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**TEACHING ENGLISH TO YOUNG  
LEARNERS**

**THESIS**

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**VÝUKA ANGLICKÉHO JAZYKA  
U ŽÁKŮ MLADŠÍHO ŠKOLNÍHO VĚKU**

**DIPLOMOVÁ PRÁCE**

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Velmi děkuji vedoucí mé diplomové práce, PaedDr. Monice Černé, Ph.D., učitelům základních škol, u nichž jsem prováděla výzkum, a také mé rodině a přátelům, kteří mi byli po celou dobu studia oporou.

## **Abstract**

This thesis deals with the issue of teaching English language to young learners. Young learners are considered to be learners attending lower grades of primary schools.

The thesis consists of a theoretical section and a research section. The theoretical section deals with important factors influencing the learning processes of the young learners. The focus is on the issue of concentration span, time factor and the length and variety of activities in the lesson.

The research section is focused on the findings of the research carried out in classes of lower grades of primary schools. As a research technique was used structured observation of the English lessons. The research section compares the theory and practice focusing mainly on the time factor and the length and variety of activities in the English lessons.

## **Souhrn**

Tato práce se zabývá problematikou výuky anglického jazyka u žáků mladšího školního věku, tedy žáků prvního stupně základních škol.

Práce se skládá z teoretické části a z části praktické. Teoretická část pojednává o důležitých faktorech ovlivňujících proces učení u žáků této věkové kategorie. Pozornost je věnována zejména otázce udržení pozornosti, faktoru času ve vyučování a různorodosti jednotlivých učebních aktivit a jejich začlenění do vyučovací hodiny.

Část praktická se soustředí na výzkum, který byl proveden ve třídách prvního stupně základních škol formou cíleného pozorování vyučovacích hodin anglického jazyka. Praktická část práce porovnává teoretické poznatky a praxi zejména z hlediska faktoru času. Hlavní pozornost je věnována především délce učebních aktivit a jejich různorodosti.

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## **I. INTRODUCTION**

This thesis deals with the issue of teaching English to young learners. Because this theme is too broad to be discussed in one, the thesis focuses on the concentration span of young learners and timing of the activities and their variety in the English lessons. In the first part of the thesis is discussed this issue in theory and the second part is devoted to the research which attempts to reveal the reality of teaching English in young learner classes in the Czech Republic.

Teaching English to young learners is a different process from teaching English to the adults. The teacher has to approach the young learners differently. They are still children who are used to play games and they are not able to adapt themselves immediately to the roles of the learners. They will not sit at one place and concentrate on one thing for the whole lesson. Therefore, the theoretical part of the thesis aims at the description of young learners and their needs. It attempts to give a direction how to teach young learners.

The first chapter of the thesis defines the term “young learners”. Further are discussed the differences in the psychological development of young learners and their individuality. The theory of multiple intelligences, developed by Howard Gardner, follows. The question of the concentration span is described next. Young learners do not keep their attention for a long time, because their concentration span is much shorter than that of adults. The teacher should attempt to prolong it. She should motivate the learners to attract their attention and prolong their concentration span. The significance of motivation is discussed further.

The second chapter focuses not only on teaching young learners, but also on the way young learners learn a foreign language. Parts of a lesson, including stages of a lesson and activities, are described here as well as timing of activities and their variety. This chapter discusses also the problems of organizational forms and teaching aids which make the lesson more attractive to the learners.

The research section of the thesis aims at teaching English to young learners in real-life. As a research method is chosen structured observation and the creation of observation sheet is described in this part too. The collected data are analysed and the findings of the research attempt to be synthesized with the theory.

To simplify the arrangement of the thesis, the author used the reference words constantly. Therefore, the learner is referred to as “he”, the teacher as “she”. In the research section the author uses the personal pronoun “she” and refers to herself as “the researcher”. This decision was made without any racial or gender prejudice. Furthermore, double inverted commas are used for literal citations and single inverted commas for the terms and the words and phrases I denominated. I can state that I myself translated all the Czech sources used for paraphrasing or quoting in this thesis. The scholarly literature is presented overall at the end of this thesis.

## **II. THEORETICAL SECTION**

### **1. Young Learners**

This chapter attempts to define the term ‘young learners’. The following subchapters Psychological Development of Young Learners, Multiple Intelligences, Concentration Span and Motivation to Learn English study the aspects of teaching young learners, which every teacher should take into consideration when planning or teaching an English lesson.

It seems to be complicated to define precisely the term ‘young learners’ according to the age of the children. One of the reasons may be the fact that children start to attend primary school at different age in different countries. The children who start to attend the first grade of primary schools in the Czech Republic are six or seven years old. Among young learners are then usually involved children from six to eleven years of age. These children attend lower grades of primary schools; usually from the first up to the fifth grade.

The term ‘young learners’, in this thesis, includes the children who attend the primary school from the first to the fifth grade inclusive. These children are supposed to be, as explained above, from six to eleven years of age.

#### **1.1. Psychological Development of Young Learners**

Psychological development of young learners is a condition which is to be respected by the teacher because there seem to be immense psychological differences among the learners. Not only are there big differences among the children of individual grades, but also among the children attending the same grade.

The same class of the first grade, as Jan Čáp notes, can be attended by children who are six years old as well as by children who already reached the seventh year of age (1993:179). The author explains the impact of this difference in age on children’s performance in the classroom:

At this stage of ontogenesis a half of a year or one year of development and learning means a lot. The children of such different age differ not only in the stature and weight, but also in development of movements, cognitive processes, motivation. All of them are expected to perform the same behaviour and output at the same time. The six-year-old children are at disadvantage to the older ones (Čáp. 1993:179).

There may be vast differences among the children of the same grade of primary school in many aspects of their performance. This raises a question of school maturity.

Čáp mentions school children who are not mature for school yet. “Not only have they difficulties in learning, but also intrude more on the lesson, are being lectured and punished more often” (1993:180). The maturity of children is an important factor of their success in learning. Čáp explains that children who are younger and children who are retarded in their development, for example, children with lower birth weigh, seem to have lower maturity. These children appear to be small and weak and they get easily tired. People consider them to be younger than they really are and that may cause that the children suffer from inferiority. Some parents and grandparents even excuse their infantile behaviour, which leads to obstruction of the development of emotional, working and social maturity (1993:180).

According to Čáp, there are three components of school maturity that are required. These are: physical (for example, development of movements needed for writing or drawing), cognitive (development of perception, memory, and so on), and emotional and motivational (condition to meet teacher’s requirements, to respect the school rules, and others). Deficiency of these conditions may lead to difficulties and failures in learning (1993:180). I share this view with Čáp because I have similar experience from my teaching practice gained during the Clinical Year<sup>1</sup> I spent at a primary school. The children who are less mature are also less successful in their learning and seem to interrupt the lesson more often. The maturity or the lack of maturity can be revealed in any aspect of the three components, as described above.

However, as every child is an individual, it is not only the age that plays a significant role in the development of children. Also individualism has to be taken into consideration. Scott and Ytreberg refer to the differences among children of the same age. “Some children develop early, some later. Some children develop gradually, others in leaps and bounds” (1990:1). Marie Vágnerová has very similar opinion. She claims that “psychological development needs to be viewed as a complex of continuous and discontinuous changes”(1999:10). The author explains that periods of faster and slower paces of different parts of development keep changing with periods of stabilization. “The process of development, its progress and also component

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<sup>1</sup> Černá, Monika, Pišová, Michaela. 2002. *Teaching Practice Guide FOR ASSISTANTS in the Clinical Year Project*. Univerzita Pardubice.

attributes and competences are always individually specific” (1999:11). Vágnerová notes that development is indicated by specific pace, its oscillation, content of experiences, maturity of individual attributes and degree of integration of personality (1999:11). From my teaching experience, I know that children have different characters and the teacher has to approach every child individually in accordance with his need. Some children need more time to complete an activity than some of their classmates, for instance. This can be caused either by the fact that the child is less mature than his classmates who seem to work faster when completing the same activity or he is more conscientious in completing that activity and does not work at fast pace. Nevertheless, the children are required to attend the school at certain age; regardless the level of development they reached. Therefore, the teacher should be aware of individualism of her learners.

Although the teacher is aware of these possible reasons of problems connected with psychological development, they may occur. Čáp notes that problems at the first stage of school may also influence the future performance, behaviour and development of the child. Prevention to these problems may be a visit to psychologist or paediatrician (1993:180). I agree with Čáp. However, I would like to comment on the idea of seeing a psychologist. From my experience as a teacher, I know that some parents may feel offended if the teacher suggests them the idea of visiting a psychologist. They reject it arguing that their child is ‘normal’ and does not need to see a psychologist. It may be very difficult to suggest a visit at a specialist to them. The teacher should be aware of this possibility and should explain the reasons for seeing a specialist very carefully.

To conclude, every teacher should be aware of differences in psychological development among young learners of the same grade because it may happen that children of different age attend the same grade. The difference in age may be up to one year and this amount of time plays a very significant role in psychological development of children. Younger children as well as children retarded in their development may be less mature and it may affect their success in learning in a negative way and cause difficulties. Insufficient maturity may be revealed either in physical, cognitive or emotional and motivational sphere of development. However, the teacher should be aware not only of the age, but also of individualism of each child because

psychological development is very individual process, which proceeds discontinuously and at different paces.

The children who are less mature may have not only problems with learning, but they also intrude more on the lesson. In my opinion, family background is of a great importance as well. Good and nice background of the family affects the children's development and performance at school in a very positive way. On the other hand, problems at home and in the family affect children's development and success at school in a very negative way because children need parents' support and interest in their learning at school. All these important factors mentioned above, maturity of children, individualism and also family background, influence children's development and the teacher should be aware of them and approach every child individually, although it may be time consuming.

Problems with learning at the beginning of school attendance may lead to more serious problems in future performance and development of the child. If any problem appears, the child should visit a psychologist or a paediatrician. In that case the teacher should suggest this idea to the parents in a very careful way.

## **1.2. Multiple Intelligences**

Every human being is an individual. Hence, people learn in different ways. "Teachers have always known that their students have different strengths" (Larsen-Freeman. 2000:169). For example, some learners learn easier if they can read the material rather than listen to it. They seem to be visual learners rather than aural learners. There are many learners who learn equally well either way. On the other hand, it has been estimated that about 25 percent of the population is aware of the fact that they learn better when using the approach they are strong in (Larsen-Freeman. 2000:169).

These different approaches, as Larsen-Freeman notes, are related to work by Howard Gardner. According to his theory, individuals have "at least seven distinct intelligences that can be developed over a lifetime" (2000:169). These are:

- 1** Logical/mathematical – the ability to use numbers effectively, to see abstract patterns, and to reason well
- 2** Visual/spatial – the ability to orient oneself in the environment, to create mental images, and a sensitivity to shape, size, colour

- 3 Body/kinesthetic – the ability to use one’s body to express oneself and to solve problems
- 4 Musical/rhythmic – an ability to recognize tonal patterns and a sensitivity to rhythm, pitch, melody
- 5 Interpersonal – the ability to understand another person’s moods, feelings, motivations, and intentions
- 6 Intrapersonal – the ability to understand oneself and to practise self-discipline
- 7 Verbal/linguistic – the ability to use language effectively and creatively (Larsen-Freeman. 2000:169-170).

These are the seven intelligences with different abilities that Gardner originally distinguished. However, Larsen-Freeman remarks that “Gardner has recently added an eighth intelligence, one he calls ‘the naturalist’ – someone knowledgeable about and comfortable in the natural world” (2000:172). All of the intelligences can be applied when learning languages.

As Crowl, Kaminsky and Podell note, Gardner claims that “people have seven kinds of intelligence, with high ability in some and low ability in others. These intelligences are independent of one another” (1997:184). That would explain why every human being is talented in a different sphere. Also Průcha mentions Gardner’s vast research as he writes that there are “seven independent kinds of intelligence with which is every individual gifted in a different extent” (1997:104).

Průcha remarks that Gardner and his followers criticise the concept of education because it is focusing mainly on the verbal/linguistic and logical/mathematical intelligences and does not respect individual disposition and style of thinking of individual learners (1997:104). Crowl, Kaminsky and Podell interpret what Gardner suggests:

Schools should use the other forms of intelligence to motivate students and to give them additional opportunities to succeed. Schools should develop curriculum and use teaching methods that match the abilities and talents of individual students (1997:185).

Průcha notes that new alternative curricula are being developed at present. These are trying to focus on development of all kinds of intelligence according to Gardner’ theory. Průcha also mentions that there are being constantly developed some more kinds of intelligences (1997:104).

To employ this theory into the teaching and learning process the teacher should classify the activities she uses when teaching according to the kinds of intelligences.



Then she can trace those types of intelligence she uses frequently in the classroom and those she uses rarely and adapt the activities used in a lesson so that all kinds of intelligence would be represented in the lesson. The teacher can also plan lessons according to a multiple intelligence perspective to have the different types of intelligence represented (Larsen-Freeman. 2000:170). Here are examples of activities that fit each type of intelligence:

- 1 Logical/mathematical – puzzles and games, logical, sequential presentations, classifications and categorizations
- 2 Visual/spatial – charts and grids, videos, drawing
- 3 Body/kinaesthetic – hands-on activities, field trips, pantomime
- 4 Musical/rhythmic – singing, playing music, jazz chants
- 5 Interpersonal – pairwork, project work, group problem-solving
- 6 Intrapersonal – self-evaluation, journal keeping, options for homework
- 7 Verbal/linguistic – note-taking, story telling, debates (Larsen-Freeman. 2000:170).

According to this list of activities that are categorized in accordance with the seven types of intelligences, it is obvious that if the teacher keeps the lesson varied, there is a high possibility that different kinds of intelligences will be represented in that lesson.

Holden asks a question about the most advisable methodologies and approaches and she also answers:

The age group itself suggests gamelike activities, and an audio-aural approach, with the help of activity-based materials, plenty of things to ‘do’ while listening to the teacher and using the language, lots of songs, nursery rhymes, boardgames and so on (1980:70).

Different kinds of games and songs used in a lesson, as well as self-evaluation, for instance, are connected with different kinds of intelligence and for that reason support the teaching learning processes.

To conclude, the teacher should classify the activities she uses in her lessons and plan these lessons in accordance with the multiple intelligence theory. Following the theory developed by Gardner, the learners are strong in eight distinct intelligences. For that reason the teacher should incorporate into every lesson activities focusing on as many different kinds of the eight intelligences as possible. Recently new curricula have been developed to facilitate the learning for every learner and focus not only on the learners whose dominant intelligences are verbal/linguistic or logical/mathematical as it used to be in the past, but also on the other kinds

of intelligences. In my opinion, planning a lesson that would follow the theory of the eight distinct intelligences is not so difficult and time consuming for the teacher as it seems to appear. The integration of different kinds of story telling, pairwork or project work, songs, jazz chants as well as pantomime, drawing, puzzles or games and many other suggestions discussed above fully represent the presence of different kinds of intelligences in the lesson. Nowadays there exist many source books full of these kinds of activities which the teacher can use or just find an inspiration in them for her lessons to make them varied, interesting for learners and also containing all kinds of the eight intelligences.

### **1.3. Concentration Span**

Concentration span forms one of the important aspects which need to be taken into consideration when teaching young learners is discussed. This subchapter deals with concentration span and its interrelation to the age of the learners.

As ‘concentration span’ is considered the amount of time during which the children are able to concentrate on a certain topic. With the term ‘concentration’ is closely connected another term – ‘attention’. Čáp says that “attention is a mental condition that provides concentration of a human being on one phenomenon or on one activity for a certain time” (1993:58). This time varies according to the age of the human being.

Different scholars agree on the fact that the children’s attention is shorter than the adults’ attention. Jeremy Harmer writes about children that “their span of attention or concentration is less than that of an adult” (1991:7). He is not the only one who has such opinion. Scott and Ytreberg, for instance, note about seven-year-old children that “they have a very short attention and concentration span” (1990:2). It is evident that the age plays an important role in the length of concentration span. From my experience as a teacher, I agree with the statements above. The learners attending the lowest grades keep their attention and concentration span for a shorter amount of time than the learners attending a class about three grades above them. It can be stated that the younger an individual is the shorter attention and concentration span he has.

The reasons of the fact that the children’s concentration span is shorter than the concentration span of adults tries to explain Susan Holden. “One reason, perhaps, why children’s concentration span is short is that they are being bombarded with new

experiences and information all the time” (1980:7). As Holden explains further, sometimes it seems that “they feel unable to cope with any more, and such a time might happen to coincide with the English lesson” (1980:7). One of the reasons why children seem to learn quickly and forget quickly is the constant exposure to the new information. “The implications of this for teaching are clear: it is only too tempting to present a great deal of new language, which appears to be ‘learnt’ very quickly” (Holden 1980:7). It can be very disappointing for the teacher to find out that the children remember only little.

According to Holden, any of the syllabuses should be “quite modest in extent and incorporate the constant re-presentation and practice of the various language items in a number of different ways” (1980:7). The author suggests to present lessons which are simple and activities that practise the language items in different ways to prevent the fact that the children forget quickly. I agree with Holden and also with Čáp, who recommends the usage of games because they are attractive and strongly motivating for children. He claims that the children “can concentrate on such a game severalfold longer time than on a different activity” (1993:301). According to Čáp’s advice, concentration span of a learner seems to be longer when he is interested in the activity. Reflecting on my own teaching experience, I confirm Čáp’s statement. The children who are interested in the activity seem to be concentrated for a longer time than those children who are not interested in the activity in any way.

To conclude, the teacher should be aware of the fact that younger learners do not keep their attention for a long time and their concentration span is much shorter than that of adults. The scholars do not give an exact amount of time as the most suitable for young learners to concentrate. From my experience as a teacher, I know that an activity lasting longer than ten minutes is not suitable for young learners because their attention span and concentration span seem to be not longer than ten minutes. During my teaching practice I discovered that the most suitable amount of time an activity should last seems to be five to seven minutes. After this time the children seem to be less concentrated and sometimes no more interested in the activity.

Besides the importance of the suitable amount of time, the teacher should be aware of the fact that the lessons should be quite modest in extend. Consequently, the activities prepared by the teacher should be not only interesting for the children, but

also simple and the teacher should revise and also re-present the already familiar language items using different ways. The children seem to learn quickly and this fact tempts the teacher to present too much of the new language items. However, the children also seem to forget quickly and one reason of it may be that they are constantly exposed to the new information. This may be the reason why their concentration span is short. If the teacher presents too much information, it may be very disappointing for her to find out that the children remember only little. To attract children's attention and prolong their concentration span the teacher should motivate them.

#### **1.4. Motivation to Learn English**

The issue of motivation is discussed further. Motivation is closely connected with the concentration and attention span because those can be prolonged when the learner is motivated. The word motivation is, as Čáp notes, derived from the Latin word *movere*, which means to move. The author explains the word motivation as follows:

It means a summation of moving agents in activities, learning and personality. By the moving agent are meant such facts, which inspire, support, or inhibit an individual to do or not to do something (Čáp. 1993: 84).

Motivation is very important for any kind of learning. Harmer defines motivation in a very similar way. "Motivation is some kind of internal drive that encourages somebody to pursue a course of action" (1991:3). The presence of motivation affects the learning process in a very positive way.

Jarmila Skalková writes about two main aspects of motivation. These are "the energizing function and function regulating human pursuance" (1971:82-83). She further explains that motives are considered to be inducements of an action and factors leading to an action. With the term motivation is also connected the term 'need'. Motive stimulates the action and it leads to a satisfaction of a certain need. There is not just one motive but "a complex structure of different motives" (1971:83). Skalková describes different motives as follows:

What causes motivation is, for example the content of the input itself, the interest of the topic, personal meaning of the aim of the activity, problem which the pupil is supposed to solve, systematic control of the results and their evaluation, certain aspirant level of the pupil, worry, the personality of the teacher, and others (1971:83).

As different human beings have different motives and different needs, there is a large variety of the motives. Čáp, Harmer as well as Skalková share a similar view when defining motivation, which can be generally considered as a basis of an action or something that causes an action.

Harmer claims that motivated learners wish to achieve different goals. “If we perceive a goal (that is, something we wish to achieve) and if that goal is sufficiently attractive, we will be strongly motivated to do whatever is necessary to reach that goal” (1991:3). These goals can be classified as short-term goals and long-term goals. A wish to get a better job, for example, belongs among long-term goals. Completion of a unit in a book can be considered a short-term goal. It is easier for the teacher to teach a learner who is motivated and perceives a long-term goal (1991:3).

Attitude and motivation are crucial when teaching children. Children will achieve better results if they are motivated, have positive attitude towards learning and want to do it (Brumfit, Moon and Tongue. 1991: 207). The authors also paraphrase Gardner and Lambert when writing that “it has been proposed that motivation is more important than aptitude or method” (Brumfit, Moon and Tongue.1991: 207). They also mention the account written by Burstall *et al.* (1974) of the primary French project in the UK, where “the lack of motivation appears to be a key factor in pupil’s lack of achievement” (Brumfit, Moon and Tongue. 1991: 207). As written above and according to my own teaching practice, the lack of achievement is closely connected with the lack of motivation.

Kalhous and Obst discuss the issue of motivation too and according to them, learning will not come if there is no activity from the side of a learner; if the learner does not work actively. For example, if the pupil does not pay the attention at school or does not complete the homework at home. It is better if the learner is interested in the theme and he himself wants to learn (2002:350-351). Reflecting on my experience as a teacher, in many cases the learner’s motivation seems to be very weak and it is upon the teacher to motivate the learner in order to reach success in learning.

Motivation can be divided into extrinsic and intrinsic. Kalhous and Obst mention the extrinsic motivation in the connection with some award from outside which the learner wishes to gain. The learner may also study to avoid some punishment that comes in case of bad results at school. In this case the learner studies only as much

as it is needed to pass an exam. He is not interested in deep understanding of the theme or subject (2002:370). In my opinion, young learners are usually motivated from outside because their motivation is very often connected with some award. A sticker or a stamp, for instance, can be considered the award. From this kind of extrinsic motivation in the lowest grades of primary school may later develop a real interest in the subject. If the learner studies himself because he is interested in the theme or the activity without expecting any outer award, then we speak about intrinsic motivation. The authors also stress the importance of expressing and reminding the aims of every lesson and their connection to the learners' life (2002:368).

Harmer mentions factors that affect motivation. Physical conditions seem to form one of them. Having pleasant environment and positive atmosphere for language learning is important. For example, badly lit classrooms or the courses that are overcrowded may cause de-motivation. As another factor is considered the method chosen by the teacher. Harmer notes that according to the research there is no proof of one method being more effective than the others. He writes about de-motivation if the learners do not find the method interesting and become bored. On the other hand, they are motivated if they have confidence in the method. The teacher affects the learners' motivation greatly by her personality. She should pay the attention to the learners and should do as much as possible to set a good relationship with her learners (1991:5-6).

Kalhous and Obst also stress the importance of good relationship and they even talk about incorporating learners' ideas and interests into the teaching and learning process. The learners should have an opportunity to express themselves and should talk together with the teacher about things which are important and which are less important. The authors point out the fact that if the learner feels that he can co-operate with the teacher in deciding what to study, his motivation to study increases sharply (2002:369). Harmer proclaims another significant means of how to gain and maintain motivation of learners. He notes that the teacher should also know and understand the subject she teaches. The author cites an experienced teacher of English who said that "If you don't know what you're talking about they soon see through you!" (Harmer. 1991:6). The teacher should be able to answer the learners' questions as well as to give clear instructions and examples (Harmer. 1991:6).

Apart from having good relationship with the learners and understanding the subject the teacher teaches, careful planning of the lessons influences the motivation of the learners as well. Opal Dunn claims that teacher and her planning affect the lesson as follows:

If teachers can manage to capture children's enthusiasm and keep it by presenting well-planned lessons, right for their needs and development level, the children they teach should make progress and find that they are good at English. It is at this first stage of learning English that foundations for what may be a life-long interest in English language and culture can be laid. (Dunn 1983:1)

The sphere of influence of the teacher on motivation is very broad and different ways can be used to motivate the learners. Some of them are, for example, the teacher's personality and the relationship between the teacher and the learner as Harmer mentions or Dunn's suggestion about careful planning of the lessons. Also Kalhous and Obst, who stress the co-operation between the teacher and the learners, make an important note, though I do not personally consider the freedom in deciding what to study suitable for young learners because it may lead to discipline problems in young learner classes. In such situations it depends, of course, on the authority of the teacher.

The teacher should not set goals and tasks that represent either very high or very low challenge for the learners. "Both complete failure and complete success may be de-motivating" (Harmer. 1991:7). Teacher's main concern is getting the level of challenge right in the classroom, for example, the speed at which the learners work (Harmer. 1991:7). Children need to feel that they achieve a goal which is not too easy or too difficult to achieve for them. Sarah Phillips has similar opinion. "Beginners of 11 or 12 years of age will not respond well to an activity that they perceive as childish, or well below their intellectual level" (1993:7). The author further mentions success and its connection to motivation to learn English:

It is common sense that if an activity is enjoyable, it will be memorable; the language involved will 'stick', and the children will have a sense of achievement which will develop motivation for further learning. This cyclical process generates a positive attitude towards learning English, which is perhaps one of the most valuable things that primary teachers can transmit to children. (Phillips. 1993: 8)

As far as my teaching experience is concerned, I agree with Harmer and Phillips, because if the activities seem to be too simple and easy to solve so that they are not challenging for the children, they lose interest in them and feel being underestimated

or bored. On the contrary, if the activities are too demanding, the children might sometimes feel inadequate because they are not able to manage to solve them. They seem to lose interest quickly. The question of losing motivation is discussed further ahead. I would also like to add that there may be learners of slightly different levels of English in one class. For that case the teacher should prepare tasks for different levels. For example, the very good learners should be given, apart from the common task, an extra task to complete for special evaluation.

Various motivational factors exist for different age groups and different levels of English learners (Harmer. 1991:7). I will further concentrate on the concept of motivation of young learners. Harmer claims that “more than anything else, children are curious, and this in itself is motivating” (1991:7). Also Dunn discusses the children and their interest in learning. “Young children, if they are normal, want to learn” (1983:1). The author supports this note by quoting Pluckrose who claims that “at no other time in life does the human being display such enthusiasm for learning, for living, for finding out” (Pluckrose in Dunn. 1983: 1). These opinions support one another. All the authors state that children are enthusiastic to learn, which is motivating. They have a large potential for motivation even before they enter the classroom.

It is well known that children like to play and games facilitate the learning and besides the fact that they prolong the concentration span, as already mentioned previously, they can motivate the children. Jana Hanšpachová and Zuzana Řandová state the same idea. “The children need to play and it is motivating for them if they can feel learning as a game full of adventure, surprise and fun” (2005: 9). Phillips writes about younger learners and stresses the truth that they are able to mimic in a very good way; they are natural and usually enjoy the activities prepared for them by the teacher. “These factors mean that it is easy to maintain a high degree of motivation and to make the English class an enjoyable, stimulating experience for the children” (Phillips.1993:7). I share the view with the authors who agree on the merit of the presence of different kinds of games as kinds of learning activities in a lesson. However, I would like to stress that games are supposed to contain some learning or educational potential.

The children as well as the adult learners have certain expectation of the English lesson. Young children are able to speak and communicate in their mother tongue



and they expect to use English after a few lessons in the same way. "Children are creatures of the moment. They work best and most successfully when the objectives are clear, comprehensible, immediate" (Pluckrose in Dunn 1983: 1). Young children want to please and be praised by their parents as well as to show off to their friends. They want to use English in real life situations as soon as possible. The author mentions further the disappointment which may occur if the children, and also their parents, do not get what they have expected in the English lessons. "Parents' enthusiasm can motivate; their disappointment can reflect on their children, causing them to lose interest" (Dunn 1983:1-2). In agreement with this quotation, it is not only the role of the teacher that is important in motivating and teaching English to young children, but also the role of parents and their attitude to their children's learning. I agree with Dunn, who stresses the importance of the parents' attitude towards their children's learning, because I have the exact experience of parents' influence on learning as a learner and also as a teacher.

Čáp discusses the danger of losing motivation and the aspects that can cause its disturbance. One of them is saturation. The author explains this term as excessive dealing with one subject with no breaks and no alternation with other subjects or activities. As another cause of possible loss of motivation can be seen large and repeated failures of the learner. Also outer conditions, for example, lack of study material or organization of work, and other. Defect of any kind from the sphere of personal relationship between the teacher and the learner or among the learners inside the classroom or the school as well as deficiency in the means of education can have a negative influence on motivation of the learner and can cause its loss (Čáp. 1993:191). There seem to be many possible causes of the loss of motivation and it is upon the teacher and the parents to be aware of them and to avoid them when teaching, in my opinion, not only to young learners but also to older learners. Reflecting on my own teaching experience, I realize that the teacher should not only capture the children's interest and enthusiasm but also keep them and not lose them in future, which might sometimes be a challenge.

To sum up: motivation is vital when teaching because it can prolong the concentration and attention span of young learners. Complex structure of different motives, for instance, the interest in the topic or some problem to solve, is considered

to be inducement and factor leading to an action. Motives stimulate the action and it leads to a satisfaction of a certain need, for example to achieve an attractive goal. Motivated learner will learn more easily than the one who is not motivated at all, very little or only to achieve a short-term goal like completion of a unit in a textbook. Lack of motivation leads to lack of achievement. Learners must work actively not only during the English lesson but also at home, for example, to do their homework. Young learners are usually motivated by gaining an award, for example, getting a sticker or a stamp for their work. This kind of motivation which is connected with some award from outside is extrinsic motivation. On the other hand, intrinsic motivation is connected with the interest in the theme without expecting any award.

The teacher affects motivation greatly in many ways. She should often remind the aims of the lessons and their connection to learners' life. Also having pleasant environment and positive atmosphere is important in teaching and learning processes. Good relationship and teacher's personality influence learners' motivation in a great deal. The teacher should also know and understand the subject she teaches and should be able to answer learners' questions and give examples as well as to plan her lessons carefully to capture children's enthusiasm, which influence and affect the motivation too. Getting on the right level of challenge in the classroom is vital because complete failure or complete success may be de-motivating. Children are curious and very enthusiastic which is also motivating. Incorporating games into lessons plays an important role because children can perceive learning as adventure, surprise and fun which is motivating for them. Children also need clear and immediate objectives because they expect to use English after a few lessons as their mother tongue and want to be praised by their parents. It may lead to disappointment if they do not get what they have expected. Children are influenced not only by the teacher, but also by their parents. If they have expectation which does not come or, vice versa, if they are enthusiastic, all that can reflect on their children. The teacher must be aware of losing motivation. She should remember that learners dealing with one subject for long time without breaks and no alternation with other subject may lose motivation. This aspect of losing motivation is called saturation. Large and repeated failures of the learner may lead to loss of motivation as well as the lack of study material and others. Also

relationship between the teacher and her learner or among the learners in the classroom, which is not positive, may cause the loss of motivation.

In my opinion, either positive or negative attitude of the teacher and the parents have vast impact on the learner's motivation and his attitude towards his future learning and study. For that reason should the teacher and the parents not only try to motivate and support the children, but also to be aware of the danger of the loss of motivation and its consequences, for instance, lack of achievement.

## **2. Teaching English to Young Learners**

This chapter deals not only with teaching young learners, but also with the way young learners learn a foreign language. Therefore, the following subchapters focus on particular means which lead to a possible facilitation of teaching and learning processes. The theme of 'Teaching English to Young Learners' is very broad. Hence, I will mainly concentrate on the following aspects of the processes: parts of a lesson, the most suitable timing used when teaching young learners, the variety of activities and organizational forms as well as teaching aids. All these aspects appear to be, in my opinion, closely linked with concentration span.

I share a similar view with Susan Halliwell, who claims that "working with young language learners in the primary classroom can be both a rewarding and a demanding experience" (1992:2). Young learners are enthusiastic and willing to learn new things. They are straightforward and enthusiastic about new activities the teacher prepares for them and this is the reward and motivation for the teacher. On the other hand, it can be quite demanding and time consuming, especially for the novice teacher, to prepare the lesson for young learners and to manage the lesson to proceed smoothly. The scholars suggest many kinds of methods, techniques and principles<sup>2</sup> advising the teacher how to teach effectively but the question is not only how to teach children but also how children learn a language.

When discussing the question of how children learn, the term 'acquisition' has to be mentioned. Harmer quotes Stephen Krashen, who characterised acquisition as "a subconscious process which results in the knowledge of a language" (1991:33). Learning, according to Krashen, "results only in 'knowing about' the language.

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<sup>2</sup> Larsen-Freeman, Diane. 2000. *Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching*. Oxford University Press.

Acquiring a language is more successful and longer lasting than learning” (Krashen in Harmer. 1991:33). Halliwell writes about conscious direct learning and subconscious indirect learning, or ‘acquisition’. She states that we all seem to have something of acquiring and something of conscious direct learning in us (1992:5).

Children, according to Halliwell, bring with them aptitude for indirect learning to the classroom. It can sometimes happen to the teacher that children who are supposed to learn something seem to remember better something different they noticed out of the corner of their eye. This can be a discouraging experience for the teacher but, as Halliwell suggests, it can be converted into an advantage. Good examples of indirect learning are activities like guessing what phrase or word someone has thought of. Children are concentrating on trying to guess right and not on learning phrases. By the end of this activity, the phrases and words will be fixed in their minds (1992:5). I have acquired a similar experience as a teacher of not only young learners, but also as a teacher of seventh graders. However, the truth is that the learners are concentrating on guessing right and not on learning phrases that seem to be learnt somehow naturally through activities like guessing. Halliwell characterises this kind of activity as follows:

Guessing is actually a very powerful way of learning phrases and structures, but it is indirect because the mind is engaged with the task and is not focusing on the language. The process relates very closely to the way we develop our mother tongue. We do not consciously set out to learn it. We acquire it through continuous exposure and use (Halliwell. 1992:5).

Harmer, who paraphrases Krashen, states the same idea. “Second (or foreign) language learning needs to be more like the child’s acquisition of its native language” (1991:33). Both Halliwell and Harmer compare learning a foreign language to the development of the learners’ mother tongue.

Harmer actually says about children:

They hear and experience a considerable amount of the language in situations where they are involved in communicating with an adult – usually a parent. Their gradual ability to use language is the result of many subconscious processes. They have not consciously set out to learn a language; it happens as a result of the input they receive and the experiences which accompany this input (1991:33).

Harmer discusses the way children learn a language. They seem to learn it without being consciously taught it by their parents or any other adult who speaks that language. From my experience as an English language learner, I agree with Harmer. I have learnt

English language in England and the environment and the input accompanied with experiences caused that I did not learn the language only consciously. I was able to communicate and understand well to what has been said quickly and in a natural way, though, I was not a young learner. I also did not have problems with remembering vocabulary or phrases. Halliwell, who shares Harmer's opinion, suggests to take an advantage of it and to build on the children's subconscious learning:

It is probably true to say that at primary school level the children's capacity for conscious learning of forms and grammatical patterns is still relatively undeveloped. In contrast, all children, whether they prefer to 'sort things out' or 'muddle through', bring with them an enormous instinct for indirect learning. If we are to make the most of that asset we need to build on it quite deliberately and very fully (1992:6).

For this reason Halliwell supports an idea of setting real tasks in the classroom. By that she means worthwhile and interesting activities providing the children an opportunity to use real language. In that case children's subconscious mind can work on the processing of language while their conscious mind is concentrating on the task (1992:6).

Nowadays, the approach to teaching young learners has changed but some years ago in most of the schools the learners were taught in a completely different way based on conscious direct learning. Foreign language teaching "seems to concentrate on getting the adult student to consciously learn items of language in isolation – the exact opposite of this process" (Harmer. 1991:33). By 'this process' the author means subconscious learning of the language.

To sum up: teaching young learners is as important as the way young learners learn a foreign language. There exists a difference between conscious direct learning and subconscious indirect learning, acquisition. Acquisition results in the knowledge of a language while learning results only in 'knowing about' the language. Acquiring a language is more successful and longer lasting than learning. Children are very enthusiastic and bring with them aptitude for indirect learning even before they enter the classroom. However, it can sometimes be discouraging for the teacher to find out that children did not learn what they were supposed to learn during the lesson; and they remember different thing they noticed out of the corner of their eye. This should be converted into an advantage by incorporating activities like guessing the word

someone has thought of, because children are concentrating on trying to guess right and not on learning phrases.

Second language learning should be like acquiring children's mother tongue because they seem to learn it without being consciously taught it by their parents. It seems to be a result of the input they receive and the experiences accompanying this input. Primary school children's capacity for conscious learning of forms and grammatical patterns is still relatively undeveloped. In contrast, they bring with them an enormous instinct for indirect learning. To take an advantage of this fact the activities should be worthwhile and interesting providing the children opportunity to use real language.

### **2.1. Parts of a Lesson**

In this subchapter individual stages of a lesson are discussed. Though the whole lesson seems to be one solid unit, it can be divided into a few stages and activities, which should be smoothly following one another so that the children do not recognize any sharp transition and the activities 'flow' one after another but according to a carefully prepared lesson plan.

The lessons seem to have, as Skalková claims, kind of inner structure that respects the course of the pupils' learning and defines a certain pattern in the way the teacher manages a lesson. This structure is called stages of a lesson. Each stage has its specifics. The most often used kind of a lesson is so called mixed lesson, which has the following stages: opening of a lesson when the teacher defines the theme and the aim of the lesson and also motivates the learners as well as deals with organisational matter; recapitulation of previously explained things; presentation of new material; revision and practising of new material; and checking the development of learners' knowledge. On the other hand, the author states that the lessons' structure should not become a routine that would be repeated every single lesson without taking into account the nature of the theme and the learners' age (1999:206).

Different authors state different classification of the lesson stages. For instance, Opatřil et al. write about so called composite lesson, which is very similar to what Skalková mentions. This composite lesson has seven stages: organisational part, revision and checking of homework, presentation of new material, practising and assessing the knowledge, recapitulation of what has been learnt, assignment

of homework, and closing of the lesson. Opatřil et al. do not forget to mention the fact that this type of a lesson should not be considered as universal and the only one suitable for teaching (1985:120-121). These kinds of lessons that Skalková and Opatřil mention seem to be used very often, in my opinion and according to my teaching practice. I support the idea of changing the lesson structure from time to time.

Dunn discusses the question of stages of a lesson and careful planning as well. Apart from explaining the specifics of each stage of a lesson, the author also notes that the simple fact that the teacher knows what the aim of every activity and every lesson is enables her to feel more confident because she knows what is going to happen next. This simple truth can be applied not only to teacher, but also to children in the classroom:

Children appear to learn more easily when they know what to expect in a lesson and what the teacher expects of them. Apart from making them feel more secure, it gives them confidence. It also enables them to predict situations and the language likely to be used in them. For this reason, teachers often find it helpful to use the same lesson framework for each lesson. (Dunn 1983:26)

The framework (see appendix 1) is created as a routine which is followed in each lesson; the children remember it after a few lessons and may feel 'at home' and do not often need any instruction from the side of the teacher when proceeding to a different activity (1983:26). The author explains the idea as follows:

The security of knowing what comes next enables young children to concentrate on the activity in which they are involved, free from the worry that they will not understand what to do next. The calmness of a class that is used to a routine is quite noticeable, especially when compared with a class haphazardly planned with little or no regular routine (Dunn 1983:26).

In my opinion and according to my own teaching experience, this framework is helpful but it has to be taken into account that after some time of practicing the framework some of the children may start to feel bored and not interested in the activities any more. It may also happen that children who are working every lesson according to the same lesson plan may feel lost if they are forced, for some reason, to work according to a different lesson plan. In that case I would not forget to mention to put occasionally a slight variation into the routine. Dunn also mentions this fact and writes that the lesson framework can be modified and altered from lesson

to lesson according to the aim of each lesson, children's development and attention span or their particular needs (1983:26-28).

Dunn further divides a lesson into three phases. The author stresses the importance of the beginning and the ending because they have a social function when greeting pupils and saying them goodbye. It can be done individually and the teacher has personal contact with each child (1983:28). The opening as well as the closing of the lesson is very important because it is upon the teacher to motivate the children and to awake interest and enthusiasm inside. These two stages of the lesson are, in my opinion, the most suitable for it. Similarly, Hendrich writes that the beginning of the lesson can contain organizational arrangement, announcement of the lesson aim, motivation of the learners and setting a positive working atmosphere. He also stresses the importance of implementation of all these items in the target language even in the beginning of foreign language learning (1988:292). Dunn claims:

An experienced teacher uses this to sum up a child's mood at the beginning of the lesson and to add a few words of encouragement. At the end of a lesson she uses it to send him home with a few words of praise and a comment on his participation. Young children look forward to this special time with their teacher and her few words are very important to them; these words also play an important part in motivating (1983:28).

Dunn and Hendrich stress the importance of the beginning and also of the ending of a lesson. They both note that these two stages play a significant part in motivating the learners and influencing the classroom atmosphere.

Apart from beginning and ending the lesson, Dunn also describes the three phases of a lesson. 'Phase One' is type of 'warming-up' activity. It is a revision of previously done activities, for example songs, rhymes and others. During this phase the children sit on the floor round the teacher "who sits on a chair slightly elevated so that the children can see her face and especially her mouth" (Dunn 1983:28). That is important especially for imitation of the teacher's speech, pronunciation and self correction. After the revision follow other oral activities and new language items can be introduced during this phase. The children can work in pairs, groups or the whole class can cooperate together. This phase is conducted by the teacher. (1983:28)

During 'Phase Two' the children work in small groups, pairs or individually. They usually sit at their own desks and do activities like colouring, writing or reading. (1983:28-29) "This is a calm period. During Phase Two the teacher goes round the class



talking to the children in turn about the activities they are doing” (Dunn 1983:29). Important is the note that the children work at their own pace and the teacher can occasionally encourage them while working on their own tasks. (1983:29)

As the end of the lesson is approaching the children get usually tired. “They become restless and often want to move around” (Dunn 1983:29). Phase Three is planned in such a way so that the children can take part in games or can do some motoric activities, for example, handwork and drama (1983:29). Since I have the same experience as a teacher of young learners, I fully agree with Dunn.

Apart from the division of a lesson into stages, almost every lesson can be divided into smaller parts – activities. Harmer defines activities as follows:

‘Activities’ is a loose term used to give a general description of what will happen in a class. It is important to realise that here we are not talking in any way about items of language; we are talking about what, generally and physically, the students are going to do (1991:266).

The author puts emphasis on the fact that by the term ‘activity’ is meant the actual task the learners work on during the lesson, things they are supposed to complete.

Holden approves the usage of activities in the lessons as well. “There seems to be general agreement that children’s courses should be activity based” (1980:8). This quotation can be supported by Harmer:

Children need frequent changes of activity: they need activities which are exciting and stimulate their curiosity: they need to be involved in something active (they will usually not sit and listen!) (1991:7).

Hendrich notes that activities should be organised in a logic way. That means to start with something simple and smoothly proceed to some more demanding activities (1988:98). This is consistent with what I observed – if the lesson is dynamic and the teacher keeps the children busy and enthusiastic by varying the activities which follow in a logic way, the lesson seems to proceed smoothly without any difficulties and the activities seem to follow somehow naturally. On the other hand, when I prepared the lessons myself as a teacher, I realised that it can sometimes be quite difficult to arrange the activities in an effective way and that careful planning of activities is vital. Also Dunn notes that activities have to be planned before and not take place spontaneously (1983:33). When planning the lesson, the teacher should have in mind also the learners’ level of development and abilities. There must be an effort

and challenge present in the activities otherwise the children feel no satisfaction. On the contrary, if an activity is too difficult for the children, they may feel they have failed (Dunn. 1983:34). The question of the right challenge is discussed above, (see Motivation).

When planning the lesson, it is also important to include the four skills of speaking, listening, reading and writing if children are able to read and write. “A good activity is naturally integrated. Within it, the skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing are undifferentiated, if children are sufficiently mature” (Dunn. 1983: 34). In my opinion, some children may prefer speaking while others writing, for example. They might feel more comfortable when doing a task focused mainly on that particular skill they feel strong in than on the other three skills which might cause them some difficulties, (see above Multiple Intelligences). Holden comes to a similar conclusion. “One advantage of dividing one’s lesson into a large number of activities is that each activity can present a different kind of challenge to the children” (Holden 1980:8).

Though the scholars’ opinions slightly differ in naming the stages of a lesson or even in a number of these stages, the main idea of division of a lesson into a few stages remains the same. Important part is the opening followed by revision and then by presentation of new material and its practice. The last stage is closing. Since the stages should smoothly follow one another, the teacher needs to plan every lesson carefully. She should not forget that the lesson should be activity based. By an activity is meant the actual thing children are going to do. They should be organised in the way that they start from the simple activities and continue to the more difficult ones. That also means that the lesson needs to be planned really carefully and all the four skills should be incorporated if the children are sufficiently mature. Every lesson should be adapted to the particular situation in the classroom and to the needs of learners, for example, concentration span. If the learners are not paying attention or seem to be tired, the teacher can improvise and incorporate into the lesson a short game, jazz chant or some motoric activity to ‘wake the learners up’ and then continue according to the lesson plan.

From my experience as a teacher and as a learner, I personally prefer a lesson which starts with an opening. During this phase the teacher announces and explains the aim of the lesson and motivates learners as well as deals with organisational stuff. Opening

is followed by ‘warm-up’ activity, a phase lasting about five minutes, usually some game or a song incorporated into the lesson to motivate learners and to ‘start’ the English lesson in a positive way. The next stage is revision of material familiar to learners followed by presentation of new material. Practising of new material is the following stage. Since the end of the lesson is approaching and the learners seem to be tired of paying attention and they usually become restless. The end of the lesson should be positive and motivating. I find a game or a song to be a suitable ending of a lesson. Important part is also closing of the lesson. The teacher should evaluate the lesson and the way learners worked as well as learners themselves should be led to learn to evaluate themselves and their classmates.

### **2.1.1. Activities & Timing**

The time factor is of a great importance. It plays a significant role not only when planning the curriculum, but also when planning every lesson and every single activity.

Skalková reminds that the common type of a lesson in the Czech Republic lasts for 45 minutes. She further notes that the division of the length of the lessons quite often needs a change according to the content of the lesson and to the age of the learners. The author quotes Spilková writing that the teacher who works with young learners, apart from the common type of a lesson, uses shorter sequences. Those are lasting, for example, twenty minutes and during them the teacher keeps changing different kinds of activities (1999:205). The suggestion made by Skalková puts a vast emphasis on timing. Miroslav Kořínek claims that “the lessons have certain exceptionality according to the age groups of pupils who is the teacher working with” (1984:138). I have the same experience as a teacher of young learners. A lesson lasting 45 minutes is too long for very young learners. I was teaching these learners for 30 minutes and they were not able to concentrate and to keep attention for longer amount of time than the already mentioned 30 minutes.

When working with young learners the teacher should have in mind their age and the activities should last about 5 minutes to keep the children interested and excited. “It is essential to divide one’s lesson into a series of activities each lasting, perhaps, no longer than 5 or 10 minutes” (Holden 1980:6).

Kořínek remarks:

They are learning to respect the manners and to concentrate for a longer time. It is for that reason that the activities keep changing more often in the lowest grades of the primary school. The work is being discontinued several times for moments to relax (physical exercises, games) during the lesson (1984:138).

The teacher can discontinue the activity when the children do not concentrate any longer. Harmer mentions the subject of an appropriate timing as well. He stresses the danger of counter-productivity, which may arise when an activity is lasting for too long:

Children, especially, need to do different things in fairly quick succession since they will generally not be able to concentrate on one activity for a long stretch of time (1991:259).

Harmer emphasizes the importance of fast sequencing of the activities in one lesson.

Dunn claims similar idea when informing about the importance of the pace of a lesson:

Throughout a lesson it is essential to keep up a momentum by changing activities if children are to be involved for the maximum length of time in some language acquisition activity (Dunn 1983:36).

Momentum and energy need to be present in a lesson because they are, according to Harmer and Dunn, vital for concentration of the learners and for some language acquisition to take place. Not only is it essential to keep the lesson dynamic, but also to revise and repeat the activities. Lessons need to be well planned and dynamic to keep the attention of children. Changing activities is one way how to reach it. From my experience, every activity should last about seven minutes.

The children, according to Dunn, do not acquire the maximum input when the activity takes place for the first time because they also concentrate on finding out what is going on. When the same activity is proceeding for the second time, the children are already familiar with it and can concentrate more on the activity itself (1983:33-34). "For maximum acquisition the same activity needs to take place at least twice on two different occasions" (Dunn 1983:33). The revision of something once already mentioned or done is very important for learning. Hendrich mentions cyclical revision because the language needs to be learnt in such a way that the learners do not only revise their knowledge, but also broaden it in a systematic way (1988:100). My experience is the same as mentioned by Dunn.

"The time planned to be spent on different activities often has to be modified on the actual day to fit in with the children's mood and span of concentration"

(Dunn 1983:34). It is not only timing that has to be taken into consideration, but also the actual situation in the classroom. Holden notes that it is useless to continue an activity if it is obvious that the children got bored. She mentions the fact that sometimes it may happen that an activity will not arouse interest at all and in that case it is better to leave the activity and do something else. If an activity is not used in one lesson, it can always be used in any of the following ones (1980:6). Dunn shares Holden's opinion claiming that it can happen that the children lose interest in an activity and that is the signal for the teacher to change to some other activity. The teacher can hold the children's attention by asking them in turn to take part in an activity, for example, reading or singing a song. As the children wait for their turn it excites them and holds their attention. They may also acquire some language when they are waiting for their turn and listening to others (1983:35).

In short, the ordinary lesson in the Czech Republic lasting 45 minutes seems to be too long for young learners to concentrate for the whole lesson. An ideal lesson for young learners should last about 30 minutes. This lesson should be based on various activities that keep the children's attention. That can sometimes be quite demanding thing to do. One way how to achieve it is to keep the activities rather short. They should last about seven minutes. It is sometimes inevitable to stop the activity and start something completely different which would suit to the children's mood in that particular situation. To sum up: the truth, according to scholars quoted above and my own experience as a teacher of young learners, is that the time factor plays a significant role in teaching young learners and the teachers should remember this fact when planning their lessons.

### **2.1.2. Variety of Activities**

The children do not keep their attention for a long time. Because the common type of a lesson lasts for 45 minutes, the teacher should present a lesson that would somehow attract children's attention and interest. Hendrich suggests variety to maintain children's attention:

The eight and ten-year-old pupils have predominantly very good mechanical memory. They are able to imitate pronunciation, intonation and also pitch of a foreign language, but they are not able to keep their attention for a long time; for that reason should be the lesson varied and miscellaneous (1988:296).

There are many aspects of activities that can vary. Scott and Ytreberg claim that “since concentration and attention span are short, variety is a must – variety of activity, variety of pace, variety of organization, variety of voice” (1990:5-6). Dunn shares this opinion and notes that the lesson should include activities that are familiar to the children and also some that are new to them. (1983:34) Furthermore, Dunn suggests the proportion of the new activities to the familiar ones:

No lesson should consist of more new experiences than familiar ones as this would be too confusing for children who seem to thrive on the security of knowing what to expect next (Dunn 1983:34).

The importance of planning lessons and careful choice of activities and their sequence are vital for teaching an effective lesson.

Phillips lists possible types of activities that can be used in a lesson:

The kinds of activities that work well are games and songs with actions, total physical response activities, tasks that involve colouring, cutting, and sticking, simple, repetitive stories, and simple, repetitive speaking activities that have an obvious communicative value. (Phillips. 1993: 7)

Lessons need to be varied and contain simple activities to suit the children’s level of development. I have discovered myself that sequencing and careful choice of activities are very important for planning the lessons. Children like to learn new activities but on the other hand, most of the activities used in one lesson should be familiar to them. The lesson is interesting and surprising for them and they also feel more confident if they can complete activities which they have been doing before.

Scholars support the idea of variety of activities in one lesson, but as Halliwell remarks, the advice to make the lessons varied can sometimes cause misunderstanding. It can be explicated in two different ways with two different effects (1992:27).

One possible way of making the lesson varied is to do lots of activities focusing on different topics (Halliwell. 1992:27). The author describes such a lesson in more details as continuous:

If that is what we mean by variation then we may produce a lesson which, say, begins with five minutes of greetings, then revises numbers, does a quick introduction of colours and finishes off by singing a song about the days of the week. This is patently not a helpful form of variation. The children’s minds are being required to jump from one topic to the next with little time to let things sink or rehearse things effectively through meaningful use (1992:27).

Halliwell depicts a kind of chaotic lesson here in which the learners are forced to skip from one topic to another without having a requisite time for practising the words or phrases. Such a lesson is definitely varied but not in an effective way.

Halliwell asks a question about what has gone wrong and she also tries to answer it. One of the reasons, as the author notes, is that the teacher is aware of the fact that the children have short concentration span and she is trying to compensate for it. Another possible reason might be that the children cannot write much in English yet. For that reason the teacher seems to think that the lesson should be orally based and the variety of activities can be done by varying the topics of the oral work (1992:27). The author stresses three important things concerning variation of a lesson:

- We won't help the children to develop their capacity to concentrate if we jump inconsequentially from one topic to the next.
- There are ways of varying the oral work so that it is making different demands on the children and therefore *feels different* even when the topic remains the same.
- Even if a group of children cannot write English or if your syllabus suggests they should not write English in the early stage, there are other kinds of pencil and paper work they can do (Halliwell. 1992:27).

There are many different ways than altering the topics of a lesson that lead to variety. The teacher can keep the topic, but change the activity at the same time by presenting activities with different demands on the children. A suggestion, how to vary activities, is to focus them on as many skills and subskills as possible. The fact that the children cannot write in English can be settled as well. Writing can be substituted by drawing or matching activities, for example.

To summarise, the lesson should contain variety of activities to keep children's attention for the whole lesson. The activities should follow in a logic way, which means to start with simple ones and proceed to more difficult activities. Most of the activities should be familiar to the children. However, the children like to learn new things and for that reason the teacher should also include some new activities. These should be in minority to the familiar ones.

The teacher should also remember that variation of activities does not mean changing the topics of activities and jumping from one topic to another. This is not an effective way how to make the lesson varied because the learners' minds are forced to skip from one topic to another without having time to practise the words or phrases.

Activities can vary, for example, in the focus on the skills or subskills. Even though the children are not able to write, they can complete writing activities by means of colouring, cutting or sticking.

## **2.2. Organizational Forms**

It has been stated that it is necessary to provide the children with sufficient amount of varied activities to hold their attention. To make the lesson varied, the teacher can also use different kinds of organizational forms of teaching. That means various student groupings during one lesson. These different organizational forms are: frontal teaching, individual work, pairwork, and groupwork.

Frontal teaching, also called lockstep, is according to Harmer, the class grouping where “all the students are working with the teacher, where all the students are ‘locked into’ the same rhythm and pace, the same activity” (1991:243). This form of teaching is teacher-controlled; the teacher is in “complete charge of the class. She controls not only what the students do, but also when they speak and what language they use” (Harmer. 1991:236). Skalková defines frontal teaching in a very similar way:

During frontal teaching the class usually works as a whole under the direct management of the teacher. Although the teacher asks the whole class questions, there is actually a contact between the teacher and only one learner (1971:121).

Skalková points at the negative side of frontal teaching. She stresses the fact that it is only one learner who makes contact with the teacher. Harmer also mentions the advantages and disadvantages of frontal teaching. The advantages include the facts that the learners get a good language model from the teacher and the teacher can usually be sure that all learners hear what is being said. On the other hand, the learners get a very little chance to speak. (1991:243-244). Harmer remarks that “lockstep always goes at the wrong speed!” (1991:243). The teacher is either too fast for the weaker students or too slow for the good students (Harmer. 1991:243). From my experience not only as a teacher, but also as a learner, learners in one class are never exactly on the same level. The weaker learners have problems to follow the teacher and the good learners may feel bored and not very interested in the activity because they find it too easy for them and not challenging.

Individual work is another organizational form of teaching. The learners can relax from the outside pressure. They work on their own and can rely on themselves only;



they work at their own pace. This form of teaching presents to the teacher a period of time when she can reassemble the learning attitudes because this kind of work is quiet (Harmer. 1991:248). The learners can usually complete the activity in the way which suits them best. Reflecting on my experience as a learner and as a teacher, individual learner starts to complete the activity from a different point; he prefers different teaching aids to others, and so on.

Pairwork is a way of increasing the amount of students' practice. It offers a vast variety of work and allows the learners to use language (Harmer. 1991:244). Hendrich has a similar opinion:

Dialogue is a means of real communication among the involved speakers who do not only convey information, but also express their attitudes, agreement or disagreement, amazement, surprise, and so on; they use interjections and disjuncts (1988:313).

Hendrich emphasizes the importance of real communication, which is used in dialogues. Harmer claims that while working in pairs, the learners can help each other to learn the language, which encourages learner co-operation and helps to set a positive classroom atmosphere. The communicative efficiency seems to increase but incorrectness might cause a problem as well as the discipline. During pairwork the level of noise might increase and also for that reason the teacher should make sure that the activity does not last for too long. Some of the learners might become bored and restless or even badly behaved. In those cases the learning is not being in progress any more and the teacher should stop the activity. Harmer writes about the ways how to organise the pairs. Either the teacher puts together two learners on the similar level to form a pair or a good one and a weak one. There is no research stating which way is the best for making pairs (1991:244-245). In my opinion, if the teacher puts together two very good learners, she should give them an extra task so that the time devoted to complete the activity is fully used by every pair in an effective way. It takes shorter time to complete the task to the pairs made of two very good learners. These learners may start to feel bored because they have already completed the activity and discipline problems may appear.

Another organizational form of teaching is groupwork. Harmer says about groupwork that it, as well as pairwork, increases the amount of student talking time. The learners can communicate with each other and co-operate among themselves. They

are teaching and learning within the group (1991:245). Skalková notes that “it allows the development of social relationships among the learners straight during the lesson” (1971:121). Susan Holden claims that “whole class, pair and group work activities give the students different people to work with, ranging from ‘best friends’ to those children they do not particularly like” (1980:8). Groupwork is beneficial not only as a means of practicing and developing communication, but also as fundamentals for social rules and conventions. The learners are gradually learning to respect other human beings and their attitudes and ideas. However, groupwork does not have only positives. Harmer lists the pros and cons of it. There is a greater possibility of discussion in group and the tasks can often be more exciting, groupwork seems to be more dynamic than pairwork. It is also more relaxing for the learners to work in groups than to work in pairs. Different groups can work on different tasks according to learners’ interests and level of the language (1991:245-247).

I agree with Harmer, who claims that working in groups is more relaxing. Some of the learners may feel less afraid of making a possible mistake or to express their opinions and to ask questions because the teacher and the rest of the class can not hear them. The stronger students can help the weaker ones and every group can focus on different task, according to the learners’ interest. Hendrich mentions homogeneous groups which consist of learners of similar knowledge of the language. Groups that are formed of learners of different knowledge are called heterogeneous (1988:312).

Hendrich suggests the way of making the learners’ work more intensive:

If the teacher manages to arouse competitiveness of the learners when assigning a task that is the same for all of the learners, their activity will become higher and their work more intensive (1988:312).

The author highlights the potency of competitiveness and its impact on the work of learners. The problems might raise the same as with pairwork, for example, discipline problems or use of mother tongue. As far as the formation of the groups is concerned, Harmer claims that the teacher can form a group of strong and weak learners and those who are weak might be helped by the good ones, who also get the maximum benefit from the activity. The size of the groups is up to the teacher but generally it should be formed by seven or better less than seven learners (1991:246). Skalková suggests small groups of three to five learners (1971:121). From my experience as a teacher, I have the same opinion as Skalková. Groups of seven learners, as Harmer

mentions, seem to me too large because not all learners can participate as much as in case of groups of four learners, for instance.

Briefly, all types of different organizational forms have their advantages and disadvantages. Frontal teaching or lockstep, for example, is teacher-controlled organization form. The teacher can control what the learners do, on the other hand, the teacher makes contact only with one learner at a time and the learners get very little chance to speak. During individual work the learners can relax from the outside pressure. They rely on themselves and work at their own pace. It is quiet period of time when the teacher can reassemble the learning attitude. The advantage of pairwork is, for example, in the fact that learners use language; they express their attitudes; they can help each other, and so on. However, discipline problems or incorrectness may increase.

Groupwork offers not only cooperation and communication among the learners, but also development of social relationship because the learners are learning to respect their classmates and their opinions. The disadvantages are very similar to those mentioned above when pairwork is discussed; mainly discipline problems or the use of mother tongue. The teacher can decide how to form the groups and pairs. She can either put together the learners on the same level or learners who are strong and who are weak in English. Both possibilities have their advantages and disadvantages. The learners who are on the same level can work faster and for that reason the teacher should assign them more difficult or some extra task than to learners who are weaker. On the contrary, in the pair made of learners of different levels the stronger learner can help the weaker one so that they both revise the words or phrases.

The merit of organizational forms is, in my opinion, in their alternation as they present different demands on the learners and can stimulate their interest, their concentration and attention span. However, the teacher must remember that any of the organizational form can not last for too long period of time, otherwise the learners may feel bored and do not pay attention to the activity any more.

### **2.3. Teaching Aids**

It has been mentioned above that the lessons should be based activities which are varied and last for an appropriate time according to the learners' age. The teacher should also respect the eight kinds of intelligences and prepare activities based on these

intelligences. (See Multiple Intelligences.) The teacher should also use various teaching aids to teach lessons which focus on as many kinds of intelligences as possible. Nowadays there are many teaching aids. The teacher can use to make the lesson more attractive and interesting for her learners.

Teaching aids support the process of teaching and learning. The spoken word is important but it should not become the only way how to teach. Scott and Ytreberg have similar opinion:

Don't rely on the spoken word only. Most activities for the younger learners should include movement and involve the senses. You will need to have plenty of objects and pictures to work with, and to make full use of the school and your surroundings. Demonstrate what you want them to do. The balance will change as the children get older, but appealing to the senses will always help the pupils to learn (1990:5).

The authors advise to use objects and pictures, which are considered to be teaching aids, during the lesson to demonstrate the teacher's ideas. Kořínek claims that "in the lessons are widely used visual teaching aids because the thinking of the learners of this age is still much dependent on the direct perception of the reality" (1984:138). Teaching aids facilitate the perception of the reality. Opatřil et al. have the same opinion:

Teaching aids form an essential part of tutorial means. Their usage in the educational process is immediate and on the first stage of primary school necessary. They serve to the teacher and also to the learner to fix immediate association between an object and its name; to form accurate and clear images and ideas (1985:130).

The main asset of teaching aids seems to be the fact that they attach association between the object the teacher shows to the children and the name the object bears. Not only do they assist to the children, but also to the teacher when presenting new material or revising the familiar one. I have the same experience not only as a teacher but also as a learner. From the didactic point of view, teaching aids have three main functions: the function of presentation (used when presenting material), the stimulus function (stimulate learner's reaction, develop his thinking), and the motivational function (arouse learner's interest) (1988:395-396).

There are many kinds of teaching aids. Different authors respect slightly different ways of classifying them. I will paraphrase Hendrich, for instance, who divides them into seven groups: textual materials, visual aids, object aids, aural aids, a language classroom, a language laboratory, and a room for the teachers of foreign languages

(1988:394). This division is based on the choice of a prevailing sense of the learner when a particular teaching aid is used.

Textual materials form one kind of teaching aids. A typical textual material is a coursebook. Hendrich considers a coursebook to be the basic material and didactic means leading to realization of the appointed aim. A coursebook provides the same content and interpretation of the foreign language for all the schools of the same kind (1988:397). However, nowadays there are many kinds of coursebooks and the schools and the teachers can select the type of a coursebook they prefer. Also Halliwell discusses the selection of a coursebook and its usage in the lessons:

There are two common but extreme attitudes to coursebooks. The first is that it is wrong to deviate to any appreciable extent from what you have been given. The second is that it is wrong not to! Not only are both of these views unhelpful, they have also missed the point. The question is not 'Is it a good idea or a bad idea to use a coursebook extensively?' The important questions are 'What does the coursebook do well?' and 'What does the teacher do better?' (1992:113)

The author indicates two extreme attitudes towards coursebooks and classifies both of them as being useless. She even lays questions which the teachers should be asking themselves. After answering them Halliwell notes further that every teacher should decide to what extent will she use a coursebook and select a suitable one and think about the best usage of it. Not only helps the coursebook to the teacher (for example, as a source of practical teaching ideas, resource of tasks that learners can do on their own, or basis for homework), but also to the learners (1992:113). Hendrich writes about a coursebook that "its content and concept does not only serve to educate and form the learners, but also to determine the teacher's methodical and didactical techniques to a large extent (1988:397).

Halliwell remarks that the teacher feels more secure with a coursebook; that brings benefit to the learners as well, for example, a sense of security or kind of reference for checking and revision. On the other hand, the teacher can offer certain things that a coursebook cannot. Among those belong the spoken language provided by the teacher, adjusting the lesson according to the learners' reactions and others. The teacher should keep these points in mind when selecting a coursebook (1992:113-114).

Apart from a coursebook there are many other kinds of textual materials. Hendrich mentions methodical handbooks for the teacher, language handbooks, dictionaries, grammar books of foreign language, anthology of texts in a foreign language,

conversational handbooks, songbooks, collection of riddles, jazz chants, jokes, and so on, as well as magazines written in target language (1988:399-405). I agree with Hendrich because usage of different textual materials makes the lesson more attractive and interesting.

Visual aids are considered to be another large and important group of teaching aids. Hendrich distinguishes between pictorial (any kind of picture, drawing, or illustration) and graphical aids (table or chart, also graphical symbols). He further divides pictures into pictures that are completed before they are used in a lesson and pictures that are being developed during a lesson; those are created in front of the learners and marked by the teacher's handwriting, which may be impressive. The main advantage of developing pictures lays in the fact that the whole, presented by the teacher, can be developed out of its items in front of the learners' eyes. In both cases it is important to remember that pictures should be legible, neat, and correct. The author also mentions television screen as a visual aid (1988:408-409). Petty writes about the usage of a photocopier to copy different kinds of material, overhead projector, blackboard, notice board, videocassette recorder, stereopticon, and others (1996:274-290). The list of visual aids is quite long. Many kinds of them can be created by the teacher or even by the learners and therefore it should not be a problem to integrate them into the lessons. From my experience, learners like and appreciate visual aids created by their teacher. They like working with them which is motivating for them and also for the teacher.

Children need some visual support. It helps them in "associating the spoken language with something concrete" (Holden 1980:33). Not only do the visual aids facilitate the learning, but also attract the learners' attention:

To ignore a new picture on the screen of stereopticon is difficult – to ignore a new sentence of a lecture is not. To capture the attention in the age of television is not easy and we all need to use all the sources of help! If a pupil is looking at your visual aid, his attention is not distracted by other visual motives – for example, looking out of the window (Petty. 1996:271)

It is not easy to capture the learners' attention but it is possible. Apart from attracting the attention and facilitating the learning have visual aids also impact on the classroom atmosphere. "Lively illustrations of colourful situations can be quite helpful in creating the motivating, game-like atmosphere so conducive to learning" (Holden 1980:33).

As object aids are meant real objects or their models used in lessons to demonstrate what the teacher means and talks about (Hendrich. 1988:405). Petty expresses the degree of their asset. "If a picture stands for a thousand words, for how many words will stand a model? And what about reality?" (Petty. 1996: 286). Hendrich mentions the positive effect of real objects. They motivate and activate the learners, especially the young ones. "Those objects allow the learners to specify images and ideas when naming them in a target language without explicit usage of the learners' mother tongue" (1988:405). The author divides object aids into real objects and models; or into aids which are familiar to the learners and those which are new to them (1988:406).

Among object aids belong all the objects that surround the learner in the classroom, objects or models the teacher or learners bring to the classroom, and also materials that have documental character. Those can be, for example, maps, postcards, tickets, forms, and many others (Hendrich. 1988:406). From my experience as a teacher of young learners, young learners enjoy learning with the usage of real objects, especially those that are part of their classroom. For example, touching objects of different colours or picking up and showing their crayons of the colour the teacher names.

Aural aids are considered to be all kinds of sonic recordings of foreign languages used for listening, oral or written reproduction or other utilization in language classrooms. These are usually closely related to their textual equivalents and form an inseparable component of a language teaching. Apart from the teacher's voice is the aural aid a model and a base for the learners. It has also a stimulus function as a source of impulsion of learner's reaction and motivational function because it can also positively influence the atmosphere in a foreign language classroom (Hendrich. 1988:414-416).

Tapes with dialogues, music, jazz chants, and other different kinds of listening are considered to be aural aids. Skalková mentions musical instruments (1999:2330). Videocassette recorder and television seem to appeal to both visual and aural senses and as Opatřil et al. note that they are considered to be audio-visual teaching aids (1985:133).

Hendrich writes that a language classroom is also considered to be one of teaching aids. It should be equipped by requisite didactic technique instruments to apply visual, aural, and other teaching aids during the lesson to surround the learner with a target

language environment. Language classroom should have the learners' desks arranged in a U-shape, posters and notice boards on the wall and the amount of learners should be smaller than during other lessons (1988:116-117).

By the term language laboratory, according to Hendrich, can be understood either a room equipped with a special technique apparatus which enables the learners to work individually using headphones and working in a half-closed boxes or a room which seems to be audio-visual laboratory where the learners are sitting in half-closed boxes and work individually with audio-visual programme (1988:420-424).

Hendrich mentions a room for the teachers of foreign languages to be one kind of teaching aids. It can be used as a storeroom of apparatuses and instruments which are not permanently installed in classrooms as well as of other teaching aids, for example, maps or videos. In this room may be developed and created new teaching aids by the teachers. Although the conditions differ from school to school, Hendrich remarks that the teaching aids and the access to them is necessary for effective and smooth work in a language classroom (1988:424-425).

Games are suggested by the scholars to be another effective teaching aid. "Games stoke a great urge to communicate in people and for that reason are excellent teaching methods" (Petty. 1996:196). The author writes that no other teaching method can cause that pupils are concentrating as much as they do when playing a game. Due to the interest and motivation pupils can develop a positive attitude towards the subject or even towards the teacher (1996:188). Hendrich claims:

Games in foreign language teaching are included in effective activities of mainly communicative character. They strengthen the interest in language; increase the motivation which in the connection with a healthy competitiveness leads to a higher activity of pupils and also to the increase of their self-reliance. Games help to create a foreign language atmosphere; have favourable influence on the formation of friendly relationship between the teacher and the pupils. (1988:356)

Games have apart from the role of teaching the children also the function of setting a positive atmosphere in the classroom and a positive attitude towards the teacher. When playing a game, the learners need to communicate and as Petty notes, there are hundreds of them and the teachers should be not afraid of inventing new games themselves. The author gives a few examples of them, for instance, pantomime, games where the learners have to throw a dice to learn numbers, or a game called A minute (talking about a topic for one minute), and many others (1996:196-202).



The usage of computers at schools is increasing nowadays and they can be considered to be an effective teaching aid as well. The learners seem to like working on computers; they can help not only to facilitate the learning to the learners, but also to the teachers when planning the lessons and creating new materials for their learners (Petty. 1996:291-297). In my opinion, computers are really helpful. The teacher can use internet as a source of very good ideas and activities which save her time and she can focus and work on other things, for example, planning the lessons.

Teaching aids are of a great importance in teaching and learning processes and there are many kinds of them. Petty even expresses the penetration of information into our brain in percentage. Information enters our brain through eyes in 87 %, through ears in 9 % and through other senses in 4 % (1996:271).

However, Hendrich suggests that “no teaching aid is allowed to divert the learners’ attention overly from the appointed aim” (1988:407). This is, in my opinion, a very important note for the teachers to remember. The author claims that every teacher should keep in mind the fact that even the usage of different kinds of teaching aids might lead to some kind of stereotype. Any excellent teaching aid can become commonplace and can even have a decline effect. Each lesson should be ‘different’ and should contain some surprising moment for the pupils. The kind of vivid energizing speed should not disappear out of the lessons. Teaching aids can help to the less lively teacher as they can increase the attractiveness of her lessons if she knows how to use them effectively (1996:396).

To summarize, learners of the teacher who does not incorporate teaching aids into her lesson will not achieve such a success in learning as those learners who have been taught by means of different kinds of teaching aids. Teaching aids support the learners’ memory and concentration during lessons, especially in young learner classes. The teacher can use many kinds of teaching aids which should be used in accordance with the theory of multiple intelligences. For instance, visual learners will appreciate visual aids like pictures, tables or notice boards and many others. Apart from visual aids there exist object aids (real objects), aural aids (all kinds of sonic recordings), textual materials (course books, collection of riddles), a language laboratory (a room equipped with a special technique apparatus), a language classroom

(equipped by requisite didactic technique instruments) and the room for the teachers of foreign languages (storeroom of other teaching aids).

Although the schools may have a restricted amount of resource of teaching aids, the teacher can, in my opinion, create many of them on her own and facilitate not only the process of learning but also the process of teaching. The learners appreciate teaching aids made by their teacher and enjoy the lesson as well as look forward to the next lesson, which is motivating not only for them, but also for the teacher. However, the teaching aids are of a great importance, the teacher should be aware of possible stereotype which may occur. She should try to incorporate something new into her lessons to make it 'different'. The most important thing is to know how to use the teaching aids effectively.

### **III. RESEARCH SECTION**

#### **3. Introduction to the Research**

##### **3.1. Aim of the Research**

The research section of this thesis aims at teaching English to young learners in real life. The emphasis is put on timing and concentration span in relation to variety of activities. Therefore, the researcher asked questions “Do the teachers of English respect young learners’ concentration span?” and “What are the means of providing variety of activities in young learners’ classes?”.

The research work attempts to reveal the reality of teaching English in young learner classes in the Czech Republic. The findings of this research should stress the importance of timing and variety in English lessons.

##### **3.2. The Background of the Research**

The researcher had been confronted with the problem of timing and concentration span of young learners during her clinical year teaching practice 2004/2005 at a primary school in the Czech Republic.

The research was completed at two primary schools in the Czech Republic from October 2005 to January 2006. The researcher observed 30 English lessons in total; five teachers were observed for six lessons each. The researcher observed 13 groups of learners: one group of second graders; three groups of third graders; five groups of fourth graders; and four groups of fifth graders. The observed learners were between seven and eleven years old. The number of learners in a group ranged from eight to twenty learners inclusive. Each lesson lasted 45 minutes.

##### **3.3. The Research Methodology**

This research is classified as small-scale research because the sample of subjects included in this research involved five teachers and 13 groups of learners. Due to its duration is the research classified as a short-term research because it took “several weeks or months” (Cohen and Manion. 1991:71).

This research is based on a quantitative analysis of the obtained data. The research categories had been chosen before the research was in progress; as a research method was chosen structured observation (Gavora.1996:16).

### 3.3.1. The Structured Observation

Gavora claims that “observation means watching activities of people, written record (registration or description) of this activity, its analysis and evaluation” (2000:76). Skalková specifies observation as a “purposeful and systematic perception of educational phenomena and processes leading to discovery of connexions of the observed reality”(1985:56). The purpose of observation is, according to Louis Cohen and Lawrence Manion, “to probe deeply and to analyse intensively the multifarious phenomena” (1991:125). Travers notes that “the majority of conclusions of educational research are based on repeated observations”(1969:157).

The observation is classified into “short-term and long-term” from the time viewpoint (Chráska. 1993:73). Among short-term observations belong observations lasting up to one lesson; that is 45 minutes in the Czech schools; they are used in everyday practice. Long-term observations extend over many years; they are termed “longitudinal” (1993:73).

If the observer attends the observation personally at the time of its course and meets the object of observation directly, the observation is termed “direct observation”; if the observer works with various messages, the observation is “indirect” (Chráska. 1993:73-74). Gavora notes that during direct observation, the observer should be sitting behind the learners. The best position is in the corner to disturb the learners as little as possible besides, the observer can see their faces (2000:78).

Cohen and Manion classify the observation into “participant observation and non-participant observation”(1991:125). The authors note, the participant observer “engages in the very activities he sets out to observe”, they further explain, “he is simply one of the group” (1991:125). The latter, they continue, “stands aloof from the group activities he is investigating and eschews group membership”(1991:125-127).

If the researcher adopts the method of observation, she must specify the recording of observation. Records enable the observer to return to the observed and collected data; they form the starting point of the subsequent analysis. To make an objective analysis, the record must be done directly during the observation or immediately afterward. The observer collects the data into structured observation sheets made beforehand. It is important to record the facts representing the exact situation accurately (Skalková. 1985:60-61).

The observer adopted a method of structured observation. She designed structured observation sheets before the real observation was in process. Because one observed unit did not extend over a lesson, that is 45 minutes; the observer was present at the observation personally; she was sitting in the corner and did not participate in the lesson; the observation belongs among short-term direct and non-participant observations.

### **3.3.1.1. The Process of Creating Observation Sheets**

The researcher gained experience of filling and creating observation sheets during her Clinical Year teaching practice. She observed tens of English lessons and created a few observation sheets herself.

The researcher designed the observation sheets in order to answer the questions “Do the teachers of English respect young learners’ concentration span?” and “What are the means of providing variety of activities in young learners’ classes?”. She created 7 categories: Description of the activity, Time teacher (T) gave instruction, Time activity lasted, Total time, Number of pupils involved, Pupils did/did not what T wanted them to do, How T dealt with the organizational stuff (latecomers, register book,...). Observation sheets encompass the note about the grade and the number of pupils in the group and the teacher; the teachers are marked by the capital letters of the alphabet: A, B, C, D, E.

The researcher piloted the observation sheet in one lesson. She used a stopwatch to measure the time and managed to fill in all categories briefly during the lesson. After the lesson the researcher added several notes into the observation sheet to make the brief data clear and complete. But the categories of Pupils did/did not what T wanted them to do, and How T dealt with the organizational stuff (latecomers, register book,...) seemed to appear not to answer the questions mentioned above; they seemed to be redundant and unimportant, but the researcher was interested in the outcomes. After the researcher discussed this issue with the supervisor she decided to keep the categories, but encompass the results to the appendices (see Appendix).

## **4. Data Analysis**

### **4.1. Analysis of Structured Observation**

This chapter deals with the analysis of the data collected in the observation sheets. It is separated into seven sections according to the focus of analysis: Analysis of Timing of Activities, Analysis of the On Task Time, Analysis of the Skills, Analysis of Multiple Intelligences, Analysis of Teaching Aids, Analysis of Games and Analysis of Organizational Forms. Every section deals with the account of results which is followed by a figure displaying the analysed data.

#### **4.1.1. Analysis of Timing of Activities**

To keep the learners concentrated and to draw their attention to the lesson, the activities must be kept short. The most suitable length of activities is considered the range of five to ten minutes (see 3.1.1. Activities & Timing). The researcher counted the number of activities in each lesson and classified them into three categories according to the time they lasted. She measured the time in minutes. As one activity is considered the time during which the teacher was giving instruction and the time during which the learners were working and completing the activity; that is TTT and OTT added up.

The researcher analysed the collected data in the form of a figure. She counted the number of activities (NA) in a lesson and classified them into three categories: activities lasting up to five minutes (0-5); activities lasting from 6 to 10 minutes (6-10); and activities lasting 11 and more minutes (11 and more) (see Fig. 1). The data in Fig. 1 represent the number of activities. To complete the legend of the Figure 1 (and all the following figures), T stands for a teacher, L for the number of a lesson of that particular T and G stands for the grade of the observed class.

The average number of activities per lesson was 10; it was exactly 10.3. The maximum number of activities was 20 in a lesson; they were kept very short; many of them lasted one or two minutes. The minimum number of activities per lesson was 6. In that lesson two activities lasted from 6 to 10 minutes and one activity lasted 18 minutes (see Fig. 1).

The activities lasting up to five minutes were most frequent. The average was 7 activities per lesson; exactly 7.3. The maximum number was 19 activities lasting up to five minutes in a lesson; that is the same case of a lesson as discussed above.

There was one lesson which encompassed no activity lasting five or less than five minutes (see Fig.1).

Activities lasting from 6 to 10 minutes were less common. Their average number was 3; exactly 2.83. The maximum number was 5; in five lessons were no activities lasting from 6 to 10 minutes. Activities lasting 11 and more minutes were not frequent. They occurred in five lessons. Majority of them lasted 12 minutes; one of them lasted 18 minutes because the activity was new for the children; they did not understand the instruction and the teacher had to explain it repeatedly (see Fig. 1).

Figure 1: Number of activities in the lessons and their length

<i>T</i>	<i>L</i>	<i>G</i>	<i>NA</i>	<i>0-5</i>	<i>6-10</i>	<i>11 and more</i>
<b>A</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>3</b>	12	10	1	1
	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	20	19	1	-
	<b>3</b>	<b>3</b>	12	9	3	-
	<b>4</b>	<b>4</b>	8	3	5	-
	<b>5</b>	<b>4</b>	10	8	1	1
	<b>6</b>	<b>5</b>	8	5	2	1
<b>B</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>4</b>	9	5	4	-
	<b>2</b>	<b>4</b>	10	7	3	-
	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	10	6	4	-
	<b>4</b>	<b>4</b>	6	3	2	1
	<b>5</b>	<b>4</b>	11	9	2	-
	<b>6</b>	<b>4</b>	7	-	7	-
<b>C</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>5</b>	13	13	-	-
	<b>2</b>	<b>5</b>	10	9	1	-
	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	9	9	-	-
	<b>4</b>	<b>4</b>	10	10	-	-
	<b>5</b>	<b>4</b>	10	10	-	-
	<b>6</b>	<b>5</b>	10	10	-	-
<b>D</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>4</b>	9	6	2	1
	<b>2</b>	<b>4</b>	8	3	5	-
	<b>3</b>	<b>3</b>	10	6	4	-

	<i>L</i>	<i>G</i>	<i>NA</i>	<i>0-5</i>	<i>6-10</i>	<i>11 and more</i>
	4	3	11	8	3	-
	5	5	9	5	4	-
	6	4	9	5	4	-
<b>E</b>	1	2	11	9	2	-
	2	3	8	6	2	-
	3	3	12	10	2	-
	4	4	9	5	4	-
	5	4	14	12	2	-
	6	5	14	12	2	-
<b>Ø</b>			10.3	7.3	2.83	0.66

#### 4.1.2. Analysis of the On Task Time

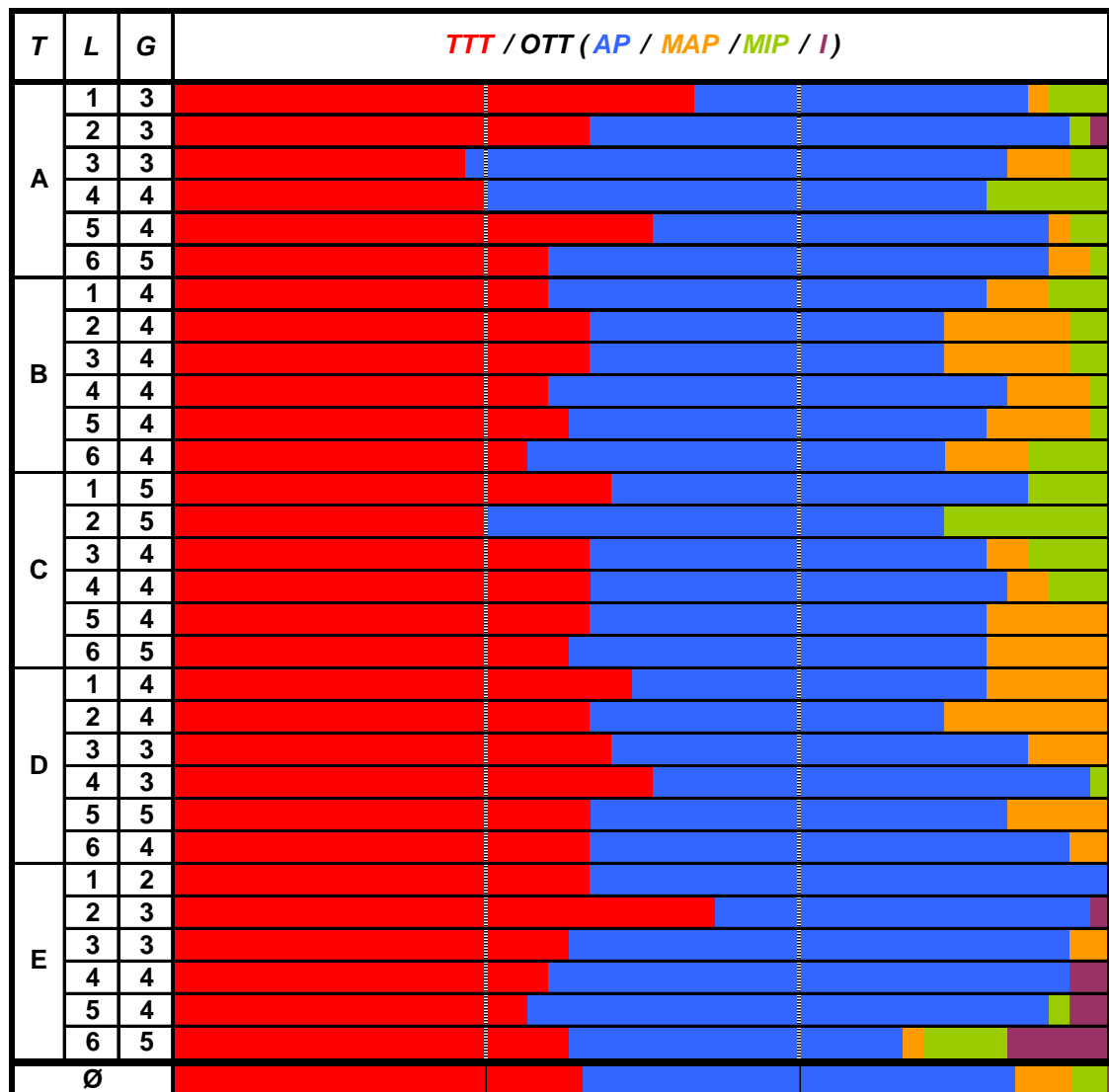
The researcher began the analysis of the collected data with the analysis of the actual time the learners were working during the lesson. Every observed lesson lasted 45 minutes and the researcher was interested in the actual time the learners were working. Because the lesson should be activity based (see page 24) and the teacher must give instructions before every activity, it cuts the actual time learners spent on completing the activity.

To find out the actual time the learners were working, the researcher divided the time of each lesson into TTT (teacher talking time) during which the teacher was giving instruction, asked questions or commented on the lesson and OTT (on task time) during which the learners were working on the tasks. OTT is further divided into four categories according to the number of learners who were productive during the activity; that is learners directly involved: AP (all pupils) involved, MAP (majority of pupils), MIP (minority of pupils) and I (individual) involved (see Fig. 2). The researcher highlighted the collected data in Figure 2 by means of colours. TTT is marked red; OTT is marked in four different colours, according to the number of involved learners: AP is marked blue, MAP orange, MIP green and I purple. Each line in Figure 2 denotes a 45 minute lesson and the colours denote the time devoted to TTT and OTT in minutes. The two vertical lines denote 15 minute intervals of the 45 minute lesson (see Fig. 2).



The average of TTT was 19.6 minutes. The maximum of TTT was 26 minutes in one lesson; the minimum of TTT was 14 minutes. Then, the average of OTT was 25.4 minutes; the maximum was 31 minutes and the minimum of OTT was 19 minutes in a lesson. From the four categories of OTT was AP the most frequent. The average time of AP was 20.7 minutes; maximum was 26 minutes, minimum was 16 minutes. The average time of MAP was 2.6 minutes; maximum 8 minutes, it was applied in 21 lessons. The average time MIP was 1.7 minutes; maximum was 8 minutes, it was applied in 19 lessons. The average of I was 0.4; maximum 5 minutes, it was applied in 5 of the 30 observed lessons (see Fig. 2).

Figure 2: TTT vs. OTT



### 4.1.3. Analysis of the Skills

The researcher classified the observed activities from the four skills viewpoint because one means of providing variety in an English lesson is to include speaking, listening, reading and writing (see 3.1.2. Variety of Activities). The researcher counted the actual time learners spent on every activity (OTT); that is the time during which the learners were working or completing an activity. She measured the time in minutes and added up the time intervals of activities developing the same skill. The researcher recorded the collected data into a figure. She used four different colours to distinguish the four skills; speaking is marked red, listening blue, reading orange and writing green colour. Each of the 30 lines in the figure denotes a 45 minute lesson. The colours denote minutes spent on activities developing the four skills. The two vertical lines denote 15 minute intervals of the 45 minute lesson (see Fig. 3).

It is quite complicated to differentiate the individual skills because they should be naturally integrated (see page 24). For example, the researcher considered dialogues as speaking, even though the learners do not only speak, but also listen to their partner. Reading and translating of an article is, for instance, marked only as reading, although the learners actually read and speak at the same time.

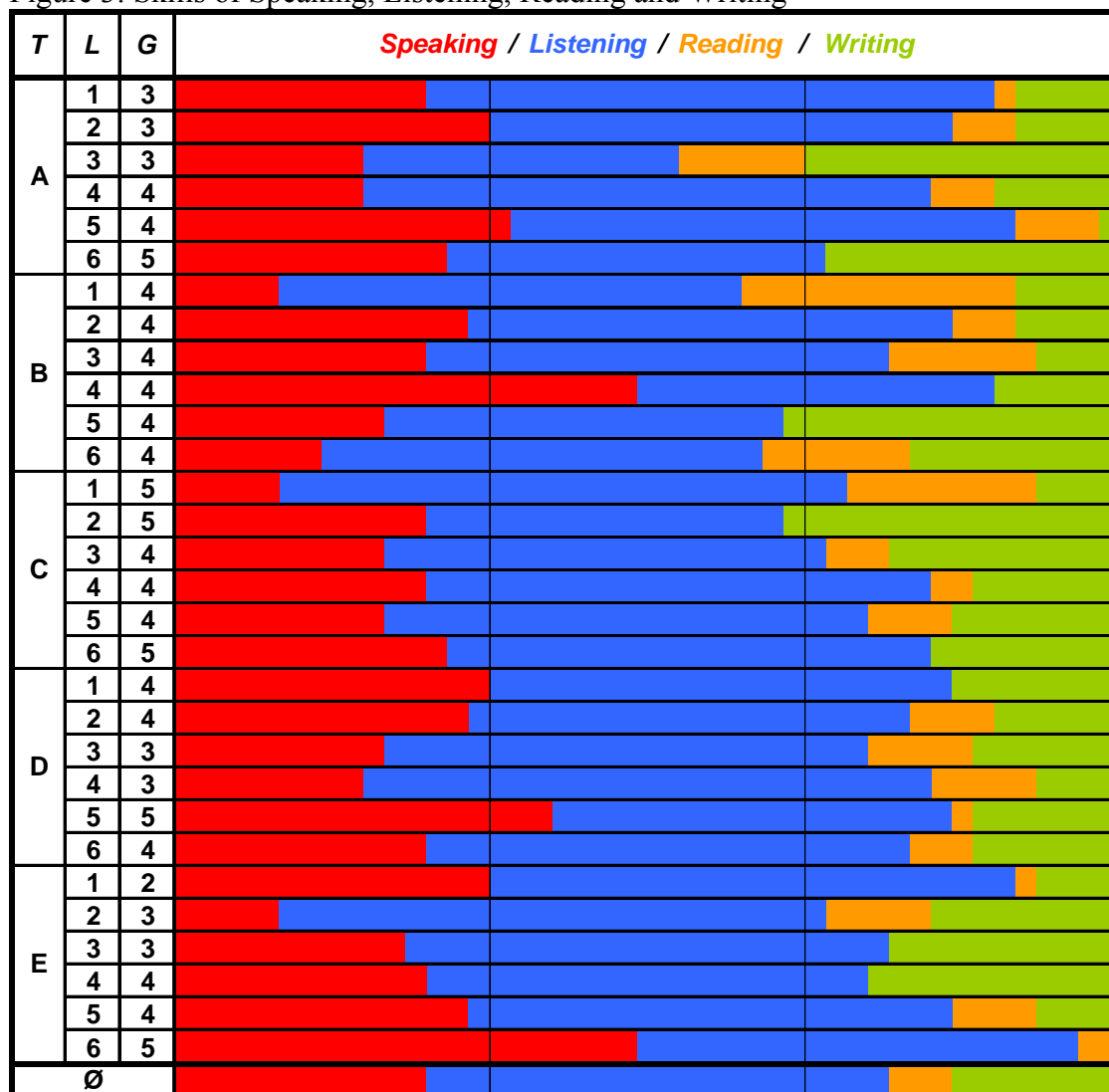
The skill of listening includes not only the time of listening activities, for example listening to the cassette player, but also the time the teacher was giving instructions (TTT). Some teachers gave instructions in English and some teachers used Czech language to give instructions. The researcher did not distinguish the usage of Czech and English language exactly because it was complicated work to do; teacher A used English approximately in 90% of TTT; teacher B used English approximately in 10% of TTT; teacher C used English approximately in 50% of TTT; teacher D used English approximately in 90% of TTT; and teacher E used English approximately in 10% of TTT. The average time of listening was 22 minutes per lesson. The minimum time of listening was 15 minutes; the maximum time was 27 minutes per lesson (see Fig. 3).

The skill of speaking includes activities like revision of vocabulary, naming things or simple repetitive activities because young learners are not able to speak English fluently. The skill of speaking was observed in all of the lessons. The average time of speaking was 12 minutes per lesson. The minimum time of speaking was five minutes (in three of the lessons); the maximum time was 22 minutes (in two of the lessons).

The skill of writing does not include only writing English words and sentences, but also other kinds of pencil and paper work, for instance, drawing, matching, colouring or sticking (see page 30). The average time of writing was eight minutes per lesson. Writing was not present in one of the 30 lessons; the maximum time was 16 minutes in two lessons and 15 minutes in one lesson (see Fig. 3).

The skill of reading does not include only silent reading, but also reading aloud because young learners are in a phase of learning to read and most of the reading is done aloud. The skill of reading has the lowest average time of all the four skills; it is three minutes per lesson. Reading was not present in eight of the 30 observed lessons. On the contrary, the maximum time of reading was 13 minutes in a lesson (see Fig. 3).

Figure 3: Skills of Speaking, Listening, Reading and Writing



All the four skills were present in 21 of the 30 observed lessons. Nine lessons encompassed only three skills; eight lessons did not encompass reading and one lesson did not encompass writing. There is no connection between the grades and the presence of all the four skills (see Fig. 3).

#### **4.1.4. Analysis of Multiple Intelligences**

Gardner's theory of seven distinct intelligences and its use can provide variety in an English lesson (see 2.2. Multiple Intelligences). The researcher classified the observed activities according to their basic description from the observation sheets into seven kinds of intelligences. She added up the times (times activities lasted) of activities developing the same kind of intelligence; she used the pattern of classification of activities described in the theoretical part of the diploma paper (see page 8). One activity often developed more than one kind of intelligence and the researcher included that time to all the intelligences developed by that activity. For example, if the learners sing a song about the body and they also mime what they sing about and this activity lasts two minutes, the researcher added two minutes to the Musical/rhythmic intelligence and two minutes to the Body/kinaesthetic intelligence as well.

The researcher analysed the collected data and recorded the findings into Fig. 4. She recorded the added time of activities in minutes into seven columns organised according to the kinds of multiple intelligences: Logical/mathematical (L/M), Visual/spatial (V/S), Body/kinaesthetic (B/K), Musical/rhythmic (M/R), Interpersonal (ITER), Intrapersonal (ITRA) and Verbal/linguistic (V/L) (see Fig. 4).

The most frequently used intelligence was Body/kinaesthetic. It was used for 10 minutes, exactly 9.9 minutes, per lesson on average. On the contrary, Musical/rhythmic intelligence was the least used; it was used for 2.5 minutes per lesson on average. In 9 lessons were represented all seven kinds of intelligences; in 18 lessons were represented six kinds of intelligences; and in 3 lessons were represented five kinds of intelligences (see Fig.4).

Fig.4: 7 Intelligences

<i>T</i>	<i>L</i>	<i>G</i>	<i>L/M</i>	<i>V/S</i>	<i>B/K</i>	<i>M/R</i>	<i>ITER</i>	<i>ITRA</i>	<i>V/L</i>
<b>A</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>3</b>	5	3	7.5	5.5	6	-	2
	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	6	4.5	6	2.5	10	-	9.5
	<b>3</b>	<b>3</b>	10	13	18.5	-	7	2	3.5
	<b>4</b>	<b>4</b>	8	8	7	5.5	14	-	10
	<b>5</b>	<b>4</b>	10	3	13	9	13	-	12
	<b>6</b>	<b>5</b>	5	5	9	-	14	9	2.5
<b>B</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>4</b>	5	5	9	7	5	-	11
	<b>2</b>	<b>4</b>	4	4	8	7	6	4	9
	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	4	4	4	3	-	8	14
	<b>4</b>	<b>4</b>	17	15	6	-	6	-	13
	<b>5</b>	<b>4</b>	9	17	16	2	-	-	4
	<b>6</b>	<b>4</b>	10	8	10	-	4	11	10
<b>C</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>5</b>	9	13.5	7	2	6	4.5	5.5
	<b>2</b>	<b>5</b>	16	12	9	2	-	6	17.5
	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	6	5	14	1	6	7	10
	<b>4</b>	<b>4</b>	14	6	9	1	8	8	7
	<b>5</b>	<b>4</b>	13	5	7	3	2	9	8
	<b>6</b>	<b>5</b>	11	8	7	1	-	9	8.5
<b>D</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>4</b>	16	8	8	-	8	2	10.5
	<b>2</b>	<b>4</b>	14	4	7	3	-	7	18
	<b>3</b>	<b>3</b>	7	12	15	2	-	9	10
	<b>4</b>	<b>3</b>	4	3	10	5	-	1	10
	<b>5</b>	<b>5</b>	12	19	7	1	4	1	8
	<b>6</b>	<b>4</b>	5	7	13	-	5	4	11.5
<b>E</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	4.5	11	12	4	4	-	4.5
	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	11	10	10	2	8	-	7
	<b>3</b>	<b>3</b>	7	13	9	2.5	2	2	7
	<b>4</b>	<b>4</b>	10	17	20	-	4	6	18.5
	<b>5</b>	<b>4</b>	5	16	6	4	5	-	13
	<b>6</b>	<b>5</b>	12	6	12.5	1	11	1	16
<b>Ø</b>			9	8.8	9.9	2.5	5.3	3.7	9.7

The findings reveal that the lessons are varied from the multiple intelligences viewpoint. There were at least five kinds of intelligences represented in each of the observed lessons. The representation of different kinds of intelligences depends on the nature of each lesson. For instance, whether the learners write a test or work in pairs or groups.

#### **4.1.5. Analysis of Teaching Aids**

Teaching aids make the lesson varied and attractive to the learners. They relate to the multiple intelligences theory; they are used in accordance with the adequate kind of intelligence. For instance, to develop the Musical/rhythmic intelligence the teacher needs musical instruments or cassette player.

The researcher classified teaching aids according to their kinds and use in a lesson: textual materials (TMA), visual aids (VIA), object aids (OBA), aural aids (AUA) and a language laboratory (LLAB) (see Fig. 5). She did not include language classroom because it is coincident to the term language laboratory and the researcher encountered only with the term language laboratory during the observations; a room for the teachers of foreign languages is not included because it is not in direct connection with the course of the lesson (see 3.2. Teaching Aids).

The most frequently used teaching aids were TMA: coursebook, notebook (learner's book for taking notes), various tags, cards or sheets of paper with written words on them, and so on. In each of the lessons was at least one kind of TMA. Among VIA belong: blackboard, pictures, cards with pictures or drawings, posters, maps, and so on. VIA were used in 23 lessons. OBA were used in 13 lessons; in majority they were classroom objects, objects brought by pupils, a soft toy, a ball, crayons, a dice, and a puppet. Objects brought by pupils and classroom objects are dealt with as being one teaching aid each. AUA were used in 23 lessons; they were cassette players and a piano used by teacher E in her lessons. LLAB was used in 5 lessons. One of the two schools did not have any LLAB (see Fig. 5).

The maximum was 8 teaching aids used in a lesson; the minimum was 3 teaching aids. The variety of teaching aids used in a lesson depends on the type of a lesson and activities prepared by the teacher.

Figure 5: Teaching Aids

<i>T</i>	<i>L</i>	<i>G</i>	<i>TMA</i>	<i>VIA</i>	<i>OBA</i>	<i>AUA</i>	<i>LLAB</i>
<b>A</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>3</b>	Coursebook, Song-lyrics tags	Pictures, cards, blackboard	-	Cassette player	-
	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	Coursebook, HW sheets, tags	Board, cards, drawings	-	Cassette player	yes
	<b>3</b>	<b>3</b>	Cards,sheets, notebook	Pictures,board	Classroom obj.	-	yes
	<b>4</b>	<b>4</b>	coursebook	blackboard	Ps brought obj.	Cassette player	-
	<b>5</b>	<b>4</b>	Coursebook, notebook	Board	Ps brought obj.	-	-
	<b>6</b>	<b>5</b>	Notebook,	Board, pictures	-	-	-
<b>B</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>4</b>	Tags, notebook, coursebook	-	-	Cassette player	-
	<b>2</b>	<b>4</b>	Coursebook, notebook	-	-	Cassette player	-
	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	Coursebook, notebook	blackboard	-	Cassette player	-
	<b>4</b>	<b>4</b>	Coursebook, notebook, sheet	-	Soft toy	-	-
	<b>5</b>	<b>4</b>	Coursebook, notebook	blackboard	-	Cassette player	-
	<b>6</b>	<b>4</b>	Coursebook, notebook	-	Classroom obj.	-	-
<b>C</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>5</b>	Notebook,cards, coursebook	blackboard	-	Cassette player	-
	<b>2</b>	<b>5</b>	Coursebook, notebook	blackboard	Classroom obj.	Cassette player	-
	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	Coursebook, notebook	blackboard	-	Cassette player	-
	<b>4</b>	<b>4</b>	Coursebook, notebook	-	Classroom obj.	Cassette player	-
	<b>5</b>	<b>4</b>	Coursebook, notebook	blackboard	-	Cassette player	-
	<b>6</b>	<b>5</b>	Notebook	pictures	Classroom obj.	Cassette player	-
<b>D</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>4</b>	Stickers coursebook, notebook	-	-	-	yes
	<b>2</b>	<b>4</b>	Coursebook, notebook	-	-	Cassette player	yes
	<b>3</b>	<b>3</b>	Coursebook, notebook	Poster, blackboard	-	Cassette player	-
	<b>4</b>	<b>3</b>	Coursebook, notebook	blackboard	-	Cassette player	-
	<b>5</b>	<b>5</b>	Coursebook, notebook	maps	-	Cassette player	-
	<b>6</b>	<b>4</b>	Coursebook, notebook	Poster, blackboard	ball	Cassette player	-
<b>E</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	Cards, coursebook	Pictures	crayons	piano	-
	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	Coursebook, notebook	Blackboard,	dice	piano	-
	<b>3</b>	<b>3</b>	Coursebook, notebook	blackboard pictures	-	Cassette player piano	-

	<i>L</i>	<i>G</i>	<i>TMA</i>	<i>VIA</i>	<i>OBA</i>	<i>AUA</i>	<i>LLAB</i>
	4	4	Coursebook, notebook	pictures	-	-	-
	5	4	Coursebook, notebook,sheets	blackboard	puppet	Cassette player	yes
	6	5	Notebook	blackboard	Classroom obj. Ps brought obj. ball	Cassette player	-

#### 4.1.6. Analysis of Games

The researcher aimed at the presence of games in the lesson because if the teacher includes games into the lesson plan, she provides variety in that lesson. Games increase interest in the subject and attract learners' attention. They are beneficial and involve the learners in the lesson (see pages 10, 29).

The researcher defines a game as a form of usually competitive activity with rules. She was interested in a number of games in a lesson and the time they lasted. She marked the time teacher was giving instructions how to play the game (IT) and the time learners spent playing the game (GT) because explaining the rules to learners may take more time than the actual play, which raises a question of effectiveness of games from the time viewpoint (see Fig. 6).

Games were present in 16 lessons; one of them contained two games. The longest game time was measured in lesson 5 taught by teacher A; IT was 4 minutes and GT was 9 minutes. Although the whole activity lasted 13 minutes, the learners were active and involved in the activity for the whole 13 minutes (see Fig. 6).

In two games IT lasted for longer time than GT. These two games were not conventional and the teacher had to explain the rules twice and thoroughly. On the other hand, they were something new and presented an attractive challenge to the learners. Once the rules are fixed the learners do not need thorough explanation next time and IT is short in the following lessons. On condition that the new game attracts the learners, it is effective to spend more time giving instructions.

During the games the learners seemed to be interested in them and there were no discipline problems. The presence of games fascinated the learners and made the lessons more exciting.



Figure 6: Games

<i>T</i>	<i>L</i>	<i>G</i>	<i>IT</i>	<i>GT</i>	<i>GAMES</i>
<b>A</b>	1	3	7	5	Ps have cards with a name + colour, music plays, Ps walk around, T says family/ colour and Ps must find 3 friends with the same word
	2	3	-	-	-
	3	3	-	-	-
	4	4	2	8	2 teams – noughts and crosses on the blackboard
	5	4	4	9	All Ps in the circle on the floor, clap hands and repeat words (dog, dog-cat, cat)
	6	5	3	5	2 teams write on the blackboard words connected to a topic in the time limit
<b>B</b>	1	4	-	-	-
	2	4	-	-	-
	3	4	-	-	-
	4	4	1	6	T throws a soft toy to P and say a Czech word, P translate and says another Czech word and throws the toy to another P, . . .
	5	4	-	-	-
	6	4	2	4	Simon says
<b>C</b>	1	5	1	1	“Kufr” – 1 P tries to guess the right name of a thing described by other Ps
	2	5	-	-	-
	3	4	1	2	“Kufr” – 1 P tries to guess the right name of a thing described by other Ps
	4	4	2	3	Simon says
	5	4	1	2	“Kufr” – 1 P tries to guess the right name of a thing described by other Ps
	6	5	1	2	a game to practise vocabulary
<b>D</b>	1	4	4	8	Ps have a sticker with a name of an animal on their backs, they must find out what animal they are
	2	4	-	-	-
	3	3	-	-	-
	4	3	-	-	-
	5	5	-	-	-
	6	4	-	-	-
<b>E</b>	1	2	2	4	2 games on the same basis – 2 teams compete in naming 1) animals and 2) colours
	2	3	5	4	2 teams, Ps throw a dice, according to instruction draw faces on the blackboard
	3	3	2	2	2 teams compete, drawing on the blackboard
	4	4	-	-	-

	<i>L</i>	<i>G</i>	<i>IT</i>	<i>GT</i>	<i>GAMES</i>
	5	4	-	-	-
	6	5	1	5	All Ps in the circle on the floor, clap hands and repeat numbers (4,4 -6,6 – 6,6-1,1)

#### 4.1.7. Analysis of Organizational Forms

Variety in an English lesson may be ensured by the use of various organizational forms of teaching: frontal teaching (FRT), individual work (INDW), pairwork (PW), and groupwork (GW). A change in organizational forms makes the lesson varied and interesting (see 3.1.3. Organizational Forms).

The researcher focused not only on the presence of organizational forms, but also on the time spent with them. She added up the individual times of the same organizational forms marked on the observation sheets; she added up the time intervals of on task time (OTT). The researcher used the classification of organizational forms mentioned above in the theoretical part of the thesis to tabulate them (see 3.1.3. Organizational Forms). She added one more category to the FRT, INDW, PW, and GW; she added whole class work category (WCW). As WCW are considered activities when the whole class cooperate. For instance, a game when all learners are playing together. This activity is neither frontal teaching nor any other kind of organizational forms (see Fig. 7).

The most frequently used organizational form was FRT. It lasted for 14 minutes, exactly 14.2, per lesson on average; the maximum was 24.5 minutes in a lesson; minimum was 4.5. On the contrary, the least used organizational form was GW. It lasted for 1.4 minutes per lesson on average; maximum was 8 minutes; GW was not observed in 21 lessons. INDW lasted for 6 minutes per lesson on average. PW lasted for 2 minutes per lesson on average and WCW lasted for 1.9 minutes per lesson on average (see Fig. 7).

1 lesson included all kinds of organizational forms. In 7 lessons were represented four kinds of organizational forms; 13 lessons included three kinds of organizational forms; 8 lessons included two kinds of organizational forms; and in 1 lesson was represented one organizational form – FRT (see Fig. 7).

Figure 7: Organizational Forms

<i>T</i>	<i>L</i>	<i>G</i>	<i>FRT</i>	<i>INDW</i>	<i>PW</i>	<i>GW</i>	<i>WCW</i>
<b>A</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>3</b>	13	2	1	-	5
	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	13	1.5	3	4	3
	<b>3</b>	<b>3</b>	20	5	-	-	7
	<b>4</b>	<b>4</b>	5	11.5	6	8	-
	<b>5</b>	<b>4</b>	11	-	4	-	9
	<b>6</b>	<b>5</b>	4.5	8	9	5	-
<b>B</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>4</b>	15	5	-	5	-
	<b>2</b>	<b>4</b>	9	9	6	-	-
	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	14	10	-	-	-
	<b>4</b>	<b>4</b>	15	6	-	-	6
	<b>5</b>	<b>4</b>	13	13	-	-	-
	<b>6</b>	<b>4</b>	18	6	-	-	4
<b>C</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>5</b>	14	4.5	-	-	6
	<b>2</b>	<b>5</b>	24.5	6	-	-	-
	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	6	12	4	-	2
	<b>4</b>	<b>4</b>	10	6	5	-	3
	<b>5</b>	<b>4</b>	19	5	-	-	2
	<b>6</b>	<b>5</b>	17.5	9	-	-	-
<b>D</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>4</b>	12.5	6	8	-	-
	<b>2</b>	<b>4</b>	19	6	-	-	-
	<b>3</b>	<b>3</b>	16	8	-	-	-
	<b>4</b>	<b>3</b>	22.5	-	-	-	-
	<b>5</b>	<b>5</b>	14	7	4	-	-
	<b>6</b>	<b>4</b>	13	6	-	-	5
<b>E</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	20	-	-	4	-
	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	6	5	4	4	-
	<b>3</b>	<b>3</b>	11	12.5	-	2	-
	<b>4</b>	<b>4</b>	12	12	4	-	-
	<b>5</b>	<b>4</b>	23	-	-	5	-
	<b>6</b>	<b>5</b>	16	-	2	4	5
<b>Ø</b>			14.2	6	2	1.4	1.9

## **5. Evaluation of the Results**

The previous chapter discusses the findings of the structured observations. This chapter attempts to answer the research questions: “Do the teachers of English respect young learners’ concentration span?” and “What are the means of providing variety of activities in young learners’ classes?”. To answer the questions, this chapter interprets and evaluates the findings of the research in connection with the theoretical section.

To answer the first question “Do the teachers of English respect young learners’ concentration span?”, the researcher analysed the structured observations from the number of activities viewpoint. To keep the learners concentrated, the teacher should be aware of the timing and the lessons should consist of activities which are kept short (see page 24). The most suitable time an activity should last is considered 5 to 10 minutes (see page 26). The observed lessons lasted 45 minutes and they consisted, on average, of 10 activities (see Fig.1, pages 46-47). The number of activities suggests that the lessons were activity based.

The positive finding is that 70% of the observed activities lasted up to 5 minutes and all activities, except five of them, lasted up to 10 minutes, which refers to the teachers’ awareness of the timing of the activities (see Fig. 1, pages 46-47). Three of the activities lasting more than 10 minutes were games; one was pairwork; and the fifth lasting 18 minutes was focused on speaking, but the learners did not understand the instructions and it took the teacher 9 minutes to explain to the learners what to do. This issue raises a question of effectiveness of this activity.

If a lesson lasts 45 minutes, it seems that an activity ongoing 18 minutes takes too much time. On the contrary, it will not take so long to explain the instructions to the learners the following lessons because they will be familiar with the instructions from the previous lesson and they will concentrate on the activity itself (see page 27). Besides, this was the only activity in that lesson that was new to the learners (see page 29). From the long-term perspective the inclusion of this activity into the lesson seems to be an appropriate step. In the cases of games and pairwork mentioned above the timing was wise because the instructions took 3 or 4 minutes and the activities involved all learners, who seemed to be interested in the activities; the researcher did not notice any discipline problems.

The timing of activities, as mentioned previously, relates to the time teacher gives instructions. The instruction time and the time the teacher asks questions or continues the lesson (teacher talking time) consumes a great amount of the whole lesson; it takes 19.6 minutes per lesson on average (see Fig. 2, page 48). The learners are passive during this time. It may seem that for the rest of the lesson the learners are active. But this is not truth in reality because it occurs that during a few of the activities some learners are still passive.

During the activities when, for example, the teacher asks questions and individual learners respond or when a few learners perform their dialogues in front of the class, the rest of the class seems to be listening. These learners are not directly involved in the activity and it is presumable that they will not keep attention as much as the learners who are directly involved; learners who answer the questions or perform the dialogues. The time when all learners were active was almost identical with the teacher talking time (see Fig. 2, page 48). That indicates frequent involvement of all pupils.

During the teacher talking time the teacher usually stands in front of the class; this approach is called frontal teaching. The teacher makes sure that the learners hear what she says to them (see page 31). The analysis of the proportion of organizational forms in the lessons deals with the on task time only; that means it does not include the teacher talking time (see page 57). The findings reveal that the usage of organizational forms in English lessons was uneven. Frontal teaching dominated whereas pairwork and especially groupwork were used seldom. Pairwork was used by all teachers, but by teachers A and E the most; they often included groupwork in their lessons as well, while teachers C and D did not use it whatsoever. The proportion of the usage of organizational forms in English lessons seems to vary from teacher to teacher (see Fig. 7, page 58).

Although groupwork and pairwork may be the source of discipline problems, they are beneficial not only as a means of providing variety, but also as fundamentals for conventions and opportunities to develop social relationships among the learners (see page 33). Consequently, they develop the interpersonal intelligence. To provide a balance of the organizational forms in the English lessons, the teachers should incorporate pairwork and groupwork more often into their lessons. Nevertheless,

if the researcher added up the teacher talking time and the time spent on frontal teaching, she gained the final time of frontal teaching in an average English lesson.

Furthermore, the teacher talking time seems to correspond to the time devoted to listening, which took almost half of the whole lesson, exactly 22 minutes per a lesson on average. Although the time of listening includes not only teacher talking time, but also time devoted to listening activities, the majority of the whole category of listening forms teacher talking time (see Fig. 3, page 50). On condition that the teacher uses English during the teacher talking time, which facilitates the acquisition of the target language, it may be considered beneficial. But if the teacher speaks only Czech, it cuts the time of the 45 minute lesson dedicated to the English language, on average, to 23 minutes during which the learners seem to participate actively in the lesson.

Since the skill of listening occupied a half of the whole lesson, on average, the other three skills shared the second half of it (see Fig. 3, page 50). The proportion of the skills in a lesson depends on the character of the individual lesson. For example, if the learners write a test, rewrite vocabulary from the blackboard, draw a picture or a chart, the proportion of the skill of writing increases.

The usage of individual skills relates to the usage of various teaching aids, which support the learning. For instance, the teacher used cassette player in the lessons that included listening activities; to practice reading, the learners needed coursebooks, sheets or cards with some text; the learners needed notebooks, coursebooks or the blackboard for writing; and so on (see Fig. 3, page 50 and Fig. 5, pages 54-55 ).

Not only do the teaching aids correspond to the skills, but also to the multiple intelligences (see page 35). For example, in the lessons with a high amount of the activities developing the visual/spatial intelligence were used the teaching aids supporting this kind of intelligence: various textual materials (coursebooks, sheets), visual aids (pictures, maps) or object aids (classroom objects, a soft toy) (see teacher A, lesson 3 and teacher D, lesson 5 in Fig.5, pages 54-55 and Fig.7, page 58). A cassette player and a piano were used in the lessons which included the activities developing the musical/rhythmic intelligence, and so on (see Fig. 5 pages 54-55 and Fig.7, page 58).

There emerges a connection between the presence of pairwork, groupwork or whole class work and the interpersonal intelligence. In the lessons where the learners worked in pairs, groups or cooperated as a whole class was recorded development

of the interpersonal intelligence; the time the learners spent on developing the interpersonal intelligence was adequate to the time learners spent on pairwork, groupwork and whole class work (see Fig. 4, page 52 and Fig. 7, page 58).

The development of the interpersonal intelligence seems to be connected not only to the occurrence of pairwork or groupwork, but also to the occurrence of games in the English lessons. The games help to the teacher to attract the learners' attention (see pages 10 and 29). Furthermore, they support the development of social relationships among the learners because the learners are often forced to cooperate with their classmates (see page 33). The time spent on the games is reflected in the time developing the interpersonal intelligence (see Fig. 6, pages 56-57 and Fig. 4, page 52).

There seems to be a link not only between the games and the interpersonal intelligence, but also between the games and the other kinds of intelligences. For example, the games, in which the learners are moving, support the development of the body/kinaesthetic intelligence (see Fig. 6, pages 56-57 and Fig. 4, page 52). The games like "noughts and crosses" or the games when the learners clap their hands and repeat words (see teacher A, lesson 5 in Fig. 6, pages 56-57) support the development of the logical/mathematical intelligence. The visual/spatial intelligence may be developed by the games like the already mentioned "noughts and crosses", and so on.

To summarise, the activities were kept short and they varied in many aspects, which attracted the learners' attention. The variety of the lessons was provided by a change in the four skills; a change in the seven kinds of multiple intelligences and the use of miscellaneous teaching aids; by the integration of the games into the lesson; and by a change in the organizational forms.

The findings of the research revealed that the teachers were aware of the learners' concentration span because they presented lessons based on short activities which differed in many aspects. The answer to the second research question: "What are the means of providing variety of activities in young learners' classes?" is described in the paragraphs above; the skills, multiple intelligences, teaching aids, games, organizational forms and their change can provide variety in the English lessons. However, to present lessons which are more attractive, the teachers should include games, pairwork and groupwork more frequently.

#### **IV. CONCLUSION**

In the theoretical section of this thesis is discussed the importance of timing of activities and their variety in young learner classes. The scholars are usually consistent in their opinions on this issue. However, the purpose of this thesis is to reveal the real-life situation in the Czech schools.

The results of the research reveal that the English lessons are activity based and teachers are aware of the timing of activities. They present lessons which consist of activities lasting mainly up to ten minutes to keep the learners concentrated, which is the time approved by the scholars. Furthermore, the activities vary in many aspects, which attract the learners' attention.

The teachers present lessons based on activities developing at least three of the skills of speaking, listening, reading and writing. They attempt to include tasks which develop more than five of the seven distinct intelligences. Simultaneously, they are aware of the benefit of various teaching aids, which facilitate the learning to the learners, because the teaching aids are widely used in the English lessons. The presence of games is not as common as the presence of teaching aids, though they attract the learners' attention and make the lessons more interesting for the learners. Moreover, the change in organizational forms, which present one of the means of providing variety in the English lessons, is not as widespread as it should be. The presence of pairwork and groupwork is rather scarce.

Thus, the teachers in young learner classes respect the young learners' needs. The real-life teaching reflects the scholars' opinions discussed above in the theoretical section in many directions. Because the young learners have short concentration span, the teachers attempt to attract their attention by presenting lessons based on short activities which vary in many aspects. However, to make the lessons more attractive, the teachers should include games, pairwork and groupwork more frequently.



## V. RESUMÉ

Tato diplomová práce se zabývá výukou anglického jazyka u žáků mladšího školního věku. Hlavní pozornost je věnována otázce udržení pozornosti a především délce učebních aktivit a jejich různorodosti. Teorie této problematiky, která je diskutována v první části diplomové práce, je následně porovnávána se skutečnou situací na základních školách v České republice.

První kapitola definuje kategorii „žáci mladšího školního věku“. Tato kategorie zahrnuje žáky navštěvující první stupeň základní školy. To znamená od žáků, kteří začali navštěvovat první třídu, až po žáky pátých tříd včetně. Diskutován je psychologický vývoj žáků mladšího školního věku, mezi kterými se mohou vyskytovat rozdíly v mnoha aspektech, přestože navštěvují stejný ročník základní školy. V jedné první třídě se mohou sejít žáci šestiletí i sedmiletí a dokonce i žáci starší. Faktem zůstává, že mladší děti z téhož ročníku jsou oproti starším v nevýhodě. Všechny rozdíly však nejsou závislé na věku dítěte. Každý člověk je osobnost a jako osobnost se také jinak vyvíjí a dospívá.

S osobností jedince souvisí i teorie vícenásobné inteligence, jejíž autorem je Howard Gardner. Tato teorie je postavena na myšlence, že jedinci mají přinejmenším sedm různých inteligencí, které se mohou během života rozvinout. Každý jedinec má vyvinutou některou z inteligencí více a jinou méně. Učitel by měl tuto skutečnost respektovat a připravit hodinu tak, aby vyhovovala všem žákům bez ohledu na dominantní inteligenci. Hodina by tudíž měla obsahovat aktivity, které rozvíjí všech sedm druhů inteligence.

Třetí podkapitola pojednává o udržení pozornosti u žáků mladšího školního věku. Děti udrží pozornost a dokáží se soustředit po značně kratší dobu než dospělí lidé. Z toho důvodu by se měly vyučovací hodiny ve třídách žáků mladšího školního věku skládat z aktivit, které jsou krátké a žáci se na ně mohou soustředit po celou dobu jejich trvání. Děti se učí novým věcem rychle a stejně rychle je také zapomínají. Učitel by proto měl připravit hodiny, které jsou nenáročné a jednoduché a jejichž velkou část tvoří opakování již známých věcí. Vhodná motivace žáků pomáhá prodloužit dobu, po kterou jsou schopni se soustředit.

Podle Čápa je motivace jakýsi prvotní popud k učení. Žákovi, který je motivován, půjde učení lépe než žákovi, který je motivován málo nebo dokonce vůbec. Z tohoto

důvodu by měl učitel žáky neustále motivovat, aby si získali kladný vztah k předmětu, v tomto případě k anglickému jazyku. Způsobů, jak motivovat žáky, je celá řada. Jedním z nich je takzvaná vnější motivace, jež je obvykle spojena s nějakou odměnou, kterou se žák snaží získat. V případě žáků mladšího školního věku může být touto odměnou razítko nebo obrázek. Pokud žák studuje bez očekávání jakékoliv odměny z vnějšího prostředí, ale pouze z důvodu zájmu o předmět, v tomto případě o anglický jazyk, jedná se o motivaci vnitřní. Způsobem jak žáky motivovat může být například zajištění příjemného prostředí při výuce, dobrý vztah mezi učitelem a žáky a samozřejmě učitelova znalost anglického jazyka. Postoj rodičů vůči žákovu školnímu výkonu má také obrovský dopad na motivaci, zejména u malých dětí. Ztráta motivace se může negativně odrazit ve výsledcích žáka.

Druhá kapitola pojednává nejen o výuce anglického jazyka u žáků mladšího školního věku, ale i tom jak se tyto žáci cizí jazyk učí. Této problematice se věnoval Stephen Krashen, který rozlišil podvědomé osvojování jazyka a vědomé učení se cizímu jazyku. Děti mají schopnost učit se podvědomě a učitel by měl tohoto faktu při výuce využít. Vhodné jsou aktivity, u nichž se žáci snaží uhodnout slovo, které si myslí jejich spolužák. Při této aktivitě se děti soustředí na odhalení správného slova a ne na fráze, které při tom používají a tudíž si je podvědomě osvojují. Tento proces je podobný procesu osvojování mateřského jazyka malými dětmi, aniž by se ho vědomě učili.

Následující podkapitola se zabývá částmi vyučovací hodiny. Každá hodina má několik fází, přičemž každá fáze má svá specifika. Velká většina hodin anglického jazyka má následující fáze v tomto pořadí: úvod, opakování již známého učiva, vysvětlení učiva nového, procvičování nového učiva a přezkoušení vědomostí žáků. Výhoda zavedeného systému je v tom, že žáci vědí, co bude v hodině následovat, a mohou se soustředit pouze na úkol, na němž pracují. Na druhou stranu tento rutinní systém může způsobit, že hodiny přestanou být pro žáky zajímavé a začnou se v hodinách nudit.

Vyučovací hodinu lze rozdělit nejen na fáze, ale i na jednotlivé aktivity. Aktivitou je myšleno to, co děti v hodině skutečně dělají. Vyučovací hodiny by se u žáků mladšího školního věku měly skládat z krátkých aktivit. Střídání těchto aktivit napomáhá udržení pozornosti žáků. Náročnost aktivit by měla odpovídat znalostem žáků, protože pokud je aktivita pro žáky velmi snadná, není pro ně výzvou a mohou se cítit podceňeni. Pokud

je aktivita naopak velmi obtížná a žáci nejsou schopni ji zvládnout, mohou nezdár považovat za své selhání. Každá hodina by měla obsahovat různorodé aktivity, které rozvíjí všechny čtyři jazykové dovednosti. Přestože děti neumějí psát, jsou schopné zvládnout aktivity podobné psaní jako je kreslení, vystřihování nebo lepení obrázků.

Další podkapitola se věnuje časovému faktoru ve vyučování. Jedna vyučovací hodina trvá 45 minut, ale pro žáky mladšího školního věku by byla vhodnější hodina kratší, například hodina trvající pouze 20 minut. V tomto případě by pro žáky bylo mnohem snazší udržet pozornost po celou dobu trvání vyučovací hodiny. Jednotlivé aktivity by měly trvat okolo pěti minut, maximálně deset minut. Po této době se žáci přestávají soustředit a pokud tuto skutečnost učitel zaznamená, měl by aktivitu ukončit. Důležité je jednotlivé aktivity začleňovat do hodin opakovaně, protože žáci se pak mohou soustředit pouze na samotnou aktivitu a ne na její pravidla.

Kromě krátké doby trvání by aktivity ve vyučovací hodině měly být také různorodé, aby hodina byla pestrá a pro žáky přitažlivá. Hodina by měla začínat jednoduššími aktivitami a postupně přecházet k obtížnějším. Přestože se žáci rádi učí novým věcem, měla by být většina aktivit v hodině žákům již známá. Různorodost aktivit nespočívá ve změnách tématu aktivit, ale ve změnách nároků na děti, přičemž téma hodiny zůstává stále stejné.

Způsobů jak udělat hodinu pestrou je spousta. Učitel by měl začlenit do hodiny aktivity rozvíjející všechny jazykové dovednosti. Hodinu udělá pestrou i střídání organizačních forem v hodině. To znamená začlenit nejen aktivity, při kterých učitel stojí před žáky a řídí třídu, ale i aktivity při nichž žáci pracují ve dvojicích nebo spolupracují ve skupinkách. Přestože práce ve skupinách bývá občas provázána problémy s kázní, poskytuje žákům příležitost ke komunikaci v cizím jazyce a dává základy společenským pravidlům.

Poslední kapitola teoretické části se věnuje učebním pomůckám, které podporují proces učení a představují možnost udělat hodinu pestrou a zajímavou. Využití učebních pomůcek souvisí s vícenásobnou inteligencí, již pomáhají rozvíjet. Učiteli se naskýtá pestrá škála různých druhů pomůcek ve formě textů, obrazů, skutečných předmětů, kazetových nahrávek, anebo samotná místnost určená k výuce cizích jazyků, takzvaná jazyková laboratoř.

Praktická část je věnována výzkumu, který probíhal od října 2005 do ledna 2006 na dvou základních školách v České republice. Diplomantka se při výzkumu zaměřila na vyučovací hodiny z hlediska typů a časových parametrů učebních aktivit. Cílem výzkumu bylo zjistit, zda tyto parametry odpovídají potřebám žáků mladšího školního věku a zda učitelé tyto potřeby zohledňují při plánování a realizaci vyučovací hodiny. Výsledky výzkumu následně zodpověděly otázky: „Respektují učitelé anglického jazyka schopnost krátkodobé koncentrace u žáků mladšího školního věku?“ a „Jaké možnosti má učitel k dispozici, aby připravil pestrou hodinu pro žáky mladšího školního věku?“.

Výzkumnou metodou bylo zvoleno cílené pozorování. Diplomantka pozorovala celkem 30 vyučovacích hodin vedených pěti různými učiteli. Pozorování žáci navštěvovali druhý, třetí, čtvrtý a pátý ročník základních škol. Všechny pozorované hodiny trvaly 45 minut. Zvolená metoda cíleného pozorování patří do kategorie krátkodobých, přímých a nezúčastněných pozorování.

Diplomantka si vytvořila vlastní protokol pozorování, který obsahoval sedm kategorií: popis aktivity; čas, po který učitel dával žákům instrukce; čas, po který se žáci věnovali samotné aktivitě; celkový čas, po který aktivita trvala (včetně instrukcí); počet žáků aktivně zapojených do aktivity; kategorii zaznamenávající, zda se žáci věnovali aktivitě po celou dobu jejího trvání a kategorii zaznamenávající, kdy učitel zapisoval údaje do třídní knihy (tato kategorie se výzkumu přímo netýká, ale diplomantka ji zařadila z důvodu vlastního zájmu o tuto skutečnost).

Po dokončení sběru dat proběhla jejich následná analýza. Analyzovaná data byla rozdělena do sedmi oblastí podle zkoumaných jevů. Analýza časování aktivit se zabývala počtem aktivit v hodině a jejich délkou. Čas, po který žáci sami pracovali byl porovnán s časem, během kterého jim učitel dával instrukce. Analýza jazykových dovedností se zabývala dobou, po kterou byly tyto dovednosti rozvíjeny. Následná analýza vícenásobné inteligence poměřovala časy aktivit, které rozvíjely jednotlivé druhy inteligence. Analýza učebních pomůcek mapovala pomůcky, které byly v hodinách použity. Další analýza se zabývala četností výskytu her v hodinách a analýza použitých organizačních forem se věnovala jejich časovému zastoupení v hodině. Analyzovaná data byla zaznamenána v tabulkách.

Výsledky získané výzkumem byly vyhodnoceny v páté kapitole. Pozorované hodiny se sestávaly z aktivit, které, až na výjimky, netrvaly déle než doporučených deset minut. Tato skutečnost svědčí o snaze učitelů sestavovat hodinu z krátkých aktivit tak, aby se žáci byli schopni soustředit po celou dobu vyučování.

Učební aktivity byly většinou zaměřeny na rozvoj všech čtyř jazykových dovedností a na alespoň pět ze sedmi druhů vícenásobné inteligence. V hodinách byly použity pomůcky v souladu s aktivitami rozvíjejícími výše zmíněné druhy inteligence. Výskyt her v hodině by však mohl být vyšší, neboť napomáhají k udržení pozornosti žáků a dělají hodinu pro žáky přitažlivější. Se zvýšeným počtem her v hodině by se také zvýšil počet aktivit rozvíjejících interpersonální inteligenci a tudíž i sociální komunikaci mezi žáky. S nízkým počtem aktivit rozvíjejících interpersonální inteligenci souvisí i řídké se vyskytující práce ve dvojicích nebo ve skupinkách.

Výzkum odhalil, že časové parametry vyučovací hodiny odpovídají potřebám žáků mladšího školního věku. Hodiny anglického jazyka byly pestré v mnoha směrech. Učitelé by však do hodin měli zařadit častěji hry a ve větší míře využívat práce žáků ve dvojicích a ve skupinách.

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# Appendix 1





# Appendix 2





# Appendix 3





## Lesson framework

<b>Phase</b>	<b>Aim</b>	<b>Activities</b>	<b>Place</b>
Introduction			
Phase One <i>Class activities</i> Whole class involved in the same activity; all together, in groups or in pairs	Revision of previous activities Teaching new language Explanation of individual activities, through reading, writing, handwork, to be consolidated in Phase Two	Rhymes, songs, finger plays, games and story telling	Sitting informally on the floor round the teacher if at all possible
Phase Two <i>Individual activities</i> Working as individuals or in groups	Consolidating language previously experienced Completing activities at own level and speed	Reading, writing, spelling, colouring, handwork	Sitting in own desk or at a table
Phase Three <i>Class activities</i> Whole class involved in the same activity, working in a class or in groups	Further consolidating experiences	Acting, puppets, language games of various types	In an open space or sitting in groups
Ending			



## **Organizational Stuff and Discipline Problems**

The researcher was confronted during her Clinical Year practice with discipline problems (DP). They can destroy the lesson, even though it is well planned. The question of discipline problems is not directly connected to the theme of this diploma paper but the researcher deals with it from the time viewpoint. Dealing with discipline problems may take a long time, particularly if they keep appearing in the lesson continually. The researcher was often confronted with the discipline problems at the beginning of the lesson when the learners were not ready for the lesson (BL). Dealing with the discipline problems during the lesson (DL) is less common.

Filling in the register book (RB) is not in direct connection with this thesis too. The researcher was interested whether the teachers fill in the register book during the lesson and make this process of filling it part of the lesson by asking the organizational questions in English (PL); or if they fill it in after the lesson (NL) or in the lesson but during the individual work of learners (NP).

Figure 8: Organizational Stuff and Discipline Problems

<i>T</i>	<i>L</i>	<i>G</i>	<i>RB</i>			<i>DP</i>	
			<i>PL</i>	<i>NP</i>	<i>NL</i>	<i>BL</i>	<i>DL</i>
<b>A</b>	1	3	☺			1	-
	2	3	☺			0,5	20s
	3	3			☺	1	60s
	4	4	☺			0,5	-
	5	4			☺	1	-
	6	5	☺			1	-
<b>B</b>	1	4			☺	0,5	-
	2	4	☺			-	20s
	3	4	☺			-	40s
	4	4			☺	0,5	-
	5	4			☺	0,5	20s
	6	4			☺	0,5	-
<b>C</b>	1	5			☺	0,5	-
	2	5		☺		-	-
	3	4			☺	-	-
	4	4			☺	-	-
	5	4			☺	-	-
	6	5			☺	-	40s
<b>D</b>	1	4		☺		-	-
	2	4			☺	-	-
	3	3		☺		0,5	-
	4	3		☺		0,5	-
	5	5		☺		-	-
	6	4		☺		0,5	-
<b>E</b>	1	2			☺	1	-
	2	3			☺	0,5	-
	3	3			☺	-	-
	4	4			☺	1	40s
	5	4			☺	1	20s
	6	5			☺	1	-

## TIMING AND VARIETY OF ACTIVITIES

### OBSERVATION SHEET

Grade: \_\_\_\_\_

Number of pupils: \_\_\_\_\_

Teacher: \_\_\_\_\_

Brief description of the activity On task behaviour	Time T gave instruction	Time activity lasted	Total time	Involvement of pupils amount of Ps involved involvement description	Pupils did / did not what T wanted them to do all the time activity lasted	How T dealt with the organiz. stuff (latecomers, register book notes, . . .)

Brief description of the activity On task behaviour	Time T gave instruction	Time activity lasted	Total time	Involvement of pupils amount of Ps involved involvement description	Pupils did / did not what T wanted them to do all the time activity lasted	How T dealt with the organiz. stuff (latecomers, register book notes, . . .)
<b>Total time</b>						



## ÚDAJE PRO KNIHOVNICKOU DATABÁZI

Název práce	Výuka anglického jazyka u žáků mladšího školního věku
Autor práce	Veronika Janková
Obor	Učitelství anglického jazyka pro základní školy
Rok obhajoby	2007
Vedoucí práce	PaedDr. Monika Černá, Ph.D.
Anotace	Práce se zabývá problematikou výuky anglického jazyka u žáků mladšího školního věku. Teoretická část práce se soustředí na otázku udržení pozornosti a především na délku učebních aktivit a jejich různorodost. Výzkum se zabývá otázkou, zda pozorované vyučovací hodiny odpovídají potřebám žáků z hlediska typů a časových parametrů učebních aktivit.
Klíčová slova	Výuka anglického jazyka Žáci mladšího školního věku Délka udržení pozornosti Vícenásobná inteligence Motivace Učební aktivity Časování Učební pomůcky Organizační formy výuky