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FACULTY OF ARTS AND PHILOSOPHY**

Teaching English Pronunciation to Young Learners - Focus on Accuracy

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

Diplomandka se ve své práci zaměří na jeden z aspektů rozvoje komunikativní kompetence v anglickém jazyce u žáků mladšího školního věku, a to na zvukovou podobu cílového jazyka a její osvojování. V teoretické části práce bude nejprve diskutovat specifika procesů osvojování cizího jazyka u žáků této věkové skupiny, dále stručně a s ohledem na cíl práce představí vybrané charakteristiky anglické výslovnosti. Následně diplomandka shrne chyby v anglické výslovnosti typické pro české mluvčí a uvede typy učebních aktivit pro osvojení si správné výslovnosti. Cílem empirického šetření bude prostřednictvím observací zjistit, jaké aktivity učitelé používají pro výuku výslovnosti u žáků mladšího školního věku, jaké nepřesnosti se ve výslovnosti žáků vyskytují a jaké způsoby korekce těchto nepřesností učitelé využívají.

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Tímto bych velmi ráda poděkovala vedoucí mé diplomové práce, PaedDr. Monice Černé, Ph.D., vedení základní školy, na které byl proveden výzkum, a rovněž mé rodině a blízkým, kteří mi byli oporou po celou dobu mého studia.

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Souhlasím s prezenčním zpřístupněním své práce v Univerzitní knihovně.

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ABSTRACT:

This thesis deals with the issue of teaching English pronunciation to young learners with the focus on accuracy. The stress is put on the pupils at the age from nine to eleven attending the third, fourth and fifth grades of a primary school. In the theoretical part, basic characteristics of English pronunciation are introduced. Then, the author of this thesis defines the term “young learners” and states basic developmental stages this particular age group of learners pass through. In the following chapters of the theoretical part the author mentions suitable techniques and activities used for improving English pronunciation and then she gives a summary of common pronunciation errors of Czech learners. The practical part of this thesis is aimed at observing of what pronunciation activities teachers use and also at young learners’ pronunciation errors and the ways how these errors can be corrected.

Key words: pronunciation, young learners, errors, correction, activity

ABSTRAKT:

Tato diplomová práce se zabývá zvukovou podobou a osvojením anglického jazyka se zaměřením na přesnost u žáků mladšího školního věku. Hlavní zřetel je kladen na žáky ve věku od devíti do jedenácti let navštěvující třetí, čtvrté a páté ročníky základních škol. V teoretické části, autorka nejdříve představuje základní charakteristiky anglické výslovnosti. Poté je definován termín “žák mladšího školního věku” a uvedeny jsou rovněž vývojová stádia, kterými tato příslušná věková skupina žáků prochází. V následujících kapitolách autorka uvádí vhodné techniky a aktivity sloužící k osvojení a rozvoji anglické výslovnosti a shrnuje časté chyby, které jsou typické v anglické výslovnosti pro české žáky. Praktická část diplomové práce je zacílena na zjištění, jaké typy aktivit sloužících k rozvoji výslovnosti žáků mladšího školního věku v hodinách anglického jazyka učitelé využívají. Dále pak na chyby ve výslovnosti žáků a způsoby, jak mohou být tyto chyby opraveny.

Klíčová slova: výslovnost, žáci mladšího školního věku, chyby, korekce, activities

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1. Introduction

We live in the modern world of the 21st century when many new opportunities and chances are offered. People can easily visit various foreign countries, learn about different cultures, customs or traditions, work abroad, meet new friends and get valuable experience. However, to be able to communicate with people of different states, we need to learn a foreign language and it is the English which became the international language that is learnt, understood and spoken all over the world.

In the Czech republic, the English language is in most of the cases introduced to learners at the primary schools for the first time but what some of these learners can possible discover when they grow up and start to study English at universities is that the area of teaching English pronunciation is often rather neglected at primary schools and this is one of the reasons why this issue can be regarded as a challenge and suitable topic for this work.

Therefore, this thesis deals with the issue of teaching pronunciation and because it would be too wide topic to discuss, it is focused specifically on the pronunciation accuracy and on Czech young learners attending the third, fourth and fifth grades. The thesis is divided into two main parts – the theoretical and practical.

The theoretical part consists of four chapters. In the first chapter the author mentions basic terminology of English pronunciation where two main branches – segmental and supra-segmental phonology - are recognized. The author also mentions factors affecting learners' pronunciation and the issue of pronunciation goals. The second chapter is aimed at the topic of young learners. The basic characterizations of this age group of learners are introduced and followed by developmental stages these learners pass through. The chapter is finally concluded with the overview of the second language acquisition focusing on Krashen's theory. The next chapter discusses the issue of teaching English pronunciation – at first various roles teachers and learners can act during teaching and learning pronunciation are mentioned, the subchapter dealing with various kinds of suitable pronunciation activities involving learners' recognition or/and production is further stated. In the last fourth chapter the author of this thesis puts the stress on the topic of learner's pronunciation mistakes and the techniques teachers can use in their lessons for correcting learners. At the beginning of that chapter, general definitions including terms such as "errors" or "slips" are introduced. This topic is further followed by subchapter discussing specifically the most common mistakes in English pronunciation of Czech speakers. The last theoretical subchapter mentions how learners can be corrected by their teachers. Techniques including for example the use of non-verbal communication, repeating the incorrect word or sound with the change of intonation to indicate a mistake or inaccuracy, asking other learners in the class to correct a learner are stated.

The second part of this thesis, as already mentioned, presents the research and its results. This part is divided into two main chapters including several subchapters. After the introductory chapter, research methodology is provided. In this part the author mentions background information about the school where she carried out the research and defines the research aims, the research plan and chosen methods. The subchapter dealing with obtained results follows. At first the author discusses the results from classroom observations where the main focus is addressed to the use of various pronunciation activities that are used by the teachers in the lessons and then the obtained information from interviews with the three

observed teachers are mentioned. In the end, the author interprets all the data and states the conclusion.

2. Pronunciation

English pronunciation represents one of the most important language subskills which people need for the right and understandable communication. Generally, it is production of sounds. Dalton and Seidlhofer add that the pronunciation as the sound production is defined in two senses as:

1. Production and reception of sounds of speech in which the sound is used as a part of a code of a particular language.
2. Pronunciation with reference to acts of speaking in which sound is used to obtain meaning in contexts.

(Dalton and Seidlhofer 1995, 3).

According to O'Connor, each person speaks with a bit different pronunciation and therefore no two people on the world would pronounce words in completely the same way (1980, 5).

Moreover, as Gerald Kelly states, the study of pronunciation consists of two main fields. These are phonetics and phonology (2000, 9).

Phonetics is in David Crystal's view defined as "the science which studies the characteristics of human sound-making and provides methods for their description, transcription and classification". There are several areas of phonetics which can be recognised. Crystal mentions three of them – these are articulatory, acoustic and auditory phonetics (1990, 229). Besides these three branches Kelly mentions also physiological and perceptual phonetics (2000, 9).

Phonology, on the other hand is concerned with how sounds "are interpreted and systematized". It deals with the pattern and system of sounds which is possible to find in particular languages (Kelly 2000, 9).

David Crystal agrees with this definition and adds that within phonology, two main branches of study can be recognized. They are segmental and supra-segmental phonology.

While segmental phonology analyses speech into segments which are individual, for example phonemes, in supra-segmental phonology, features extending more than one segment, such as intonation, are analysed (1990, 230).

2.1. What kind of pronunciation to teach and goals of pronunciation

Since English is an international language there are many various accents which can greatly differ from each other. So what sort of English pronunciation should teachers use in their lessons? To answer this question, O'Connor states that pronunciation of English varies a great deal in different geographical areas which means that in those countries where there is a tradition to use English for general communicative purposes such as West Africa or India, the aim should be to acquire a good variety of the pronunciation of that particular area – Indian or African English. However, people living in countries where there is no traditional use of English must use as a model some form of native English pronunciation (1980, 5). From this it is evident that learners in the Czech Republic have to choose between British or American English to learn. It is also proved by Harmer who adds that the choice of which pronunciation to teach is not so crucial since the differences between inner circle varieties (American English, British English...) are not so numerous (2001, 9). Harmer (2001) also says that “a speaker of Irish English, for example, is intelligible to most other English speakers in the world and will also understand what is said to him or her” (p. 9).

Concerning the British English Kelly (2000) further emphasizes, in the past the most preferable model for teaching in Britain, or among British teachers abroad, was Received Pronunciation (RP) which is sometimes called “BBC English” or “Queen’s English” and which differs from various accents of British English in the fact that it says “more about social standing rather than geography” (p.14). According to Scrivener, the term RP originally came from south-east England and is often regarded as a kind of standard educated British English pronunciation (2005, 286). However, it is important to realize that nowadays there are only about three percents of the population in Britain who speak with RP accent (Kelly 2000, 14). So is it really necessary to use it in English lessons of Czech learners? The author of this thesis agrees with Scrivener’s opinion:

...most learners are learning English to communicate with other non-mother tongue speakers, using English as a lingua franca (a language used to communicate between speakers of different mother tongues), and many will rarely – if ever – meet or need to speak with an RP-speaking native speaker. In such cases, we could make a good argument that RP is not the most useful variety for students to learn (2005, 286).

In conclusion, it is recommended that teachers should use the variety that best reflects their own language use. The fact that pupils and teachers aim at only one variety for language production does not mean that they should ever see or hear only this one language variety.

Pupils should be also given a chance and opportunity to hear different language varieties in listening texts so that they do not hear only the voice of their teacher.

Concerning the pronunciation goals, Kenworthy claims that although some time ago acquiring native-like pronunciation was believed to be one of the main goals in learning English pronunciation, this statement is seen nowadays as inappropriate because of the reason that most of the learners have practical purposes for learning the language and so for major part of them the comfortable intelligibility is considered to be more reasonable goal for learning pronunciation (1987, 3). Celce-Murcia, Brinton and Goodwin (1996) agree with this and say that to make learners sound like English native speakers is in most of the cases considered to be unrealistic. A more modest goal is “to enable them to overcome the threshold level so that their pronunciation will not detract from their ability to communicate” (p. 8).

2.2. Aspects and features of pronunciation

Before focusing on the question of what factors influence learners’ pronunciation most, it is important to mention main features of English pronunciation. According to Gerald Kelly the main features are:

- Segmental features such as vowels, consonants and phonemes.
- Supra-segmental features including stress and intonation.

(Kelly 2000, 1).

At first the author of this thesis will provide characteristics of those features in segmental phonology and then the attention will be devoted to supra-segmental features.

Segmental phonology

Phonemes

In Giegerich’s (1992) point of view, phonemes are defined as units on the abstract level of representation. They are “minimal contrastive sound units of a language which cannot be broken up into smaller successive units and which distinguish words” (p. 31-32).

Vowels

According to Peter Roach, vowels are sounds in which there is not obstruction to the flow of air as it passes from the larynx to the lips. The main difference between vowels and consonants is in their different distributions. Vowels can be described in terms of its height

consisting of four main degrees (close, close-mid, open-mid, open), backness (front, central and back vowels) and lip-rounding which determines whether the lips are rounded, spread or neutral.

In English language phoneticians distinguish **short** and **long** vowels. While short vowels are represented by the following symbols: /ɪ/, /e/, /æ/, /ʌ/, /ɒ/, /ʊ/, long vowels which tend to be longer than the short ones and consist of one vowel symbol with a length-mark [:], include these five symbols: /i:/, /ɜ:/, /ɔ:/, /ɔɪ:/, /u:/ (1991, 10-19).

Diphthongs

In English Received pronunciation we can find a large number of diphthongs which are defined as “sounds consisting of a movement or glide from one vowel to another”. Those vowels which do not glide are called “pure vowels”. Diphthongs are divided into centring and closing diphthongs. Centring diphthongs are those who end with schwa /ɪə/, /eə/, /ʊə/ while closing diphthongs end with i: /ei/, /ai/, /ɔi/ (Roach 1991, 20-21).

Triphthongs

This type representing the most complex English sounds of vowels is defined as “a glide from one vowel to another and then to the third”. Triphthongs are composed of five closing diphthongs added with schwa (ə) at the end: /eɪə/, /aɪə/, /ɔɪə/, /əʊə/, /aʊə/ (Roach, 1991, 23).

Consonants

David Crystal (1990) defines consonants as “sounds which are made by a closure or a narrowing in the vocal tract so that the flow of air is either blocked, or so restricted that audible friction is produced” (p. 296). Gerald Kelly adds that consonants can be described in three ways according to:

1) **the manner of articulation** – which refers to the interaction between articulators and the airstream.

2) **the place of articulation** – which gives more information about what articulators actually do whether they are bilabial which means that they use movement of both lips or labio-dental, dental, alveolar, palate-alveolar, palatal, velar or glottal.

3) **the force of articulation** – which deals with the terms fortis (strong) and lenis (weak). Fortis consonants equates with unvoiced sounds while lenis equates with the voiced ones.

(Kelly 2000, 47).

Roach distinguishes following consonants:

a) **Plosive consonants** including **p, t, k, b, d, g**. All these consonants can have the initial position which means that they can occur at the beginning of a word or they can also occur between other sounds (medial position) and at the end of a word (final position). As Roach claims, according to several phoneticians p, t, k are produced with more force than b, d, g and so they divided plosives into fortis including voiceless p, t, k and lenis consonants including b, d, g.

b) **Fricative consonants** consisting of voiceless **f, θ, s, ʃ**, voiced **v, ð, z, ʒ** and glottal **h**.

c) **The affricates representing tʃ and dʒ**.

d) **Nasal consonants** which are consonants **m, n** and **ŋ** where the air escapes through the nose.

e) **Lateral consonant l** which can be divided into “clear l” occurring only before vowels and “dark l” which never occurs before vowels.

f) **Approximant consonants** including **r, j** and **w**.

(Roach, 1991, 48-61).

Supra-segmental phonology

According to David Crystal, the term “supra-segmental phonology” is used in phonetics and phonology to refer to a vocal effect which extends over more than one sound segment in an utterance, such as a pitch, stress or juncture pattern (1995, 295).

Stress refers to the degree of force used in producing a syllable – a unit of pronunciation which is typically larger than a single sound and smaller than a word. English belongs to the stress-timed languages in which stress occurs at regular intervals. To achieve regular stress intervals, unstressed syllables are made shorter. In that way we can notice that English and Czech stress is different because Czech language is syllable-timed language in which stressed

and unstressed syllables are pronounced with full vowel quality and distinctly and therefore many Czech learners who learn English often face problems with reducing the unstressed syllables (Crystal 1990, 296).

Word stress

When an English word has more than one syllable, one of these is made to stand out more than the others. This is done by saying that syllable little bit louder, holding the vowel a bit longer, and pronouncing the consonants clearly. These features give that syllable prominence or stress (Crystal, 1990, 296).

Kelly adds that stress can be placed on the first, middle or last syllables of words. This can be demonstrated on the following examples: (**technical, banana, understand**) (2000, 66).

Sentence stress

In spoken English there are several ways in which it is possible to give the information about the relative importance of different parts of the message. One of the reasons why a word could be given more weight is that the speaker wants to highlight it. In that case the stress which is called main sentence stress is put on the words carrying the most information (Kenworthy 1987, 32).

Intonation

Kelly states that intonation represents a fundamental part of the way people express their own thoughts (2000, 11). It refers to the way the voice goes up and down in pitch which is according to Peter Roach, the most important part in intonation. It is described in terms of high and low (1991, 133). Kelly adds that these two basic melodies can be very sudden, or gradual, and can be put together in various combinations (rise-fall-rise, fall-rise-fall...) (2000, 11).

Roach mentions four most often proposed functions of intonation:

a) Attitudinal function – This enables people to express their emotions or attitudes as they speak.

b) Accentual function – which helps to produce the effect of prominence on syllables that need to be perceived as stressed.

c) **Grammatical function** – for which placement of boundaries between phrases, clauses or sentence, the difference between statements and questions and the use of grammatical subordination is indicated.

d) **Discourse function** – which enables people to recognize what is to be taken as new or already given information, it also helps to convey what kind of response is expected.

(Roach 1991, 163).

2.2.1 Other aspects of connected speech

As it was mentioned, word stress, sentence stress and intonation are main aspects of connected speech. Kelly agrees and notes that among other aspects are assimilation, elision, linking and instrution (2000, 111).

Assimilation describes how sounds modify each other when they meet, usually across word boundaries, but within words too (Kelly 2000, 111).

According to Peter Roach, assimilation is more like to be found in casual and rapid speech. It can be regressive when the final consonant changes to become like the initial consonant. In case, the initial consonant changes to become like the final consonant in some way, the assimilation is then called progressive (1991, 124).

Elision is as David Crystal states, the term which refers to the omission of sounds. Both consonants and vowels may be affected and sometimes whole syllables may be elided. Unstressed grammatical word “*of*” could be used as an example in which the letter “f” is in „*cup of tea*“ dropped in „*cuppa tea*“ (1990, 107).

Linking and **instrution** are aspects where two vowel sounds meet and are then linked together in various ways (Kelly 2000, 111). As Peter Roach mentions, one of the most familiar case is the use of **linking r**. In case a word’s spelling suggests a final r and there is a following word which begins with a vowel, the usual way is to pronounce it with r, for example: „four eggs“ - /fɔ: r egz/. Intrusive r is used in a similar way to link words ending with a vowel even when there is no justification from the spelling, as it is in „media event“ – /mi: diə r ivent/ (1991, 128).

2.3. Factors affecting pronunciation learning

As mentioned before, English pronunciation of non-native speakers is usually influenced by various factors. Joanne Kenworthy (1987) mentions that pronunciation can be affected by:

- a) Learners' age
- b) Native language
- c) Amount of exposure
- d) Phonetic ability
- e) Attitude and identity
- f) Motivation and concern for good pronunciation

(Kenworthy 1987, 4).

For the purpose of this thesis, not all the factors will be mentioned in this chapter. Therefore it will be further dealt with the factors the author of this thesis considered the most important and most influential for the issue of young learners. These are the learner's age, native language and amount of exposures.

The age

The age-related limit on the mastery of pronunciation is not directly specified. According to both Kenworthy (1987) and Ur (1991), there are several beliefs supported by many cases where people who started to learn English as children had better pronunciation with a native-like accent than those who started to learn it as adults. However, Ur mentions that it is not true to claim that children or young learners are overall better learners. There is some evidence that the older the children are the more effectively they learn (Snow and Hoefnagel-Hoehle 1978, Ellis 1994 cited in Ur 1991) and therefore teenage learners are often seen as the best language learners with the already mentioned exception for English pronunciation which is probably learned more easily by younger learners (Ur 1991, 286). On the other hand Kenworthy states:

Some researchers claim that there is a sensitive period for language learning, and that biological changes take place in the brain after a certain age (usually said to be between 10 and 13 years). The claim is that people actually lose certain abilities after this age (1987, 6).

Concerning this sensitive period several people suggest starting to learn English at schools as soon as possible. This was not again supported by research evidence, though. Ur mentions C.Snow who claims that twelve is the optimum age for starting a foreign language at school. Since in many Czech primary schools it is usual to start to learn a foreign language in the third grades attending by 9-10 year-old pupils, the author of this thesis inclines to Ur's own opinion that the age of ten is about right (Ur 1991, 287).

The native language

In Kenworthy's point of view, the more differences there are between learners' second and first language, the more difficulties learners will have in pronouncing English (1987, 4). Nation and Newton agree and say that learners' mother tongue can have a major influence on learning the sound system of another language. There are evidences that learners tend to pronounce English in the same way, making the same kinds of substitutions and patterns of pronunciation as it is in their mother tongue. There is also a degree of predictability in the types of relationships between first language and second language sounds, for example English language has an allophone which does not occur in the learners' mother tongue (e.g.: dark l, aspiration) or it has phonemes (e.g.: /ð/, /θ/) which are not found in the learners' first language (2008, 80).

O'Connor sees the problem that some people cannot pick up the characteristic sound of a foreign language in the fact that their mother tongue will not simply let them. He explains that:

In our own language we have a fairly small number of sound-units which we put together in many different combinations to form the words and sentences we use every day. And as we get older we are dominated by this small number of units. It is as if we had in our heads a certain fixed number of boxes for sounds (1980, 2).

However, learners have to realize that each language has a different number of boxes which are arranged in different ways as well. For example, three English boxes contain the sounds at the beginning of the words *fin*, *thin* and *sin*, that is, "f", "th" and "s":

f	th	s
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There are nowadays many languages, such as for example Czech language, having boxes which are similar to the English ones for “f” and “s”, but there is no special box for the th-sound which is then put by the non-native speaker into one of these two boxes which means that s/he puts it into either the “f” box or the “s” box (O’Connor 1980, 2).

f	th	s
f	-----	s

Amount of exposure

Kenworthy (1987), Celce-Murcia, Brinton and Goodwin (1996) all consider the amount of exposure to English language that learners receive as a matter of whether the learners are living in an English-speaking country or not. In case that the learner is surrounded by English, the pronunciation skills are affected by this constant exposure but if the learners are not living in an English-speaking environment, there is no such advantage. However, this is seen only as a general simple term. There are many situations where learners do not come from English-speaking country but use frequently English language in many areas of their life such as school or work (Kenworthy 1987, 6). On the other hand, many people who live in English-speaking country can come from so called “linguistic ghettos” with little exposure to native speakers of the target language. In that way, it is not easy to get a clear answer of how much exposure to English language learners have received. Many researches and studies have compared the pronunciation accuracy of people living in an English-speaking country and those who are not, and it was shown that the amount of exposure is not one of the most crucial factors for developing the pronunciation skills (Celce-Murcia, Brinton and Goodwin 1996, 17).

3. Young learners

"The important thing is not so much that every child should be taught, as that every child should be given the wish to learn." – JOHN LUBBOCK

Since this thesis is focused on pupils at the age of nine to eleven attending the third, fourth and fifth grades, the topic of young learners will be therefore discussed in this chapter.

3.1 Who the young learners are and how they develop

How could we define a *young learner*? Is it any child at the age from about one who starts to learn to walk and produce the first words to the age of eighteen which is the age indicating the end of childhood and beginning of adulthood? It would not be exactly right to claim this. The opinions of several authors dealing with the term *young learners* show that these are only “the children from the pre-school age up to ten or eleven years.” (Dunn, 1983, 5). Since this thesis does not deal with children attending the nursery schools, the author of this thesis will personally follow the opinion of Sarah Phillips who says that young learners are children at the age from six to about twelve (1993, 3). To put this statement into the context of Czech educational system, this period covers usually the first five grades of primary schooling.

The same opinion as the one stated by above-mentioned Opal Dunn is further shared by Scott and Ytreberg who add that it is important to realize that no child develop in completely the same way (1990, 1). Many teachers and other people, who have an experience with teaching and educating children, will certainly agree with this opinion. In their practice they soon notice changes not only among pupils of different ages or grades but also among pupils of the same age attending the same classroom. This means that some children can pass through gradual development and behave more mature earlier while the other children need more time. Therefore, as Scott and Ytreberg say, it is important to take account of the fact that “it is not possible to say that at the age of five all children can do x , at the age of seven they can all do y , or that at the age of ten they can all do z .” (1990, 1)

To sum up, in case that teachers want to properly understand their pupils and the way how they develop, they must be aware of the fact that each child is a unique creature of different characters, needs, interests or habits and passing through stages of their cognitive, language, physical, emotional and social development at different rates or waves. For this purpose, individual stages of development will be discussed in the following subchapters.

3.1.1. Cognitive development of young learners

Cognitive development of a child is an area which is explored and defined by many

psychologists. In this subchapter two famous men, Jean Piaget and Lev Semyonovich Vygotsky, dealing with this issue will be mentioned.

In the words of Jean Piaget, children are seen as active learners who use experimentations and interact with the world around them to solve problems and to see the results and understand the meanings. In this way they are able to make own schemes or theories about function of the world. For Piaget the basic principle of cognitive development lies in combination of two processes – assimilation and accommodation. Assimilation occurs when children understand the new object, event, action or situation in terms of already existing and familiar scheme while accommodation is the process which occurs when the scheme is not enough sufficient for building new event on its principle and therefore children need to change or modify this scheme in order to understand the new event (Cameron 2001, 2-3; Slavin 2006, 31-32; Atkinson et al. 2003, 76).

Piaget also distinguishes four developmental stages of children and adolescence. These are: a) sensomotoric stage – the period from the birth up to the age of two, b) preoperational stage – the period from the age of 2 up to the age of 7, c) concrete operational stage – from the age of 7 up to the age of 11, d) formal operational stage – from 11 to the adulthood (Slavin 2006, 34). For the purpose of this thesis focused on learners at the age from nine to eleven, only the concrete operational stage will be considered. During this period dramatic change in the way how young learners think appears. While children of preoperational stage are usually egocentric, concrete operational children's thinking becomes more logical, they are able to form concepts, solve problems and see the relationships but only in the case that they are familiar with the objects or situations. This means that young learners still do not think like adult people – their thinking is therefore limited. Moreover, they very often tend to provide examples of particular phenomena instead of their definitions (Fontana 2003, 69-70; Slavin 2006, 38). As Slavin further mentions, children of the concrete operational period gain the ability “to classify objects according to some criterion or dimension” and once they learn this ability, transitivity, a term used for inferring “a relationship between two objects on the basis of knowledge of their respective relationships with a third object”, can be acquired (Slavin 2006, 38).

Although Jean Piaget influenced the issue of human psychology very much there were several scholars who did not fully agree with his theory. One of them was Lev Vygotsky. While Piaget saw a child as an active learner and individual explorer, Vygotskian theory is often

called “sociocultural theory” which means that he saw the child as social. Furthermore, Vygotsky believed that learning comes before development but Jean Piaget suggested the opposite – the development precedes learning. Another considerable difference between Vygotsky and Piaget is that Vygotsky did not set any stages in human development. The main aspects of Vygotskian theory are private speech, the zone of proximal development and scaffolding (Cameron 2001, 5; Slavin 2006, 44-45). As Slavin explains, private speech is a mechanism used for “turning shared knowledge into personal knowledge” which can be seen especially with younger children and which can help them to come to a solution (2006, 44).

The second aspect of Vygotskian cognitive theory, the zone of proximal development, is focused on what children can manage at the particular time only with the support of parents, teachers or other appropriate skilled help (Cameron 2001, 6). In other words, it is related to skills and abilities learners are not currently able to do alone but they are close to achieve these skills or abilities.

This assistance provided to children in forms of advice, clue or suggestion is, as Slavin states, called *scaffolding* and it represents one of the final aspects of Vygotsky’s theory (2006, 45).

Last but not least, Langmeier and Krejčířová explain that while smaller children’s thinking and behaviour is largely focused on their wishes and fantasy, young learners want to understand the world in a more realistic way. In other words, they explore things and interact with them through real actions (1998, 115-116). Therefore it is essential for English teachers to provide young learners with variety of teaching aids including for example flash cards, pictures, illustrations and real objects and not only with verbal explanations during the lessons

3.1.2. Personal and social development of young learners

It is important to realize that children do not only develop and improve their cognitive skills but also their personal and social skills and therefore it is necessary for all the teachers to understand these aspects otherwise it is difficult for them to teach, motivate and interact with these pupils.

Although it may appear that this period is rather calm in comparison to the previous period or the period of adolescence, it is full of important changes having a great influence for future development. In the first place, leaving the nursery school and gaining a brand new role of a

pupil represents a significant turning-point in the life of all children. The role of a pupil helps children to get a higher social prestige (Vágnerová 1999, 99). As Langmeier and Krejčířová explain, with entering the school young learners are expected to conform to the new authority - the teacher - and to join the new classroom collective and learn how to cooperate with other peers (1998, 101). It is generally believed that this might be at the beginning rather uneasy especially for those children who did not attend nursery schools and stayed at home with their mothers or fathers and therefore did not have many opportunities to be in a contact with larger groups of other children and in addition they were practically habituated to accept only the authority of their parents or other family members but not the authority of a teacher. This is also proved by Vágnerová who states that for reaching the success in this area of socialization it is important to use a bit different skills and abilities than those which are needed for education and so this may lead to the situation in which even really good pupils with excellent school results and achievements face the problems of gaining satisfactory role or position in the classroom community (1999, 100).

Like cognitive development connected with the names of famous psychologists – Piaget and Vygotsky, personal and social development is also defined in terms of several stages. The issue of psychological and social development was dealt and proposed by American psychologist of German and Dutch origin – Erik Erikson (Slavin 2006, 47).

According to Erikson, each person passes through eight different psychological stages during the life. Each of these stages brings some crisis or critical issues (Slavin 2006, 48). Since this thesis does not deal with learners of all ages but it is focused only on the young learners at the age of nine to eleven, only one particular stage of Erikson's theory will be discussed.

Specifically it is the fourth stage dealing with the children from the age of six to twelve. Shaffer (2009) and Slavin (2006) describe this period as a period when the learners must master important social and academic skills (Shaffer 2009, 42). Acquiring these skills gives children the feeling of being self-assured and a “good feeling about oneself and one's ability”. On the other hand, failure to acquire these attributes causes the creation of “a negative self image and a sense of inadequacy that may hinder future learning” (Slavin 2006, 49).

Simultaneously it is important to mention that children's different temperament plays an important role in this period. Teachers therefore need to know that each child is very

individual and behaves in a different way. Dunn states that there are children who can be moody; others are shy, aggressive or afraid too much about making mistakes. Moreover, temperament influences children's ability to take part in language-learning activities and so teachers should gradually find out about their pupils' temperaments. This is possible to do it for example by "watching learners in the classroom or by talking to their parents about them" (1983, 14). As McKay says, young learners are gradually developing from "a main interest in self towards greater social awareness." They learn to interact with peers, to deal with hostility and dominance, to relate to a leader, to lead others, to deal with social problems and to develop a concept of self (2006, 8).

3.1.3. Psychomotor development of young learners

Sean Brotherson mentions in his work that physical development includes "complex tasks requiring strength, coordination and perception." It provides children with the abilities they need for interacting with the world around them. The first step in the process of physical growth is the development of muscular control (Internet source, 2006, 1). Opal Dunn adds that muscular development influences children's ability "to focus their eyes on a page, line or words." It affects their ability to hold school utilities such as pens, pencils or paint brushes. Each teacher should therefore know that some activities are difficult for children before a particular degree of muscular control has been developed. Learning activities for young learners should also give pupils a chance to move around the classroom. Dunn suggests for example using rhymes which can include activities like jumping or dancing (1983, 14).

Moreover, learners are still developing "hand-eye coordination by the time they are 9 to 12 years of age." However, they are better coordinated than seven- or eight-year-olds. Their large muscle coordination is also continuing to develop, so that they are able "to show an increase in speed and accuracy during running, climbing, throwing or catching activities" (McKay 2006, 10).

Brotherson further mentions that the concept of physical development includes two major categories.

- Normative development – which indicates a typical range of what pupils can and cannot be expected to do and learn at a given time.

- Dynamic development – which is related to the sequence and physical changes which are obvious in all aspects of children’s functioning with the passage of time and increasing experience. It also concerns how these changes interact.

(Brotherson, 2006, 2).

Physical growth refers very often to the term “motor development” defined as the “process by which children acquire movement patterns and skills.” Two main types of motor development are distinguished. These are “gross-motor development” which refers to the use of large-muscle groups in the legs (running) and arms (throwing), and “fine-motor development “ dealing with areas such as smiling or drawing with crayons (Brotherson, 2006, 2).

To put this issue of psychomotor development into the context of this thesis topic, it is important to mention that the psychomotor domain, as Abuhewaij states, significantly influences the behaviour of speech communication where the speech is used for communication with other learners. The learners’ ability in this domain is concerned with speech performance expressing meaning such as clear pronunciation, voice intonation and slow recitation which includes for example performing interrogative or condemnative tone (2010, 51). As H.D. Brown recommends, since pronunciation represents a psychomotor skill, learners will therefore need sufficient amount of practice to improve their English pronunciation. For this purpose, teachers can use variety of activities such as short choral and individual drilling (1999, xi). Last but not least, those activities should not be too long because at this stage of development there are very often tendencies that the young learners start to feel tired or bored and so their motivation for learning and effort to improve the pronunciation can be lowered.

3.2. Language acquisition

Most of the theories dealing with the issue of how learners acquire their native language are connected with two famous approaches proposed by Burrhus F. Skinner and Noam Chomsky.

According to Littlewood, Skinner and his behaviourist approach did not see a language as a mental phenomenon but as behaviour because “like other forms of human behaviour, it is learnt by a process of habit-formation”. Concerning this theory, children are seen as the

imitators of sounds and patterns which they can hear around them, they attempt to repeat or produce similar sounds after adult people represented for example by their parents or teachers which means that the verbal behaviour of children or young learners is shaped or conditioned “until the habits coincide with the adult models.” Utterances produced by children are not considered to possess a system in their own right but “as a faulty version of adult speech” (Littlewood 2006, 5).

On the other hand, Noam Chomsky does not agree with Skinner about acquiring the language by habit-formation and suggests that the ability of acquiring language is inborn in each of us. According to him, all children have “an innate language acquisition device” (LAD) which is defined as a mechanism allowing children to decode any spoken language they can hear “to reveal the basic rules and principles.” This claim comes from Chomsky’s theory that languages differ from each other only in the “surface structure” but a similar “deep structure” including meanings and actions the words convey is shared in all of them (Hill 2001, 134).

Throughout the history, these two significant theories were supported and also criticised by various psychologists, philosophers or educators. For instance, one of the experts who supported Chomsky’s theory of language acquisition was Martin Braine (1963, in Hill 2001) who observed his son and found out that although he produced early two-word utterances, he was able to employ simple word ordering rules. Braine called this “the pivot/open grammar” (p. 134).

Concerning Skinner, his theory was not criticised only by Chomsky but also by Brown (1969, in Hill 2001) or Nelson (1973, in Hill 2001) who has discovered that “grammatical training can improve linguistic development, but only in a limited way, and while some learning techniques can facilitate development they certainly do not appear necessary for language acquisition to occur in the first place” (p. 133).

As it is obvious, there are various claims or theories about the issue of acquiring the first language and to find one clear and complex answer which would be agreed among all the experts who are interested in this topic seems to be impossible. For the purpose of this thesis, only the issues related to the second language acquisition will be discussed in the following subchapter.

3.3. Second language acquisition

In the words of Rod Ellis, second language acquisition, which is very often referred to

as SLA, is characterised as the study of “the way in which people learn a language other than their mother tongue, inside or outside of a classroom” (1997, 3). This opinion is also shared by Gass and Selinker (2008) who mention:

“It is the study of how second languages are learned. In other words, it is the study of the acquisition of a non-primary language; that is, the acquisition of a language beyond the native language. It is the study of how learners create a new language system with only limited exposure to a second language. It is the study of what is learned of a second language and what is not learned; it is the study of why most second language learners do not achieve the same degree of knowledge and proficiency in a second language as they do in their native language, it is also the study of why only some learners appear to achieve native-like proficiency in more than one language” (p. 1).

Moreover, Krashen (1988, in Haynes 2007) who proposed the famous Theory of Second Language Acquisition, expresses that there must be a distinction between the terms “language acquisition” and “language learning”. While SLA means that learners acquire the second language “through a subconscious process during which they are unaware of grammatical rules”, and “a source of natural communication” is needed for acquiring. Language learning, on the other hand, relates to direct instructions of the language rules, and is not communicative (p. 7). Van Patten and Benati explain that according to Steven Krashen, processes by which children “internalize language from exposure to input” including language samples which can be heard or read in communicative settings, are involved in acquisition. Therefore, it is important to know that acquisition really occurs because of exposure to input, not because children are taught a rule or because they practice it. Moreover, since learning is limited in terms of what children or young learners are able to do with explicit information, acquisition is in comparison to learning considered to be more fundamental (2010, 60).

As Lightbown and Spada (2006) say:

“The learned system acts as an editor or ‘monitor’, making minor changes and polishing what the acquired system has produced. Such monitoring takes place only when the speaker/writer has plenty of time, is concerned about producing correct language, and has learned the relevant rules” (p. 37).

What is more, acquisition and learning must be seen as two separate processes resulting in separate systems which do not interact. This means that learning can never become

acquisition. Acquisition always happens in one and only one way in communicative setting and is nowadays used as a term for “what happens to learners regardless of context and regardless of whether they explicitly practice rules or not” (Van Patten, G. Benati 2010, 60-61).

According to the views and beliefs of many theorists, each child who learns English as a foreign language, passes through a series of stages. Krashen and Terrell (1983, in Smiley and Salsberry 2007) introduced five stages of language development. These are preproduction/preconversational stage, early production stage, speech emergence stage, intermediate fluency stage and advanced fluency stage. Children pass through these stages in a natural way and cannot be forced from one stage to the next one before they are ready for it. “As they progress through the stages, their receptive language abilities will exceed their productive abilities, and they will understand more than they can say or write” (p. 29).

The first stage – Preproduction, is characterized as the period when learners are beginners in English language but have experiences of rapid oral language growth and may have about 500 receptive words which they know and understand but which may be rather uncomfortable for them to use. In this stage, children are able to understand more words than they can produce. They spend most of the time by listening or observing their surrounding and so called “silent period” when children are reluctant to speak but able to respond by facial expressions, gestures, pointing, nodding or drawing can be observed in learners by their teacher. It is recommended for teachers to avoid forcing children to speak prematurely. The teachers should also build on background knowledge and support cooperative learning in pairing learners with more advanced children. Since learners are dependent on visual clues at this stage, teachers should provide pictures, real objects or physical movements in their lessons. The length of this stage was not set firmly. It can last from two weeks to six months.

Concerning the Early production stage, learners are characterized as “low beginners” who are able to understand and actively use about 1000 words. At this period, children’s comprehension and disconnected speech is limited, they can usually speak in one-to two-word short phrases and so teachers are advised to ask short questions including who, what, when, where or which one. Moreover, learners use especially words formed in the present tense and are able to demonstrate comprehension in a physical way or by saying short answers to simple questions. This stage lasts up to about six months.

During the third stage – Speech Emergence, learners are called beginners who start to use the language more freely. Most of them do not face problems with producing dialogues, short and simple sentences and are able to ask and answer questions and develop about 3000 active words. They can participate in activities involving small groups and make some basic errors in grammar and speech. Teachers are recommended to not rely too much on cues from pictures and start to encourage children in language retelling, describing or comparing. This stage lasts about one year or more.

Learners' language level of English during the fourth stage is intermediate or advanced. These learners can produce about 6000 words and use more complex sentences; they can understand most of what is mentioned in a lesson and are able to express ideas and thoughts in their oral and written communication. Learners usually make complex errors in grammar and are still in a need of help with developing their vocabulary in content areas. This stage may last about three to five years.

The last stage is defined as a period when learners express their feelings and thoughts easily, they are able to use grammar and vocabulary which is comparable to that of native speakers. They do not have difficulties with understanding of what is taught in the mainstream class, they can participate in grade-level classroom activities in case some modification or support is provided and have some specialized content-area vocabulary. This stage can last three to seven years (Smiley and Salsberry 2007, 30-32).

In conclusion, for the purpose of this thesis topic, it is necessary to realize that the target groups of young learners from the age of 9 – 11, where the youngest ones start with English and in most of the cases have no previous knowledge of the foreign language, pass through the first three stages – preproduction, early production and speech emergence stage. For the teachers of those young learners it is therefore essential to be familiar with these stages of second language development and to use a wide range of strategies to modify instructions and make the content better comprehensive for children's progress which means to use real objects, pictures, flash cards and other visual aids at first, avoid asking long and complicated questions and later encourage children in language tasks such as simple describing or retelling in own words when learners get older and are able to produce the language in a more free way which means that they can answer in simple sentences and not only in very short phrases.

4. Teaching pronunciation

This chapter is divided into several subchapters. At first, the author of this thesis discusses the topic of pronunciation teaching approaches, then she mentions the roles teachers and learners play in pronunciation teaching, the following subchapters are then devoted to the topic of various pronunciation activities.

Since this thesis puts the stress on activities focused primarily on *accuracy*. It is necessary to explain this term at first and to mention that language proficiency can be defined not only in terms of accuracy but also of fluency representing another important term.

Therefore, while the term fluency means that teachers and pupils focus on the “message” which means on communicating or receiving content, in accuracy they are concerned with “getting the language right”, they form correct sounds, words or sentences which means that the teaching of pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar tends to be focused on accuracy and the teaching of speaking, reading, writing and listening is fluency-oriented (Ur 1991, 103).

Keith and Helen Johnson agree that “in accuracy pupils deal with the production of structurally correct instances” and they add that practising accuracy relies largely on the type of oral or written exercises which were developed by the drill (1999, 3). Nunan referencing Brumfit mentions that “accuracy and fluency are not in fact opposites but they are complementary.” However, activities are often devised as if they were in conflict (Brumfit in Nunan 2004, 63). Concerning the activities Ur adds that texts focusing on accuracy are usually composed of separate items such as sentences or words while texts which are focused on fluency are usually whole pieces of discourse such as stories or conversations. Moreover in accuracy, tasks do not often simulate real-life situations as it is done in fluency activities (Ur 1991, 103).

From this it is evident that developing and practising pronunciation can be interrelated with developing other skills and sub-skills such as speaking, reading, listening, vocabulary, grammar or spelling.

Kelly suggests connecting pronunciation work with **spelling**. For such work using homographs and homophones activities can represent one of the possible ways.

- Homographs are defined as words written and spelled in the same way having different pronunciation and meaning, e.g.: “*I want to **read** this book.*” x “*I have already **read** this.*”

- Homophones, on the other hand, are words having the same pronunciation but the spelling and meaning of these words are different.” (e.g.: *fair x fare; write x right*).

It is also possible to present activities including homophones together with **listening** when learners are asked by a teacher to decide which word from a printed list on their paper is the word with the right spelling for the word they heard in the sentence (2000, 20).

Moreover, pronunciation can be exercised with the help of **reading** activities as well. As Kelly claims, “at some stage when a text is read aloud either by the teacher or the pupils, pronunciation work can be integrated.” There are various possibilities teachers can choose, such as rhymes, poems, song lyrics or extracts from plays. However teachers need to realize that not all types of reading texts are appropriate for pronunciation work. Kelly makes an example of using encyclopaedias. “Reading aloud this type of texts might lead to a mechanical and monotone recitation of the words” (2000, 22).

Teaching pronunciation can be also interrelated with teaching **vocabulary**. There is a wide range of activities that can be used in lessons. Most of the children will like especially various word games such as Bingo, Alphabet lists (see Appendix 1), crosswords or scrabble (Baker and Westrup 2000, 39-41).

Concerning practicing pronunciation through **speaking**, Baker and Westrup draw two main stages:

1) Practice phase – in which learners practice language accurately and teachers control everything what learners say and correct their pronunciation. In this stage teachers can use

- various types of drilling such as for example repetition and substitution drills (further discussed in the subchapter 4.4.1.)
- shorter dialogues where learners are asked to read the dialogue at first and then teachers can erase certain words or phrases and ask learners to say the missing words and continue in reading
- guessing games
- information gaps diaries (see Appendix 2)

2) Production phase – in this stage, learners practice the language fluently. Suitable activities for this phase include for example: sharing information focused on various topics in pairs or smaller groups, describing pictures, questionnaires, small project or short oral presentation within one lesson (2003, 67-100).

Last but not least, in the chapter 4.4 discussing the use of suitable techniques and activities, role-plays, discussions or interviews belonging to the communicative type of activities are not mentioned. Although these activities naturally help to develop learners' pronunciation, they are primarily focused on fluency and not on accuracy which is the reason why these activities are omitted in this thesis.

4.1. How to teach pronunciation

Every teacher of English language should naturally know or have some ideas about how to teach English pronunciation to the learners and how to help them to develop this sub-skill. Before starting to discuss suitable pronunciation techniques or activities, it is useful to focus also on the topic of pronunciation teaching approaches.

As Richards and Renandya say, concerning the pronunciation approaches we can gradually see significant changes in the movement from putting the stress on the accurate production of individual sounds of speech to the concentration more on broader communicative aspects of connected speech throughout the history of language teaching (2002, 175). Jones adds that pronunciation teaching grew in the importance with the rise of the Direct¹ and Audio-lingual methods² which were pushed again to the sidelines with the dominance of Communicative Language Teaching³ and the Natural approach⁴. Nowadays a

¹ Direct method is defined as “rejection of translation and emphasis on oral speech.” Grammar is learned in an inductive way, reading and writing are learned after spoken language is mastered (McLaughlin 1987, 6).

² Audio-lingual method – in this method the stress is put on repetitive drills and pattern practice. Spoken language has primacy while translation is rejected. Grammar is, as well as in Direct method, learned inductively (McLaughlin 1987, 6).

³ Communicative approach – is based on the assumption that what teachers and learners do in the classroom should have some real-life communicative value. Real life listening tasks are integrated into this approach. This approach brings the implications of communication to the language teaching and looks at what learners do with language and how they respond to what they hear. Activities which are useful for learners, such as information gaps or filling in a form and choice of what to say, are required (Flowerdew, Miller 2005, 12)

⁴ Natural approach – is based on the idea that language learning occurs when what learners read or hear is comprehensible but just beyond their production abilities (Internet source: <http://esl.yourdictionary.com/lesson-plans/esl-teaching-methods.html>).

new resurgence, driven largely by the increasing awareness of the communicative function of supra-segmental features in spoken discourse, is experienced in pronunciation teaching.

4.2 How to teach and develop pronunciation

In order to find the answer to this question, Dalton and Seidlhofer's suggestion of the "bottom-up" and "top-down" approaches can be followed. These authors say that "bottom-up" approach is viewed as the approach which start with "the articulation of individual vowels and consonants" and continue to work up towards intonation. Therefore, this approach is based on the idea that if the segments are taught, the supra-segmental features will be then acquired without necessity to provide formal instructions. The "top-down" approach, on the other hand, refers to the "beginning with patterns of intonation and bringing separate sounds into sharper focuses as and when required." In other words, in this approach, we assume that once the supra-segmental features are in place, the important segmental discriminations will follow of their own accord (1994, 69-70).

As McDonough and Shaw add, the "bottom-up" and "top-down" approaches can be viewed as the balance between accuracy and intelligibility. In short, these aspects are as follows:

- Individual sounds which include areas of difficulty for learners.
- Word stress exhibiting a number of key patterns in English language.
- Sentence stress and rhythm.
- Intonation which is significant in conveying messages about mood intention.
- Sound and spelling

(2003, 136-137).

Moreover, Rodney Jones states that in recent past there was the call for a more "top-down" approach to pronunciation teaching, emphasizing meaningful and broader phonological aspects of connected speech rather than practice with isolated sounds (Rodney H. Jones in Jack C. Richards, Wily A. Renandya 2002, 178).

Last but not least, based on many beliefs, for example by Hewings (2004) or Kelly (2000, 114), there is no clear answer concerning the question of which phonological aspects should be considered the most prominent and most important for teaching pronunciation. As Hewings says, it is a matter of balancing general considerations and learners' particular

difficulties (2004, 16). To show this on the example, although it might be generally believed that working on consonants or vowels represent a high priority, it is also essential to know which consonants or vowels cause problems or difficulties and which are not problematic for the pupils, so that the teachers can focus work accordingly. Moreover, it can be also useful for some learners that some features with generally lower priority, for example linking or assimilation, can be given a higher priority. Last but not least, it is evident from this statement that what phonological aspects to pay more attention in lessons will largely depend on the learners and teachers and also on the conditions and learners and teachers' needs, wishes and goals. As already mentioned in the chapter 2.1., one of the most important goals in current pronunciation teaching is acquiring comprehensible and intelligible pronunciation and not the native-like pronunciation as it was common in the past, it is also important to enable children to get over the threshold level to avoid the risk that their pronunciation will detract from the ability to communicate.

4.3 The role of the teacher and learners in teaching and learning pronunciation

The role, as it is stated by David Nunan, refers to “the part that teachers and learners are expected to play in completing learning tasks, as well as the social and interpersonal relationship between participants.” In activities of audio-lingual method, pupils have passive role. They react to the teacher and have little control (2004, 64). This means that the role of the teacher is central-oriented and active. The teacher is the one who models the target language, controls the direction and pace of learning, and monitors and corrects pupils' performances. The teacher must keep the pupils attentive by using various kinds of drills and tasks and choosing relevant situations to practise structures (Richards, Lockhart 1996, 103). On the other hand, in communicative activities such as role plays, games or interviews, learners have active and negotiative role (Nunan, 2004, 64). The teacher's main roles are “to facilitate the communication process between pupils in the classroom and to act as independent participant within the learning-teaching group” (Breen and Candlin cited in Richards and Lockhart 1996, 103).

Kenworthy states that “the learners' role in learning pronunciation is to take responsibility and be willing to learn.” In case they do not take action and not try to monitor their own efforts, the prospects of change or improvement are really low. (1987, 2) In her point of view, teacher plays the role of the person who:

- a) *helps learners to hear* – some learners will have a tendency to hear the sounds of English in terms of the sounds of their native language and so it is necessary for teachers to check that their pupils hear sounds according to the appropriate categories and they should help them to develop new categories if it is necessary.
- b) *helps learners to make sounds* – although there are many English sounds which do not appear in other languages, some pupils will be able to imitate some of them. In case they cannot, some hints are needed to be given them by the teacher to help learners to make the new sounds.
- c) *provides feedback and correction* – each teacher should inform learners about how they are doing during lessons and provide them information about their performances because learners very often are not able to tell whether they managed it in the right way or not.

(Kenworthy 1987, 1).

According to Harmer, “over-correction in the middle of a speaking activity may inhibit them and take the communicativeness out of the activity.” However, on the other hand, helpful correction with a gentle tone helps pupils to get out of misunderstanding or hesitations and so it always depends on teacher’s tact and appropriate way of providing the feedback to the pupils in a particular situation (2001, 276).

- d) *points out what is going on* – pupils need to be informed what to pay attention to and what to work on. Since speaking is “for the most part unconsciously controlled”, it can happen that learners may miss something important and so teachers have to make learners aware of the potential of sounds.
- e) *establishes priorities* - although learners will be usually aware of some features of their pronunciation that are different, they will not be probably able to tell if this is important or not. That is why the teachers need “to offer their pupils the help in establishing a plan for action and in deciding what to focus on.”
- f) *devises activities* – since learning pronunciation is so complex, teachers should consider what types of activities and exercises are beneficial and helpful for pupils. When teachers design activities for learning, they must also keep in mind that some activities suit the learning styles and approaches of some pupils better than others.

g) *assesses progress* – because it is quite difficult for learners to assess themselves, teachers should provide them with the information about their own progress which is often an important factor in maintaining motivation.

(Kenworthy 1987, 1).

Harmer adds that teacher as assessor has to inform pupils about what he or she is going to look for in their performances and what success looks like. It is essential to mention whether the teacher is more interested in their fluency or accuracy during particular communication activity so the learners can have a clear idea of what they need to concentrate on. One of the critical issues for the role of the assessor is the one of fairness. When children are criticised or not positively assessed and later they find out that some of their classmates are given less criticism for equally good or bad performance, they can tend to be confused or unhappy. Therefore each teacher with the role of assessor must always be very sensitive to the learners' possible reactions (2001, 60).

In conclusion, as it is apparent, during each lesson both teachers and learners can play many roles which highly depend on the type of the activity or task they are currently working on. Moreover, it is important for teachers to use various types of activities requiring changing the roles in order to keep young learners' attention and motivation for learning a language.

After introducing the topic of teacher and learners' roles in the process of teaching and learning pronunciation, the author of this thesis moves to the topic of suitable pronunciation techniques and activities.

4.4. Pronunciation techniques and activities

In this chapter, the author of this thesis will provide a list of techniques and activities which help learners to develop these skills and for the purpose of the practical part the author will also follow Broughton who states that in teaching pronunciation we have to distinguish two main skills which are interrelated to each other. These are:

A) Recognition

B) Production

While production is defined as “the fluency in spoken language”, recognition occurs when learners are able to recognize or understand the flow of the speech (2002, 49). From this

statement it is obvious that for acquiring these two skills learners need to be devoted an appropriate amount of practice in listening and speaking activities.

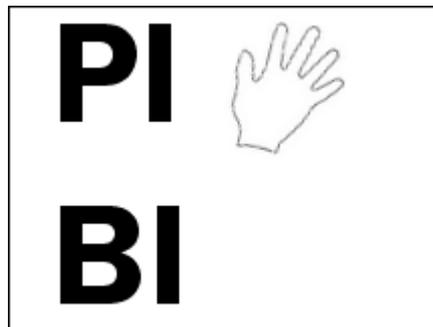
4.4.1 Activities and techniques based on recognition

A) Activities based on recognizing individual sounds

As Nation and Newton states, the process of teaching individual sounds usually starts with hearing practice which is generally believed to improve learners' pronunciation. This technique can contain of several stages:

1) **Sounds distinguishing activity** – in this stage teachers pronounce a pair of words which are the same (such as BI – BI) or different in one sound (such as BI – PI). The learners' task is to listen carefully and then to express whether the two sounds are the same or not. There are various ways how the learners can respond – they can say yes/no, same/different or raise their hands in case that the two sounds were the same or do not do anything in case that they were different.

2) **Sounds identifying activity** – in this stage teachers write two words on the board and mark somehow one of them (they can underline the word, draw a dot or a picture of a hand next to it)



(Author's own modification)

Whenever teachers pronounce a word which starts with the same sound as the marked word on the board (e.g.: **PIG**, **PIN**, **PINCH** **PINK**), the learners are asked to raise their hand. In case that the teacher says words that start with the unmarked sound (e.g.: **BILL**, **BIG**, **BIN**), the learners do not do anything. The advantage of this activity is that all the class is given a practice and teachers can easily notice who is able to hear the right sound. To avoid copying,

learners can be asked to close their eyes so that they can fully concentrate and pay all the attention to hearing.

3) **Identifying sounds with the use of pictures** – in this activity teachers always show two pictures to the learners (e.g.: ship x sheep). When one of these words is pronounced by the teacher, the learners have to point to it. This activity is based on providing pairs of words that are the same except for one sound which is different, for example: watching x washing, live x leave (2009, 84-85). The authors such as Hewings (2004, 51), Hancock (1995, 5) or Kelly (2000, 18) called this activity “**minimal pairs**”. Last but not least, from several opinions it is apparent that there is not a clear agreement about what kind of vocabulary to choose – whether to choose words that are familiar for the learners or completely unknown or nonsense words. Kelly thinks that choosing unknown words is meaningless and therefore it is a disadvantage (2000, 20). However, the author of this thesis follows the opinion of Nation and Newton who say that:

...words that are already known to the learners or that have a meaning for them should be avoided. The meaning of the words may take the learners’ attention away from the sounds, and their past failure to make the sounds correctly in those words could increase difficulty (2008, 86).

Since this thesis deals with the young learners whose concentration span or motivation is, as Revell, Norman (1999, 43) or Hunston and Oakey (2009, 246) claim, much shorter (only from five to ten minutes) than that of older learners or adults, it is essential to keep their attention and not to make these activities too long and make the young learners bored and tired. It is possible to do this by including game or competition-like elements into these activities.

3) “**Don’t be tricked**” activity – another option how to variegate activities for young learners is represented by changing the roles of a teacher and learners. In “Don’t be tricked” activity a learner plays the role of the teacher and points to one of several words written on the board. The teacher playing the role of a learner pronounces it; s/he can say the word correctly or in a wrong way. Therefore, the learners’ main task is to say whether the teacher is right or wrong and not to become tricked by him/her.

4) **Sound dictation** – this activity tests whether the learners are able to hear the words in a correct way. The teacher dictates new or even nonsense words and learners try to write them down. Another option is to use numbers for the vowels, consonants or diphthongs. When a

word including the particular vowel/consonant/diphthong is pronounced, the learners write the appropriate number on the paper (Nation, Newton 2009, 86-87).

o - 1, o: - 2, au - 3, ou - 4, a - 5, a: - 6
Teacher says: horse, loud, pot, slow, card, dull
Learners write: 2, 3, 1, 4, 6, 5

(Author's own modification)

4.4.2 Activities based on production

A) Listening and repeating sounds activities – in this type of activity teachers pronounce new, unknown or somehow difficult and complicated words, while learners must listen carefully and then repeat the particular words after the teacher (Nation, Newton 2009, 87). As Scott and Ytreberg state, exercises involving listening and repeating represent usually a “great fun and give the pupils the chance to get a feel for the language: the sounds, the stress and rhythm and the intonation” (1990, 27). Rodney Jones states that although the method of listening and repeating is nowadays “widely discredited in the areas of grammar and vocabulary teaching”, it still persists in pronunciation teaching (Rodney Jones in Richards and Renandya 2002, 180). According to Pennington, this method seems to be a “two-way street: Focused listening can improve oral production and practice in oral production can improve auditory perception (Pennington 1996 cited in Richards and Renandya 2002, 180). Since it was observed that there is usually very little learners’ improvement after copying a model to pronounce a new sound for the second time, it is not therefore necessary and recommended to pronounce these sounds or words several times (Locke 1970 cited in Nation and Newton 2009, 87). In case the teachers need learners to make further improvement, they must explain and show to the learners the way how to properly make the sound, provide written forms of the sound or “use some trick, such as forcing, to help the learners to make the correct sound (George 1972 cited in Nation and Newton 2009, 88). The use of written forms is beneficial in those activities because of the fact that learners can consider it as a kind of help with new clusters for the recognition of particular words and vocabulary learning (Nation and Newton 2009, 88). Moreover, the use of various diagrams for pronunciation involving pictures which show the position of the tongue and other parts of the mouth is also recommended. As Jones describes,

cut-out pictures of the face can be used “with the teacher’s hand acting as the tongue”. The front view of the mouth is often beneficial, especially for practising vowels or /θ/, /d/, /f/ and /v/, /w/ (Jones 1960 cited in Nation and Newton 2009, 88).

1) **Rhymes and songs** – as Scott and Ytreberg state, both rhymes and songs represent the forms of “listen and repeat” activities. One of the advantages of songs and rhymes is that most of the young learners love them and will want to repeat them again and again. Currently there is a wide range of rhymes which can be included in the lessons. Teachers can choose either traditional or modern rhymes. As the authors explain, rhymes have a repetitive function, “they have natural rhythm and they have an element of fun, of playing with the language”. Since young learners play with language also in their mother tongue, this is a very familiar part of their world having an important part to play in their learning process (1990, 27). In Vilaplana’s opinion, songs and rhymes are considered to be a good way how to begin with the study of English rhythm. She states:

“It has been observed that people that have a very strong foreign accent in spontaneous speech have a less strong accent when they sing or even recite. This is so because the rhythmic patterns of the song and the verse help the student to sound more natural” (2009, 159).

However, Opal Dunn puts the stress on the proper choice of songs. She warns that all those songs which have difficult vocabulary and language or complicated music need to be avoided at this early stage of learning. According to her, it is usually more difficult for young learners to transfer language from songs rather than from rhymes. As a good example of how to overcome this difficulty, Dunn suggests saying songs instead of singing them. Teachers can also modify the songs and set their own words to well-known songs which make the process of learning and pronouncing the words easier (1983, 80, 85).

2) **Tongue twisters** – include words or phrases that can be usually problematic or difficult to pronounce for learners because they are consisted of similar sounds such as /r/ and /l/ or consonant clusters /fr/ and /fl/. The main aim is therefore to pronounce them as quickly as possible. However, as in the case of songs, it is highly recommended to use only those tongue twisters which have relatively easy to understand vocabulary (Hewings 2004, 221). Kane adds that tongue twisters represent an effective warm-up tool for all those learners who want to improve alliteration, pronunciation, and vocal technique. He also suggests starting slowly at the beginning. As he says, “accuracy is more important than speed”. Learners should

therefore pay attention to pronunciation of the individual words and make sure that their mouth, tongue and lips move in the way that they are supposed to for each vowel and consonant type (2005, 1).

3) **Drilling** – is, as Jones states, one of the oldest method of teaching pronunciation involving exercises in elocution (Jones in Richards and Renandya 2002, 180). Kelly explains that drilling is technique during which a teacher pronounces a word or structure and the rest of the class repeats it. Drilling helps young learners achieve better pronunciation of language items, and to help them remember these items. At first teachers and learners usually drill ‘chorally’ which means that the learners are asked to repeat the items in unison. This way of drilling enables learners to build confidence, and offers a chance to drill items relatively anonymously. Individual drilling, where learners - one by one - have to repeat items, typically follows choral drilling (2000, 16). Concerning drilling technique, several types can be distinguished. These are for example:

a) Chain drill - this type of drill gets its name from “the chain of conversation” which forms around the classroom as pupils, one-by-one, ask and answer questions of each other. The teacher starts the chain by asking one pupil a question. This pupil responds and turns to another pupil sitting next to him or her. Although chain drilling is limited, it allows some controlled communication and gives the teacher a chance to check each pupil’s speech (Larsen-Freeman 2000, 48).

b) Substitution drill – involves, as Kelly states, “drilling a structure, but substituting items of vocabulary into the sentence being dealt with” (2000, 17). Substitution drilling can be subdivided into single-slot substitution and multiple-slot substitution drill. In single-slot substitution drill the teacher pronounces a line usually taken from a dialogue and then he or she says a word or phrase – called the cue. Pupils repeat the line which the teacher has mentioned them and substitute the cue into the line in its proper place. The difference between single and multiple-slot substitution drill is that during multiple-slot drill the teacher gives cue phrases which fit into different slots in dialogue line. The pupils need to recognize what part of speech each cue is and then say the line, fitting the cue phrase into the line where it belongs (Larsen-Freeman 2000, 48).

Other drilling types include:

c) Transformation drill – in this type of drilling the teacher says pupils a certain kind of sentence pattern, for example a statement. Learners are then asked to transform this sentence into a question or negative sentence.

d) Backward build-up drill – teachers can use this technique in case that the pupils find a long line of a dialogue problematic. The line is broken down into several parts. Learners repeat a part of the sentence, usually the last phrase of the line and then they follow the teacher's cue to expand what they are repeating, part by part, until they are able to repeat the whole line.

e) Question-and-answer drill – this type of drill is used to help pupils practise answering questions. The answers to teacher's questions should be said quickly.

(Larsen-Freeman 2000, 49).

Last but not least, drilling is also considered to be fundamental for teaching intonation and word and sentence stress. Kelly explains that teachers can use various ways how to beat out the rhythm of the stress pattern, for example by clicking their fingers or taping on a surface but they should always “aim to model utterances as naturally as possible, according to the context in which the language is being used” because even the slight changes in stress or intonation can have a crucial impact on meaning (2000, 18). Since pronunciation can be practiced and developed not only by activities focusing on segmental features such as consonants and vowels but also by activities dealing with supra-segmental features, the topic of using activities focused on word and sentence stress is discussed further in this subchapter.

B) Listening comprehension and speech production activities based on word and sentence stress

At the beginning it is important to mention that Czech language, as the mother tongue of the target group of learners, is a syllable-timed language while English is stress-timed language. According to Nation and Newton, the main differences between English and Czech are placed in syllable structure, vowel reduction and lexical stress. Therefore, Czech pupils learning English can often face difficulties in copying the rhythmic patterns of speech in English. Concerning the word stress, there is not any easy rule that would help learners to find which syllables are stressed in words. “The stress pattern of each word just has to be learned.” (Nation and Newton 2009, 91)

To help learners repeat words with the correct stress, Baker and Westrup recommend teachers to ask learners “to say the word as a series of short ‘la’ for unstressed syllables and long ‘laa’ for stressed syllables.

"La x Laa" TECHNIQUE
LEGEND: Teacher - T; Learner - L
T says "CAT" [kæt] L says "La"
T says "GARDEN" [ˈgɑ:dn] L says "Laa La"
T says "PHOTOGRAPH" L says "Laa La La"

(Author's own modification)

This can be also demonstrated by clapping or taping loudly and softly to express the placement of the stress. Nowadays teachers can choose various activities in their textbooks for practising the word stress. In the lessons they can for example use “Word stress bingo” which can be played individually or as a team competition. In this activity, teachers write different stress patterns on the board and learners are asked to choose three or four of them and note them on the paper. After that, teacher dictates about ten or fifteen words fitting the stress patterns written on the board. The learners’ task is to decide if the word the teacher dictates fits one of the stress patterns they have noted on the paper. If the word corresponds to the stress pattern from their list, they can cross it out. The one who correctly crosses out all the stress patterns from the list becomes the winner (2003, 131-132).

Concerning the sentence stress, the placement of the stress will depend “on the relative importance of the different words in the sentence.” Nation and Newton (2009) and also Baker and Westrup (2003) recommend practicing it through activities which involve elements of role-plays or discussions and dialogues. Learners can be for example divided in pairs when one of them will play a shop assistant and the other one a customer. The class will be provided with two different lists – one for customers and the second one for shop assistants.

The customers will then ask for things from their own list while shop assistants will offer products written on their list (Baker and Westrup 2003, 134-135). The discussion in pairs could then look like this:

<p style="text-align: center;">SENTENCE STRESS ACTIVITIES</p> <p>LEGEND: S - shop assistant, C - customer</p>
<p>C: Do you have any red peppers? S: No, we have only GREEN peppers.</p> <p>C: Do you have strawberry chewing gums? S: No, we have only strawberry LOLLIPOPS.</p>

(Author's own modification)

4.5 The use of games for teaching pronunciation to young learners

As it was already mentioned, it is very important to keep learners' motivation and attention at this early stage of learning when their concentration span is only from five to ten minutes. For this reason, it was also recommended to modify activities with game-like elements and avoid long activities which would later make them bored and tired. Using games in English lessons are according to Dunn another way how to exercise pronunciation. Games are defined as "a form of plays with rules which can give young children a feeling of satisfaction and a chance for improving their skills." They are most beneficial and useful if they are integrated with teaching and consolidating the use of language items. Dunn advises to choose games having similar cognitive, physical and emotional levels to the games the pupils already play in their mother tongue – Czech language. Since pupils know how to play these games, they only need to learn the linguistic labels in English. Young learners like playing cooperative games which involve the whole classroom and allow them to participate as much as they are able.

However, games based on individual competition to see who wins or who receives the highest number of points or cards are suitable for pupils who are about seven years or older because for younger children it can be rather stressful and difficult to lose.

During games teachers usually play the role of the advisor offering help or pieces of advice to their pupils. On the other hand, it is also possible for teachers to participate in games as players while pupils play the role of the teachers and direct the game.

As it was mentioned before, the game is a form of play with rules which need to be explained by the teacher before playing. In Dunn's opinion pupils have to know exactly how to play a game. In case, they are not sure what to do, chaos can result. Moreover, when pupils are not able to participate in a game fully because they do not understand the game and its rules properly, some troubles with discipline can occur as well (1983, 63, 64, 70). Nowadays, teachers can choose from variety of textbooks providing many tips and ideas about how to practice young learners' pronunciation through games. Some of the games, such as "word stress bingo", were already mentioned in previous chapters. Other interesting examples of games which can develop young learner's pronunciation can be found in Appendix 3. All the provided activities were taken from textbooks *Five-minute activities for young learners* by Penny McKay and Jenni Guse, and *Pronunciation Games* by Mark Hancock. The chosen activities are aimed mainly at recognizing individual sounds – vowels and consonants, minimal pairs and word stress. The author of this thesis chose only those activities which would be suitable for the age and level of English of the target group of learners.

5. Mistakes and correction

The last theoretical chapter of this thesis deals with the issue of learners' mistakes. For this purpose it is at first necessary to define the term and mention basic classification of mistakes. This topic is further developed by putting stress on common errors in English pronunciation of Czech learners which is discussed in 4.1.2 subchapter. In last but not least, when young learners participate in various oral performances in a class, they very often need to be informed about their mistakes and how well they managed the particular task which means that correction and providing feedback is very important and teachers should not forget about it. The topic of correcting young learners is therefore introduced in the following subchapter.

5.1 Learners' mistakes in spoken English

As it is very usual for many people to learn by mistakes and trials in everyday life, it is the same with pupils' learning at school. Making mistakes is in fact very natural and pupils should not feel embarrassed by making them. Scrivener mentions that mistakes often show teachers that a pupil "is experimenting with language, trying out ideas, taking risks,

attempting to communicate and making progress” (2005, 298).

Edge agrees with that and says that the term “mistake” covers many things that occur in the use of language and each teacher also needs to take into consideration that making mistakes does not always mean a problem but it is a part of learning and although the correction represents an important part of teaching, they do not have to focus only on learner’s use of correct or incorrect linguistic forms but also on their proper use of language to avoid impoliteness (1989, 2).

Learners’ mistakes can be further distinguished into following categories:

1) *Mistakes which are not linguistically incorrect.*

At this stage we can distinguish two main types of mistakes:

- a) Mistakes affecting the meaning and communication – these are the mistakes which occur when learners use correct linguistic forms which do not in fact mean what the learners want to express. (e.g.: a pupil would like to say that s/he wants to buy a new coat but instead of the word “coat”, the child says “jacket” which will lead to misunderstanding.)
- b) Mistakes which occur when the learners use “a correct linguistic form which is socially unacceptable” and could later lead to impoliteness.”, e.g.: “*Give me two apples.*” instead of “*Can you give me two apples, please?*”

(Edge 1989, 3-4).

2) *Mistakes of linguistic forms.*

Before mentioning the main types of mistakes belonging to this category, it is also important to explain the causes of these mistakes. Among the most typical causes of making mistakes of linguistic forms are:

- the influence of the learner’s first language – as it was experienced severely, some learners seem to be too much influenced by their mother tongue, especially in those cases when they do not have a clue how to express or say something in English and so they try to use words or structures from their native language to fit to them (Edge 1989,7).

- misunderstanding a rule – Harmer call this as “developmental mistakes” when pupils apply a rule of English language which may not be correct or which may require an exception, e.g.: the use of the past tense –ed: “they comed/goed.” instead of “they came/went” (2001,100).

According to teacher’s opinion of how a mistake fits in with an individual pupil’s stage of learning, three main categories of mistakes of linguistic forms are distinguished:

- a) Slips – these are the mistakes which can be immediately self-corrected by the pupil if s/he is pointed out by the teacher. These mistakes are very often called as “careless mistakes” and in most of the cases they are caused by not paying so much attention.
- b) Errors – in comparison to slips, errors are considered as mistakes which cannot be self-corrected by a pupil but the correct forms are familiar with the other pupils from the class.
- c) Attempts – are defined as mistakes which are made by learners when they try to say something but do not have an idea of how to correctly structure that meaning in English because they have not learned that yet.

Moreover, in case it is not clear to the teacher what pupils want to say or what structures they try to use, it is also called as attempt.

(Edge 1989, 9-10).

5.1.2 Czech learners and their errors in English pronunciation

In this subchapter the author of this thesis focuses on common errors in English pronunciation of Czech learners. The main emphasis is put on pronunciation errors in vowels and consonants.

Concerning the vowels, Skaličková states that:

- Czech learners often do not keep the length and tend to pronounce long vowels in a short or shorter way. This is probably caused by the influence of the mother tongue because in Czech language there are only short and long vowels but English language distinguishes short vowels as in “*bit*”, semi-long vowels as in “*bid*” or “*beat*” and long vowels as in “*bead*”.
- The timbre of vowels is not sometimes correctly distinguished and kept by Czech learners. The reason lies again in the mother tongue. Timbre differences basically do

not play any crucial role in Czech language. However, it is important to realize that in English the differences between words like “should” and “shoot” or “dug” and “dark” are not built on the length but on their different quality.

- Some learners very often incorrectly substitute schwa /ə/ by “e”.
- Diphthong /əʊ/ is incorrectly pronounced as /ou/.
- The change of the former diphthong /uə/ in /ɔ:/ is not often respected by learners and that is the reason why some of them pronounce the word “poor” as /puə/ instead of /pɔ:/
- Diphthongs /aɪ, eɪ, ɔɪ/ are incorrectly replaced by /aj,ej, oj/ even though the second element of these sounds should be indicated only slightly in English. For example, the word “high” is sometimes pronounced more as /ha:j/ instead of /haɪ/

(Skaličková 1982, 185-186).

As regards to consonants, it was found out that :

- Czech learners face difficulties in pronunciation of ð as in the word “this” and θ which is pronounced for example in “think”. These two consonants which are again unknown to Czech language are often incorrectly pronounced as /t, d, f, s and z/.
- Consonant /v/ is pronounced sometimes as /w/ and vice versa which can lead to misunderstanding, e.g.: vest x west; wet x vet; wheel x veal

(Internet source: www.anglictina.com).

- Realization of the final and prevocalic velar ŋ also causes troubles which can be obvious in those cases when Czech learners pronounce for example the word “sing” as /sin/ or /siŋk/ instead of /siŋ/.
- Consonant /r/ is not pronounced in the final position and before a consonant according to Received Pronunciation (RP). However, many Czech learners do not keep this rule and pronounce words such as “far” and “barking” as /fa:r/ instead of /fa:/ and /ba:rkiŋ/ instead of /ba:kiŋ/.
- Aspiration of /p, t, k/ is often incorrectly realized because some Czech learners tend to add Czech letter “ch” to the words like “cart” or “part” and therefore the pronunciation

of these words sounds more as /kcha:t/ and /pcha:t/

(Skaličková 1982, 188-189).

Moreover, it was also observed that learners often make errors in pronunciation of those words including silent letters. For example, words like “wrist” or “write” need to be pronounced without the letter “w” but many Czech learners pronounce it in these words (Internet source: www.anglictina.com).

5.2 Feedback and correction during accuracy work

As mentioned before, feedback is information that is given to the pupils about their performances of learning task, and as Ur states, is often used with “objectives of improving these performances” (1991, 242). Good feedback includes information that a pupil can use which means that he or she needs to hear and understand it. Moreover, pupils’ feelings of control and self-efficacy play very important role. Even well-intentioned feedback can be “very destructive if children cannot hear something because of the fact that the teacher’s information is beyond their comprehension or in case they do not want to listen and consider it useless” (Brookhart 2008, 2). Feedback has two main components:

a) Assessment – in which pupils are informed how well or badly they have performed
b) Correction – through which some specific information is provided on aspects of pupils’ performances with explanation, or provision of better alternatives. Correction should include “information what the pupils did right, as well as wrong, and why” (Ur 1991, 242). Harmer adds that correction is very often made up of two distinct stages. In the first, teacher shows pupils that a mistake has been done and in the second, if necessary, he or she helps pupils to do something about it. Teachers can always use different ways and techniques how to point out that a pupil has made something incorrect. Except simple saying that what a pupil has said is incorrect, teacher can:

- 1) ask the pupil to repeat what he or she has said. This is usually done with the change of intonation to make a learner realize that there is something wrong.
- 2) repeat what a pupil has said to emphasize the part of the utterance that was wrong.
- 3) use facial expressions or gestures to indicate that something does not quite work. However, using expressions or gestures should be always done with care because sometimes it can happen that the teacher’s gesture or facial expression can appear to be mocking or cruel.
- 4) use a hint to help activate rules pupils already know.

5) reformulate the pupil's sentence without making a big issue of that

(in Harmer 2001, 106).

In case the pupil is not able to correct himself, it is recommended to ask other pupils in the classroom to try to find the error and correct it. However, peer correction works very well in those classes “where there is cooperative atmosphere but it can go really wrong where the pupil who has made a mistake, feels belittled by the process” which means that teachers have to be very sensitive about it and use this technique only in circumstances where it does not undermine pupils (Harmer 2001, 106-107).

6. Conclusion of the theoretical part

The theoretical part of this thesis offered an insight into the issue of teaching pronunciation to young learners. In the first theoretical chapter, the author of this thesis focused on the general overview dealing with the term pronunciation. The author provides definitions, mentions aspects of both segmental and supra-segmental levels of English pronunciation, discussed the topic of factors affecting learners' pronunciation and the pronunciation goal which is nowadays considered to be the acquirement of intelligible and comprehensible pronunciation by many scholars and experts. In the following chapter, the author moved to the topic of young learners. She characterized this group of pupils and explains how these children develop and acquire their second language. The next chapter represented one of the most extended parts in which the topic of appropriate use of pronunciation techniques and activities that teachers can use in their lessons was introduced as well as the roles teachers and learners take during pronunciation activities in their English lessons. The last theoretical chapter provided information concerning the issues of most common mistakes observed in English pronunciation of Czech learners and the techniques teachers can choose for correcting learners.

7. RESEARCH

7.1 Introduction

The second part of this thesis is represented by the practical part which is divided into two main chapters consisting of several subchapters. At first research methodology and research aim with research questions are discussed. The subchapters dealing with research

plan and background information concerning the school where the research was carried out follow. After that the author mentions methods selected for the research. The next, ninth chapter, is aimed at results obtained from both observations and interviews with observed teachers. This chapter is finished with data interpretation and conclusion.

At the beginning, it is also important to mention that the author of this thesis has been interested in the issue of teaching English pronunciation to young learners and their pronunciation mistakes for a long time. Therefore she appreciated the possibility to conduct a pilot research during her clinical year very much. This pilot research took place in May 2010 and the aim was to find out what activities teachers used to help young learners to consolidate their pronunciation. For recording data the author of this thesis used own observation sheets whose results revealed that teachers used sound dictation of various words or phrases, chain and repetitive drilling the most. The activities greatly prevailed activities on distinguishing individual sounds of segmental level or word and sentence stress, intonation and rhythm of supra-segmental level.

8. Research methodology

Peter Gavora claims that there are many ways how to define the term “research”. Although he considers some of these definitions very difficult, he states that “research” can be defined as a systematic way of solving problems. Since the research has correction ability, it confirms or disproves actual evidence or makes the new one (2000, 11).

Research can be classified as:

- Quantitative – This works with numerical values and finds out amount, range or frequency of phenomenon occurrence. Numerical values can be processed mathematically by sum checking, counting the average, percentage formulation or by using other methods of mathematic statistics.
- Qualitative – is expressed by verbal (non-numerical) form. It is a description which is detailed and cogent. Among typical research methods are non-structured observations or ethnographic interviews.

(Gavora 2000, 31).

Miroslav Chráska adds that one of the basic differences between quantitative and qualitative research is that they both come from different philosophical principles. Quantitative research

is influenced by positivism from which the theory based on the existence of only one reality results, while qualitative research comes from phenomenology which puts stress on subjective aspects of human's acts and that is why it admits the existence of more realities (2007, 32).

This short-term research is therefore classified as a research based on qualitative (the interview with teachers) and also partly on quantitative (results expressing frequency of using particular pronunciation activities and correction techniques obtained from observations) analysis of collected data.

8.1 The research aim and questions

The overall aim of this research is to find out what activities teachers use in English lessons for teaching pronunciation to young learners attending the third, fourth and fifth grades at the age of nine to eleven and what mistakes or inaccuracies occur in young learners' pronunciation where the author of this thesis also discusses the ways how these mistakes are further corrected. In the theoretical part of this thesis the topics concerning the most common mistakes appearing in English pronunciation of Czech learners and the use of appropriate activities and techniques for teaching pronunciation have been discussed. The practical part is based on this knowledge to realize the research. Simultaneously, several research questions were stated for this purpose. These are:

1. What pronunciation activities do the teachers of the third, fourth and fifth grades use in their English lessons? Do they use more activities focused on developing or consolidating individual segmental features of pronunciation such as vowels, consonants and diphthongs or activities focused on word or sentence stress representing one of the supra-segmental features of English pronunciation?
2. What inaccuracies or errors can be found in English pronunciation of the young learners of the third, fourth and fifth grades? Do they make more errors or face obstacles in pronunciation of particular consonants (especially those which do not appear in their mother tongue – /θ/, /ð/) than in vowels?

Moreover, the author of this thesis was personally interested in young learners' concentration span and therefore she wanted to find out whether the teachers pay attention to this issue. For this reason, the author stated following question.

3. Concerning the issue of young learners' concentration span (see chapter 4.4.1), do the teachers really use pronunciation activities which are not longer than ten minutes?

This research should therefore help the author to find the answers to these questions.

8.2 The research plan

As Čábalová explains, the research consists of several stages such as:

- Informational preparation involving the study of literature, magazines, research studies, internet sources or consultation with experts.
- Research design involving specifying the research aim or hypothesis, creating research time scheme and preparing research methods. In this stage it is also important to determine a) where the research will take place, b) when it will carry out and c) who will be observed.
- Research realization and data collection
- Evaluation of the research involving interpretations of results, outputs and conclusion (2011, 90-91).

In order to assure better organisation, the author of this thesis designed a time scheme of the individual actions at the beginning of the research period. The time scheme is following:

THE RESEARCH TIME SCHEME	
Studying of the relevant literature	20. 8. 2011 – 24.8. 2011
First visit at school – meeting with the headmaster and English teachers	29. 8. 2011
Preparation of data collection methods – observation sheets	30. 8. 2011 – 31. 8. 2011
Classroom observations of the third, fourth and fifth grades	5. 9. 2011 – 30. 9. 2011
Preparing interviews	1. 10. 2011 – 2.10. 2011
Interview with teachers	3. 10. 2011

8.3 Background information

The research took place at an elementary school in Havlíčkův Brod. The school belongs to the group of typical town schools. It has about 300 pupils and 14 classes. Since 2003 it has been classified as the pilot school for confirmation of Framework Education Programme for Basic Education. The school has very good reputation in language teaching. Compared to other schools in the region where it is usual to start with a foreign language in the third grade, pupils of this school begin to learn a foreign language at the age of 6 or 7 in the first grade. From the sixth grade pupils' knowledge in a foreign language is improved in optional subjects – English Conversation, Communication in English language and English language 2.

There are 3 English teachers for the classes from the 1st – 5th grade. Two of them have not graduated in English; the third one teaching the fifth grade has received the Diploma in teaching at nursery schools and later passed the state exam in English language. To keep ethic standards, these three teachers are further called as “Teacher A”, “Teacher B” and Teacher C”.

Children of the first and second grade are timetabled one English lesson a week while there are two lessons for the third graders. Children of the fourth and fifth grade are timetabled 3 lessons a week. The prescribed textbooks for the pupils of the fourth and fifth grades are called “Chatterbox 1” and “Chatterbox 2” written by Derek Strange. The third graders use the textbook “Angličtina se zvířátky 2” by Jana Davidová. However, they work with this textbook later. Since there is an audio-oral course at the beginning of the school year when the teacher uses a handbook “Začínáme mluvit anglicky” by Hana Tröglová together with an audio cassette, the children start to use the textbooks in about one or two months. The youngest learners start with the textbook Angličtina pro nejmenší by Marie Zahálková and “Angličtina se zvířátky 1”. Concerning learners' timetables – English language for the third grade was the second lesson each Wednesday and the first lesson on Fridays. English lesson of 4th graders was the second lesson each Thursday and Friday and the first lesson each Tuesday. English for the fifth class was the first lesson on Mondays and Wednesdays and the fourth lesson on Friday which means that none of these lessons was scheduled for the fifth or

later lesson in the school timetable. Each English lesson lasted the same time as other school subjects – 45 minutes and took place in pupils' own classrooms. The researcher observed 30 lessons of English language and 54 young learners in total – 18 children from the third grade, 17 children attending the fourth grade, 19 children attending the fifth grade.

8.4. Research methods

8.4.1 Observations

As it was mentioned in previous subchapter, one of the chosen research methods was structured observation. Miroslav Chráska says that observation is one of the oldest and the most widely used methods of obtaining data about pedagogical reality (2007, 151). It is defined as watching people's activity, record – registration or written description of this activity, its evaluation and analysis. The term “structured observation” means that the observer already knows how and what he/she is going to observe in a lesson before starting the observation and therefore he/she structures or divides the observed reality into predefined categories (Gavora 2000, 76).

From what the author has learnt in literature including books by Chráska (2007) or Průcha (1995), the conducted classroom observations are classified as “short-term” ones because they did not last for a long period of several years which would be then called as “longitudinal” or long-term observations. In terms of observer's participation, it is direct observation which means that the author met personally with the observation object (Chráska 2007, 151). Moreover, the observer follows Gavora's recommendation and does not disturb the observed persons - the chosen place for classroom observations was usually in the back corner of a classroom or at the back desks (2000, 78). Průcha mentions another classification – participant and non-participant observations. Since the observer was not actively joined in the observed situation, did not intervene in the course of events and did not discuss with the observed learners, this observation is therefore defined as non-participant (1995, 38). The author, as also stated in the book by Cohen, Manion and Morrison, adopted a passive, non-intrusive role, merely noting down the incidence of the factors being studied (2007, 398). Concerning the observation tools discussed for example by Gavora (2000), for this research the observer chose sheets designed with the help of her personal computer, however the information were filled in a written form. Except observation sheets, the author also used Dictaphone for recording.

8.4.2 Interviews

In the words of Freeman, the interview is a “face-to-face verbal session conducted by the researcher as unplanned, planned or structured interaction. The researcher can use previously planned questions, structured interview schedule or allow the interview to unfold spontaneously” (1998, 94). Peter Gavora agrees with this definition but adds that the researcher does not always need to make the interview personally from face to face. Telephone interview represents the next possibility. Since the interview is built on interpersonal contact, its success depends on evoking open atmosphere and gaining friendly relation. The term “Rapport” is very often used for this state (2000, 110).

Chráska distinguishes following interview types: structured interview, unstructured interview, semi-structured interview and group interview (2007, 182). The author of this thesis used unstructured interview defined as an interview allowing respondents to answer in absolutely open way (Gavora 2000, 111).

Last but not least, before making an interview, the researcher needs to be aware of some rules:

- Interview should always take place during suitable situation in natural environment. Sufficient time allowance needs to be provided.
- People who are not included in the interview should not be present during the session.
- It is recommended to start with general questions.
- It is necessary to create positive conditions for gaining appropriate rapport and for respondents' motivation to cooperate.

(Chráska 2007, 182-183).

For the purpose of this research, there were 3 individual interviews with English teachers of the third, fourth and fifth grades consisting of ten questions. The interview followed the observations and it took place in teachers' offices.

9. Research results of collected data

9.1 The use of pronunciation activities for young learners

In the following subchapters the author of this thesis discusses activities used for developing or consolidating young learners' English pronunciation. At first the author mentions activities which were used in the third class and then she moves to the fourth and

fifth grades.

Important data were recorded in the observation sheet (see Appendix 4) which was created for the purpose of this task. In total there are five categories in the observation sheet. Namely these are:

- 1) DATE – the date when the particular class observation was carried out.
- 2) ACTIVITY NAME (CODE) – for the better organisation and the economy of time the author has decided to use particular codes for each activity.
- 3) Focus on SEGM. or SUPRA-SEGM. features of pronunciation – in this category it is mentioned whether the activity was focused on developing segmental or supra-segmental features of English pronunciation and also determines whether the activity involved learners' reception or production.
- 4) ACTIVITY DESCRIPTION – the author describes the activity.
- 5) TIME spent by working on this activity – this category is included for the purpose of discovering whether the teachers pay attention to young learners' concentration span and therefore do not use activities longer than 10 minutes.

9.1.1 The use of pronunciation activities in the third grade

In total the author spent 7 lessons in the third grade. The data collected during these observations and recorded in the observation sheet were further transferred into two main tables. Pronunciation activities of the segmental level were put into focus first and then the activities of the supra-segmental level were discussed. All the activities use its codes and are followed by a number representing their frequency which means how often these activities were used during the seven observed lessons.

Table No. 1 – Pronunciation activities of the segmental level

CODE	RECEPTION - PRODUCTION	DESCRIPTION	FREQUENCY
ACPSEV1	Reception	Distinguishing individual sounds (vowels) in the words dictated by the teacher or from the tape recorder.	3x (3/7)
ACPSEC1	Reception	Distinguishing individual sounds (consonants) in the words dictated by the teacher or from the tape recorder.	2x (2/7)

ACPSED1	Reception	Distinguishing individual sounds (diphthongs) in the words dictated by the teacher or from the tape recorder.	2x (2/7)
Distinguishing individual sounds in total: 7x (7/7)			
ACPSEB1	Reception	Bingo – Teacher pronounces words and learners turn their picture cards	4x (4/7)
ACPSERD	Production	Repetitive drill: Vocabulary repetition, learners repeat words after the teacher or the tape recorder	6x (6/7)
ACPSEWP	Production	Pictures and words: Teacher shows pictures of already practiced and familiar words, learners pronounce the words	4x (4/7)
ACPSECD	Production	Chain Drill – Teacher asks a pupil one question, the pupil answers and turns to the next pupil with the same question.	3x (3/7)
ACPSEWD	Production	Word dominoes – numbers 1 – 20 – learners are provided with little cards including two numbers (the cards look like dominoes), each learner has a card with different numbers, the learner who has a card including number 1 starts, s/he pronounces both numbers (for example 1 and 4) and the learner who has a card with number 4 continues.	2x (2/7)

Table No.2 – Pronunciation activities of the supra-segmental level

CODE	RECEPTION- PRODUCTION	DESCRIPTION	FREQUENCY
ACPSURS	Production	Rhymes and songs: 2 rhymes – “Good Morning”	7x (7/7)

		(rhythm), “Mary Midling” (rhythm)	
		1 song “Ten little fingers” (rhythm)	

As it is evident from the tables, the English teacher of the third grade used more activities focused on segmental level of pronunciation. The most frequent activity was focused on distinguishing individual sounds (consonants, vowels, diphthongs), this type of activity was used every lesson – there were 3 lessons for distinguishing vowels, 2 lessons for distinguishing consonants and 2 lessons for distinguishing diphthongs. In all the cases, children listened to several (mostly unknown) words dictated mainly from the tape recorder and were instructed by the teacher to clap with their hands in case that they heard a particular sound, e.g. long i /i:/ in the words such as “see”, “green”, “she” and not to do anything when they heard different sound, e.g. short i /i/ such as in “winter”, “silk” or “hill” (see Appendix 5 or listen to audio example DS300025 on CD). The second most frequent activity was the repetitive drill (ACPSERD) when young learners were asked to listen to the particular words and repeat them after the teacher or tape recorder. This activity was used in 6 lessons.

Concerning the supra-segmental level, the only activity which was practiced during the period of observations in this class was presented with the use of rhymes and songs for practicing English rhythm. There were two rhymes and one song in total (listen to audio examples DS300014, DS300022 on CD). However, both songs and rhymes were practiced frequently. To be specific, this activity was used each lesson and was really popular among the third graders.

To make the lesson funny and to activate children, the teacher also included two types of games – Bingo and Word dominoes (see Appendix 6 for explanation). Bingo was already familiar to the pupils and was played in four lessons during the period of observations, the second game – “Word dominoes” was presented with its rules for the first time and was practiced in two lessons.

Generally, there were more activities focused on learners’ production. To be specific, activities dealing with distinguishing individual sounds and the game bingo involved learners’ recognition while the other activities including drilling, word dominoes, pronouncing words on the basis of shown pictures, songs and rhymes required also learners’ production.

As regards to young learners’ concentration span, it was revealed from the observation sheets, that none of the presented pronunciation activities was longer than ten minutes. The

longest activity was Chain drill (ACPSECD) which took about 8 minutes, the shortest activity was focused on practicing rhymes which took about 2 minutes.

9.1.2 The use of pronunciation activities in the fourth grade

The total number of observations in this classroom was twelve. For the same purpose as in the case of the observations in the third class, the author of this thesis used her own created observation sheets for collecting data which were further transformed into the following tables.

Table No. 3 – Pronunciation activities of the segmental level

CODE	RECEPTION - PRODUCTION	DESCRIPTION	FREQUENCY
ACPSEV1	Reception	Distinguishing individual sounds (vowels) in the words dictated by the teacher.	4x (4/12)
ACPSEC1	Reception	Distinguishing individual sounds (consonants) in the words dictated by the teacher.	3x (3/12)
ACPSEM	Reception	Minimal pairs – learners are given a list of minimal pairs, they circle/underline the words they hear. Not all the words from the list are pronounced on a cassette.	4x (4/12)
Distinguishing individual sounds in total: 11x (11/12)			
ACPSEB1	Reception	Bingo – Teacher pronounces words and learners turn their cards	5x (5/12)
ACPSEB2	Production	Bingo – Learners pronounce words and the others turn their cards	3x (3/12) – In total: 8x
ACPSERD	Production	Repetitive drill: New words, phrases or whole sentences repetition – learners repeat after the teacher/tape recorder	9x (9/12)

ACPSEWT	Production	Word translation: Teacher says already practiced and familiar words in Czech and learners pronounce them in English.	7x (7/12)
ACPSECD	Production	Chain Drill – Teacher asks a pupil one question, the pupil answers and turns to the next pupil with the same question.	5x (5/12)
ACPSEISIS1	Recognition	Simon Says - Teacher gives instruction, learners listen and demonstrate	3x (3/12)
ACPSEISIS2	Production	Simon Says – Learners give instruction, the others listen and demonstrate	4x (4/12) – In total: 7x

Table No. 4 – Pronunciation activities of the supra-segmental level

CODE	RECEPTION- PRODUCTION	DESCRIPTION	FREQUENCY
ACPSUSS	Reception	SENTENCE STRESS - Pupils listen and underline the stressed words in the sentences dictated from the tape recorder	2x (2/12)
ACPSUWS	Production	“Repeat and Clap” - WORD STRESS – Teacher pronounces words, learners repeat aloud and clap with their hands to indicate the stressed part of the words.	4x (4/12)
ACPSURS	Production	Rhymes and songs: 1 rhyme – “Numbers” – rhythm, strong words. (used in three lessons) 1 song – “How are you?” – rhythm, intonation (used in two lessons)	5x (5/12)

These results show that in the fourth grade there were again more activities dealing with segmental features of English pronunciation than with supra-segmental. The most frequent activity was focused on distinguishing individual sounds (vowels and consonants). Unlike the third graders, young learners in the fourth grade were also provided with a new activity in which they got a list of minimal pairs and were asked to listen to the tape recorder and underline or circle all the words they heard.

Learners' age was put to consideration as well. Games which are so popular with children were practiced in the class in the form of "Bingo" and "Simon Says". Since the role of the leader or main speaker (teacher X pupil) in these two games changed a few times, both learners' reception and production was practiced. In other words, the games were led not only by the teacher but also by the learners.

Concerning the supra-segmental level of English pronunciation, there were two activities which were focused on determining stress – both word and sentence. To compare these two activities, the teacher devoted more time to the word stress (ACPSUWS). This activity was practiced in four lessons while there were only two lessons for practicing sentence stress (ACPSUSS1). Furthermore, rhymes and songs were not forgotten. This activity (see Appendix 7A) helped young learners to be aware of English rhythm, stress and intonation.

It was also observed that activities involving learners' production again prevailed over those activities which involve only learners' recognition.

Last but not least, it is important to mention the time length of observed activities which was not again longer than ten minutes. Most of the activities took about four or five minutes. The longest one - Bingo – took about 7 minutes while the shortest activity, "Numbers" (rhyme), took two minutes.

9.1.3 The use of activities in the fifth grade

Observations in the fifth grade cover the period of 11 lessons in total. As it is seen from the results, it was observed that the activities focused on distinguishing individual sounds were not as frequent as in the case of the third and fourth class. This type of activity was practiced only in three lessons and unlike the previous classes where young learners distinguished the particular sounds by clapping with their hands, knocking on the table or raising their right or left hand, the fifth graders had to pronounce words aloud and then to divide them into appropriate category/column which represented the individual sounds. The

most frequent activity in this classroom was the sound dictation where the teacher dictated various words which the learners had to write down and after that pronounce aloud. This activity was used in eight lessons in total.

Concerning the supra-segmental level, there were again less activities used in observed lessons than the activities of the segmental level. The most frequent was the song “Hokey Cokey” (see Appendix 7B) focused on English rhythm. The song involved also body movements and dance which is probably one of the main reasons why it was so popular and so frequent in lessons.

Moreover, activities involving learners’ production highly prevailed over those in which only learners’ recognition was involved.

Regarding the learners’ concentration span, the longest activity, “Simon says”, took about 8 minutes while the shortest one focused on distinguishing individual sounds took 1-2 minutes. Therefore, there was no activity longer than 10 minutes which would be therefore considered less appropriate or even inappropriate to the age of observed group of learners.

Table No. 5 – Pronunciation activities of the segmental level

CODE	RECEPTION - PRODUCTION	DESCRIPTION	FREQUENCY
ACPSEV2	Production	Distinguishing individual sounds (vowels) in the words – learners are asked to pronounce words from the list aloud and divide them into the right column representing the particular sounds	2x (2/11)
ACPSED2	Production	Distinguishing individual sounds (diphthongs) in the words – learners are asked to pronounce words from the list aloud and divide them into the right	1x (1/11)

column representing the particular sounds			
Distinguishing individual sounds in total: 3x (3/11)			
ACPSERD	Production	Repetitive drill: New words repetition – learners repeat new words after the teacher/tape recorder	7x (6/11)
ACPSEWT	Production	Word translation: Teacher says already practiced and familiar words in Czech and learners pronounce them in English.	6x (6/11)
ACPSESD	Production	Sound dictation – learners are asked to pronounce words that the teacher dictated.	8x (8/11)
ACPSECD	Production	Chain Drill – Teacher asks a pupil one question, the pupil answers and turns to the next pupil with the same question.	5x (5/12)
ACPSEISIS1	Recognition	Simon Says - Teacher gives instruction, learners listen and demonstrate	5x (5/11)
ACPSEISIS2	Production	Simon Says – Learners give instruction, the others listen and demonstrate	2x (1/11) – In total: 7x

Table No. 6 – Pronunciation activities of the supra-segmental level

CODE	RECEPTION- PRODUCTION	DESCRIPTION	FREQUENCY
ACPSUWS	Production	“Repeat and Clap” - WORD STRESS – Teacher pronounces words, learners repeat aloud and clap with their hands to indicate the stressed part of the words.	2x (2/11)
ACPSURS	Production	Rhymes and songs: 1 song – “The Hokey Cokey?” –	6x (6/11)

		rhythm (body movement involved)	
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9.1.5 The summary of observations

The following lines summarize all the observed lessons and classes together. During the period of classroom observations, teachers of the third, fourth and fifth classes use various kinds of activities for developing or consolidating young learners' pronunciation. Both activities of the segmental and supra-segmental level appeared in lessons. In general, teachers paid more attention to the segmental features of English pronunciation, though. The activities of the segmental level used in lessons were:

- Activities focused on distinguishing individual sounds such as vowels, consonants, diphthongs, minimal pairs. In all the cases, words were presented by teachers or from the tape recorder. The third and fourth graders were asked to give a signal (such as clapping or knocking) to distinguish particular sounds in those words which means that young learners' reception was involved while in the fifth grade, learners also had to pronounce the words from the list aloud and then put the words in an appropriate category which represented the particular individual sound. Therefore their production was involved as well.
- Repetitive drill activity (ACPSERD) in which teachers (or in some cases the voices from the tape recorder) pronounced a word or a series of various words and asked learners to repeat and imitate the correct pronunciation after them.
- Chain drill activity (ACPSECD) where teachers pronounced a statement (such as "I am from Jihlava.") and question (e.g.: "Where are you from?") and then asked a learner to answer the question and turn to the next pupil with the same question.
- "Pictures and words" activity (ACPSEWP) in which the teacher showed pictures or picture flash cards to young learners who answered usually in one word about what they could see on it. Teachers listened carefully to learners' pronunciation and provided correction if necessary.
- "Word translation" (ACPSEWT) activity in which teachers said a particular word in Czech language and learners translated it in English.
- "Sound dictation" (ACPSESD) where the teacher pronounced the row of words including mostly unfamiliar words or vocabulary which was not practiced so much in

previous lessons while the young learners' task was to write down the words on a paper and then pronounce them aloud.

- Games including “Bingo”, “Word dominoes” and “Simon says”.

From the results (Appendix 8), it was revealed that the most frequent activities were focused on repetitive drill (used in 22 lessons of 30) and distinguishing individual sounds (used in 21 lessons). The least frequent activity was the “Word dominoes” which was used only in two lessons, both in the third grade.

As regards to the activities of supra-segmental level helping young learners to practice mainly stress, intonation or rhythm, teachers used:

- Rhymes and songs (ACPSURS): in total there were three songs and three rhymes which were learned and practiced during the period of observations. Most of them were focused on English rhythm. However, there were also a song and a rhyme which helped young learners to be aware of English intonation and strong words.
- “Repeat and Clap” activity (ACPSUWS) – this was used in lessons to practice word stress. Teachers pronounced words and learners repeated them aloud and simultaneously clapped with their hands to indicate stressed parts of the words (e.g.: “factory” – [clap] *FæK - tə - ri*).
- Sentence stress activity (ACPSUSS) where young learners were provided with papers including a couple of sentences and then listened to the teacher or voices from the tape recorder pronouncing these sentences in which some words were pronounced with greater emphasis. The learners' main task was therefore listened carefully the pronunciation of individual words and circled or underlined the stressed ones.

To compare these three presented activities of supra-segmental level, it was found out from the results that the most frequent activity was the one focused on rhymes and songs. In total, it was practiced in 18 lessons and as already mentioned, it became really popular among children. The other activities of the supra-segmental level dealing with sentence and word stress were used in lessons very rarely.

Finally, it is possible to answer two of three research questions from the chapter 8.1.

“What pronunciation activities do the teachers of the third, fourth and fifth grades use in their English lessons? Do they use more activities focused on developing or consolidating individual segmental features of pronunciation such as vowels, consonants and diphthongs or activities focused on word or sentence stress representing one of the supra-segmental features of English pronunciation?”

The results of observations showed that although all the teachers included activities focusing on both segmental and supra-segmental levels in their lessons, the significant or prominent attention was devoted to activities of segmental level including distinguishing vowels, consonants, diphthongs, minimal pairs, repetitive and chain drilling, word translation with and also without the use of pictures, sound dictation and the games Bingo, Simon Says and Word dominoes. Moreover, activities in which children’s production was needed were practiced in lessons more often than those activities in which only learners’ recognition was used.

“Concerning the issue of young learners’ concentration span (see chapter 4.4.1.), do the teachers really use pronunciation activities which are not longer than ten minutes?”

It was observed that all the teachers really respected learners’ age and therefore did not include activities requiring longer time than 10 minutes.

9.2 Young learners’ pronunciation mistakes and correction techniques

This subchapter deals with learners’ mistakes in their pronunciation and the ways how these mistakes were corrected. The researcher focused on learners’ pronunciation errors corrected by learner’s teachers or peers during the observations. Grammatical mistakes or mistakes in meaning were not recorded in researcher’s observation sheets (Appendix 9).

Collected data from observation sheets were again compiled in tables. In the first table the researcher mentions learners’ mistakes in pronouncing vowels while in the second table there is the list of observed mistakes in pronouncing consonants.

For the purpose of better organisation and mistakes recording, the author of this thesis also used voice recorder (Dictaphone) in the observed lessons.

Before starting to summarize the results, it is necessary to explain the meaning of various expressions appearing in round brackets after each word. The explanation of the abbreviations is following:

- TI: Teacher interrupted and corrected the learner immediately and provided the correct pronunciation.
- TA: Teacher did not interrupt the learner immediately and corrected him/her at the end of the activity.
- TR: Teacher repeated exactly in the same way what a learner has said to emphasize that there was something wrong.
- TLR: Teacher asked the learner to repeat what s/he has said to make her/him realize that there was something wrong.
- TNC: Teacher used non-verbal communication (gestures, postures, facial expressions) to indicate a mistake/inaccuracy.
- PI: Teacher asked learner's peer(s) to correct him/her immediately. (the learner was interrupted)
- PA: Teacher asked learner's peer(s) to correct him/her at the end of the activity.
- SH: Learner corrected himself/herself (self-correction) with the help of the teacher (teacher provided some kind of hint)
- R: Learner had a chance to repeat the word with the right pronunciation after the correction from the teacher or peers.

Last but not least, there is also a number before the expressions; the number shows us in how many lessons the particular word was incorrectly pronounced.

Example of interpretation:

2x /kɒləɹ/ (TI, R), 1x /kʊləɹ/ (TR, R): "In 2 lessons learners incorrectly pronounced the word "colour" /kɒləɹ/ as /kʊləɹ/, in all these cases teacher corrected the learner immediately, the learner had a chance or was asked to repeat the word with correct pronunciation. In one lesson learner incorrectly pronounced the word "colour" /kɒləɹ/ as /kʊləɹ/, teacher repeated the word /kɒləɹ/ after the learner to indicate that it wasn't right. After that the learner got a chance to repeat the word again with the correct pronunciation."

Table No.7 – Learners' pronunciation errors and slips in vowels

VOWELS	MISPRONOUNCED AS...	ERRORS
ʌ	o, u	2x /kɒləɹ/ (TI, R), 1x /kʊləɹ/ (TR, R), 1x /kʊləɹ/ (PI), 2x /kɒm/ (TI, R), 2x /rʊbəɹ/ (TI, R), 1x /rʊbəɹ/ (TLR, R) 1x /nʊmbəɹ/ (PI, R), 1x /ʊndəɹ/ (TI, R), 1x /ʊndəɹ/(TNC, R), 2x /ʊmbɹɛlə/ (TI, R), 1x

		/umbrelə/ (SH), 1x /puzəl/ (TI), 1x /monki/ (TLR, R), 1x /honi/ (TI), 1x /honi/ (PI, R), 1x /butər/ (PI), 1x /son/ (TI), 2x /duk/ (TI, R), 2x /totʃ/ (TI, R), 1x /bus/ (SH), 1x /moni/ (PI)
æ	a	1x /bag/ (TI, R), 1x /bag/ (PI), 1x /bag/ (TLR, R), 1x /glad/ (TI, R), 2x /map/ (TI, R), 1x /map/ (SH), 2x /ap əl/ (TI, R), 1x /ap əl/ (SH), 1x /dad/ (TI), 2x /kaptən/ (TI, R), 2x /bak/ (TI, R), 1x /pərhaps/ (TI, R), 2x /faktəri/ (TI, R), 2x /kanot/ (TI, R), 1x /kanot/ (PI), 1x /kanot/ (SH)
ɛ	a, i	2x /tadi/ (TI, R), 1x /tadi/ (TLR, R), 2x /iləfənt/ (TI, R), 1x /mani/ (PI)
ɜ	o, i, u	1x /dorti/ (TA), 2x /girl/ (TI, R), 1x /turn/ (TI)
ə	a,e,i,o,u	1x /kaler/ (PI), 2x /nambər/ (TI, R), 1x /dokter/ (TI, R), 1x /dokter/ (TLR, R), 1x /todei/ (TI), 1x /tudei/ (TI), 1x /ɛlifənt/ (TI), 2x /pərhæps/ (TI, R), 2x /agein/ (TI, R)
i	a, ai, e	2x /orandʒ/ (TI, R), 1x /orandʒ/ (PI), 1x /faiftin/ (SH), 1x /englif/ (TI)
i	i:	1x /si:stər/ (TA, R), 1x /mi:lk/ (TA, R)
i:	e:	2x /ajskre:m/ (TI, R), 1x /ajskre:m/ (PI, R)
ɒ	a, a:	2x /batl/ (TI, R), 1x /batl/ (PI, R) 1x /ba:tl/ (SH)
ɔ	u:, a	1x /du:r/ (SH), 2x /watər/ (TI, R), 1x /watər/ (PI) 2x /al/ (TI, R)
u	o, a	2x /bok/ (TI, R), 1x /bok/ (TR, R), 2x /ho/ (TI, R), 1x /lok/ (TI, R), 1x /lok/ (PI, R), 2x /ralər/ (TI, R), 1x /kok/ (PI)
u	u:	1x /bu:k/ (SH)
ai	i	2x /climb/ (TI, R), 2x /rit/ (TI, R)
au	ou	2x /broun/ (TI, R), 1x /doun/ (TI, R), 1x /doun/ (PI), 2x /hou/ (TI, R), 1x /hou/ (TR, R), 1x /hou/ (TLR, R), 2x /hou/ (PI), 1x /nou/ (TI), 1x /trouzərz/ (TI, R), 1x /trouz ərz/ (PI), 2x /out/ (TI), 1x /flouər/ (TI, R)
ou	o, o:	1x /go:l/ (TI, R), 1x /go:l/ (PA, R), 2x /ovər/ (TI, R)

ei	ai, a:	3x /train/ (TI, R), 2x /train/ (TLR, R) 2x /da: n dʒərəs/ (TI, R), 1x /sai/ (TR, R), 2x /wait/ (TI, R)
iə	i:, e:	3x /hi:r/ (TI, R), 1x /he:r/ (PI), 1x /e:r/ (TLR, R)
εə	a, a:	2x /ka:rfəl/ (TI, R), 1x /arəplein/ (TLR, R), 1x /arəplein/ (PI)

Table No.8 – Learners’ pronunciation errors and slips in consonants

CONSONANTS	MISPRONOUNCED AS...	ERRORS and SLIPS
b	p	2x /pig/ (TI, R), 2x /pig/ (TA) , 1x /pig/ (PI, R)
d	t	1x /bet/ (TI)
t	d	2x /raid/ (TI), 1x /raid/ (TR, R) 1x /raid/ (PI), 4x /god/ (TI, R), 2x /god/ (SH)
k	g	1x /drɪŋg/ (TI), 1x /bug/ (TR, R), 3x /bæg/ (TI)
θ	t, s	8x /tri: / (TI, R), 4x /tri: / (SH), 2x /tri:/ (TR, R) 1x /ba:t/ (TI, R), 3x /tæŋk/ (TI, R), 2x /tæŋk/ (TLR, R), 3x /tæŋk/ (SH), 2x /sæŋk/ (TI, R), 1x /wit/ (TI), 2x /tɪŋ/ (TI, R), 3x /tɪŋk/ (TI, R), 1x /tɪŋk/ (TLR, R), 3x /sɪŋk/ (TI, R), 2x /tru:/ (TI, R), 4x /tɜ:ti:n/ (TI, R), 1x /sɜ:ti:n/ (SH), 1x /tɜ:ti/ (PI), 3x /sɜ:ti/ (TI, R), 3x /maut/ (TI, R), 2x /bout/ (TI, R)
ð	t	4x /tis/ (TI, R), 2x /tis/ (TR, R), 2x /ti:z/ (TI, R), 5x /tei/ (TI, R), 2x /tei/ (TR, R), 1x /tei/ (SH)
s	z	1x /zit/ (TNC, R), 2x /zan/ (TI, R), 1x /ziŋ/ (PI), 1x /baz/ (SH), 1x /zi: / (TLR, R)
tʃ	ʃ	1x /ti:fər/ (TI), 2x /pɪkfər/ (TI, R), 1x /foklit/ (SH)
v	w	3x /wery/ (TI, R)
w	v	4x /vot/ (TI, R)
Silent letters	w, t, k	3x /whu:/ (TI, R), 4x /wrait/ (TI, R), 2x /wrait/ (PI, R) 2x /listən/ (TI, R), 1x /kni:/ (TI), 2x /knou/ (TA)

As it is apparent from the results, learners more often incorrectly pronounced vowels than consonants. The vowel Λ frequently caused difficulties. Learners often pronounced it as “o” or “u”. Moreover, obstacles were also evident in pronouncing “æ”. This sound does not exist in young learners’ mother tongue which is probably the reason why children had tendencies to pronounce it as “a”. Schwa /ə/ represents another sound which does not occur in Czech language and which was quite difficult for learners to pronounce in some words.

Concerning the pronunciation of consonants, the most problematic words were those including θ and δ . This phenomenon appearing in several observed lessons can be again explained by argumentation that we do not have an equivalent of these two consonants in Czech language and therefore it is usually quite difficult for non-native learners to learn these sounds correctly. It was also possible to observe certain inaccuracies in pronunciation of words consisting of silent letters such as “w” in the word “who”, “t” in “listen” or “k” in “knee”. Last but not least, these results help to answer another research question.

What inaccuracies or errors can be found in English pronunciation of the young learners of the third, fourth and fifth grades? Do they make more errors or face obstacles in pronunciation of particular consonants (especially those which do not appear in their mother tongue – / θ /, / δ /) than in vowels?

This research revealed that learners made more errors in pronouncing particular vowels than consonants. However, if focusing only on the area of pronouncing consonants without comparing it with pronunciation of particular English vowels, it is possible to say that consonant / θ / which is not used in young learners’ mother tongue caused the most frequent difficulties.

As regards to the techniques teachers chose for correcting mistakes, it was observed that teachers tried to use various ways how to correct young learners.

- The situation when the teacher told straight the correct pronunciation of the mistaken word without trying to provide some hints at first (TI + TA) was the most frequent. From all the used techniques, it represented approximately **59.2%** (in 95% the teacher corrected the learner by stopping him/her immediately, in 5% s/he was corrected after finishing the activity).
- The situation when the teacher asked another learner(s) in the classroom to correct a learner (PI+PA) represented **16.6%** (in 96% the peer correction was made immediately, in 4% after the activity).

- The situation when the teacher repeated exactly in the same way what the learner has said (TR) (usually with apparent change of intonation) to help him/her realize that there was something incorrect represented **5.7%**.
- The technique of using various hints (SH) to help learners find the mistake and self-correct was represented by **9.6%**.
- **7.6%** represented the situation when the teacher asked the learner to repeat what s/he has pronounced to indicate that there was probably something wrong.
- Using non-verbal communication (gestures or facial expressions) represented only **1.3%**.

9.3 Results of the interview with teachers

The interview with English teachers of the third, fourth and fifth grades was carried out a couple of days after the classroom observations and it took place in teachers' offices where the teachers were interviewed individually. The whole interview (see Appendix 10) was realized in Czech language for the purpose of creating more natural and comfortable atmosphere.

Since majority of this thesis is written in English, the author's interview questions and teachers' answers are translated in English in this subchapter. The interview consisted of ten questions in total:

1. What is or what should be according to you the goal of English pronunciation for non-native learners, in this case for Czech young learners?
2. Do you think or do you believe that Czech young learners can achieve native-like English pronunciation or is it impossible for them to achieve it in rather early age?
3. Do you think or do you believe that young learners can achieve better English pronunciation than those learners who start to learn English later (teenagers and adults)?
4. How much time on average do you devote for teaching English pronunciation in your English class?
5. Do you think that the time spent on practicing English pronunciation is sufficient and meet with your learners' needs?
6. How do you help your learners to acquire better English pronunciation?

7. In general, do you concentrate more on distinguishing individual sounds such as vowels, consonants, diphthongs or on English stress, intonation or rhythm in your teaching?
8. What is the role of textbooks for teaching English pronunciation in your lessons?
9. What factors according to you affect young learners' pronunciation the most?
10. What techniques of correction (teacher's immediate correction, using hints, using non-verbal communication, asking other learners to correct...) do you use the least and why?

Concerning the first question, all teachers answered that the goal should be the achievement of English pronunciation which will be mainly comprehensible, clear and unambiguous for teachers, learners and other people (both non-native and native) learning English language. Teachers' answers therefore indicate that they do not consider achieving native-like pronunciation the most important goal.

In the second question, all three interviewed teachers expressed their belief and confidence about gaining native-like pronunciation in early age of learners' lives. However, teacher C added that children must do more than just learning and practicing English pronunciation at school with their teacher. She suggested listening to native English through TV and radio programmes – e.g. songs, films and series at home in their free time. Teacher A believes that children can achieve native-like pronunciation in the easier way when they have chances to visit English speaking countries and be in the contact with native speakers – in this point she also suggested visiting English summer camps or courses where children can meet with native teachers. Teacher B also believes that young learners can achieve native-like pronunciation but in her opinion the most important factor in this area is young learner's own goals, interest and desire to acquire native-like pronunciation. If the learner is not interested in English language or is completely content with his/her non-native English pronunciation, s/he will hardly ever acquire native-like pronunciation.

As regards to the differences between young and older learners, teacher A and teacher B believe that learners' age is not so much important for learning English pronunciation which means that older or adult learners have equal chances to acquire pronunciation of English language as well as children. However, teacher C who also teaches English to learners who at first started to learn German as their first foreign language and later they started with English, answered that she believes that children have usually higher chances to acquire better English

pronunciation because at this early age they are not shy of imitating English pronunciation and they are more enthusiastic and eager about learning pronunciation while older learners can be usually very shy or even defiant about imitating pronunciation which sounds usually unnatural to them. The teacher said: “When these older learners listen to the conversation between native speakers, they sometimes consider the way how they speak exaggerating or embarrassing. They are unwilling to copy or imitate the pronunciation. Moreover, there are sometimes cases when older learners do not want to speak aloud in English at all which result in situations where learners’ written performance is much better than their oral performance.”

The next, fourth question, was focused on frequency of using pronunciation activities and practicing English pronunciation in each observed class. Teacher A and teacher B answered that they try to focus on practicing English pronunciation in nearly every English lesson and they spend on average about 15 - 20 minutes by practicing pronunciation. Moreover, teacher A mentioned the audio-oral course which is conducted and successfully integrated in her English lessons from the beginning of the school year. On the other hand, teacher C answered that they devoted less time (only about 10 minutes) for practicing English pronunciation in comparison to the third and fourth grade.

The fifth question closely followed the previous one. Teachers A and B think that there is sufficient time for practising pronunciation in English lessons in their classes while the third teacher answered that there should be more time for practising English pronunciation but in that case the change of English textbooks and curriculum would be needed.

In the next question, all the teachers agreed that for learners it is necessary to hear not only English language spoken by their teachers but also and mainly the language spoken by other, usually native, speakers. For this purpose, teacher A and teacher B include often various activities based on listening, repeating and imitating the pronunciation. Teacher C agreed that imitation and drill is important but she confessed that these types of activities are usually quite boring for her learners. Therefore listening to English songs, singing or reciting, imitating real-life discussions or role plays and watching English or American films, documentaries or series can represent another, more amusing option.

As regards to the seventh question, all the three teachers answered that when practicing English pronunciation, they concentrate more on the way how young learners pronounce

particular sounds which means that they are more interested in segmental level of English than in supra-segmental which after all was proved during classroom observations.

The answers in the next, eighth question, were following. Teacher A expressed positive feelings about current textbooks used in her English lessons in the third grade. She values especially using the audio-oral guide which plays one of the most crucial roles in teaching pronunciation to her learners. Teacher B and teacher C admitted that their textbooks (Chatterbox series) do not play the most important role in teaching pronunciation. Teacher C even expressed dissatisfaction about these textbooks. The both teachers mentioned that they usually have to use their own additional materials and textbooks for practicing English pronunciation.

In the ninth question, the author wanted to find out what factor affects learners' pronunciation the most according to the interviewed teachers. They all agreed that it is the learners' mother tongue and how much it is different from the target language that is learnt as a foreign language. Teacher C explains that there are languages which have quite similar rules to English but Czech language is in this way very different. Some typical consonants such as θ are not used in Czech language at all which is the reason why Czech learners have problems with pronouncing this consonant, find it unnatural and tend to replace it by some consonants appearing in their native language such as "f". Teacher B added that except learners' mother tongue, it is also learners' own motivation and attitudes which influence their English pronunciation.

Concerning the techniques of correction, all the teachers proved that they really do not use gestures or facial expressions to indicate learners' mistakes so much. The reason why they do not want to use it frequently is that it can be time-consuming in comparison to the teacher's immediate correction which they consider one of the most effective and quickest techniques. Teacher C added that some of her learners are shy and have problems with eye contact. Since it is important to look at the teacher carefully, she does not think that using non-verbal communication would be in this case very useful. Moreover, teacher A mentioned peer correction as well. According to her, some learners do not feel comfortable when they are corrected by other learners. She thinks that some of them can consider peer correcting as a way of criticizing and are therefore able to accept correction only from their teacher.

9.4 Data interpretation and conclusion of the practical part

This subchapter summarizes the obtained research data and triangulate them mutually with the theory. As mentioned, the aims of the research were to find out what activities teachers use for teaching pronunciation to young learners, what inaccuracies and mistakes occur in pronunciation of young learners and what techniques teachers use for correction.

Firstly, the use of activities for teaching pronunciation to young learners is discussed. Broughton stated that two main interrelating skills, recognition and production, need to be distinguished in teaching pronunciation. As it is obvious from the observation results, all the three teachers included both activities based on learners' recognition and on production in their lessons. In this point the authors such as Nation and Newton, Kelly, Hewings, Jones, Dunn or Baker and Westrup provided a range of various activities suitable for teaching pronunciation. The observation results revealed that some of the activities mentioned in theoretical subchapters 4.4.1 and 4.4.2, for example all those activities focused on distinguishing vowels, consonants, diphthongs, minimal pairs, chain drilling, sound dictation, activities based on distinguishing word stress by clapping with hands, were really used in observed classrooms. The observed teachers also took account of the learners' age and included games, rhymes and songs which are often popular among children. During the period of observations, young learners learnt and frequently repeated three rhymes and three songs in total. The selection of songs in the observed classrooms were adequate to the learners' age, although Dunn warned that due to more difficult vocabulary, language or complicated music songs could be sometimes uneasy to learn for young learners in comparison to rhymes and therefore should be avoided in lessons . The songs used in classrooms were mostly chosen from learners' textbooks and included familiar vocabulary and uncomplicated music. Dunn also commented on using games and recommended to include games having similar cognitive or physical levels to the games known in learners' mother tongue. Moreover, she put the stress on proper explanation of rules otherwise learners' confusion, misunderstanding following up by the loss of motivation could occur. Two of three games which were practiced in classrooms, "Bingo" and "Simon says", were already familiar to young learners who exactly knew how to play. The third game, "Word dominoes", was newly introduced in the third grade. This game was practiced in two lessons. In the first lesson teacher explained the rules to the learners with the use of English and Czech language. Since young learners did not need any further explanation or demonstration during the next lesson when the game was practiced again, it was apparent that learners understood the game properly. From all the

observations in the third, fourth and fifth grades, activities involving repetitive drilling or distinguishing individual sounds became the most frequent. The results also helped the author of this thesis to answer one of the research questions when she wanted to find out whether the teachers use more pronunciation activities of segmental or supra-segmental level. Observations revealed that teachers concentrated more on practicing activities of segmental level which was also supported by the teachers themselves in the interviews (chapter 9.3, question number 7). However, it is impossible to claim that this phenomenon where activities of the segmental level prevail over the activities of the supra-segmental level is considered negative because as Hewings (chapter 4.2) said this is always the balance between general consideration and certain learners' difficulties. In other words, this means that it mostly depends on teachers who know their learners and their needs and in case that there is apparent call for more activities focused on distinguishing vowels, consonants or diphthongs rather than on intonation, stress or rhythm, it is certainly essential to give preference to the activities of segmental level. Last but not least, it was also revealed from the observations that in all the three classes the activities involving production (e.g. chain drilling, repetitive drilling, sound dictation, "Bingo" or "Simon says") prevailed over the activities involving only recognition (e.g.: distinguishing individual sounds).

Secondly, young learners' pronunciation inaccuracies and mistakes need to be mentioned. From the theoretical point of view, Skaličková (chapter 5.1.2) provided a list of typical mistakes occurring in the English pronunciation of Czech learners. She states that some mistakes are usually caused because of the considerable differences between English and Czech language. The absence of several vowels and consonants such as "æ", "ə" or "θ" can be used as the example. After all, the fact that it is the learners' mother tongue which affects English pronunciation very much was also agreed by the interviewed teachers (chapter 9.3, question number 9). The results of the classroom observations showed that young learners most frequently faced difficulties with correct pronunciation of the vowel Λ where there were apparent tendencies to pronounce this vowel as /u/ or /o/. Moreover, vowels æ and ə, untypical for Czech speakers, also caused problems. The English diphthong /au/ was often uneasy as well because learners incorrectly pronounced it as /ou/. The cause of this phenomenon lies probably again in the influence of Czech language in which the diphthong /au/ is used only in the words of foreign origin or as the interjection while in English language it is frequently used. Concerning the pronunciation of English consonants, learners had difficulties with pronunciation of /θ/, / ð/ and /s/ the most. Other English consonants did not

seem to be so problematic for learners. However, as it was already mentioned in the theoretical subchapter 5.1.2 and was later proved from the results of observations, mistakes or inaccuracies can be often found in the pronunciation of all those words including silent letters too. Moreover, with the obtained data the author of this thesis could answer another research question based on the discovering whether the learners make more mistakes in pronunciation of English consonants or in vowels. The results showed that although there were difficulties with pronouncing several consonants – for Czech learners mostly untypical – the learners more often mispronounced English vowels.

Regarding the techniques teachers can choose for correction of these mistakes and inaccuracies, Harmer (chapter 5.2) suggests other techniques except teacher's immediate provision of correct pronunciation, such as the use of hints and signs of non-verbal communication, peer correction or indicating the inaccuracies by asking the learner to repeat it or imitation of learner's incorrectly pronounced sound or words with the intonation change in teacher's voice. From observations it was discovered that all the teachers really used these techniques in their lessons. To indicate the proportion, the immediate corrections in which learners were interrupted by the teacher and provided with the correct pronunciation were used the most (59.2%), while the technique of using non-verbal communication was used the least (1.3%). This issue was discussed also in interviews (question number 10). On the basis of obtained results the author wanted to know why the teachers did not use non-verbal communication for indicating mistakes in learners' pronunciation more often. The answers showed that this technique is rather time-consuming for teachers. Moreover, since some learners can struggle with the problems of eye contact or accepting correction by other persons than their teacher, the immediate correction is in the observed lessons more favoured than the other techniques.

Further, it is also necessary to interpret other information received from interviews and triangulate them with theory. In the very first question the interviewer asked teachers what the main goal of English pronunciation is according to them. In the theoretical part, the interviewer agreed with the authors such as Kenworthy, Celce-Murcia, Brinton or Goodwin (chapter 2.1) who all believe that acquiring intelligible pronunciation is nowadays more important for learners than acquiring native pronunciation. The teachers' answers revealed that they also followed this belief. The following questions were addressed to learners' age and the differences between children and teenage or adult learners in terms of learning English pronunciation. The interviewer wanted to discover whether the teachers see young

learners' age as a benefit or not. Kenworthy or Ur (chapter 2.3) state that there are general beliefs that young learners have in most of the cases higher chances to acquire native-like pronunciation than the older learners. However, as Ur further explains, it is not possible to see young learners as the best learners in all the areas of learning English language. In fact, teenage learners are the ones who benefit from learning English the most, excluding learning pronunciation which is probably better learnt by young learners. This opinion was also shared by teacher C who explained that children are usually exciting or eager about speaking aloud in English, teenage learners might be, on the other hand, sometimes very shy and therefore their oral performance is not so good as the written one. However, both teacher A and teacher B believe that the age is not the most crucial factor for learning English pronunciation. For them, learners' own interests, efforts or determinations for learning the pronunciation are more important.

Finally, the third and at the same time the last research question can be discussed. As it was stated at the beginning of the practical part, the author of this thesis also wanted to find out whether the teachers are conscious of young learners' concentration span or not. To this issue, the authors such Hunston, Oakey or Revell with Norman (chapter 4.4.1) said that young learners are able to concentrate for much shorter time than older or adult learners. Specifically, it is only about 5-10 minutes. Since the author recorded the time spent by working on observed activities in her observation sheets, she was later able to discover from the results that teachers did not use any activities which required more than 10 minutes. This means that teachers carefully paid attention to learners' age and time during which they were able to concentrate on particular work.

10. Conclusion

This thesis was focused on the issue of teaching English pronunciation to young learners and was divided into two main parts – the theoretical and practical part. The theoretical part represented the basis for conducting the research whose main aims were to find out what activities teachers used in their lessons for developing or consolidating young learners' English pronunciation, what inaccuracies or mistakes occurred in learners' pronunciation and what techniques teachers used for correction of these mistakes.

The theoretical part is consisted of four chapters. At first, the author of this thesis described the main characteristics of English pronunciation. She stated pronunciation goals and followed the opinions of several experts such as Kenworthy or Celce-Murcia and

Goodwin who expressed beliefs that although in the past the main goal in teaching and learning English pronunciation was to acquire native-like pronunciation, nowadays, due to especially practical reasons for learning English, acquiring intelligible and comprehensible pronunciation is considered to be the main goal. After that the author discussed aspects and features of pronunciation where at first aspects of segmental phonology such as consonants, vowels or diphthongs were stated and then the aspects of supra-segmental phonology including stress or intonation followed. The last subchapter of the first theoretical chapter dealt with factors, such as learners' age or native language, which affect pronunciation the most. In the second chapter of the theoretical part, the author of this thesis moved to the topic of young learners. The author characterized this group of learners and stated the developmental stages these learners passed through. The stress was put on the cognitive, psychomotor, personal and social development. Finally, the topic of second language acquisition was discussed in this chapter. The majority of the next - third - chapter was used for describing activities which help learners to develop and consolidate their English pronunciation, the author mentioned both activities of segmental and supra-segmental level through which learners' recognition or/and production is involved. As it was mentioned before, the follow-up research was also aimed at finding out what pronunciation mistakes or inaccuracies observed groups of young learners made and so this topic needed to be discussed in theory as well. Therefore, at the beginning of the last theoretical chapter the author firstly defined the terms such as "mistake", "error" or "slip". Since each non-native learner of the world can speak various languages and can face various difficulties in pronunciation of English language, it was important to devote attention only to the learners who were specifically chosen for research observations which means to the young learners attending Czech primary schools. For this reason, the list of mistakes of English pronunciation that are the most typical for Czech speakers followed.

As stated before, after the theoretical part, the practical one followed. In this part the author tried to utilize the knowledge gained in the theoretical part and apply it to the research. Firstly, the author introduced the research and specified it with respect to its aims and plan. Then the author added the background information concerning the primary school where the research was carried out and stated the research methods – observations and interviews with teachers. The author personally observed three classes consisted of young learners from the age of nine to eleven attending the third, fourth and fifth grades where 30 English lessons were observed in total. Specifically, there were 7 lessons devoted for observing the third class,

12 lessons for the fourth and 11 lessons for the fifth grades. After that, the author targeted the chapter dealing with research outcomes of observations and interviews. The practical part is followed by data interpretation and conclusion.

From the results of the research it was discovered that the observed teachers of the third, fourth and fifth grades used activities based on chain and repetitive drilling, sound dictation, distinguishing individual sounds of the segmental level including consonants, vowels or diphthongs where the repetitive drilling and distinguishing individual sounds were practiced the most frequently in the lessons. To keep children concentrated and to avoid exhaustion and possible loss of motivation, teachers also used games including Bingo, Simon says and Word dominoes. Rhymes and songs learnt and practiced for the purpose of making young learners aware of English rhythm, stress and intonation were used and became popular among children as well. Young learners' mistakes and inaccuracies were most frequently apparent in the pronunciation of /ʌ /, vowels which are not typical in the Czech language such as /æ/, /ə/; the diphthong /au/ and consonants /θ/, /ð/ and /s/. From techniques used for correction of these pronunciation mistakes teachers frequently preferred immediate correction involving interrupting particular learners and providing right pronunciation of the mistaken expression for them. Teachers also asked other learners from the class to correct a learner or used hints and other kinds of help so that the learner was able to self-correct. However, peer correction and self-correction were used in comparison to prevailing teachers' immediate correction really occasionally. The technique of using non-verbal communication including facial expressions, gestures or postures was used the least frequently in observed lessons.

11. Resumé

Tato diplomová práce se zabývá zvukovou podobou a osvojením anglického jazyka se zaměřením na přesnost u žáků mladšího školního věku. Diplomová práce je rozdělena na dvě hlavní části – teoretickou a praktickou.

V teoretické části obsahující čtyři kapitoly autorka nejdříve definuje základní terminologii anglické výslovnosti zahrnující samohlásky, souhlásky, dvojhlásky a trojhlásky spadající do segmentální roviny, a zároveň intonaci, slovní a větný přízvuk patřící do supra-segmentální roviny. V první kapitole je rovněž nastíněna otázka hlavního cíle k osvojení anglické výslovnosti, kde se diplomantka ztotožňuje s názorem, že jedním z hlavních cílů angličtiny jakožto cizího jazyka by mělo být osvojení výslovnosti srozumitelné jak pro ostatní žáky a studenty jejichž mateřským jazykem není angličtina, tak i pro samotné rodilé mluvčí.

V tomto bodě je rovněž zmíněna i podstata takzvané standardní britské výslovnosti (RP) v hodinách anglického jazyka v českých zemích. Diplomantka se na základě přečtené literatury a skutečnosti, že tímto typem britského přízvuku v současné době hovoří pouze tři procenta obyvatelstva Británie, přiklání k názoru pana Harmera (2001) či Svartvika, kteří uvádí, že v zemích, kde je angličtina na školách vyučována jako cizí jazyk, není prakticky nutné tento typ britské výslovnosti používat. V neposlední řadě jsou v první kapitole zmíněny faktory jako kupříkladu žákův věk či mateřský jazyk, které podstatnou měrou ovlivňují jeho výslovnost.

Druhá kapitola teoretické části diplomové práce je zacílena na tematiku žáků mladšího školního věku, kde autorka nejdříve uvádí několik definic různých autorů vymezující tuto věkovou skupinu. Jelikož názory na věkovou hranici těchto žáků nejsou autory jednotně vymezeny, přiklání se nakonec autorka za účelem své praktické části k názoru Sarah Phillips (1993) považující žáky mladšího školního věku za děti od zhruba 6 do 12 let. Následně jsou žáci mladšího školního věku definováni z hlediska vývojových stádií, kde je důraz kladen na kognitivní, psychomotorický, emoční a sociální stupeň vývoje. Co se týče kognitivního vývoje žáků mladšího školního věku, autorka se v textu opírá o dvě významné teorie – a to teorii Jeana Piageta, který vnímá dítě jako aktivního žáka, který k dosažení výsledků a porozumění významu využívá experimentů a interakce s okolním prostředím, přičemž za základní princip kognitivního vývoje považuje Piaget kombinaci dvou základních procesů – asimilace a akomodace. Zatímco k asimilaci dochází tehdy, kdy je žák schopen porozumět novým objektům, událostem, činnostem či situacím prostřednictvím již existujícího a dobře známého schématu, akomodace je procesem, kdy dané schéma na základě tohoto principu není dostačující k vytvoření nových objektů či událostí, tudíž je nezbytná jeho změna či modifikace. V neposlední řadě Piaget rozlišuje čtyři stádia kognitivního vývoje – senzomotorické, preoperační, konkrétně-operační a formálně-operační stádium. Jelikož se tato diplomová práce zaměřuje pouze na žáky v určité věkové kategorii, konkrétně od devíti do jedenácti let, autorka za tímto účelem diskutuje pouze konkrétně-operační stádium charakterizované jako období od sedmého do jedenáctého roku života dítěte. Toto období je vnímáno jako období zásadních změn ve způsobu žákova myšlení, které se stává logičtější. Žáci jsou v tomto období schopni řešit problémy, tvořit pojmy, klasifikovat je podle jednotlivých kritérií a rozpoznat vztahy mezi nimi. Přesto je jejich myšlení stále v tomto stádiu limitované ve srovnání se způsobem myšlení starších a dospělých žáků. Druhou nastíněnou teorií představuje teorie Vygotského, která se význačně odlišuje od Piagetovy teorie. V první řadě Vygotsky pohlíží na žáka jako na společnost, zatímco Piaget ho vnímá

jako aktivního zkoumajícího jednotlivce. Mimo to, Piaget věří, že vývoj předchází učení zatímco Vygotsky navrhuje pravý opak. Se jménem Vygotského je rovněž spojována i tzv. zóna nejbližšího perspektivního vývoje, což je období, kdy žák není bez spolupráce s dospělými stále zcela schopný samostatně řešit určité úkony a úlohy. Kapitulu následně uzavírá nastínění problematiky osvojování druhého jazyka ve spojitosti s proslulou Krashenovou teorií.

Ve třetí kapitole se autorka zabývá samotným procesem učení výslovnosti v hodinách anglického jazyka. V úvodu kapitoly jsou nejdříve vymezeny základní role učitele, který žákům nejenom pomáhá v osvojování anglické výslovnosti a ve stanovování si priorit, ale předně zaujímá i roli toho, kdo hodnotí pokrok žáků a poskytuje jim zpětnou vazbu. Druhá podkapitola pojednává o technikách, kterých může učitel využít v aktivitách zacílených na rozvoj či upevnění výslovnosti žáků. Mezi jednu z nejběžnějších technik patří tzv. drilování. Tento pojem je definován jako technika, při níž učitel nahlas řekne slova či věty a nechá žáky je zopakovat. Autorka v podkapitole zmiňuje různé typy drilování a uvádí i techniku založenou na vyslovení dvojice slov, jejichž zvukové rozdíly jsou obvykle minimální, například slova jako *cut* x *cat*. Posléze autorka zmiňuje vhodné aktivity sloužící k rozvoji anglické výslovnosti. Uváděny jsou jak aktivity založené na rekognici, např. rozlišovací cvičení jednotlivých souhlásek, samohlásek či trojhlásek spadající do segmentální roviny, tak i na produkci. Důraz je tak kladen i na aktivity obsahující prvky her, které bývají ve většině případů u žáků mladšího školního věku oblíbené a slouží nejenom k oživení vyučovací hodiny, ale i k aktivaci samotných žáků. Je totiž důležité zmínit, že obzvláště mladší žáci se velmi často nedovedou soustředit na učební látku po celou dobu 45 minut a je tedy nutné nejenom střídat v hodinách různé typy aktivit, ale i umožnit žákům občasný pohyb po třídě, který může být uskutečněn právě prostřednictvím anglických her. Zmíněno je i zařazení písniček a říkadel, kdy autorka na základě přečtené literatury uvádí, že říkadla, která jsou pro žáky mladšího školního věku většinou snadná na zapamatování, jsou v některých případech v hodinách doporučovány více než písničky, které mohou být pro děti složitější z hlediska typu hudby, rytmu či jazyka a slovní zásoby.

Čtvrtá kapitola teoretické části této diplomové práce se zaměřuje na problematiku související s chybami žáků. V první podkapitole autorka definuje tento pojem. Za účelem této diplomové práce nejsou ovšem zmíněny gramatické chyby či chyby, kterých se žáci mohou dopouštět v písemném projevu. Hlavní důraz je kladen na chyby ve zvukové podobě anglického jazyka. Autorka uvádí členění chyb podle Edge a následně se věnuje tématu

častých chyb typických v anglické výslovnosti českých žáků. Jak již bylo zmíněno ve třetí kapitole, jednou z funkcí učitele je i poskytnutí zpětné vazby žákům – toto téma autorka dále rozvíjí. Termín *zpětná vazba* je definován dle Penny Ur (1991) jako informace zhodnocující provedení určitého učebního úkolu žáka, která je obvykle doplněna o cíle či typy vedoucí k případnému zlepšení. Diplomantka rovněž v podkapitole uvádí, že zpětná vazba se skládá ze dvou základních komponentů – ohodnocení a opravy, která by měla zahrnovat nejen učitelův komentář či informaci o tom, co žák udělal špatně či dobře, ale i proč. Zároveň může učitel využít různých technik a způsobů oprav. Jednou z nejběžnějších technik je okamžité konstatování, že se žák ve svém projevu dopustil určité chyby či nesrovnalosti. Učitel ale dále může využít způsobů jako například zopakování věty nebo fráze po žákovi se zdůrazněním dané části, ve které žák chyboval, žádosti o zopakování věty, slova nebo fráze se změnou intonace a v neposlední řadě neverbální komunikace zahrnující změnu výrazu ve tváři, postoje či gesta. V případě, že není žák schopný se sám opravit, může učitel o opravu či nalezení chyby požádat ostatní žáky ve třídě.

Druhou část diplomové práce tvoří praktická část, která využívá poznatků získaných z teoretické části a snaží se tyto poznatky aplikovat do empirického šetření. V první řadě autorka představuje strukturu praktické části a zmiňuje hlavní cíl výzkumu. Hlavním cílem je autorkou vytyčeno zjištění, jaké typy aktivit učitelé v hodinách anglického jazyka využívají k nácvičce výslovnosti u žáků mladšího školního věku, jakých nepřesností a chyb se žáci dopouštějí a jaké techniky korekce využívají učitelé. Po úvodní části následuje kapitola specifikující celý výzkum z pohledu jeho cíle, plánu, výzkumných metod a doplňujících informací týkajících se základní školy, na které byl výzkum uskutečněn. Do výzkumného procesu byly zapojeny tři učitelky vyučující anglický jazyk na prvním stupni základní školy, konkrétně ve třetí, čtvrté a páté třídě čítající celkem 54 žáků ve věku od devíti do jedenácti let. Za účelem dodržení etiky neuvádí autorka ve své diplomové práci konkrétní jméno školy, jejich zaměstnanců a žáků. K rozlišení učitelů jednotlivých zkoumaných tříd používá označení Učitel A (Teacher A), Učitel B (Teacher B), Učitel C (Teacher C). S vytyčeným cílem si autorka zároveň stanovuje i tři výzkumné otázky:

- Jaké typy aktivit ve zkoumaných třídách učitelé využívají k nácvičce výslovnosti u žáku mladšího školního věku? Používají učitelé v hodinách anglického jazyka více aktivit zaměřených na nácvičce prvků segmentální roviny (tzn. souhlásek, samohlásek, dvojhásek) nebo supra-segmentální roviny (tj. přízvuk, intonace, rytmus)?

- Jakých výslovnostních chyb či nepřesností se žáci nejčastěji dopouštějí? Chybují žáci více ve výslovnosti souhlásek, především pak v těch, které nejsou typické pro jejich mateřský (český) jazyk jako např. /θ/ a /ð/ nebo ve výslovnosti samohlásek? Jakých způsobů korekce chyb či nepřesností učitelé využívají?
- Věnují učitelé pozornost časovému rozpětí, při němž jsou žáci mladšího školního věku schopni se soustředit na danou práci? To znamená, zařazují učitelé skutečně do hodin jen takové aktivity trávající kratší časový úsek než 10 minut?

Jako hlavní výzkumné metody autorka zvolila observace a interview s učitelkami. Přičemž observace jednotlivých zkoumaných tříd předchází osobnímu rozhovoru s vyučujícími. V celkovém počtu bylo zkoumáno 30 vyučovacích hodin anglického jazyka, kdy 7 hodin připadlo na třetí ročník, 12 hodin na čtvrtý a zbývajících 11 na pátý ročník.

Další kapitolu praktické části tvoří výsledky výzkumu. Nejprve autorka uvádí výsledky týkající se využití aktivit zaměřených na anglickou výslovnost ve třetím ročníku, po kterém postupně následují výsledky zbývajících dvou tříd. Z těchto výsledků je pak sepsáno celkové shrnutí všech tří tříd. Výsledky observací odhalily, že učitelé používají k nácvičování výslovnosti různé typy aktivit, při nichž je zapojena jak rekognice žáků, tak i produkce. Mezi aktivity segmentální roviny byla v hodinách využita rozlišovací cvičení zaměřená na jednotlivé jazykové prvky, jako například souhlásky nebo samohlásky; drilování založené na opakování jednotlivých slov, frází či vět po učiteli nebo zvukové nahrávce; řetězové drilování či zvukový diktát. Intonace, rytmus či větný přízvuk byl ve zkoumaných třídách procvičován především prostřednictvím říkadel a písniček. Do hodin byly průběžně zařazovány i aktivity s herními prvky a to Bingo, Slovní domino nebo “Simon says“. Výsledky rovněž ukázaly, že aktivity vyžadující produkci převažují nad aktivitami vyžadující pouze rekognici. Ze všech využitých aktivit bylo nejčastěji praktikováno drilování založené na poslechu a následném zopakování a rozlišovací cvičení na jednotlivé samohlásky a souhlásky. Z daných výsledků bylo v závěru možné najít i odpověď na jednu ze stanových výzkumných otázek. Učitelé se všeobecně více soustředili na zařazování aktivit sloužících k rozvoji a upevnění anglické výslovnosti segmentální roviny. Zatímco aktivity na procvičení slovního či větného přízvuku spadajícího do supra-segmentální roviny nebyly takovou měrou procvičovány. Je ale důležité upozornit, že tento jev není možné nazývat za vyloženě negativní. Vždy totiž záleží hlavně na

vlastním uvážení samotného učitele, který je v přímém kontaktu se svými žáky, dokáže rozpoznat, co žákům způsobuje v jejich jazykovém projevu obtíže a jaké jsou jejich potřeby – tudíž je schopný určit jaký typ cvičení je přínosné začlenit do výuky dané věkové skupiny žáků a v jakém měřítku tuto aktivitu procvičovat.

Po shrnutí výsledků využívání příslušných typů aktivit, přechází autorka ke zhodnocení výsledků týkajících se výslovnostních nepřesností a chyb u zkoumaných žáků mladšího školního věku a technik korekce, které učitelé využívají. Údaje směřující k této problematice byly opět zaznamenávány do observačních archů a následně zpracovány do tabulek. Za účelem přesnějšího záznamu případných výslovnostních nepřesností využila autorka v hodinách i diktafon. Bylo tak následně zjištěno, že ve větší míře žáci častěji chybují ve vyslovování jednotlivých samohlásek než souhlásek, čímž byla poskytnuta odpověď na další výzkumnou otázku.

Obtíže žákům způsobovaly především samohlásky /ʌ/, /æ/, /ə/. Přičemž /ʌ/ bylo ve většině případů chybně zaměňováno za /o/ nebo /u/; samohlásky /æ/, /ə/, které se nevyskytují v českém jazyce a jsou tudíž pro začínající žáky nové, byly nesprávně vyslovovány jako /a/, /e/, /i/, /o/ či /u/. Nesnadná pro některé žáky byla i dvojhlaska /au/. V projevu žáků byly patrné tendence vyslovovat tuto dvojhlasku jako /ou/. Důvodem tohoto jevu může být pravděpodobně vliv českého jazyka, kde je tato dvojhlaska využita pouze jako citoslovce či ve slovech cizího původu. Mimo jiné již v teoretické části autorka na základě přečtené literatury uvádí, že pro českého mluvčího může být v angličtině komplikovaná i výslovnost slov obsahujících písmena, která se sice v psaném projevu objevují, v mluveném ovšem nikoli. Jde o takzvané “silent letters“. Příkladem může být slovo “wrong“, které se vyslovuje bez počátečního písmena /w/. Observacemi bylo skutečně potvrzeno, že i v této oblasti se čeští žáci často setkávají s obtížemi v jejich výslovnosti. Z anglických souhlásek způsobovala nejčastěji obtíže správná výslovnost /θ/, /ð/ a /s/, které bylo v některých případech vyslovováno spíše jako souhláska /z/.

Co se týče využívaných technik korekce těchto nepřesností, bylo výzkumem zjištěno, že učitelé volí ve většině případů jednu z nejběžnějších technik a to okamžité opravení žáka, kdy je mu zároveň poskytnuta i informace týkající se správné výslovnosti. I přes tento fakt se nicméně učitelé snažili využívat i jiné techniky, jako například zopakování nepřesnosti po daném žákovi s viditelnou změnou intonace v hlase učitele, požádání žáka dané slovo opět zopakovat a tím ho navést na skutečnost, že v jeho projevu došlo k chybě nebo vyzvání jiného žáka ve třídě k opravě dané nepřesnosti (tzv. “peer correction“). Nejméně používanou

technikou bylo využití neverbální komunikace, tzn. gest, postojů či výrazů ve tváři. Na tuto skutečnost bylo posléze poukázáno i v rozhovoru s jednotlivými učitelkami, které se k neverbální komunikaci, jakožto jedné z technik, jak žáka navést k opravě, vyjádřily jako k technice, kterou je důležité pečlivě v jistých situacích zvažovat, jelikož může ze strany žáků vést ke špatnému vyložení a zbytečnému nedorozumění.

V samotném závěru je třeba i zmínit získanou odpověď ke třetí výzkumné otázce týkající se doby, po kterou jsou žáci mladšího školního věku schopni se koncentrovat na danou činnost nebo aktivitu. V teoretické části této diplomové práce bylo zmíněno, že děti této věkové kategorie se dovedou plně soustředit na činnost obvykle jen v rozhraní pěti až deseti minut. Za tímto účelem byl ve výzkumném observačním archu zaznamenáván čas, po který se třída příslušné aktivitě věnovala. Autorka tak následně ze záznamů zjistila, že všechny tři vyučující tomuto faktu přikládají pozornost, neboť žádná ze zkoumaných aktivit nepřesáhla dobu delší než deset minut.

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13. List of Appendices

APPENDIX 1: PRACTICING PRONUNCIATION THROUGH VOCABULARY

Alphabet lists

Pick a letter and fill in a word for each given category, for example, colours, animals, flowers, fruit, vegetables, etc. This can be done as an individual or group competition. The winner is, for example, the first to fill in twenty words, or the group or student who fills in the most words in five minutes (Figure 6.3).

	Colour	Animal	Fruit	Vegetable
A			apple	
B	blue		banana	
C	cream	cat		carrot
D		dog		
E		elephant		

Figure 6.3

APPENDIX 2: PRACTICING PRONUNCIATION THROUGH SPEAKING

35. Information gap diaries

Materials: students' notebooks.

Ask students to work in pairs. One of each pair is an 'A' student, and the other is a 'B' student. All students make a diary with space for seven days of the week. All 'A' students write down events they are going to do (real or imaginary) in four of the days (for example, Monday, Tuesday, Thursday and Friday). All 'B' students write down events for the other three days. Tell everyone which days are 'A' students' days, and which are 'B' students' days. Now students work in pairs. The 'A' students ask questions to find out the events for the 'B' days and write the answers in their diary. The 'B' students answer, then ask questions about the missing events for the 'A' days, and write the answers in their diary.

	Student A	Student B
Monday	Play football	?
Tuesday	Meet Grace and Mpenza	?
Wednesday	?	Swim in the river
Thursday	Visit Grandma	?
Friday	Go to the concert	?
Saturday	?	Clean the house
Sunday	?	Play basketball

Figure 10.5: Information gap diaries

APPENDIX 3: GAMES DEVELOPING ENGLISH PRONUNCIATION

1.4 Animal rhythms

Level	*
Language focus	Vocabulary: animal names
Skills focus	Speaking, pronunciation: rhythm and stress
Thinking focus	Recognising
Teaching approach	Promote accuracy – correct errors
Interaction	Whole class work, suitable for large classes
Preparation	Choose one animal from each of the columns and write their names on the board. See Box 4.

Procedure

- 1 Clap out the rhythm of the name of one animal from the board, e.g. Three claps could be *e-le-phant*.
- 2 The children try to identify the animal from the list of names on the board.
- 3 The children then read and clap the rhythm of this animal.
- 4 Ask them if they know of any other animals that have a similar stress pattern. Practise saying and clapping the names and rhythms.
- 5 Choose a child to clap out another rhythm and ask the class to guess the animal. To extend this activity, you may want to focus on the stress patterns for each animal, as well as the rhythm. A list of animals and stress patterns are in Box 4.

Box 4 Names of animals					
One syllable	Two syllables: stress on the first syllable	Two syllables: stress on the second syllable	Three syllables: stress on the first syllable	Three syllables: stress on the middle syllable	Three syllables: stress on the first and last syllable
cow bird cat duck dog frog goat horse mouse sheep snake	chicken lizard tiger hippo monkey spider	giraffe gazelle baboon	elephant crocodile	mosquito koala	kangaroo polar bear

Follow-up

Make a chart of animal names and stress patterns. Each time the children come across another animal name, e.g. in a book they are currently reading, ask them to add it to the chart.

1.11 Animal raps

Level	**
Language focus	Rap, simple present tense
Skills focus	Speaking: pronunciation – final sounds, rhythm
Thinking focus	Creating
Teaching approach	Promote accuracy – correct pronunciation errors
Interaction	Whole class and group work, suitable for large classes
Preparation	Write the sample rap from Box 13 on the board.

Procedure

- 1 Introduce the sample rap from Box 13.
- 2 Ask the children to chant the rap in rhythm, paying attention to the final s sound. The stressed syllables are in bold.
- 3 Write some other possibilities for raps on the board. Suggestions are in Box 13. Groups of children try to write their own rap.
- 4 The children perform their completed raps to the class.

Box 13 Creating an animal rap

Rap suggestions		Sample rap
Parrot talks	Cow walks	The blue whale sings
Lion roars	Grandpa snores	And the honey bee stings .
Cat stretches	Dog fetches	The monkey swings
Tiger pounces	Kangaroo bounces	When the telephone rings .
Bird flies	Baby cries	

4.5 Geographical tongue twisters

Level	*
Language focus	Word order in a simple sentence
Skills focus	Pronunciation: initial consonants
Thinking focus	Constructing
Teaching approach	Promote accuracy – correct errors
Interaction	Team work, suitable for large classes

Procedure

- 1 Divide the class into two teams.
- 2 On the board, write the verb *is bouncing* and the geographical place *beach*.
- 3 Team 1 suggests a subject for the verb *is bouncing*, e.g. *A ball*. The aim of the competition is to suggest words starting with *b*.
- 4 Team 2 suggests another word to add to the sentence. The sentence could now read *A big ball is bouncing . . . beach*.

- 5 The first team may want to change the sentence to make *A big ball* the object. In this way, they could add another *b* word as a subject, e.g. *Ben is bouncing a big ball . . . beach.*
- 6 Each team continues to add a *b* word to the sentence. The last team to add a word is the winner. See Box 74 for some sentence ideas.
- 7 It is important to pay attention to the grammatical accuracy of the children's suggestions and make corrections where necessary.
- 8 Finally, the class reads the tongue twister aloud.

Box 74 Sample tongue twisters

B	Ben's brother is bouncing a big ball on a blue and black boat beside a beautiful beach .
W	A woman is walking and watching a wonderful waterfall .
F	Five fathers and their friends are fishing for their favourite fish in the forest .
S	Sad Sam's sister Sue and six small snakes are swimming in the sea .

Follow-up

- Choose other letters of the alphabet and ask pairs to create new tongue twisters. Each time, write the verb and the geographical place. Each team has a turn to add a new word to make a sentence. See Box 74.
- Display the tongue twisters in the classroom and regularly ask the children to say them aloud. Alternatively, you could create a class book of tongue twisters.

2.7 Travelling to school

Level	**
Language focus	Chant, <i>who</i> , simple present tense
Skills focus	Pronunciation: stress, rhythm, final sounds
Thinking focus	Recalling
Teaching approach	Promote accuracy – correct errors
Interaction	Whole class chant, suitable for large classes

Procedure

- 1 Ask the question *Who walks to school?*
- 2 Choose one child to answer *I walk to school.*
- 3 The class then chants ***Sam** is the **boy** who **walks** to school.* (The stressed words are in bold.)
- 4 Draw the class's attention to the final *s* sound in *walks*.
- 5 Repeat the question *Who walks to school?*

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- 6 The chant will build up to include a few more children who walk to school, e.g. ***Sam** is the **boy** who **walks** to school; **Mary** is the **girl** who **walks** to school.*
- 7 Then change the question: *Who rides to school?*
- 8 The children's responses continue to add to the chant, e.g. ***Sam** is the **boy** who **walks** to school; **Mary** is the **girl** who **walks** to school; **Ben** is the **boy** who **rides** to school.* Encourage a singsong type of chanting.
- 9 Further questions and answers are in Box 31.

Box 31 Transport chant

- Q: Who comes to school by car?
A: **Josh** is the **boy** who **comes** by **car**.
- Q: Who catches the bus?
A: **Lisa** is the **girl** who **catches** the **bus**.
- Q: Who takes the train?
A: **Ann** is the **girl** who **takes** the **train**.

Stress moves

A

Point: patterns of word stress
Minimum level: elementary
Game type: a game of physical movement for the whole class
Approximate time: 20 minutes

Rules

1 One player begins the game by saying his or her own word with the appropriate stress move(s) and then saying another player's word with the appropriate stress move(s). This player then continues by saying his or her own word with the appropriate stress move(s) and then saying yet another player's word with the appropriate stress move(s).

The game continues in this way until someone makes a mistake.

A mistake occurs when a player:

- fails to respond when his or her word is called.

- forgets to repeat his or her own word first.
- pronounces a word incorrectly.
- makes the wrong stress move(s).

2 Each player begins with 10 points and loses one point for each mistake. After a mistake, the game must be restarted by the teacher or by the player who made the mistake.

3 Finish the game when one player has lost all 10 points. If students are still enthusiastic, ask them to swap their flashcards and begin the game again.

Preparation

1 Choose about 20 words from your course or ask each member of the class to suggest a word. Make sure that the words contain a number of different stress patterns. Here are some examples:

1 ●	2 ●●	3 ●●●	4 ●●●●	5 ●●●●●
jeans	monkey	balloon	banana	bicycle
blouse	trousers	cassette	detective	cinema
eight	yellow	goodbye	computer	telephone
mouth	morning	hello	umbrella	photograph

Write your words on flashcards.

2 Decide on some 'stress moves' before the class and practise them a little. Stress moves are physical movements which you make as you say the word. There should be one move to accompany the stressed syllable and a different move for each of the rest of the syllables.

Here are some suggestions:

- a** Make a fist for each unstressed syllable and open your fingers for the stressed syllable.
- b** Clap your hands for each unstressed syllable and bang the desk for the stressed syllable.

Presentation

1 Choose some of the words you have decided upon and write them on the board. Point to the words in turn and read them out. Use the appropriate stress moves from the system you have chosen.

2 As students catch on to the way the stress moves work, invite members of the class to say some words with the appropriate stress moves.

3 If possible, ask students to sit in a circle so that they can all see each other. Distribute a flashcard to each student and ask everyone to practise saying the word on their card with the stress moves to accompany it. Then ask each student in turn to complete the sentence *My word is ...* with the appropriate stress move(s).

Conducting the game

Explain the rules and proceed with the game. With very big classes, play a demonstration game and then let students play the game in smaller groups.

Making your own versions

Once the stress move idea has been introduced, it can of course be used whenever you want to show the stress pattern of a word. The game can be played as revision at regular intervals.

Pronunciation journey

B

Point: minimal pairs
Minimum level: elementary
Game type: a listen and respond game for the whole class
Approximate time: 15 minutes

Preparation

Make a copy of the map for each member of the class. Then choose some pairs of words from your course. The word pairs should differ in only one sound. Here are some examples:

men/man place/plays taught/thought ship/sheep

There are several published books giving lists of these minimal pairs. For this game, you need four pairs of words.

Presentation

1 Write the word pairs in two vertical columns on the board. Label the lists *left* and *right*.

left	right
men	man
place	plays
taught	thought
ship	sheep

2 Read out words from the board in random order and ask students to say which list they are from.

Conducting the game

1 Give each student a map. Point out that at each of the numbered junctions, there is a choice of turning left or right.

2 Explain that you will read four words from the board, one word for each junction. For each word, students must turn left or right according to whether the word is from the left or the right hand list on the board. When you have said the four words, students should then arrive at one of the destinations along the top of the map. For example:

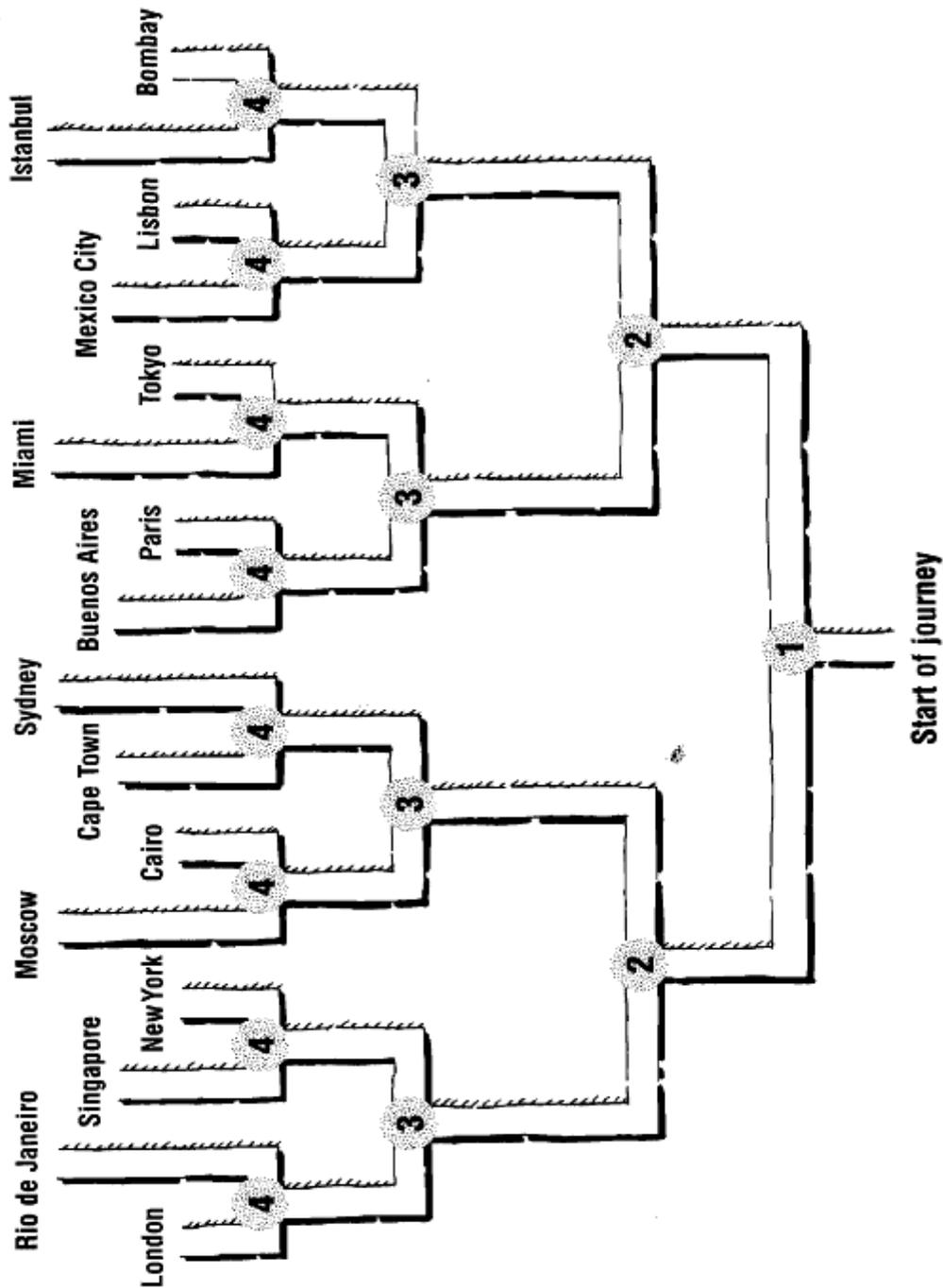
men - place - thought - ship → Singapore

3 Go over the route together to check the correct route.

4 Repeat the activity several times using the same four pairs of words or using other minimal pairs.

5 Students can play the game in pairs or small groups. They take turns to read out words and trace the route on the map.

Pronunciation journey B2



Two-vowel jigsaw

B

Point: pairs of written vowels
Minimum level: elementary
Game type: a matching puzzle for students working individually (or in pairs)
Approximate time: 20 minutes

Preparation

Copy and cut out a set of cards for each pair of students in the class. Cut across the thick line and along the dotted lines only. It is easiest to begin by cutting the vertical lines, and cut the horizontal lines afterwards. There are two different puzzles, one with words containing the letters *ea* and another with words containing the letters *oo* and *ou*.

Conducting the game

- 1 Divide the class into pairs and give each pair a pack of cards. Explain that the idea of the game is for students to put the pieces of the puzzle together so that words are formed within the rectangle.
- 2 Explain that the double line is the outside edge of the puzzle.
- 3 While students are working on the puzzle, write on the board the phonetic symbol and an example word for each of the vowel sounds in the puzzle. (See key.) Draw a column beneath each symbol.
- 4 As students finish the puzzle, ask them to copy what you have written on the board and write the words from the game in the appropriate column according to the pronunciation of the vowel in the word. If they are unsure, advise them to consult a dictionary. You might like to point out that three of the words in the first puzzle (*lead*, *read*, *tear*) can be pronounced in two different ways and therefore belong in two different lists on the board.
- 5 Finally, check answers with the class and drill the pronunciation.

Key

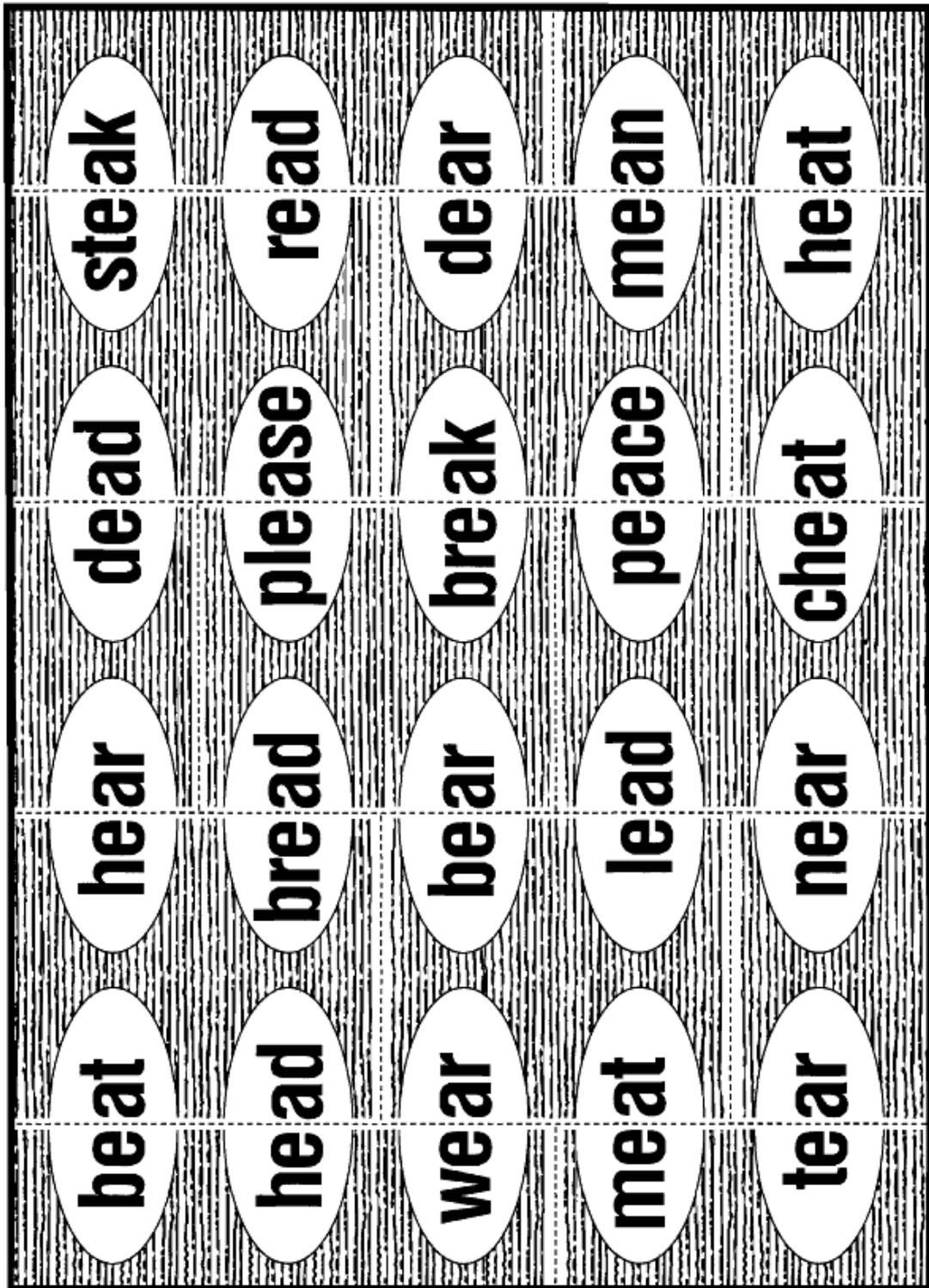
Puzzle 1 (words with *ea*)

/i:/	/e/	/eə/	/ɪə/	/eɪ/
beat	bread	bear	dear	break
cheat	dead	tear	hear	steak
heat	head	wear	near	
lead	lead		tear	
mean	read			
meat				
peace				
please				
read				

(Note that *lead*, *read* and *tear* can be pronounced in two different ways.)

Puzzle 2 (words with *oo* and *ou*)

/aʊ/	/ʊ/	/u:/	/ɔ:/	/ʌ/
found	could	boot	bought	country
house	foot	food	door	touch
mouth	good	group	four	
sound	look	moon		
	wood	school		
	would			





house	good	group	bought
touch	sound	foot	food
mouth	wood	boot	door
country	found	would	moon
four	could	school	look

Simple sound maze

B

Point: individual sound /i:/ (puzzle 1); individual sound /j:/ (puzzle 2)
Minimum level: elementary
Game type: a path-finding puzzle for students working individually (or in pairs)
Approximate time: 15 minutes

Preparation

Make a copy of the maze for each member of the class.

Conducting the game

- 1 Give each student a maze. (The game could also be played in pairs.)
- 2 Explain that the object of the game is to find a path from the entrance in the top left side of the maze to the exit in the bottom right.
- 3 Point out the phonetic symbol and example word above the maze and explain that in the game, you can only cross a square if it contains a word with that sound.
- 4 You can move from one square to the next horizontally or vertically, but not diagonally.
- 5 When students have finished, check the route together.
- 6 If your students are familiar with phonetic script, ask them to transcribe the words in the correct path, perhaps for homework.

Key Puzzle 1

The correct path is:

tea - these - meat - meet - complete - need - eat - sheep - scene - TV - feel - seat - read
- please - street - me - sea - cheap - feet - bean - teach - tree - east - meal

Making your own versions

You can make other versions of the maze, concentrating on other sounds or on vocabulary from your course. Make a list of about 25 words with one particular sound and write them in the grid so that they form a continuous path from entry to exit. Then make another list of words that do not contain the sound but look as if they could. Write these in the remaining squares.

Follow-up

A grid of hexagons could equally well be used and an example is included here which concentrates on the sound /j/. This maze is suitable for advanced learners. (Note that this maze will not work for American English.)

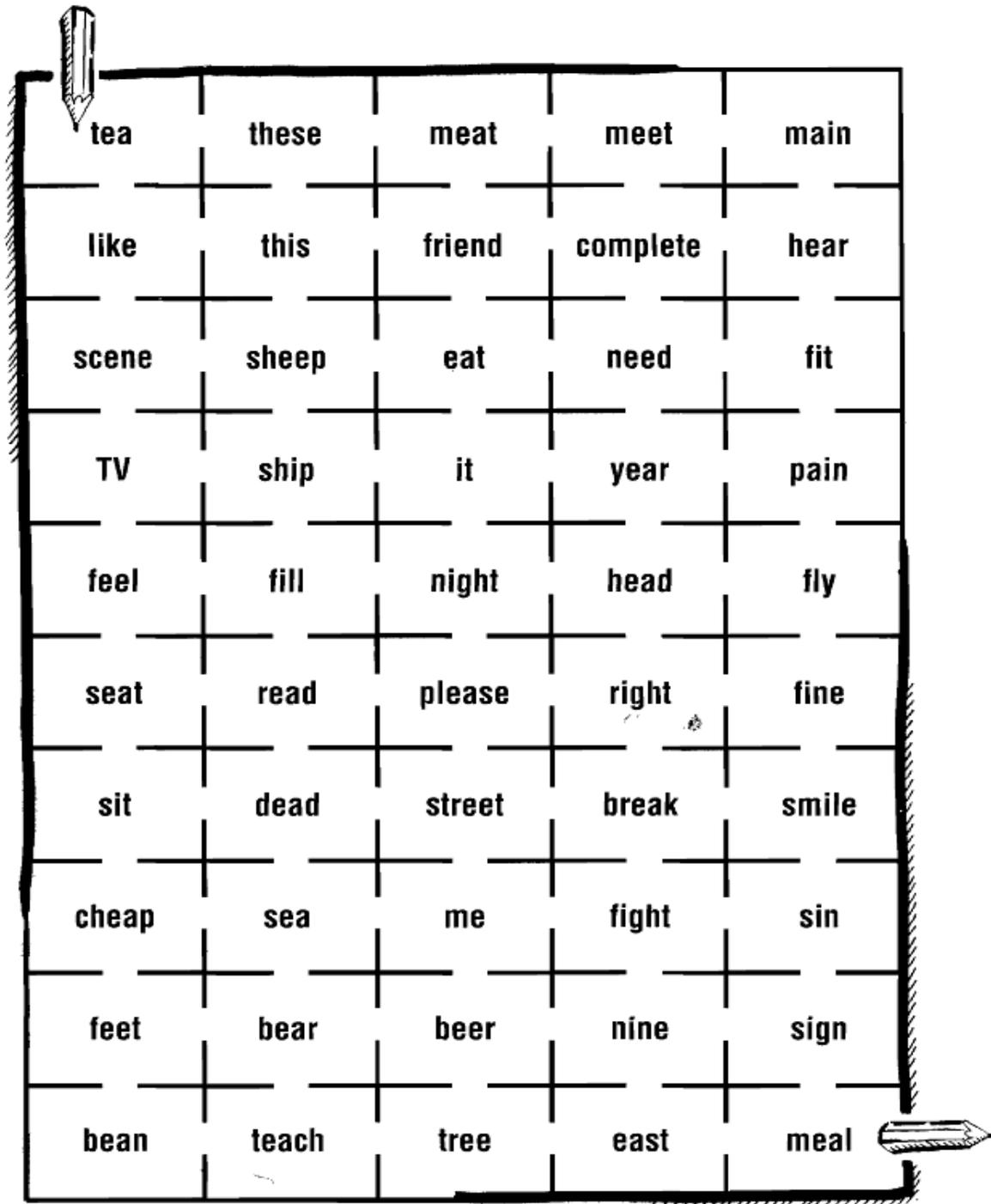
Key Puzzle 2

The correct path is:

young - uniform - new - argue - union - unit - futile - view - use - confuse - duty - usual -
year - future - utopia - tutor - revenue - universe - youth

The following words also contain the sound /j/:

you - yet - few - yes - tune



tea	these	meat	meet	main
like	this	friend	complete	hear
scene	sheep	eat	need	fit
TV	ship	it	year	pain
feel	fill	night	head	fly
seat	read	please	right	fine
sit	dead	street	break	smile
cheap	sea	me	fight	sin
feet	bear	beer	nine	sign
bean	teach	tree	east	meal

APPENDIX 4: OBSERVATION SHEETS – Pronunciation activities

9th grade

OBSERVATION SHEET (1.)

PRONUNCIATION ACTIVITIES

DATE	ACTIVITY NAME (CODE)	FOCUS ON SEGM. or SUPRA-SEGM. FEATURES OF PRONUNCIATION	ACTIVITY DESCRIPTION	TIME SPENT BY WORKING ON THE ACTIVITY
14.9.2014	<p>1) Distinguishing words: (a-e) words from the page exercise (AEPSE VI)</p> <p>2) Problems and words - learners pronounce words they see on a picture (AEPSE VII)</p> <p>3) Good Homonym (AEPSE VIII)</p> <p>4) Chain drill (AEPSE IX)</p>	<p>1) segmental - learners' mispronunciations</p> <p>2) segmental & learners' pronunciations</p> <p>3) supra-segmental - learners' pronunciations</p>	<p>1) learners are asked to listen to the type mistakes and they have a word including [r:] (→ they are asked not to do any thing when they hear a word with r: and [r:]</p> <p>2) learners are to be asked with pictures of various objects show them to learners and pronounce the correct words aloud (the aim - to correct pronunciation of objects - r: / rhypha)</p> <p>3) All aim - length of rhypha pronounced at first chorally - then individually</p>	<p>4 min (3 min SR)</p> <p>4.5 min</p> <p>5 min</p> <p>6 min</p>

Teacher paid attention to proper pronunciation of "rhypha" [rhypha]

and "space" [speɪs]

Teacher's given "rhypha" and "space" as a model.

APPENDIX 5: ACTIVITIES FOCUSED ON DISTINGUISHING INDIVIDUAL SOUNDS

ROZLIŠOVACÍ CVIČENÍ

Tato cvičení jsou velmi důležitá pro nácvik poslechu a pro pochopení rozdílů mezi oběma jazyky.

Děti poslouchají slova, která většinou zatím neznají a snaží se rozpoznávat hlásky, které jsou si podobné, ale přesto nejsou stejné např. v - w.

Nejdříve pouze pustíme slova z magnetofonu a žáci poslouchají. Pak jim řekneme, které hlásky budeme rozlišovat. Pak pustíme slova znovu a žáci pomocí rukou ukazují, kterou z hlásek slyší. Při poslechu první z dvojice hlásek zvedají žáci levou ruku, při poslechu druhé zvedají pravou ruku.

Učitel tak má okamžitou kontrolu, jak hodně dělá žákům potíže tyto hlásky rozlišit. Pokud někdo z žáků udělá chybu, zastavíme pásek a řekneme správnou odpověď.

Ze začátku bude toto rozlišování dělat žákům velké problémy, ale časem si na něj zvyknou. Některé z dvojic jsou těžší, a proto je vhodné se ke cvičení, ve kterém dělali žáci chyby, v některé další hodině ještě jednou vrátit. Při třetím poslechu žáci opakují po magnetofonu a tím si trénují výslovnost.

Děti berou tato cvičení jako hru, proto si na ni rychle zvyknou.

1. i - í:

he, she, we, be, sister, winter, milk, silk, hill, green, see, grin

2. u - ú:

could, pull, put, do, two, sure, cool, pool, cook, book, look, blue

3. e - ei:

pen, pain, name, men, same, red, day, vet, very, lane, baby, lady

4. a - á:

bus, bath, can't, car, mum, gun, son, done, truck, lucky, dark, Charles

5. o - ou

dog, both, cold, boy, box, hold, old, hot, pot, goal, doll, yellow

6. t - d

bed, bet, set, bad, wet, led, red, bat, dad, get, got, hot, old, cold

7. š - č

wash, watch, catch, fish, witch, cash, wish, change, shark,
show, chocolate, she

8. b - p

hop, pop, help, cup, cap, jump, deep, Bob, lab, pet, bet, park,
people, buy

9. k - g

cock, dog, smog, log, back, neck, desk, bag, big, luck, pig, sick,
look, duck

10. e - æ

bed, bad, sad, cat, pen, red, black, head, hat, vet, set, men, desk,
wet

11. ð - θ

with, clothes, both, bath, they, their, them, teeth, mother, father,
thank, three

12. n - ŋ

son, song, gong, one, men, done, man, hen, sing, king, ten, long, pen, dong

13. v - f

five, have, half, wife, loaf, thief, scarf, leave, live, fifty, safe, brave

14. s - z

has, his, kiss, buzz, loose, jazz, zig zag, zebra, some, snake, ZOO, zany, sweet

15. v - w

vet, wet, very, worry, one, van, won, vampire, window, village, white, WOW, west

16. t - θ

tree, thank you, trade, three, think, train, trip, theatre, thick, thin, trick, travel, trap

(the material was copied from teacher's guidebook "Začínáme mluvit anglicky" which was used in lessons)

APPENDIX 6: BINGO and WORD DOMINOES (GAMES)

BINGO

Bingo se dá hrát mnoha způsoby.

Nejjednodušší verze je ta, že si děti připraví obrázky a my zopakujeme, zda umějí všechny správně pojmenovat. Z těchto obrázků si každé dítě vybere libovolných 5. Učitel postupně říká názvy všech už známých slovíček.

Pokud dítě některé z nich má, otočí kartičku obrázkem dolů. Pokud se dítěti podaří otočit všech pět obrázků, vyhrává a volá

Bingo!

Ostatní děti buď přestanou hrát nebo pokračují dále, až co nejvíce dětí otočí všechny obrázky. Jako učitel může fungovat i některý ze žáků. Má před sebou všechny obrázky, jmenuje je namátkově a děti si je obracejí.

Jiná verze je např. ta, že se s dětmi domluvíme na 16 obrázcích, které si připraví. Sestaví si je do čtverce 4 x 4, každé dítě libovolně.

Učitel říká slova a žáci si příslušné obrázky obracejí. Pokud se někomu podaří otočit 4 obrázky v řadě (může být vodorovně, svisle i diagonálně) vyhrává a křičí

Bingo!

Pokud žáci pochopí, budou chtít hrát hru znovu.

Ve třetí fázi říká každé dítě jeden název. Samozřejmě, že se bude snažit prosadit obrázek, který mu chybí.

Další varianta je ta, že si děti na druhou stranu obrázků napíší číslice a můžeme hrát Bingo na čísla. Pokud budou děti znát více slovíček, můžeme čtverec zvětšit na 5 x 5.

Tuto hru můžeme zařazovat vždy, když se děti cítí unaveni a potřebují se odreagovat.

WORD DOMINOES

HRA NA VÝSLOVNOST ČÍSEL

V příloze je stránka s číslicemi, které jsou sestaveny po dvojicích do čtverečků, podobně jako při dominu.

List okopírujeme a rozstříháme na dvacet čtverečků. V každém z nich jsou dvě čísla. Jednotlivé kartičky s čísly rozdělíme mezi žáky. Pokud je dětí méně než 20, dostane některé dítě více kartiček.

KOPIROVATELNÉ MATERIÁLY

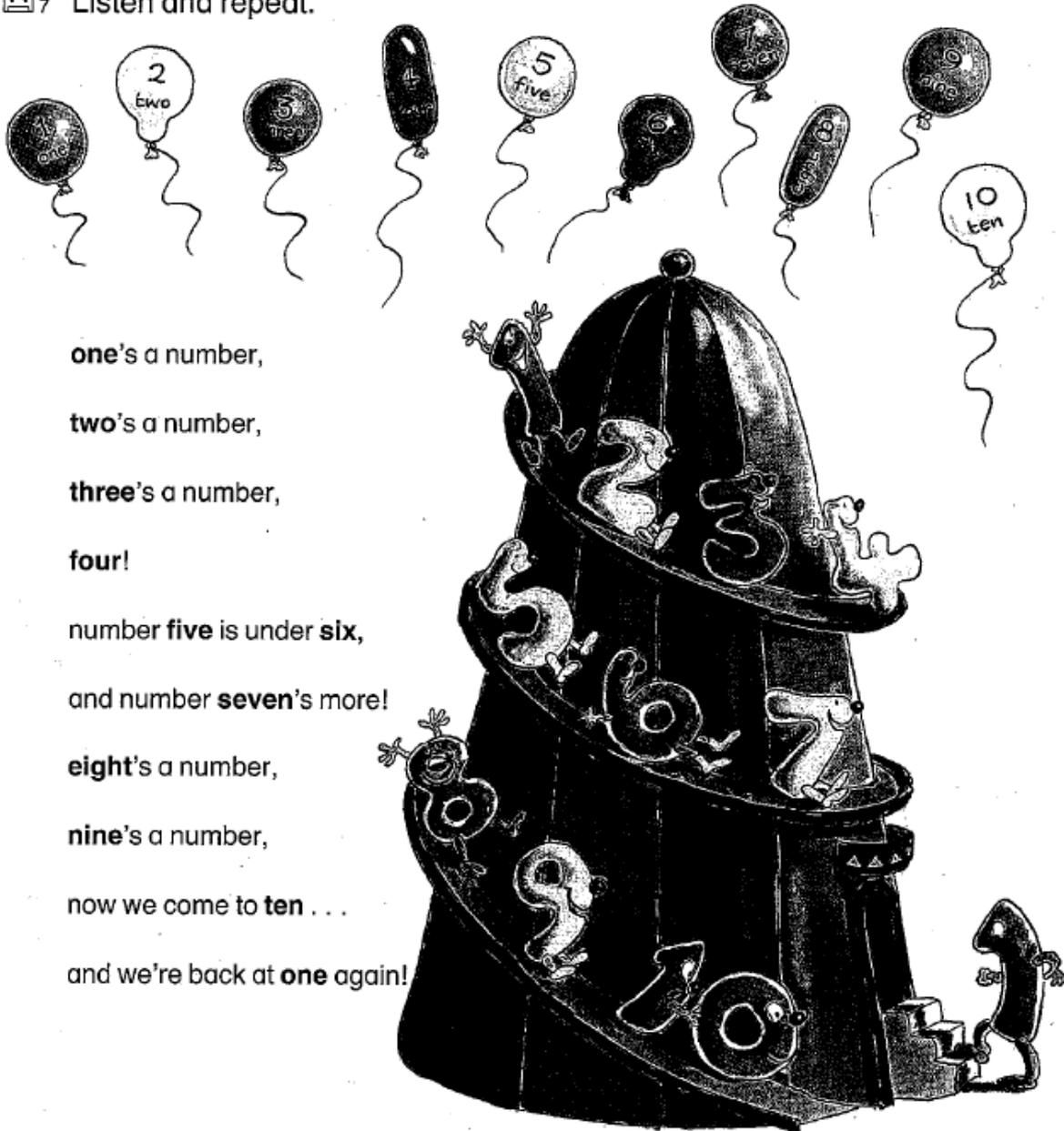
1	10	19	2	20
10	19	2	20	9
9	17	3	18	4
17	3	18	4	16
16	5	13	8	11
5	13	8	11	6
6	12	14	7	15
12	14	7	15	1

(the material was copied from teacher's guidebook "Začínáme mluvit anglicky" which was used in lessons)

APPENDIX 7A – RHYMES AND SONGS

Numbers

7 Listen and repeat.



one's a number,
two's a number,
three's a number,
four!
number **five** is under **six**,
and number **seven's** more!
eight's a number,
nine's a number,
now we come to **ten** . . .
and we're back at **one** again!

Numbers 1 – 10

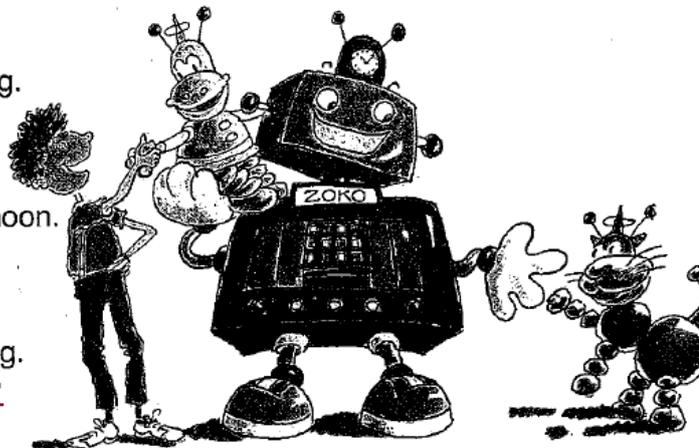
How are you?

6 Listen and sing.

Good morning, good morning.
How are you? How are you?
I'm fine, thank you.

Good afternoon, good afternoon.
How are you? How are you?
I'm fine, thank you.

Good morning, good morning.
How are you? How are you?
I'm fine. Goodbye.
Goodbye . . . goodbye . . . goodbye . . .



 **The Hokey Cokey**

 7 Listen and sing.

- 1 Put your right arm in!
Take your right arm out!
In! Out! In! Out!
Shake it all about!
Do the Hokey Cokey
And turn around!
That's what it's all about!

Oh, the Hokey Cokey!
Oh, the Hokey Cokey!
Oh, the Hokey Cokey!
Knees bend!
Arms stretch!
One! Two! Three!

- 2 Put your left arm in! . . .
- 3 Put your right leg in! . . .
- 4 Put your left leg in! . . .



APPENDIX 8 – FREQUENCY OF PRONUNCIATION ACTIVITIES IN LESSONS

Table No. 7 – Pronunciation activities of the segmental level in all observed classes

ACPSEV1	7x	ACPSEB1	9x
ACPSEV2	2x	ACPSEB2	3x
ACPSEC	5x		In total 12/30
ACPSED1	2x	ACPSEB3	8x
ACPSED2	1x	ACPSEB4	6x
ACPSEM	4x		In total: 14/30
	In total: 21/30	ACPSEWD	2x
			In total: 2/30
ACPSESD	22x	ACPSECD	13x
	In total: 22/30		In total: 13/30
ACPSEWP	4x	ACPSEWT	13x
	In total: 4/30		In total 13/30
ACPSESD	8x		
	In total: 8/30		

Table No. 8 – Pronunciation activities of the supra-segmental level in all observed classes

ACPSURS	18x
	In total: 18/30
ACPSUWS	6x
	In total: 6/30
ACPSUSS	2x
	In total: 2/30

APPENDIX 9 – OBSERVATION SHEETS – LEARNERS’ MISTAKES

5th grade

OBSERVATION SHEET (2.)

LEARNERS’ ERRORS IN PRONUNCIATION ACTIVITIES

Legend:
 YL – Young learner
 Who corrected...?:
 T – Teacher’s correction
 S – Self-correction (YL corrected himself)
 P – Peer-correction (a pupil corrected the YL)

ACTIVITY CODE	DATE	ERROR MADE IN THE WORD...	INCORRECTLY PRONOUNCED AS....	WHO CORRECTED...?	WHEN WAS IT CORRECTED?
ACPREWR	11.9.2011	.TEDDY	[ˈtɛdɪ]	teacher (T)	immediately (T understood YL and corrected his pronunciation)
ACRWRS	11.9.2011	.GLAD	[glæd]	T	immediately
ACPREED	11.9.2011	.WHAT	[wɒt]	T	-/-
ACPSWRP	11.9.2011	.BIG .BOOK	[bɪg] [bʊk]	P T	immediately (teacher chose to do so as to prevent the other learners)

immediately

OBSERVATION SHEET (2.)

LEARNERS' ERRORS IN PRONUNCIATION ACTIVITIES

HOW WAS IT CORRECTED? (GESTURES, HINTS, SAYING THE CORRECT FORM IMMEDIATELY...)	DID THE YL HAVE A CHANCE TO REPEAT THE RIGHT WORD AFTER BEING CORRECTED?
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • saying the correct form immediately. 	<p>Yes, he did.</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • -// - 	<p>-// -</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • -// - 	<p>-// -</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • -// - 	<p>-// -</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teacher recognized the mistake, told the learner about it, he was silent (wasn't probably able to correct himself immediately so the teacher asked another pupil to do it for <u>him</u>. (also find a mistake)) • teacher repeated the word with the mistake in an interrogative form "Is it?" To get him to correct it and told to correct himself. 	<p>Yes, he did</p> <p>Yes, she did.</p>

APPENDIX 10 – INTERVIEW WITH TEACHERS

INTERVIEW

DATE: 3.10.2011

TEACHER: B (4. třída)

1. Jaký je nebo jaký by měl být podle Vás cíl výslovnosti při vyučování a učení se anglické výslovnosti u nerodilých mluvčích, v tomto případě u českých žáků?

"naučit se sakorou výslovnost, se kterou se dokáží
sát do souměst se světe ⇒ výslovnost, kterou budou
rozumět jak si, co se anglicky učí v zemích, kde AT
nemí ope. příjmem, tak i v zemích, kde je AT úředním
jazykem."

2. Myslíte si nebo věříte, že čeští žáci mladšího školního věku mohou získat (nabýt) anglickou výslovnost s přízvukem, jakým mluví rodilí mluvčí, nebo si myslíte, že je to v tomto věku u žáků nemožné?

"Věřím, že každý člověk může se naučit sakorou
výslovnost, která je podobná výslovnosti rodilých
mluvčích." "Mám ale je, aby o to měl zájem zájem ⇒
stanovil si to za svůj cíl a za tím si šel a dělal
maximum proto, aby tohoto cíle dosáhnul. Zájem a
chuť je důležitá. Řeknu si, že pokud nebude mít zájem
zájem nebo bude společen s tou výslovností, kterou používá
a která se třeba ani nepodobá výslovnosti rodilých mluvčích, nemůže
něco spíše není vyvolá zájem, že nebude ang. výslovnosti rodilých mluvčích."

3. Myslíte si nebo věříte, že žáci mladšího školního věku mohou získat lepší anglickou výslovnost než ti žáci, kteří se začínou anglicky učit později (teenageři, dospělí)?

Věk bych řekla, že není až tak důležitý. Zájem mají jak
dětí tak mladší i starší. Důležitá je chuť učít a
mít zájem nebo motivaci se učit výslovnost."

4. Kolik času průměrně věnujete výuce anglické výslovnosti ve Vašich hodinách?

Imám se výslovností věnovat co nejčastěji a
zahrnout různé aktivity na výslovnost pravidelně
do hodin. Průměrně se věnujeme výslovnosti asi
každé 15-20 minut.

5. Myslíte si, že čas věnovaný výuce anglické výslovnosti ve Vašich hodinách je dostačující a
splňuje potřeby žáků

"Kdybych, že čas je dostačující." Samozřejmě
každý žák se může mít trochu jiné potřeby
a jiné uspokojit potřeby, což není snadné. Všeobecně
si ale myslím, že je dobrý, když máme čas, který si můžeme
věnovat výslovnosti, ~~to~~ zejména.

6. Jakým způsobem pomáháte Vašim žákům získat lepší anglickou výslovnost?

• ROZLIŠOVACÍ CVIČENÍ na souhlásky, dlouhé i krátké
samohlásky, dvojhlásky... U některých žáků mají
třetinu žáků z nichž se učí

• PRÍLOŽENÍ, když po mě nebo po mluvitelce na hodinu
žáci opakují slovíčka nebo celé věty.

⇒ zobrazit x čehož si žáci neposlouchají ang. výslovnost.

7. Věnujete všeobecně větší pozornost aktivitám, které jsou zaměřené na rozlišování
jednotlivých prvků segmentální roviny, to znamená souhlásky, samohlásky, dvojhlásky nebo
aktivitám zacílených na anglický přízvuk, intonaci, rytmus spadající do supra-segmentální
roviny?

Spíše než na intonaci nebo přízvuk se zaměřujeme
na rozlišování souhlásek nebo samohlásek. Podle
mě, je důležitější naučit se správně vyslovovat
souhlásky a samohlásky. Intonace a rytmus, vedle
základním mojí problém. Angl. přízvuk se liší od toho
českého, ale na přízvuk se zaměřujeme spíše až
ve vyšších rovinách.

8. Jaká je role učebnice pro výuku anglické výslovnosti ve Vašich hodinách?

Používáme učebnici Checkmate, která slouží pouze jako
doplňkový materiál. Rozlišovací aktivity se věnujeme
si většinou tvorím sama nebo používám materiály z
jiných učebnic, které se výslovnosti zabývají.

