stanovit určitá kritéria toho, co ve sbírce nechají a co do ní dále budou ukládat. Tak vzniká portfolio ukázkové. Žáci si pak mohou svá portfolia hodnotit navzájem a pořádat mini-konference, což je pojem

používaný Košťálovou (2004) jako protitermín portfolia-nocí, který zmiňuje O'Malley (1996).

Poslední dvě kapitoly se věnují oblastem výuky, na kterých jsem během výzkumu žákům představovala různé učební strategie, tj. slovní zásoba a poslech. Obě kapitoly obsahují také podkapitolu, která se velice stručně věnuje testování dovedností z oblastí slovní zásoby a poslechu.

Oproti minulosti se v současné době většina autorů shodne na důležitosti výuky slovní zásoby. Praxe ukazuje, že je potřeba vytvářet takové učební situace, které se co nejvíce blíží reálnému životu a jsou pro žáky osobně nějak důležité. Je potřeba používat nejen obrázky, ale také předměty, vytvářet s žáky myšlenkové mapy a další materiály, jež zaručí, že děti všech učebních stylů budou mít možnost se vhodně zapojit. Dále je zde rozebrána otázka používání doslovných překladů a zmíněny strategie nutné pro vhodné využití slovníků (jedno či dvojjazyčných) s ohledem na věkové zvláštnosti žáků.

Poslední kapitola se zabývá metodami výuky, která vede k rozvoji dovednosti poslechu. Zde je opět kladen důraz na to, aby poslech alespoň do určité míry napodoboval reálné situace. Zejména mladším žákům pak opět pomáhá použití obrázků a simulace reálných situací. Stejně tak jako v předešlé části i zde je krátce zmíněna problematika testování.

V druhé části této diplomové práce je pak na základě teorie proveden autorem/učitelem akční výzkum. Nejprve je vysvětlena teorie akčního výzkumu a pak následuje popis obecných dat

Výzkum probíhal tři měsíce na základní škole s rozšířenou výukou tělesné výchovy se zaměřením na atletiku, a to ve čtvrté třídě. Bylo zde celkem šestnáct dětí. Nikdy předtím se se sebehodnocením nebo s jiným typem formativního hodnocení nesetkaly, což dokazují data shromážděná na počátku výzkumu. Data jsem získala prostřednictvím dotazníků, učitelského deníčku a individuálním interview s žáky vedeném na začátku a na konci výzkumu.

Výzkum se také snažil o dokázání dvou výzkumných hypotéz. První říkala, že žáci zvyklí převážně na hodnocení známkami budou tyto dále vyžadovat a nebudou se chtít sami hodnotit. Tento předpoklad se nepotvrdil, naopak se ukázalo, že někteří žáci i po tak krátké době již sebehodnocení vyžadují.

Druhá hypotéza předpokládala, že nejjednodušší forma hodnocení nebude vždy tou nejoblíbenější. Ani to se úplně nepotvrdilo, i když u jednoho žáka jsou již vidět změny v náhledu na způsoby sebehodnocení. Tento žák prohlásil, že se rád sám hodnotí větou (prozatím českou), avšak je to pro něj velmi obtížné. Ostatní žáci určili za nejjednodušší a také nejoblíbenější hodnocení, při kterém si vybarvují rybí šupinku, kreslí „smajlíky“, popřípadě se vyjádří neverbálním způsobem. Časem by ale žáci měli dojít k tomu, že tyto symboly jsou sice jednoduchým vyjádřením toho, co dokázali, ale nemohou již vyjádřit to, na co žák nestačil a jak situaci změnit. Jsem si vědoma i specifika mladšího školního věku, která významně ovlivnila právě řešení tohoto problému.

Jelikož výzkum proběhl pouze v krátkém časovém úseku, který je pouze začátkem dlouhé cesty, na jejímž konci je žákova schopnost se hodnotit a posléze jeho celková učební autonomie, představuji v závěru práce kroky, které bych dále chtěla podniknout na cestě k dosažení výše stanoveného cíle.

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VII. APPENDICES

Appendix 1 – Lesson plan

LESSON PLAN

Class: 4A Date: 14.12.2007 Time: 10⁰⁰-10⁴⁵

Overall aim: At the end of the lesson, Ss should be able to listen for (and understand) a specific info + give advice about health issues

Activity	Materials and aids	Time needed	Interaction patterns	Objectives
• greetings + "learn style" sheet (Hobby)	handout in Ss folder	2min	indiv.	Ss tick a box → end of the lesson we check how it went...
• poem "Funny fat man" + quest. about health	poster with a picture of a poem + its text	8min	T → Ss Ss → T	to introduce the topic of health via a poem / convers. about health
• copy + draw the poem into workbooks	workbooks	7min	indiv.	to use pictures instead of translation
• pre-list. (give out text which is cut out - many order → they want old)	handouts / text	8min	pairwork	prepare Ss for the listening act. (they know what 2 expect)
• list. page 17 + reading → check corr. order	Audio recorder / text	5min	pairwork / indiv.	Ss should listen + specific info to be able to put it together correctly
• listen + mime what they hear	tape recorder	5min	indiv.	check understanding based on observ.
• speaking - Hygiene. dialogue	workbooks / handouts as help	8min	pairwork	imitate / perform sim. dial. → health advice
• check "style" sheet	handouts in Ss folder	4min	Ss → T	discuss how well they think they've done + my comments!

Homework: write new words into vocab. (topic = Health) → use dictionary & find at least 3 more words conn. to the topic

Problems anticipated / Contingencies: not enough time for final eval.

How the lesson went: most pupils drew smiley faces (grip) but had enough time 2 check with all of them if it was really so! Next time! check time & leave more space for the final eval.!

Appendix 2 - Questionnaire

1. Když mám říci co se mi daří, nejraději to udělám: (zakroužkuj)

Obrázekm
Úsměvem
Slovem- anglicky
- česky
větou- anglicky
- česky
známkou
jinak supinkou

2. nejraději se sám/sama hodnotím: (zakroužkuj)

Obrázekm
Úsměvem
Slovem- anglicky
- česky
větou- anglicky
- česky
známkou
jinak

3. Když se hodnotím, je to pro mě těžké – něco mezi – lehké

Obrázekm - lehké!
Úsměvem - lehké!
Slovem- anglicky - něco mezi
- česky - lehké!
větou- anglicky - lehké!
- česky - lehké!
známkou - lehké!
jinak supinkou - lehké!

1. Když mám říci co se mi daří, nejraději to udělám: (zakroužkuj)

Obrázekm
Úsměvem
Slovem- anglicky
- česky
větou- anglicky
- česky
známkou
jinak

2. nejraději se sám/sama hodnotím: (zakroužkuj)

Obrázekm
Úsměvem
Slovem- anglicky
- česky
větou- anglicky
- česky
známkou
jinak

3. Když se hodnotím, je to pro mě těžké – něco mezi – lehké

Obrázekm
Úsměvem
Slovem- anglicky
- česky
větou- anglicky
- česky
známkou
jinak

Appendix 3 – Transcript of interview (part)

T (teacher): Já bych se chtěla zeptat, jakým způsobem jste byli hodnocení minulý rok od paní učitelky?

P1 (pupil): Ehmm, známkou.

T: Známkou?

T: A ještě nějak?

P1: Hmm, ne.

T: Nikdy?

P1: No, že sme, že nás pochválila.

T: Joo? Takže slovně. Takže vám i slovem třeba řekla co vám šlo. A hodnotili ste někdy třeba že vám něco šlo vám, jakože, řekla si někdy že mě se podařilo tadyto tadyto.

P1: Hm, ne, to ani ne.

T: To ste ani nedělali ..

T: A co ti nejvíc, co se ti nejvíc líbilo, když vás paní učitelka hodnotila jak?

P1: Hmm, známkou.

P1: Známkou, dobře.

T: Jak vás paní učitelka hodnotila minulý rok při hodinách angličtiny

P2: Známkou.

T: A ještě nějak?

P2: Hmm, emmm.

T: Ne?

P2: Ne, jenom známkou.

P: A potom na konci hodiny jenom sme tleskali a nebo když se nám líbila ta hodina a když se nam nelíbila, no tak sme jako takhle dělali emmm.

T: A mohli ste někdy říct sama za sebe co ti třeba šlo nebo nešlo?

T: To ste nedělali, dobře.

T: A co se ti nejvíc líbilo, když vás paní učitelka hodnotila jak, třeba?

P2: Známkou.

T: Známkou, to máš nejradši, dobře, tak jo.

T: Jak vás paní učitelka hodnotila minulý rok při hodinách angličtiny?

P3: Pani učitelka nás jako hodně hodnotila jako známkou, třeba když nám řekla abysme přečetli todle tak když sme to jako přečetli správně tak nám dala třeba jedničku nebo kdybysme tam třeba i měli jednu chybu tak nebo jako víc chyb tak nám nedala jedničku ale řekla nám třeba jenom dobře a taklenc

T: A Ještě nějakým způsobem vás někdy hodnotila třeba, vzpomínáš si?

P3: Asi ne, jenom tou známkou, myslim.

T: Jenom těma známkama, dobře...

T: A takže ste se nikdy nehodnotili sami, třeba jak to děláme se šupinkama teď?

P3: No, někdy sme jako třeba když sme pracovali ve dvojcích tak sme si vyměnili, nebo pani učitelka nám diktovala jako slovíčka, my sme si pak proměnili sešity v těch dvojcích a kontrolovali sme si to protože pani učitelka někoho vyvolala, von šel k tabuli napsal to slovo a my sme se jako kontrolovali tomu druhýmu a pak sme mu dali známku.

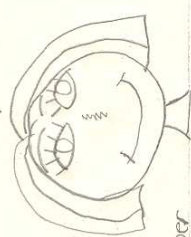





T: Takže ste to potom ohodnotili známkou, toho druhého, ne sebe?

P3: No ale my sme to neměli ale potom v žakovský, to sme měli jenom v sešitě

T: Hmm, jo ale svoji práci si nehodnotila? Jenom třeba práci sousedky nebo tak?

P3: No jako třeba kdybysme seděli vedle sebe my sme si vždycky prohodili sešity

Appendix 4a – Learnig style sheet

Poznámky ...	Dokážu slovo správně použít ve větě nebo v rozhovoru	Dokážu slovo správně zopakovat / říci, nebo přeložit z češtiny do AJ	Rozumím novým slovům, když je vidím napsané (řebříček)	Rozumím novým slovům, když je slyším (+ - vidím je na obrátek)
				
				13 th December
				17 th December
				
				20 th December
				7 th January
				9 th January
				11 th January
				19 th January

Appendix 4b – Lernig style sheet

	Rozumím novým slovíčkům, když je vidím (+ - vidím je ná obrátek)	Rozumím novým slovíčkům, když je vidím napsané (+ obrátek)	Rozumím novému slovíčku, když je vidím zpaměti (řádku, nebo přeložit ať do A)	Dokážu slovo správně použít ve větě nebo v rozhovoru	Poznámky ...
15. 09. 2012 Gammay	↑ ↑) √				
20. 09. 2012 Daneben			↑ ↑) √		
11. 10. 2012 Dammay				↑ ↑) √	
18. 10. 2012 Dammay	↑ ↑) √	↑ ↑) √			

1 Sports time

1. Umím pojmenovat 19 sportovních aktivit, např. divě. (Napiš číslem kolik.)

2. Přefíkal/a jsem říkanku o sportech. ANO NE

3. Už umím přeložit: Umím plavat. I can swim.

Umí tancovat? (ona) can she dance.

Ano, umí. Yes she can

Ne, neumí. No she can't

4. My favourite sport is dance

5. Přečetl/a jsem si článek o triatlonu.
Bylo to (podtrhni, co platí o tobě):

snadné obtížné

6. Poslouchal/a jsem další kapitolu kresleného příběhu. Bylo to (podtrhni, co platí o tobě):

snadné obtížné

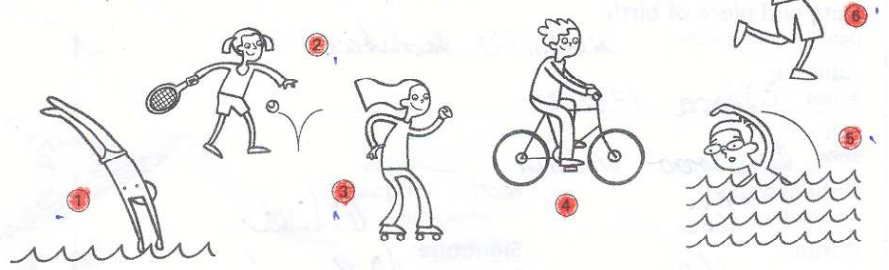
Jak jsi zvládl/a první lekci? (Vyber a označ.)

Unit 1: excellent**** very good** OK* bad

Proč? _____

Co se ti nejvíc líbilo? Nejvíce se mi líbilo I can and I can't

Dobrá rada
Zapisuj si slovíčka do zvláštního sešitu, a to i ta, která se v hodinách objeví na tabuli a nejsou ve slovníku v knize.



77

1 Sports time

1. Umím pojmenovat 15 sportovních aktivit, např. divo. (Napiš číslem kolik.)

2. Přeříkal/a jsem říkanku o sportech. ANO NE

3. Už umím přeložit: Umím plavat. I can swim.

Umí tancovat? (ona) Can she dance.

Ano, umí. Yes, she can.

Ne, neumí. No, she can't.

4. My favourite sport is Artistic Gymnastics.

5. Přečetl/a jsem si článek o triatlonu. Bylo to (podtrhni, co platí o tobě): snadné obtížné


6. Poslouchal/a jsem další kapitolu kresleného příběhu. Bylo to (podtrhni, co platí o tobě): snadné obtížné

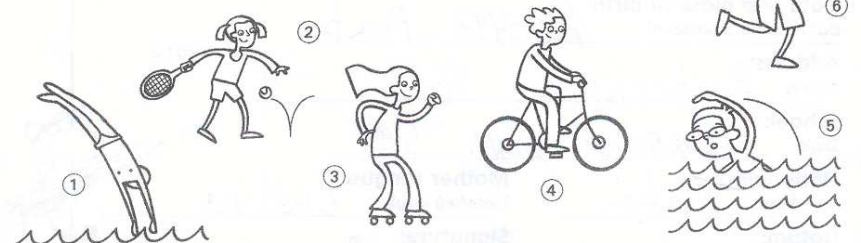
Jak jsi zvládl/a první lekci? (Vyber a označ.)

Unit 1: excellent**** very good** OK* bad

Proč? _____

Co se ti nejvíc líbilo? _____

 **Dobrá rada**
Zapisuj si slovíčka do zvláštního sešitu, a to i ta, která se v hodinách objeví na tabuli a nejsou ve slovníku v knize.



What's in the house?

1. Umím pojmenovat 5 místností v domě a 8 kusů nábytku.
(Napiš číslem kolik.)

2. Zazpíval/a jsem si písničku *Duchové v domě*. ANO NE

3. Přelož: There are three chairs in the bedroom.

V ložnici jsou 3 židle

Přeložil/a jsi větu tak, že jsi začal/a od výrazu in the bedroom, tedy odzadu? ANO (😊) NE (😞)

4. Nakresli: a cat in the box, a bug on the box, a book under the box, a plant behind the box

5. Přečetl/a jsem si, co Andrea napsala o svém domě. ANO NE

Bylo to pro mě (podtrhni, co platí o tobě):

snadně středně obtížné velmi obtížné

6. Kde byla kouzelná koruna z příběhu? Napiš anglicky.

The crown is ~~in the beach~~ it's under the table

Jak jsi zvládl/a druhou lekcí? (Vyber a označ.)

Unit 2: excellent**** very good** OK* bad

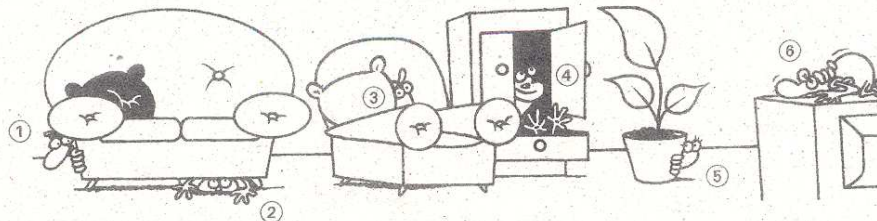
Co se ti nejvíc líbilo? *Phos in the house.*

Které slovíčko lahodí tvému uchu nejlépe? Napiš ho. *Chair*



Dobrá rada

Kromě zápisu slovíček z lekcí můžeš také slovíčka sestavovat do skupin podle tématu: např. zvířata, která už znáš, barvy, předložky, slovesa atd. Takové zápisy můžeš vytvářet z druhé strany slovníčku.



What's in the house? 2

1. Umím pojmenovat 7 místností v domě a 15 kusů nábytku.
(Napiš číslem kolik.)

2. Zazpíval/a jsem si písničku *Duchové v domě*.

ANO

NE

3. Přelož: There are three chairs in the bedroom.

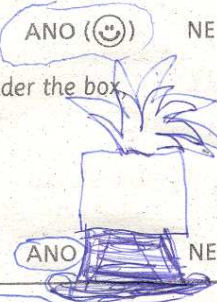
V ložnici jsou tři židle.

Přeložil/a jsi větu tak, že jsi začal/a od výrazu in the bedroom, tedy odzadu?

ANO (☺)

NE (☹)

4. Nakresli: a cat in the box, a bug on the box, a book under the box, a plant behind the box



5. Přečetl/a jsem si, co Andrea napsala o svém domě.

ANO

NE

Bylo to pro mě (podtrhni, co platí o tobě):

snadné

středně obtížné

velmi obtížné

6. Kde byla kouzelná koruna z příběhu? Napiš anglicky.

The crown is under the table



Jak jsi zvládl/a druhou lekcí? (Vyber a označ.)

Unit 2: excellent****

very good**

OK*

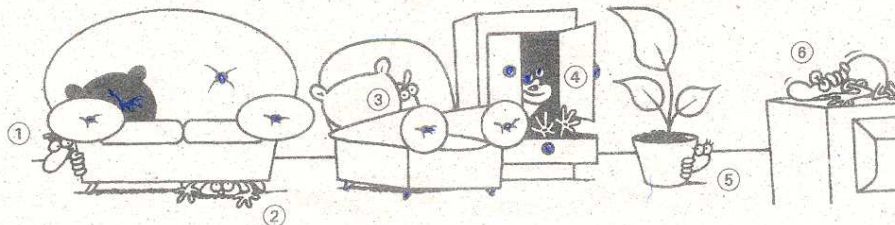
bad

Co se ti nejvíc líbilo? Malování domu

Které slovíčko lahodí tvému uchu nejlépe? Napiš ho. Kitchen

Dobrá rada

Kromě zápisu slovíček z lekcí můžeš také slovíčka sestavovat do skupin podle tématu: např. zvířata, která už znáš, barvy, předložky, slovesa atd. Takové zápisy můžeš vytvářet z druhé strany slovníčku.



F Be healthy!

- Umím popsat 6 příznaků nemoci. (Napiš číslem kolik.)
- Zahrál/a jsem si ve scénce *U doktora* ANO NE
a mluvil/a jsem přitom z paměti. ANO NE
- Přelož: Nejez moc zmrzliny. Don't eat lots of ice cream
Pij hodně vody. Drink lots of water
- Vytvořil/a jsem projekt o tom, co je a co není zdravé. ANO NE
- Přečetl/a jsem si další část příběhu a vím, že korunu má profesor
- Umíš správně pravopis slov? Doplň chybějící písmena.
he Adache cho Colate h Halthy th Ing fr Uit

Jak jsi zvládl/a třetí lekci? (Vyber a označ.)

Unit 3: excellent**** very good** OK* bad

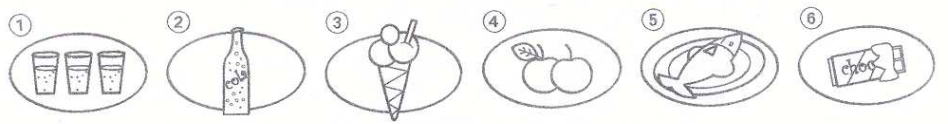
Proč? _____

Co se ti nejvíc líbilo? advice

Který výraz ti dal nejvíc práce, aby sis ho zapamatoval/a? _____

Co ti při tom pomohlo? словник

Dobrá rada
Když se učíš slovíčka, říkej si je nahlas a taky si je piš. Ta, která si nemůžeš zapamatovat, si napiš na malé karty (z jedné strany anglicky, z druhé strany česky). Dej si je na zvláštní hromádku, nebo do krabičky a často si je opakuj.



Be healthy!

- Umím popsat 3 příznaků nemoci. (Napiš číslem kolik.)
- Zahrál/a jsem si ve scénce *U doktora* a mluvil/a jsem přitom z paměti. ~~ANO~~ NE
~~ANO~~ NE
- Přelož: Nejez moc zmrzliny. Don't eat ice cream
Pij hodně vody. Drink lots of water.
- Vytvořil/a jsem projekt o tom, co je a co není zdravé. ANO ~~NE~~
- Přečetl/a jsem si další část příběhu a vím, že korunu má Professor.
- Umíš správně pravopis slov? Doplň chybějící písmena.
he adache cho colate h ealthy th ing fr eit

Jak jsi zvládl/a třetí lekci? (Vyber a označ.)

Unit 3: excellent**** very good** OK* bad

Proč? Bavilo mě pracování se spolužáky na projektu.

Co se ti nejvíc líbilo? Práce s dětmi ve skupinách a nová slovní zásoba.

Který výraz ti dal nejvíc práce, aby sis ho zapamatoval/a?

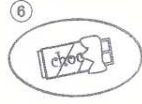
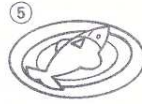
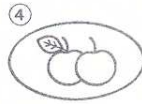
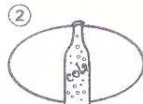
Headache

Co ti při tom pomohlo? head - hlava a ache - bolest



Dobrá rada

Když se učíš slovíčka, říkej si je nahlas a taky si je piš. Ta, která si nemůžeš zapamatovat, si napiš na malé karty (z jedné strany anglicky, z druhé strany česky). Dej si je na zvláštní hromádku, nebo do krabičky a často si je opakuj.



My town 4

- Umím vyjmenovat 10 obchodů. (Napiš číslem kolik.)
- Umím se zeptat, kde je nějaký obchod, a také umím odpovědět. ANO NE
- Přelož: Kde je kino? Where is cinema?
Vedle hotelu. Next to hotel.
- Poslouchal/a a přečetl/a jsem si text o městech. Nejobtížnější pro mě bylo:
village
- Jak ses dozvěděl/a, co bylo dále v příběhu *Dračí koruna*? poslouchala jsem ho, čela jsem ho
- Udělal/a jsem všechna cvičení v Pracovním sešitě. ANO NE
Nejlehčí pro mne bylo cvičení 4 lekce str. 20 cv 1
Nejtěžší pro mne bylo cvičení 2 lekce str 11 cv 5

Jak jsi zvládl/a čtvrtou lekci? (Vyber a označ.)

Unit 4: excellent**** very good** OK* bad

Proč? _____

Co se ti nejvíc líbilo? Bavit se o městech a chodit navýgovat panáčkyna plakáta.

Co ti pomohlo zapamatovat si pokyny na cestu (vlevo, vpravo...)?
plakáta

Dobrá rada
Když čteš text a neznáš nějaké slovíčko, snaž se nejdříve jeho význam odhadnout. Když to nejde, pak teprve hledej ve slovníčku, zeptej se svých spolužáků nebo svého pana učitele/ své paní učitelky. Všimáš si, jak ti k pochopení významu mohou pomoci obrázky?



My town ④

- Umím vyjmenovat 8 obchodů. (Napiš číslem kolik.)
- Umím se zeptat, kde je nějaký obchod, a také umím odpovědět. ANO NE
- Přelož: Kde je kino? Where is the cinema
Vedle hotelu. next to hotel.
- Poslouchal/a a přečetl/a jsem si text o městech. Nejobtížnější pro mě bylo:
vyslovit village
- Jak ses dozvěděl/a, co bylo dále v příběhu *Dračí koruna*? přemýšlela jsem jak by to mohlo dopadnout
- Udělal/a jsem všechna cvičení v Pracovním sešitě. ANO NE
Nejlehčí pro mne bylo cvičení my house
Nejtěžší pro mne bylo cvičení town

Jak jsi zvládl/a čtvrtou lekci? (Vyber a označ.)

Unit 4: excellent**** very good** OK* bad

Proč? protože mě to bavilo

Co se ti nejvíc líbilo? read,

Co ti pomohlo zapamatovat si pokyny na cestu (vlevo, vpravo...)?

left jako lev, a dříve normalně



Dobrá rada

Když čteš text a neznáš nějaké slovíčko, snaž se nejdříve jeho význam odhadnout. Když to nejde, pak teprve hledej ve slovníčku, zeptej se svých spolužáků nebo svého pana učitele/ své paní učitelky. Všimáš si, jak ti k pochopení významu mohou pomoci obrázky?



1 supermarket
2 restaurant
3 sport center
4 cinema
5 book shop
6 cafe

5 On holiday

- Umím vyjádřit, co broučci na obrázku v učebnici na straně 24 dělají. ANO NE
- Naučil/a jsem se rozhovor o tom, co dělají broučci. ANO NE
- Co jste dělali s příběhem o *Jet na prázdninách*? Podtrhni:

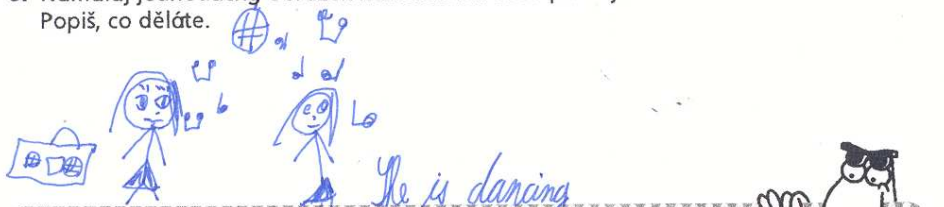
poslouchali četli hráli

Ještě něco jiného? Napiš co: Nic

- Už umím napsat dopis anglicky o tom, co právě dělám. ANO NE
- Příběh *Dračí koruna* je pro mě (podtrhni, co platí o tobě):

zajímavý – chci vědět, jak vše dopadne nudný – nebaví mě.

- Namaluj jednoduchý obrázek kamaráda a sebe při nějaké činnosti. Popiš, co děláte.



He is dancing

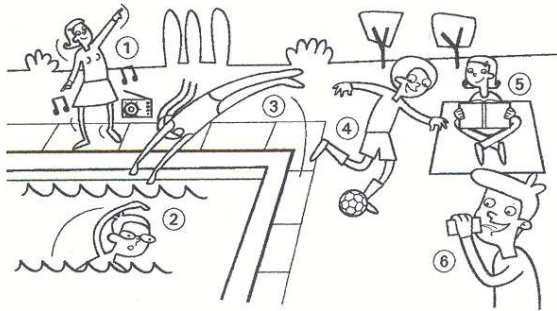
Jak jsi zvládl/a pátou lekci? (Vyber a označ.)

Unit 5: excellent**** very good** OK* bad

Proč? protože byla trochu těžká ale i krásná

Co se ti nejvíc líbilo? písal dopis a poslouchal rozhovory

Dobrá rada
 Před poslechem si vždy ujasni, co je úkolem.
 Když posloucháš text z kazety, snaž se porozumět tak, že nejdříve jenom posloucháš. Text čti až při druhém poslechu. Když neporozumíš všemu, nevadí. Snaž se rozeznat alespoň několik slov.



5 On holiday

1. Umím vyjádřit, co broučci na obrázku v učebnici na straně 24 dělají. ANO NE
2. Naučil/a jsem se rozhovor o tom, co dělají broučci. ANO NE
3. Co jste dělali s příběhem o *Jet na prázdninách*? Podtrhni:

poslouchali
četli
hráli

Ještě něco jiného? Napiš co: Nic

4. Už umím napsat dopis anglicky o tom, co právě dělám. ANO NE
5. Příběh *Dračí koruna* je pro mě (podtrhni, co platí o tobě):

zajímavý – chci vědět, jak vše dopadne
nudný – nebaví mě.

6. Namaluj jednoduchý obrázek kamaráda a sebe při nějaké činnosti. Popiš, co děláte.



We are playing table tennis.



Jak jsi zvládl/a pátou lekci? (Vyber a označ.)

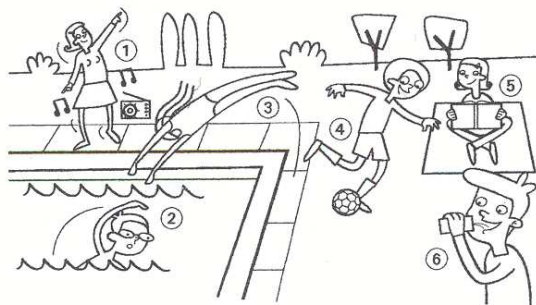
Unit 5: excellent**** very good** OK* bad

Proč? PROTOŽE UŽ JSEM TO UMĚLA.

Co se ti nejvíc líbilo? DOPIS, TROCHU TEST.



Dobrá rada
 Před poslechem si vždy ujasni, co je úkolem.
 Když posloucháš text z kazety, snaž se porozumět tak, že nejdříve jenom posloucháš. Text čti až při druhém poslechu. Když neporozumíš všemu, nevadí. Snaž se rozeznat alespoň několik slov.



A sunny day ⑥

1. Umím popsat 7 druhů počasí. (Napiš číslem kolik.)

2. Zazpíval/a jsem si písničku.

ANO

NE

Rozuměl/a jsem jí.

ANO

NE

3. Poslouchal/a jsem telefonování o počasí.

ANO

NE

Rozuměl/a jsem (podtrhni, co platí o tobě):

všemu skoro všemu částem skoro ničemu

4. Nejvíce se mi líbila básnička o broučích

5. Napsal/a jsem také obrázkovou básničku.

ANO

NE

Založil/a jsem si ji do Deníčku.

ANO

NE

6. Jaké bylo počasí v příběhu o koruně? Napiš anglicky: it's cold,

raining, windy.

Jak jsi zvládl/a šestou lekci? (Vyber a označ.)

Unit 6: excellent**** very good** OK* bad

Proč? neruval jsem telefonování.

Co se ti nejvíc líbilo? Komix se SUPERSTÁR.

předložit náměry, práce ve skupině.

Dobrá rada
Kdykoliv něco napíšeš, vždy si text po sobě přečti.
Když napíšeš dopis nebo vytvoříš projekt, nech si ho a vlož do Deníčku. Za rok uvidíš, jak tvoje práce pokračuje, co ses už naučil/a a jaké děláš pokroky.



A sunny day ⑥

- Umím popsat 13 druhů počasí. (Napiš číslem kolik.)
- Zaspíval/a jsem si písničku. ANO NE
 Rozuměl/a jsem jí. ANO NE
- Poslouchal/a jsem telefonování o počasí. ANO NE
 Rozuměl/a jsem (podtrhni, co platí o tobě):

všemu skoro všemu částem skoro ničemu

- Nejvíce se mi líbila básnička o about a weather
- Napsal/a jsem také obrázkovou básničku. ANO NE
 Založil/a jsem si ji do Deníčku. ANO NE
- Jaké bylo počasí v příběhu o koruně? Napiš anglicky: average raining,
cold, windy.

Jak jsi zvládl/a šestou lekci? (Vyber a označ.)

Unit 6: excellent*** very good** OK* bad

Proč? Protože mi to šlo.

Co se ti nejvíc líbilo? Básničky. samostatná práce.

Dobrá rada
 Kdykoliv něco napíšeš, vždy si text po sobě přečti.
 Když napíšeš dopis nebo vytvoříš projekt, nech si ho a vlož do Deníčku. Za rok uvidíš, jak tvoje práce pokračuje, co ses už naučil/a a jaké děláš pokroky.



Appendix 6 – Listening Test

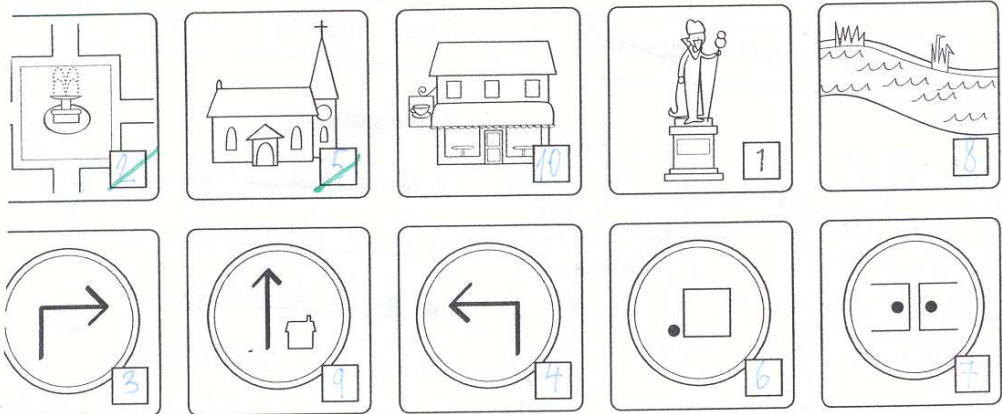
4th February

Listening test 2 25 points

14

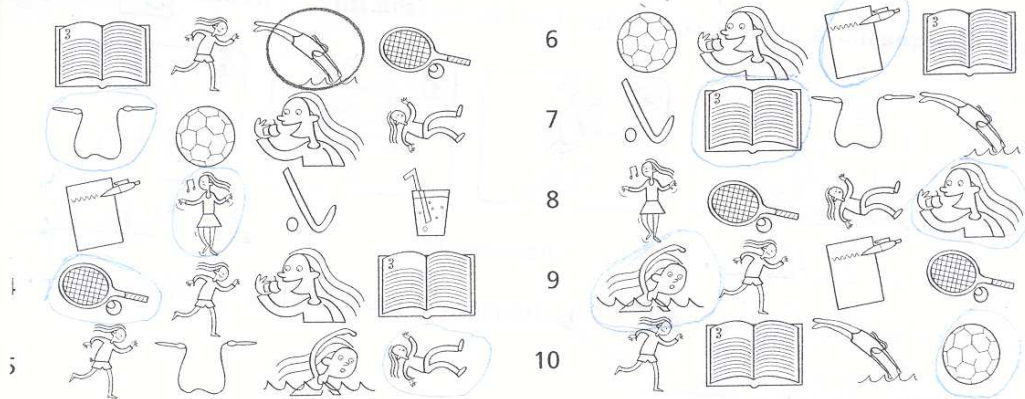
Name _____

100 1 Listen and number. 10 points



101 2 Listen and circle. 10 points

9



102 3 Listen and match. 5 points

