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Reflection of English as a Lingua Franca in Listening
Activities of Selected Textbooks

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

Diplomand se bude ve své práci zabývat angličtinou jako jazykem mezinárodní komunikace. V teoretické části práce nejprve definuje angličtinu jako mateřský, druhý a cizí jazyk. V návaznosti na tyto koncepty zmapuje, jak se vyvíjela angličtina jako lingua franca, uvede její charakteristiky - hlavní pozornost zaměří na zvukovou stránku jazyka. V další části pak bude diplomand diskutovat rozvoj dovednosti poslechu s porozuměním u žáků základní školy, a to s akcentem na materiální didaktické prostředky.

V rámci vlastního empirického šetření bude diplomand zjišťovat, zda je vývoj angličtiny jako jazyka mezinárodní komunikace reflektován v současném českém vzdělávacím kontextu. Analyzuje jednak kurikulární dokumenty z hlediska cílů a očekávaných výstupů výuky cizího jazyka na základní škole se zaměřením na recepci cílového jazyka, dále pak zvukové nahrávky, popřípadě videonahrávky doplňující vybrané učebnice, které mají dosahování stanovených cílů napomáhat. Součástí šetření bude i zjišťování postojů učitelů k angličtině a její funkci jako lingua franca.

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Abstract

The paper focuses on the concept of English as a lingua franca. The theoretical part begins with the definition of the terms English as native, second and foreign language and outlines the character of English in the world. The next chapter describes issues connected with English as a lingua franca, such as its development, the notions of language spread and distribution, legitimizing, characteristics and intelligibility in lingua franca talk. Consequently, the teaching of listening comprehension and pronunciation for English as a lingua franca contexts is discussed, with the accent on the roles of textbook audio materials. The following chapter summarizes previous research of teachers' attitudes to English as a lingua franca. The final chapter of the theoretical part describes documents determining aims of language teaching in basic education in the Czech Republic.

In the research part of the paper, the case study is conducted with the aim to reveal the amount of support for the potential implementation of English as a lingua franca teaching into the pedagogical instruction in basic school education in the Czech Republic. Firstly, the Framework Educational Programme for Basic Education and the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages are analysed from the point of view of their correspondence with English as a lingua franca paradigm. Secondly, listening and pronunciation materials of two selected textbooks are evaluated in respect to their roles for English as a lingua franca teaching. Lastly, teachers' attitudes to the lingua franca concept are elicited by an interview method. The findings of the research are summarized in the concluding section.

Key words:

English as a lingua franca, Lingua Franca Core, textbook evaluation, teachers' attitudes, Framework Educational Programme for Basic Education, Common European Framework of Reference for Languages

Abstrakt

Diplomová práce se zabývá konceptem angličtina jako lingua franca. Teoretická část nejprve definuje pojmy angličtina jako první, druhý a cizí jazyk a nastiňuje charakter angličtiny ve světě. Následující kapitola popisuje aspekty angličtiny jako jazyka mezinárodní komunikace, což zahrnuje její vývoj, rozlišení pojmů jazyková distribuce a rozšíření jazyka, legitimaci, charakteristiky a srozumitelnost v komunikaci. Následně je diskutováno vyučování poslechových dovedností a výslovnosti pro účely komunikace v angličtině používané jako lingua franca. Zaměření je kladeno na role poslechových materiálů v učebnicích. V další kapitole jsou shrnuty výsledky předchozího výzkumu přístupů učitelů k angličtině jako lingua franca. Teoretickou část uzavírá popis dokumentů, jež stanovují cíle vyučování cizích jazyků na základním stupni vzdělávání v České republice.

Ve výzkumné části práce je provedena případová studie, jejímž cílem je zjistit množství podpory pro případné vyučování angličtiny podle konceptu lingua franca v základním vzdělávání v České republice. Nejprve je rozebíráno jak se Rámcový vzdělávací program pro základní vzdělávání a Společný evropský referenční rámec pro jazyky shodují s modelem angličtina jako lingua franca. Dále jsou hodnoceny poslechové a výslovnostní materiály dvou vybraných učebnic s ohledem na to, jak naplňují role vyplývající z potřeb mezinárodní komunikace v anglickém jazyce. Jako poslední jsou metodou rozhovoru zjišťovány přístupy učitelů ke konceptu angličtina jako lingua franca. Výsledky výzkumu jsou shrnuty v závěrečné kapitole práce.

Klíčová slova:

angličtina jako lingua franca, fonologický sylabus angličtiny jako lingua franca, hodnocení učebnic, Rámcový vzdělávací program pro základní vzdělávání, Společný evropský referenční rámec pro jazyky

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1. INTRODUCTION

The global use of English in many professional domains has led to an extraordinary desire of people to be able to communicate in the language. As a result, the demand for English language teaching has been growing and nowadays English is taught as the primary foreign language in numerous countries around the world.

For a long time, native speakers have been considered primary authorities for teaching the language, which has led to the rapid development of English language teaching industry mediated by the countries where English is spoken as the mother tongue. Nevertheless, the increasing number of foreign speakers of English and their use of the language in communication with other non-native speakers causes that the language is shaped by its non-native users for their own purposes. As a consequence, some scholars have articulated the need to analyse and describe what actually happens in the language in the communication among its non-native speakers and utilize the findings as the basis for teaching English according to the concept known as English as a lingua franca. This process involves questioning the native-speaker lead instruction and acknowledging foreign users as the primary authorities and providers of linguistic norms. The lingua franca paradigm has divided the English speaking community into two groups, advocates and critics, and the confrontation of the two parties has resulted in the present-day controversy surrounding the concept.

This paper aims at investigating what level of support for English as a lingua franca teaching there is in the context of basic education in the Czech Republic. Three levels of the educational system are studied. In particular, they are the prescriptive documents, textbook audio recordings and teachers' attitudes. The paper does not deal with the conflicting arguments of individual parties, but rather attempts to disclose what ground there is for the potential implementation of the lingua franca concept into the pedagogical instruction.

The theoretical part comprises chapters 2 - 6 and serves as a basis for the research. In chapter 2, English as a native, second and foreign language is defined together with the character of English in the world. Chapter 3 is dedicated to the overview of English as a lingua franca, covering its development, legitimizing, lexico-grammatical and phonological characteristics, and the problem of intelligibility with the emphasis on the Lingua Franca Phonological Core. Chapter 4 deals with developing listening comprehension and pronunciation for lingua franca context. Roles of different sources of input are outlined and the main stress is put on coursebook recordings. Chapter 5

summarizes previous research of teachers' attitudes to English as a lingua franca. The basis is mainly Jenkins' study (2007) and her overview of other research on the same topic. Chapter 6 introduces *The Framework Educational Programme for Basic Education* and *The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* that constitute the documents defining objectives of language learning/teaching in basic education in the Czech Republic.

Research is presented in chapter 7. The research aim, research questions and methodology are outlined in sections 7.1. and 7.2. Three parts of the research are then conducted. In section 7.3. the prescriptive documents are analysed and their accord with the English as a lingua franca concept is revealed. Section 7.4. focuses on the textbooks evaluation. The textbooks audio recordings and pronunciation activities are analysed and evaluated according to the criteria designed in the theoretical part, which discloses whether the textbooks activities correspond to their roles in teaching English as a lingua franca. Section 7.5. concentrates on eliciting teachers' attitudes to English as a Lingua Franca and indicates to what extent teachers approve of the paradigm shift. Each of the three parts of the research has its separate concluding section and the overall conclusion of the paper is presented in chapter 8.

2. ENGLISH AS A NATIVE, SECOND AND FOREIGN LANGUAGE

This chapter provides an overview of different uses of English with relation to different speakers. Firstly, the terms *native*, *second*, and *foreign language* are explained as they are used throughout the whole paper and their different interpretation could cause confusion. Secondly, the notion of three concentric circles connected with the nature of English in the world is outlined.

2.1. English as a Native Language

Native language is also referred to by authors as *mother tongue*, *first language* and/or *L1*. As for the correct terminology, McArthur (1992, p. 682) suggests using *first language*, or *L1* in the specialised literature due to the neutrality of this expression and the possible implied connection of the other two terms with birth, mother or nation. However, Quirk et al. (1985, p. 3) acknowledge that all of the terms are closely related. More specifically, they do not make any distinction between *mother* and *native*, and

claim that these notions overlap with *first* language. A similar approach to defining these terms can be found in monolingual dictionaries (Longman Dictionary, p. 955; Oxford Dictionary, p. 1858) where *mother tongue* is defined as one's *native* language while there is no entry concerning the expression *first language* in neither of the dictionaries. Due to the overlapping use/meaning of the terms, and since the authors cited in this paper (Jenkins, 2000, 2007; Crystal 2003; Seidlhofer, 2001) do not specifically distinguish between the expressions, the terms will be further on used as synonyms.

English as a native language (ENL) will be now specified from three different perspectives, i.e. how it is learned (acquired), how and with what competence it is used, and how it reflects one's identity. According to the first perspective, native language is defined by Bloomfield (1933, p. 43) as "the first language a human being learns to speak is his native language, he is a native speaker of the language". In a very similar way, Quirk et al. (1985, p. 3) define ENL as a language acquired in the early childhood and "generally in the home". The aspect of the early acquisition of a native language in the home is presented also in Romaine (1994, pp. 37-38), who discusses approaches to the definition of mother tongue in US and Canadian censuses. She adds the possibility of the child's acquisition of more than one native language if brought up in a bilingual environment. Therefore, the early acquisition and domestic environment are obviously very important characteristics of ENL. Nevertheless, for the purposes of this paper the above definitions are relevant only to a certain extent, as they fail to reflect the fact that the first acquired language(s) does not necessarily have to function as the person's primary language(s) for the rest of his or her life (McArthur, 1992, p. 406).

Rather than the way of acquisition, McArthur characterises the first language in terms of the speaker's competence in the language. "The first language is the language in which learners are competent when starting a new language" (1992, p. 406). The comparison between the two languages is also described in Quirk et al. (1985, pp. 3-4), who identify the first language as one's primary language in contrast to an additional language, so that the function of the speaker's first language is superior to his or her other languages. The mother tongue competence of a native speaker (NS) is discussed in more detail in Davies¹, who explains it as a set of linguistic, pragmatic and paralinguistic indicators underlined by a shared cultural knowledge (2003, p.207). This competence in a language and the specific cultural knowledge distinguish native speakers (NSs) from non-native speakers (NNSs), in other words, people with different

¹ See Davies (2003, pp. 200-206) for more detail on mother tongue competence

L1s. Although authors admit the possibility that NNSs can acquire the NS competence, they consider it a very improbable phenomenon unless the acquisition has started early in life (ibid, p. 212; Crystal, 2003, p. 16). Given the last statement, there exists a close relationship between the two so far discussed features of the native language, i.e. the age in the period of acquisition and L1 competence.

Besides the already described aspects of L1, there is another important characteristic of the first language - the identity. Crystal points out that the identity often leads to individual's deliberate identification or non-identification with a particular social group as the "language is a major means (some would say the chief means) of showing where we belong, and of distinguishing one social group from another" (2003, p. 22). An example of such a phenomenon is illustrated in Romaine (1994, p. 38), who describes children with two mother tongues consciously choosing only one of them in order to indicate their national identity. The interconnection of mother tongue and national identity is further indicated by Crystal's (1994, p. 22) argument that the mother tongue plays a vital role during a peoples' struggle to sustain and show their national identity when it is endangered. In addition, there is a parallel between one's first language identity and his or her acquisition of another language. Specifically, Jenkins points out that an English learner beyond the age of puberty is usually unable to achieve the NS pronunciation competence due to the interference of the already developed L1 identity (2007, p. 69). Hence, there exists a connection between the L1 identity and the early mother tongue acquisition, which is similar to the relationship between the first language acquisition and competence outlined in the previous paragraph.

For the purposes of this paper, the terms *English as a native language*, *first language*, *L1* and/or *mother tongue* are defined as the language acquired in the home in childhood, characterized by a unique set of competencies typical only for NSs of the language. Moreover, this language is used as the speaker's primary language and the speaker considers English to be his or her native language and, therefore, reveals the English L1 identity.

2.2. English as a Second Language

There are two perspectives of the notion of English as a second language (ESL). The first point of view is that the second language is any language added (learned/acquired) to the speaker's mother tongue (Crystal, 2003, p. 4; McArthur, 1992, p. 406). According to the second perspective, the term second language is used in a more restricted sense, as a language having a special institutional role in the country and

thus serving an important intranational or national function (Crystal, 2003, p. 4; McArthur, 1992, p. 406, Quirk et al., 1985, p. 4, Jenkins, 2000, p. 5). Crystal explains that the discrepancy is caused by the fact that while the first of the two concepts is predominant in the countries influenced by the USA (2003, p. 4), the latter one stems from and is accepted in Britain-influenced part of the world. Concerning English as a lingua franca literature, the expression ESL is principally used according to the second definition, as the other one does not distinguish between the notions of second and foreign language. Consequently, ESL is regarded in the same sense in this paper. However, there are generally accepted terms such as *Second Language Acquisition* (SLA) covering both the second and foreign language (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990, p. 1). It is only when mentioning such expressions that second language will be used in its more general sense.

English can occur as a second language in countries where it is either L1 of the majority of the population or an intranational language of a state functioning alongside the native language. Quirk et al. exemplify the former type of the usage of ESL by mentioning places like Canada, where the official language and majority's L1 is English, but in the province Quebec French is primarily spoken as the mother tongue so that the people use English as a second language in official circles. Similarly, some people in Wales or Ireland have a Celtic language as their mother tongue, but English has a very important institutional role in their countries, so they have to speak English as the second language (1985, p. 4). The latter and more frequent way of speaking ESL takes place in the countries where most population's mother tongue is different from English and English is used either as an official language or serves as a "means of communication in such domains like government, the law courts, the media and the educational system" (Crystal, 2003, p. 4). As a result, it is very desirable for the people of such countries to learn English as the second language in order to be able to communicate in the official circles (ibid.).

To conclude, ESL is mainly defined on the basis of its intranational function. In other words, the term refers to the administrative and political status of the language in a certain country, usually where English is not a mother tongue.

2.3. English as a Foreign Language

While English as a second language functions predominantly as the language of national communication in the country where it has an official role, English as a foreign language (EFL) is characterized by its international function and lacks the official

intranational status. It is learned as a foreign language mainly with the aim to communicate with speakers of different L1s.

Specific reasons to use English as a foreign language include, according to Quirk et al., obtaining information in the English language mass media, learning about NS-countries cultures, increasing one's chances of employment or promotion, and travelling (1985, pp. 5, 6). Moreover, what authors unanimously stress as a primary reason to choose English as a foreign language is that it provides its users with access to the majority of specialized supranational branches of study, business and science, hence helping the speakers follow the latest development in their fields (Crystal, 2003, pp. 80-83; Quirk et al., 1985, p. 5; Widdowson, 2003, p. 56). Accordingly, more and more countries recognise English as a primary foreign language in their educational systems and English has become the most widely taught language to both children and adults (Crystal, 2003, p. 5; Quirk et al., 1985, p. 5). Such an expansion of EFL is very important for the character of English in the world, since the foreign learners and speakers nowadays constitute the largest body of English users. Approximate numbers of English speakers will be discussed in more detail in the following section.

2.4. English in the World

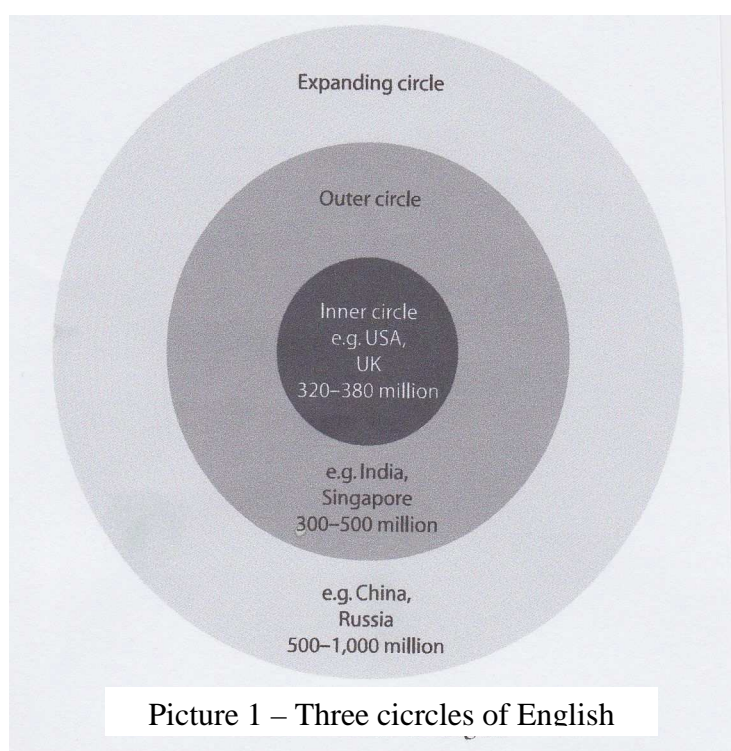
Crystal states that around the year of 2000 English was spoken by 1.5 billion competent speakers, which constituted a quarter of the world's entire population. No other language had so many speakers and English was taught in about 100 countries (2003, pp. 6, 69), being thus, as stated in the previous section, the most widely learned foreign language. English also functions as a second language in more than 70 countries (ibid., p. 6) and is "represented in every continent and on islands in three major oceans" (ibid., p. 29).

Kachru (1992, p. 356) divides the world of English into the inner, outer and expanding circles, based on the role of the language for particular users. The inner circle represents countries like the USA, the UK or Australia, where English is spoken primarily as the mother tongue. The outer circle refers to states such as India, Nigeria and Bangladesh, in which English is a second language. In the expanding circle countries, English is learned and used as a foreign language and this concerns, for example, China, Japan and most European nations.

Picture 1 on the next page, adapted from Crystal (2003, p. 61), illustrates estimated figures of English users in the tree circles. According to Crystal (ibid.), there are approximately 320-380 million native speakers of English, while at the same time, there

exist 800 to 1,500 million non-native English speakers. The exact number of non-native speakers depends on the inclusion of users of English with different levels of proficiency. However, it is a widely acknowledged fact that non-native speakers outnumber native speakers (Crystal, 2003, p. 69; Jenkins, 2000, p. 1) and Jenkins (*ibid.*) proposes that the ratio will shift towards the non-native users outnumbering the native speakers even more significantly in the future.

Although some authors argue that Kachru's concept is not exhaustive (Crystal, 2003, p. 60), or is oversimplified (Widdowson, 2003, p. 56), it is often used when dealing with the global character of English, particularly in Jenkins (2000, p. 8) and Crystal (2003, p. 61). Therefore, the notion of the three circles is a helpful tool for explaining the nature of English in the world.



3. ENGLISH AS A LINGUA FRANCA

The term *English as a lingua franca* (ELF), interchangeable with *English as an international language* (Seidlhofer, 2005, p. 339), is used to refer to the use of English among speakers of different first languages. Firth (*ibid.*, p. 339) defines English as a lingua franca as “a contact language between persons who share neither a common native tongue nor a common (national) culture, and for whom English is the chosen

language of communication”. Troike (in Phillipson, 1992, p. 7) claims that no other language is used for the international communication as often as English. Given the ratio of native and non-native users, Jenkins (2007, p. 28) refers to the data of several studies (e.g. Beck, 1991) revealing that approximately 80 per cent of ELF communication does not include any native speakers. Although native speakers cannot be excluded from the ELF interaction research, Jenkins argues that they should not be included in the data collection and represent a linguistic reference point (2007, p. 3).

This part of the paper firstly describes the development of English as a lingua franca. Secondly, the process of its legitimizing is outlined. Subsequently, grammatical and phonological characteristics of ELF are explained and lastly, the issue of phonological intelligibility of ELF talk is discussed.

3.1. Development of English as a Lingua Franca

According to Crystal (2003, p. 69), the most rapid increase in the number of non-native English users has taken place in the last fifty years, which can be illustrated on Quirk et al.’s (1985, p. 5) comment that as short ago as in the 1960s there were fewer non-native than native speakers and since then the ratio has changed to the extent outlined in section 2.4. In order to understand this expansion, it is vital to mention the historical development leading to the extraordinary demand for English as a global lingua franca before the second half of the 20th century. Additionally, a more recent development will be discussed.

3.1.1. Development before the 1st Half of the 20th Century

There were several reasons why English developed the way it did. But the two primary ones will be briefly pointed out - the colonial expansion and the industrial revolution.

The colonial expansion of Britain took place from the 16th to the end of the 19th century. During this period, English was introduced to various parts of the world, where it was used mainly as the first or second language, and the number of its users rose from 5 to 250 million (Crystal, 2003, p. 30). The position of English has not weakened in these areas after the end of the colonial period. On the contrary, the language often retained its status as a means of intranational communication and/or an important tool of international interaction.

The boom of English was supported in the 19th century by the industrial revolution. As this era of technical innovation was driven primarily by England and later the USA,

English became the language of scientific progress, providing access to knowledge to those familiar with English. Furthermore, the demand for the language was consolidated by the economic power of the English-speaking world, especially the USA, spreading the language into new countries as a by product of the scientific achievement. Therefore, at the beginning of the 20th century it was not surprising that many supranational organizations chose English as a communicative medium (Crystal, 2003, pp. 80-83, 121).

3.1.2. Development from the 2nd Half of the 20th Century

In the second half of the 20th century it was the continuing economic and technological domination of the USA that spread English into the world, but it was moreover accompanied by the distribution of the English language teaching (ELT) industry from the UK and USA.

Crystal (2003, p. 120) claims that similarly to the spread during the industrial revolution, the financial power enabled the USA to be at the forefront of technical development in the 20th century. English was therefore still distributed with the scientific innovation and influencing various aspects of the society such as the press, sound recording, motion pictures, or advertising. Harmer (2001, p. 3) states that this development is clearly reflected in the globalization, with American products promoted all around the world.

English is also claimed to be the chief language of the internet, one of the inventions of the USA. It was estimated that there were more than 550 million users of the World Wide Web in approximately 200 territories in the year of 2002 and the native speakers of English were becoming a minority of the internet users. However, since 1980s it has been common for NNS commercial organizations to provide English versions of their websites so as to be competitive on the international level (Crystal, 2003, p. 115-118). Therefore, as Specter observes, in order to make the full advantage of the internet one needs to be familiar with English (in *ibid.*, p. 118).

The spread of English in the second half of the 20th century has been complemented by the promotion and export of ELT knowledge, including instructional materials, experts and teachers from the UK and USA into the world. Phillipson (1992, p. 137) claims that the British Council is the main tool for global distributing of English teaching, and that it is accompanied by various American enterprises. Phillipson (*ibid.*, pp. 139, 161) further mentions significant investments of the British government and private American companies into the establishment of centres in foreign countries to

promote the inner circle cultures and language. The extent of the efforts to promote native-speaker initiated ELT is well illustrated by the 1998 British Council Annual Report: “English language teaching is the major British Export” (in Widdowson, 2003, p. 157), and by the fact that British Council presently operates in more than 100 countries and about two million students take examinations organized by the council every year (British Council Report 2010-2011, pp. 4, 7).

3.1.3. Distribution vs. Spread

The distinction between the spread of language and its distribution is an important discrepancy criticised by researchers of English as a lingua franca. For that reason, these terms will be characterised and the controversy discussed.

On one hand, the spread of English has been taking place since the 16th century when people brought the language into new territories. As a result, there occurred regional varieties such as the US, Australian or Indian Englishes, reflecting the needs to refer to the new realities.

When we talk about the spread of English, then, it is not that the conventionally coded forms and meanings are transmitted into different environments and different surroundings, and taken up and used by different groups of people. It is not a matter of the actual language being distributed but of the virtual language being spread and in the process being variously actualized. (Widdowson, 2003, p. 50)

In other words, the speakers make use of their linguistic resources, the virtual language, and exploit the language potential for their particular purposes, creating thus new varieties, be it for the purposes of an intranational or lingua franca communication.

On the other hand, the language distribution concerns the mentioned export of the inner-circle English and promoting particular varieties and norms worldwide (ibid., p. 158). Such a distribution often has beneficial effects for the resource countries (ibid., p. 45), which is evident from the 2010-2011 British Council Annual Report. “Our mix of ‘for good and for profit’ draws on a diminishing proportion of public funding to deliver major economic, social and cultural benefit for the UK” (British Council Annual Report 2010-2011, p. 6).

The phenomena of language spread and distribution are strongly in conflict with each other. The authors researching ELF (Jenkins, 2000, 2007; Seidlhofer, 2001; Widdowson, 2003) argue that while it is perceived as a fact that English is a language of international communication, where non-native speakers are the main initiators of linguistic changes and where native speakers do not play a major role, the goals of teaching English as a foreign language are based mainly on native-speaker norms. Thus,

what actually happens in ELT is the language distribution, i.e. English spoken in the inner circle countries is promoted all around the world where, on the contrary, the language variation takes place. Widdowson (2003, p. 50) criticizes this trend by claiming that the distribution denies spread. More specifically, applying native speaker norms globally makes English a franchise language instead of a lingua franca.

3.2. Legitimizing English as a Lingua Franca

As a consequence of the controversy mentioned above, there are arguments for the recognition of English as a lingua franca as a linguistic system in its own right that would serve as an alternative of the inner-circle controlled ELT. The legitimizing would, as Seidlhofer argue, enable a complex description and codification of English as a lingua franca that could be then recorded in dictionaries and grammars on which basis it might be taught and teaching materials designed (in Gnutzmann, 2009, p. 534). It is proposed that learning according to the ELF paradigm would be more effective than the native-speaker lead instruction, as far as the international communication is concerned. Furthermore, the new paradigm would apparently be more reflective of aims and learning processes of foreign speakers.

The official recognition of English as a lingua franca is closely connected with redefining the norms and ownership of international English. Jenkins (2007, p. 238) criticizes the fact that English used as a lingua franca is generally judged according to native-speaker norms while foreign speakers are more concerned with being understood by their interlocutors than with emulating native speakers' speech. Quirk (in Kachru, 1991, p. 219) proposes that international non-native varieties of English should be seen as legitimate types of the language rather than interlanguage stages aiming at the NS standard. The irrelevance of applying NS norms to international communication is illustrated by Seidlhofer (2001, pp. 137-38), who mentions a Danish politician employing a word in his speech that would not be used in such a way by a native speaker, and which was labelled as an error due to the mother-tongue transfer, and the speaker's English proficiency was evaluated as a moderate one. The inadequacy of the assessment is caused by the fact that the speech was given in the Netherlands (not an inner-circle setting) and that it was not exclusively intended for a native-speaking audience. In addition, as far as the international interlocutors were concerned, the meaning of the speech was not affected by the 'error'. Seidlhofer (2001, p. 144) thus suggests that if comprehensible, the deviations from NS norms should be regarded as evidence of successful communication strategies rather than mistakes.

Widdowson argues in similar line that due to the spread and diversification of English by its non-native speakers for their own purposes, native speakers have no right to pass judgment over the ways English is used in the world and if the language is international, “no nation can have custody over it” (2003, p. 43). Widdowson moreover explains that “the modified forms of the language which are actually in use should be recognized as a legitimate development of English as an international means of communication” (in Jenkins 2007, p.7). For the recognition of ELF as an official means of global communication, it is vital to see it as norm-providing, not norm-dependent.

“...in order to capture the nature of lingua franca English we need to think of it as evolving out of spread, not distribution, and acknowledge the vital role and authority of ELF users as agents of language change.” (Seidlhofer, 2001, p. 138)

A remarkable development in legitimizing ELF is considered the inclusion of the section ‘English as a Lingua Franca’ in the latest version of the *Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary* (Seidlhofer in Gnutzmann, 2009, p. 534). According to Gnutzmann (2009, p. 534), this achievement is interrelated with the ELF proponents’ research, such as the creation of the phonological core of English as a lingua franca in Jenkins (2000) or the VOICE project (Vienna-Oxford International Corpus of Spoken English), which presently comprises transcripts of about 120 hours of real-life English interaction between approximately 1250 speakers of 50 different first languages (VOICE website).

However, Gnutzmann claims that the studies of lingua franca English have so far focused exclusively on the spoken mode of communication in a limited number of contexts, which not only limits learners’ chances of acquiring a higher level of reading and writing competences, but also prevents the complex description and codification (2009, pp. 535, 536).

In contrast, Widdowson (2009, p. 214) points out that the research of the way non-native speakers actually use the language would make learning more effective for foreign language learners. It is due to the fact that the description of foreign-speakers’ communication constitutes an evidence of what has been learned and performed in practice. Such studies provide not only goals of teaching English as a lingua franca, but also more closely connect foreign language communication with learning by revealing what features of classroom instruction and communicative strategies are taking place in the real-life interaction among non-native users of the language.

Finally, teaching ELF is disregarded by some authors due to restricting learners’ competencies to outer and expanding circles. Quirk in Jenkins (2007, p. 9) mentions

that a learner speaking his or her regional variety of English that is acceptable in lingua franca contexts would be disadvantaged in the inner circle countries where the language would be judged by local authorities requiring a certain level of standard English (SE) proficiency. A similar argument is expressed by Widdowson (2003, p. 39), who states that SE provides access to institutions held by its custodians, and a speaker is not included into the community without a proper knowledge of SE. Because it is not possible to generalize the future goals of individual students, Seidlhofer in Jenkins, (2007, p. 20) and Scrivener (2001, p. 144) acknowledge that only learners themselves can determine whether they desire to achieve a native-like proficiency or become competent ELF speakers. Students' choice between the two concepts should be supported by activities raising awareness of the ways English is used in the world.

3.3. Characteristics of ELF Communication

3.3.1. Lexico-Grammatical Characteristics

Regarding the lexico-grammatical features of spoken lingua franca English, it has been researched that many aspects in this linguistic domain which are considered ungrammatical or marked in Standard English are actually being used without preventing a successful transfer of information in ELF. Although the efficiency of all such aspects in ELF communication has not been reliably proven so far (Jenkins, 2005), the list below provides lexico-grammatical features in which English as a lingua franca systematically differs from NS English:

- dropping the third person present tense -s (as in "She look very sad")
- confusing the relative pronouns *who* and *which* ("a book who", "a person which")
- omitting definite and indefinite articles where they are obligatory in NS English, and inserting them where they do not occur in NS English
- failing to use 'correct' forms in tag questions e.g. *isn't it?* or *no* instead of *shouldn't they?* (as in "They should arrive soon, isn't it?")
- inserting redundant prepositions (as in "We have to study about..." and "can we discuss about...?")
- overusing certain verbs of high semantic generality, such as *do*, *have*, *make*, *put*, *take*
- replacing infinitive constructions with that-clauses, as in *I want that...* (e.g. "I want that we discuss my dissertation")
- overdoing explicitness (e.g. "black colour" rather than 'black' and "How long time?" instead of 'How long?')

- pluralizing nouns that do not have plural forms in Standard English (e.g. informations, knowledges, advices)

(Seidlhofer in Jenkins, 2005; Hülmbauer, Böhringer, Seidlhofer, 2008, p. 31)

Even though the list is not by any means exhaustive, an overview is provided of what is occurring in international communication on the lexico-grammatical level. Since this issue is not central to the topic of the paper, the focus of following sections is put on pronunciation.

3.3.2. Phonetic and Phonological Characteristics

ELF users are generally characterised by speaking English with a foreign accent. Accent is defined by (Hongyan, 2007, p. 9) as “the way of speaking that is characteristic for a specific group of people from a regional background”, and is connected solely with pronunciation features, which distinguishes it from dialect that refers to a variety on more linguistic levels simultaneously. The foreign accent is then characterised by pronunciation aspects that are not typical of native speakers, as the foreign users substitute components of the target language pronunciation by features occurring in their first languages (Hongyan, 2007, p. 10).

The reasons why foreign accents evolve can be divided into three categories - age, experience and native language factors. Regarding the age, as stated in section 2.1., it has been researched that it is very rare that learners of a foreign language acquire a native-like accent if the exposure to the target language has not taken place before the period of puberty. The experience factor refers to the influence of the actual amount and quality of exposure and usage of the language. As far as native language factors are concerned, foreign accents tend to be influenced by the native languages of the speakers, which is referred to as the mother tongue transfer. It is claimed that the larger the difference between the first and foreign languages, the greater is the level of the transfer (Hongyan, 2007, p. 17-19).

As a result, since ELF users come from a wide range of first language backgrounds, there exist many different accents in the international context. But despite the variation and mother-tongue dependence of accents in ELF, certain general segmental and suprasegmental characteristics can be identified.

The deviations from native-speaker accents are usually the result of a target language sound being missing, or lacking a contrastive function in one’s first language system (Hongyan, 2007, p. 10; Jenkins, 2000, p. 33; Harmer, 2001, p. 184). On the segmental level, the outcome of the mother-tongue transfer is apparent in the sound

substitution or conflation, consonant deletion or elision, and addition (Jenkins, 2000, p. 34).

In particular, it is the /θ/ and /ð/ phonemes that are often not acquired and thus substituted by speakers of almost all L1s (*ibid.*, p. 106). Another universally problematic area concerns the production of consonant clusters. Jenkins (*ibid.*, p. 101) states that it is common for both L1 and L2 acquisition of English that speakers tend to simplify consonant clusters. The native-speaker child learning to speak often omits a certain sound in a cluster, which is also typical of many L2 learners of English. Moreover, some foreign speakers add vowels into the clusters in order to ease the pronunciation. Although other aspects on the phonemic and phonetic levels of foreign accents are mentioned (in *ibid.*, pp. 35-38), they are more restricted to individual L1 backgrounds and therefore cannot be generalized.

The suprasegmental specifics of ELF talk are connected with word stress, aspects of colloquial speech, and intonation. Languages like, for example, Czech, French or Polish have a fixed word stress, but the stress placement differs in individual English words. Even though the English word stress is governed by a number of rules, there also exist frequent exceptions (Roach, 1991, p. 87). As a result, many speakers of various fix-stressed languages often misplace the word stress in English. Moreover, deviations from NS word stress are also common with speakers of L1s where word stress is indicated in a different way than in English, or distinctions between stressed and weak syllables are not that apparent (Jenkins, 2000, pp. 39-40).

The rhythm of speech in English is based on a significant difference between strong and weak syllables (Roach, 1991, p. 123). Nevertheless foreign learners of English have often difficulties with properly producing the unstressed syllables as weak, since their mother tongues do not usually make use of such a device. Jenkins (2000, p. 147) points out that weak forms are rarely used to the full extent by even very proficient learners of English.

ELF users also normally do not employ other aspects of NS pronunciation. Wilson (2008, p. 11) states that in a rapid colloquial speech native speakers make naturally use of assimilation, elision and conflation. However, majority on non-native speakers do not speak quickly enough to put these processes naturally into operation so that they barely occur in ELF talk (Jenkins, 2000, p. 148).

As far as intonation is concerned, it has been revealed that due to the differences between the target and first languages, ELF users commonly misplace the nuclear stress, be it at the neutral or contrastive position (Jenkins, 2000, p. 43). At the same

time, non-native speakers' pitch movement frequently differs from the native speakers' realization because of the unconscious transfer of pitch direction patterns from speakers' first languages (Jenkins, 2000, p. 44) and the receptive difficulty of identifying the target language patterns of tone shift (Harmer, 2001, p. 185).

From the overview above, it is evident that the use of English by its non-native speakers displays many deviations in pronunciation and it will be explained in the next section that foreign accents pose a great threat to successful interaction.

3.4. Intelligibility in ELF Communication

Firstly, it is necessary to define the term intelligibility. Jenkins (2000, p. 78) discusses the distinction between comprehensibility (the recognition of word and utterance meanings), interpretability (the recognition of speaker's intention) and intelligibility (the recognition and production of phonological form). According to Jenkins (*ibid.*), unlike in NS communication, comprehensibility and interpretability are not as remarkable as intelligibility in ELF communication.

The reason to put the main stress on phonological form is due to the fact, as Jenkins (*ibid.*, p. 87) revealed, that the majority of miscommunications in ELF talk are caused by the misproduction and non-recognition of phonetic and phonological aspects of speech. This is mainly because ELF users have greater difficulties with contextual processing and need to rely primarily on linguistic - especially phonological - form (*ibid.*, p. 78).

In terms of intelligibility of different foreign accents, there exist significant differences in the level of intelligibility among speakers of various L1s. In particular, it is easiest to understand interlocutors from the same mother tongue background, while the intelligibility is more problematic with native speakers and speakers of related first languages. Even more difficult it is to understand accents of unrelated first language interlocutors (Jenkins, 2000, p. 132; Wilson, 2008, p. 22-23), which is mainly the result of mother tongue transfer (Jenkins, 2000, p. 88). However, general conclusions cannot be made, as the notion of the difficulty of comprehending individual accents is strongly influenced by the speaker's familiarity with particular accents (Smith and Bisazza, in *ibid.*, p. 94) and other characteristics of the input such as the speed of speech (Wilson, 2008, p. 23).

Another aspect of ELF communication connected with intelligibility is that L2 speakers are often reluctant to show non-comprehension since they are reluctant to

openly pinpoint the features of their interlocutor's mother tongue transfer (Jenkins, 2000, p. 77).

Due to the accentual variation in ELF communication and the desire of communicative success, there is the need to ensure the phonological intelligibility among speakers of diverse L1s. For this purpose, the phonological core of English as an International Language was designed and it will be described in the following section.

3.4.1. The Lingua Franca Phonological Core

The phonological core of English as an International Language, or the Lingua Franca Core (LFC), was proposed by Jenkins (2000). The main purpose of the core is to promote intelligibility in ELF communication, while providing space for non-native speakers to express their first language identities and making pronunciation teaching more effective for international contexts.

The core is designed by the means of identification of phonological items that are crucial for ELF intelligibility, and which thus need to be learnt and productively used by non-native speakers to communicate successfully on the international level. On the contrary, aspects not impeding successful interaction are labelled 'non-core', and allow space for regional variations, which should be acknowledged as a part of a foreign accent rather than evaluated as errors. The non-core items are, however, recommended to be learnt receptively so that ELF speakers could understand native speakers, should the need arise. Importantly, the core features are determined by the international users of English themselves on the basis of analysing spoken ELF interaction (Jenkins, 2007, p. 24-26).

The table below, adapted from Jenkins (*ibid.*, p. 23), summarizes the features of the LFC and contrasts them with the traditional phonological syllabus.

| | EFL target, Traditional syllabus | ELF target, Lingua Franca Core |
|----------------------------|--|--|
| 1. The consonant inventory | All sounds close RP/GA RP non rhotic /r/, GA rhotic /r/ RP intervocalic [t] GA intervocalic [r] | All sounds except /θ/ /ð/ but approximation of all others acceptable Rhotic /r/ only Intervocalic [t] only |
| 2. Phonetic requirements | Rarely specified | Aspiration after /p/, /t/, /k/ Appropriate vowel length before fortis/lenis consonants |
| 3. Consonant clusters | All word positions | Word initially, word medially |
| 4. Vowel quantity | Long-short contrast | Long-short contrast |
| 5. Tonic nuclear stress | Important | Critical |

It is evident from the table that the proposed LFC differs in certain segmental and suprasegmental aspects from the traditional phonological syllabus.

On the segmental level, the dental fricatives /θ/ and /ð/ are not included in the core and their substitutions by /f/, /v/ or /t/, /d/ are encouraged. This is because the substitutions are used by many L1 English speakers, and the recommended substitutions are easier to produce for most foreign learners. Furthermore, it is argued that the effort and time spent on learning the dental fricatives is not effective, as the classroom instruction seldom leads to acquisition and the substitutions do not prevent successful intelligibility (Jenkins, 2000, p. 138; Harmer, 2001, p. 184).

In terms of consonants it is moreover proposed that rhotic /r/ and intervocalic [ɹ] should be taught productively, while their Received Pronunciation/General American counterparts are not parts of the core. The case with these consonants is based on the presumption that the core sounds more closely reflect the orthographic system, so that their learning is supposed to be less demanding than learning their counterparts. The choice is also motivated by intelligibility issues. The rhotic /r/ is supported by the ELF research data revealing that a sound retention is more beneficial for intelligibility than a sound elision, and the GE intervocalic [ɹ] is claimed to have potential for receptive misinterpretation. (Jenkins, 2000, p. 139-140).

The LFC also prioritises producing the fortis consonants /p/, /t/, /k/ with aspiration in the initial position in a stressed syllable. The aspiration should prevent interpreting the given sounds as their lenis counterparts by NNS interlocutors, which may lead to misunderstanding (ibid., p. 140).

The lenis/fortis distinction is further addressed by including the production of an appropriate vowel length in relation to whether the vowel precedes a fortis or a lenis consonant. Jenkins (ibid., p. 141) found out that this aspect is crucial for intelligibility, while being straightforward enough to be taught successfully.

Regarding the consonant clusters, many of them are difficult to produce by NNSs (Wilson, 2008, p. 22). As a result, the ELF speakers either insert or omit some of the sounds in the clusters. The addition or elision of consonants in clusters is disapproved of completely in the word-initial position. On the other hand, elision is recommended in the word medial and final positions, while learners should be informed about the rules governing the consonant-cluster phonology (Jenkins, 2000, pp. 142-143).

As far as vowel sounds are concerned, it is proposed that only the quantity (length) should be a part of the LFC, whereas the quality (tongue and lip position) provides a

space for regional variation. The distinction between the short and long vowels is important for ELF intelligibility, as it is closely connected with the fortis/lenis distinction and producing the nuclear stress whose misproduction results in communication breakdowns. In contrast, since the vowel quality differs considerably with majority NS accents, it is proposed that this should also be the case of NNS accents on condition that the vowel qualities of local varieties are consistent. The only proposed exception is teaching the marked sound /ɜː/, as it has been revealed that its misproduction leads to intelligibility problems (ibid., p. 146). In terms of vowels, the core significantly reduces the pedagogic task, while at the same time prepares speakers for the real-life variation of vowel qualities and enables teachers speaking non-standard accents (Received Pronunciation and General American) to function as pronunciation models (ibid., pp. 144-145).

On the suprasegmental level the LFC includes the nuclear stress. Despite being difficult to correctly produce by many L2 users of English, the tonic stress is regarded crucial for promoting ELF intelligibility. Therefore, ELF learners need to be instructed both on the correct placement and production of the tonic stress, and structuring their speech into tone units (ibid., pp. 153-155).

In contrast, weak forms, aspects of connected speech, stress-timed rhythm, word stress and pitch movement are not considered necessary for successful ELF communication. Moreover, many of these aspects are labelled as unteachable in the classroom context and claimed that they can only be acquired by a prolonged real-life exposure to L1 English. It is thus argued that the classroom time dedicated to learning/teaching to produce the non-core suprasegmental features is not worth the effort for ELF contexts (Jenkins, 2008, p. 24).

To conclude, the LFC simplifies the pedagogic task in terms of pronunciation teaching by removing certain features of Received Pronunciation and/or General American from the syllabus. Since, as Jenkins (2000, p. 120) claims, there seems to be a high level of correspondence between teachability and intelligibility, the LFC makes the phonological task very effective. In the cases when an item is considered generally difficult but necessary for intelligibility, it is argued that the motivation to be understood will outweigh the difficulty. As such, the core promotes intelligibility in lingua franca contexts by enabling learners to focus on the important aspects, raising their awareness of variations in ELF, and still allowing them to understand native-speakers.

3.4.2. Convergence in ELF Communication

Jenkins (*ibid.*, pp. 165, 166) acknowledges that while the production of the LFC aspects is necessary, it cannot be assumed that all speakers will do it in all communicative situations. Therefore, ELF interlocutors will have to develop the ability to accommodate (or converge) both on the productive and receptive levels to their interlocutors.

Widdowson (2005, p. 68) states that convergence is an essential aspect of successful communication and can be defined as “a strategy by which individuals adapt to one another’s speech and other communicative behaviours” (Jenkins, 2000, p. 169). Beebe and Giles (in Jenkins, 2000, p. 168) claim that the main motivators for convergence towards the interlocutor are evoking addressee’s social approval, promoting communicative efficiency between interlocutors, and maintaining a positive social identity. A typical example of accommodation in practice is the foreigner talk, when a native speaker adjusts his or her speech to a non-native listener in order to be understood (Wilson, 2008, p. 33).

In ELF interaction, the process of accommodation is quite different from the traditional convergence. Unlike the typical adaptation to the speaker’s output, the ELF speakers make the effort to replace their L1 phonological features by the correct forms of the target language (i.e. the LFC core items). But because the convergence is closely connected with motivation and dependent on the speaker’s effort and ability to eliminate the first language transfer, the accommodation does not take place when intelligibility is not threatened. Thus, ELF speakers converge to the target pronunciation features in international communication, but not when interacting with the same L1 interlocutors (Jenkins, 2000, p. 179-181).

Regarding the listener, Jenkins (*ibid.*, p. 183) proposes ideal conditions for a successful receptive accommodation:

- the receiver is motivated to understand
- the receiver has had prior exposure to the speaker’s accent
- the receiver has had prior exposure to a range of L2 accents and has developed a tolerance to difference
- the receiver does not have a fear of acquiring the speaker’s transfer errors
- the receiver is linguistically and affectively able to signal non-comprehension.

Most of the proposed conditions refer to what has been already discussed. In particular it is the fact that motivation plays a major role in convergence and that intelligibility is dependent on the exposure to a particular accent. The convergence can also be improved when listeners are used to hearing a range of accents, therefore are

used to dealing with the variation of spoken input. From the affective point of view, the listener should not be preoccupied with the fear of acquiring the interlocutor's L1 transfer elements, as it has been revealed that this seldom happens in ELF (ibid., p. 181). Similarly, the receiver needs to be affectively and linguistically able to signal misunderstanding, which is not a typical ability of foreign speakers in ELF communication.

4. TEACHING LISTENING AND PRONUNCIATION FOR ELF CONTEXTS

If learners are to successfully understand spoken English in the real life, it is highly probable that they will have to manage communicating in lingua franca contexts. Therefore, they should be prepared for listening to a range of foreign accents occurring in the international communication. Moreover, as already mentioned, learners are also likely to interact with native speakers so that L1 English accents need to be included in their receptive repertoires. At the same time, classroom instruction should focus on practicing receptive accommodation skills.

Following sections discuss developing listening skills for the ELF context in relation to characteristics of and requirements on different sources of input. Firstly, the role of the teacher talk is mentioned and secondly the benefits of peer communication are outlined. The main stress is then put on the roles of textbook recordings. Since all the three kinds of input contribute also to the development of pronunciation, the section includes several references to pronunciation teaching, and textbook pronunciation activities are subsequently evaluated in the research part of the paper.

4.1. Teacher Talk as a Model for Speaking

Wilson (2008, p. 20) acknowledges that the main goal of learning English for many students is to be able to speak the language and that listening to competent speakers often serves as a model for learners' oral production. However, as indicated in section 2, the aural comprehension of ELF requires listening to different accents, comprising both native and non-native varieties. Given the suggested diversity of input, it is therefore difficult to identify a single model for speaking.

Jenkins (2007, p. 25; 2000, p. 226) offers a solution by stating that the ideal model for production is the non-native English teacher speaking with the accent influenced by

the same mother tongue as the learners' and incorporating the core features of the Lingua Franca Core in his or her speech. This notion is in accordance with Scrivener's argument that it is probably best for the teacher to teach his or her accent while raising learners' awareness of other variations (2005, p. 286). As a result, pupils are provided with a 'realistic and attainable model' (Jenkins, 2000, p. 226) and listen to other varieties mainly to improve their receptive comprehension. Moreover, as Jenkins (*ibid.*, p. 221) points out, non-native teachers may be then regarded primary authorities for pronunciation teaching of international English, which has been traditionally attributed to native speakers.

4.2. Pairwork and Groupwork to Develop Accommodation Skills

The ability to accommodate towards an interlocutor is a crucial one in ELF contexts. However, the convergence depends on motivation and accents of individual interlocutors, which are conditions that restrict its practise in the classroom.

Jenkins (2000, p. 188) proposes that accommodation skills are best trained by involving learners in communicating among themselves during the completion of pair- and group-work speaking tasks. Nevertheless, as stated in 3.4.2, there is a difference in the level of convergence resulting from accents of the participants. On the one hand, in multilingual classes where learners communicate with speakers of different L1s, both the receptive and productive convergence is promoted. Due to the different L1 varieties of interlanguage talk, there is a natural need for the speaker to converge (mostly to the LFC features), and at the same time the listener develops a receptive convergence by being exposed to the foreign accent and tolerating possible aspects of the mother tongue transfer (*ibid.*, p. 188-192). Subsequently, activities involving learners in peer interaction in multilingual classes support the productive acquisition of the phonological core aspects and eliminating the level of mother tongue transfer (*ibid.*, p. 192).

On the other hand, Jenkins (*ibid.*, p. 192) states that pair- and group-work activities in monolingual classes lead to the fossilization of the L1 pronunciation transfer and the exposure to foreign accents does not take place. Wilson (2008, p. 45) similarly argues that although monolingual-class learners practice speaking skills, they do not replace their pronunciation errors caused by the influence of the native language. Jenkins (2000, p. 193) found out that the obstacles to convergence include lack of motivation and student's identification with the L1 community. In other words, speakers of the same L1 often understand each other without the necessity to accommodate and do not have the

natural reason to use a lingua franca when communicating with the same first language interactants.

Paradoxically then, although Jenkins (2000, p. 193) predicts that the accommodation will play a major role in the international use of English, she admits that the issue of teaching converge skills through interaction among learners in monolingual classes remains unresolved and as such may become an important drawback of applying the ELF concept to pedagogical instruction.

4.3. Coursebook Recordings

Cunningsworth (1995, p. 15) states that the selection of textbook should be based on its correspondence to the learners' needs, expected future uses of the language and language-learning programme. The ELF advocates claim that the primary need of students of English as a foreign language is the ability to communicate in English as a lingua franca, which includes mainly the interaction with non-native speakers. At the same time, the textbook should be in line with the objectives of curricular documents in the given context which for the target group of this paper are *The Framework Educational Programme for Basic Education* and *The Common European Framework of References for Languages*.

This paper defines the roles of coursebook recordings with respect to the objectives of teaching English as a lingua franca although it is borne in mind that primary-school learners' needs cannot be fully generalised to the ELF goals.

4.3.1. Coursebook Recordings as Part of the Coursebook Package

It is common that a modern textbook of a foreign language is not a sole book of a written text, but a whole set (i.e. a coursebook package) of materials including various components like a teacher's book, student's book, and audio and video materials (Cunningsworth, 1995, p. 25; Průcha, 1998, p. 17). As a consequence, when evaluating a coursebook, it is important to take into consideration all the aspects of the package.

This thesis focuses on the evaluation of audio and audio-visual textbook materials. Cunningsworth (1995, p. 25) states that the audio materials are usually designed to improve learners' listening comprehension and pronunciation, and that the evaluation of these materials is very crucial. On the other hand, the author (ibid) does not put such an emphasis on the audio-visual components of a coursebook. Nevertheless, Harmer (2001, p. 282) acknowledges that video can be a valuable material for improving both listening

skills and pronunciation, so that the audio-visual component will also be evaluated in the practical part of the paper, if included in the coursebook package.

4.3.2. Roles of Coursebook Recordings

As stated in the previous section, the primary functions of audio and video recordings in textbooks are to improve learners' listening skills and pronunciation. The ELF perspective raises additional issues stemming from the characteristics of present-day English language functioning as an international language. Concerning the development of listening skills, since learners are likely to encounter various native and non-native accents in the real life, one of the specific roles of the input from coursebook listening activities is to prepare learners for understanding different varieties of English by developing students' receptive convergence. According to the conditions to develop receptive convergence (section 3.4.2.), listener's ability to accommodate to a speaker is improved by his or her familiarity with the speaker's accent and a previous exposure to a range of different accents in general. In monolingual classes, these two factors have to be developed by listening to recordings (Jenkins, 2000, pp. 223-224). Therefore, coursebook listening materials should expose students to various L1 and L2 accents, in other words, should improve learner' receptive accommodation skills.

Previous textbook research implies that the demands on developing receptive strategies are often not met. Matsuda in Jenkins (2007, pp. 244-245) criticizes that majority of EFL coursebooks in Japan promote only L1 English speakers, which has a negative impact on students' perception of non-native varieties, let alone the desired development of accommodation. A similar finding is expressed by Wilson (2008, p. 29), who states that most ELT materials designed for the European market prioritize southern British English.

Regarding the proposed variation, authors are not unified in stating what particular and how many accents pupils need to listen to. According to Ur (1984, p. 20) the input should involve mainly common British and American accents and additionally a few others to illustrate the diversity, so that the students would be better able to deal with different varieties outside the classroom. Similarly, Kelz (in Heindrich, 1988, p. 164) and Crystal (macmillanELT on youtube.com) stress the need to provide learners with listening to diverse regional accents. Jenkins (2000, p. 223-224) states that in the initial phases of the learning process the input should comprise varieties learners are most likely to encounter in the real life while students' attention ought to be focused on areas of difference, especially in the core features. Such a procedure should consequently lead

to learners' greater awareness of the accentual diversity in general and to an increased potential to understand even a completely new accent. As a result, although it may be difficult for the primary-school teacher to identify and determine particular accents students will need to comprehend in the future, the exposure to different varieties and awareness raising should improve learners' overall ability to understand speakers from different backgrounds. In contrast, Cunningsworth (1995, p. 67) disapproves of including many accents in textbook recordings, claiming that the accents should not differ significantly from the teacher's one or others that pupils have become familiar with. Thus, on the one hand, the diversity of input is seen as beneficial and on the other hand it is seen as undesirable.

The issue at stake here is the level of concord between the language competence of a learner and the linguistic structure of a [listening] text referred to by Průcha. The language competence is an ability to comprehend components [linguistic structure] of a text such as its stylistic, syntactic, or phonetic aspects (Průcha, 1998, p. 27). The author (*ibid.*) argues that the language competence of the learner and the linguistic structure of the text need to be in a certain correspondence for the learner to be able to understand the text. Thus, according to Průcha's notion there are limits on the range of accents that learners at a particular level are able to cope with. This is more specified by Wilson (2008, p. 29), who claims that minority local accents are likely to cause difficulties to students' comprehension, but he also acknowledges that it is beneficial to expose students gradually to numerous accents as they develop their language competence.

To summarize the arguments, none of the authors directly states what particular accents the textbook should present to particular learners, but it is evident that a certain variation of input is desirable. The diversity ought to extend gradually in concord with the development of learners' level of proficiency and, therefore, certain accents should be, at least with lower-level learners, prominent and occur consistently while other varieties should be presented illustratively, but their inclusion is necessary for the development of receptive convergence skills. Given the nature of ELF, the presented accents need to include both native and non-native varieties. The prominent accents should be ideally the ones learners are most often likely to encounter in the real life, but since these are practically very difficult to identify and generalize, and since the author of this paper is not aware of any research on the given topic, there will not be set any requirements of what particular accents the textbook recordings should comprise.

The focus of the textbook evaluation will be the investigation of accentual range in general, which itself contributes to the improvement of learners' receptive

accommodation. At the same time, the necessity of including both native and non-native accents as well as limitations determined by learners' level of language competence will be borne in mind. The research will also examine the ways by which the textbook contributes to increasing learners' awareness of the variation.

Besides developing receptive convergence and teaching listening, coursebooks usually include recordings that serve as a tool for pronunciation teaching (Cunningsworth, 1995, p. 43; Scrivener, 2005, p. 286). The speakers in these recordings are often considered pronunciation models (Cunningsworth, 1995, p. 43), and most international textbooks present RP speakers (Scrivener, 2005, p. 286). This may sometimes be in contrast with the notion of NNS teacher functioning as a model and requirements on the spoken production outlined in the *Lingua Franca Core*.

Firstly, it is vital to note that many authors (Heindrich, 1988, p. 164; Scrivener, 2005, p. 286; Harmer, 2001, p. 184; Jenkins, 2000, 2008) argue that a native-speaker pronunciation is not necessary and may be even unachievable in the classroom context for majority of learners. It is argued that students need to attain a kind of pronunciation which is comprehensible to their interlocutors rather than being able to emulate native speakers. Heindrich (1988, p. 164) defines the target judges of comprehensibility as native speakers, while Scrivener (2005, p. 286) claims that learners are usually learning English to communicate with other foreign speakers, which is in line with the concept of English as a *lingua franca*. According to the ELF perspective, learners need to learn the *Lingua Franca Core* features for productive use, while the non-core aspects are to be learnt only receptively (see section 3.4.1).

However, such a procedure is not appropriate for learners trying to achieve native-speaker proficiency, who need to pronounce also the non-core items according to inner-circle standards (Harmer, 2001, p. 184). Jenkins (2007, p. 20-21) and Seidlhofer (in Jenkins, 2007, p. 20) stress the fact that learning ELF is not intended to be applied uniformly to all foreign learners of English and that the students should make their own informed choice of what variety they wish to learn. But since this issue is beyond the scope of this paper, the materials will be evaluated from the point of view of teaching ELF pronunciation.

The key concern is what accents figure in recordings for pronunciation teaching and what aspects of pronunciation are addressed. It was mentioned in section 4.1. that the most appropriate model for speaking is a teacher with the same L1 as the learners' mother tongue. Therefore, it would be desirable if the pronunciation models in textbooks were from the same mother tongue background as students', so that the NNS

teacher in monolingual classes could hold a primary authority, and pupils would have a constant and realistic model. At the same time, native-speaker models can also be beneficial. The positives are based on the perception of model as distinct from a norm. Dalton and Seidlhofer (in *ibid.*, p. 18) explain that if a certain way of speech is taken as a norm, it determines correctness and the aim is a complete achievement of the norm. On the contrary, a model is used as a reference point or guidance. It is connected with the context of communication and the approximation to the model can differ according to the purposes of specific students. The correctness is then associated with a particular context rather than the level of imitation of the model. According to Jenkins (2000, p. 18), Received Pronunciation (or any other NS accent) can thus serve as a common instrument for ensuring intelligibility by preventing learners to diverge too significantly from a common core. Moreover, it allows students to modify their accents towards other native and non-native varieties according to a specific situation. It can also be assumed that such a model includes target pronunciation of core aspects, while giving space for modifications in non-core items. It allows learners to choose to what extent they want to approximate to the model and those aiming to achieve the NS competence have the same chance to reach their objectives as those preferring NNS variety.

On the basis of the discussion, the evaluation of materials for pronunciation teaching will focus on identifying the accent(s) used, whether this are L1 (British/American/other) or L2 (Czech/other). Furthermore, it will be studied what particular aspects of pronunciation are addressed on both segmental and suprasegmental levels - whether they are core or non-core, whether they are required to be learnt productively or only receptively, and to what extent the pronunciation materials in the textbooks are in accordance with the Lingua Franca Core.

5. TEACHERS' ATTITUDES TO ELF

Jenkins (2007, preface, p. xii) explains that teachers' and learners' attitudes to English as a lingua considerably influence the potential implementation of English as a lingua franca into pedagogic instruction. Similarly, Seidlhofer (2005) acknowledges that regardless of whether ELF is codified or not, it is the teacher's decision that determines its application into practice. In other words, it would be hardly possible to conduct ELF teaching if teachers and learners would not approve of it. The next section outlines findings of previous research of teachers' attitudes to English as a lingua franca. The

case study of teachers' attitudes is then carried out in the practical part of this paper. However, due to the limited scope of the paper learners' attitudes are not investigated.

5.1. Previous research of Teachers' Attitudes

An extensive study of teachers' ELF attitudes and beliefs was carried out by Jenkins (2007). The initial phase of her research summarizes a number of studies on the field of international English and consequently Jenkins conducts her own enquiry of the issue. A common outcome is that despite the international character of English, teachers still tend to perceive native varieties as primary goals while non-native accents are seen as subordinate. However, the author (*ibid.*) revealed certain contradicting tendencies in teachers' responses, as the concept of ELF was sometimes welcome on the theoretical but not on the practical level. The contributing factors are numerous and complex, including identity, language distribution, linguistic insecurity, and lack of awareness, resources and support for the practical application of lingua franca English to English language teaching.

One of the points observed by authors (Murray, Decke-Cornill in Jenkins, 2007, pp. 97-98) is that both NS and NNS teachers would accept errors in favour of communicative efficiency, but unanimously refuse to acknowledge such a language as a model. Murray (in Jenkins, 2007, p. 98) attributes the ambivalence to the teachers' uncertainty when they encounter practical issues like "evaluation, syllabus criteria and the teacher's responsibilities if the ENL [English as a native language] is no longer the ultimate goal".

The ambiguity concerns also the teachers' identities. Jenkins (2007, p. 141) explains that the identity of teacher is strongly connected with the NS standard, which NNS teachers attempt to achieve and associate with excellence. Non-native varieties, if legitimized, are then seen as a threat to the identity. In contrast, the author (*ibid.*, p. 230) mentions that English as a lingua franca affects teachers' identities also positively. It was revealed that NNS teachers familiar with the concept of ELF are aware of the benefits it brings to them, especially the authority of multicompetent users of international English rather than deficient native speakers. But to further complicate the problem, most NNS teachers apparently want to be able to speak with a NS accent despite their desire to reveal their L1 identities in English since a NS accent promotes their professional success. Therefore, the acceptance of L2 varieties by teachers and consequently learners will depend on how these accents will be perceived and evaluated

in a wider context and whether the accents will guarantee success rather than discrimination (ibid, p. 231).

The attitudes to ELF and teachers' identities in English are negatively influenced by the promotion of inner-circle Englishes. Jenkins (ibid, p. 239) refers to this phenomenon as "gatekeeping". Gatekeeping means that political bodies, ELT enterprises and second language acquisition literature promote NS English and determine who will be allowed access to the decision-making process. Such practices lead to the assumption that NNS varieties are seen as deficient when compared with L1 Englishes and create the need for teachers to aim at the native-like target. Gatekeeping therefore contributes to the teachers' evaluation of NS accents more positively than NNS accents. Moreover, L2 accents similar to the inner circle varieties are valued more than accents that diverge more significantly from prestigious L1 varieties such as Received Pronunciation or General American (ibid., p. 219).

The question of teaching specifically non-native accents reflects the attitudes referred to above. Interviewed teachers in Jenkins' study (ibid., p. 224) unanimously state that practical implementing of ELF teaching in their countries is not possible due to the expectations of general public and preconditions from educational institutions to teach L1 English. Teachers thus feel that it is best for their students to aim at the objectives determined by general society and NS-oriented testing practice. Additionally, the author (ibid., p. 250) acknowledges that unless ELF is fully described and codified, and particular guidelines for classroom practice are offered to teachers, lingua franca English will not be able to challenge the traditional English as a foreign language paradigm. As a result, teachers still use tapes of native speakers as pronunciation models, although it may lead to their loss of face (ibid., p. 224).

6. DOCUMENTS DESCRIPTION

Since teachers and learners attitudes to ELF are shaped by institutional decisions that are reflected in prescriptive papers, it is vital to investigate how the ELF concept is reflected in relevant documents for basic education in the Czech Republic. This part begins with the description of the Framework Educational Programme for Basic Education, as a curricular document outlining the goals of the target-group learners in the Czech Republic. Consequently, the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages is introduced since it provides a basis for the objectives of foreign language teaching in the Framework Educational Programme.

6.1. The Framework Educational Programme for Basic Education

The Framework Educational Programme for Basic Education (FEP BE) is an educational document which is a part of the National Education Development Programme for the Czech Republic for learners from pre-school to secondary education. The programme operates at national and school levels. The national-level documents include the National Education Programme and Framework Educational Programmes. While the National Education Programme defines education as a whole, the Framework Educational Programmes are connected with different phases of education: pre-school education, basic education and secondary education. The school level comprises School Educational Programmes that are designed by individual schools themselves and are based on the descriptions of suitable Framework Educational Programmes (FEP BE, p. 6). Due to the structuring into the National and School Levels it is claimed that the Framework Educational Programmes provides a greater autonomy of schools and individual responsibility of teachers for educational outcomes.

The Framework Educational Programme (FEP) principles are based on “new educational strategies” (ibid., p. 7) and stress the attainment of key competencies and their connection to educational contents as well as the utilization of received skills and abilities in the real life. At the same time, the FEPs are developed on the theory of life-long learning and specify the assumed level of education that should be gained by all learners who have completed a particular phase of education. The FEP BE therefore determines the competencies pupils should attain when they have finished their basic education. The FEP BE in particular promotes the selection from a range of teaching procedures, methods and formats to suit the needs of individual pupils, and integrate cross-curricular subjects that are obligatory parts of basic education (ibid., p. 7).

6.1.1. Key Competencies

The attainment of key competencies is the aim towards which all the activities at school should be centred. Key competencies for the FEP BE, are defined as “the system of knowledge, skills, abilities, attitudes and values that are important to the individual’s personal development and to the individual’s role in society” (ibid., p. 12). The key competencies are divided into the following categories: learning competencies, problem-solving competencies, communication competencies, social and personal competencies, civil competencies and working competencies. Individual objectives of these categories are further specified (in ibid., p. 12-15). The achievement of key competencies is binding at the end of the 5th and 9th grades, respectively stage 1 and

stage 2 (ibid., p. 16) and their attainment is a phase in the continuous learning process beginning in the pre-school education and should form the basis for further education and life-long learning (ibid., p. 12).

6.1.2. Educational Field Foreign Language

The FEP BE specifies nine educational areas, each of which includes one or more fields with their characteristics, objectives and content (ibid., p. 16). English teaching/learning belongs to the area of Language and Language Communication and, more specifically, to the field Foreign Language or Second Foreign language.

The document firstly describes the educational area and states its objectives that should lead to the achievement of key competencies (ibid., p. 18-20) Secondly, the educational content of the educational field is outlined, which comprises expected outcomes and subject matter for stage 1 and stage 2. The expected outcomes are further divided into the categories of receptive, productive and interactive skills (ibid., pp. 25-27). The practical part of this paper will investigate if there is a reflection of ELF in expected outcomes involving listening skills and pronunciation, and in the description and subject matter of the educational field.

The FEP BE refers to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) in that the expected outcomes of the field foreign language should correspond to the A1 and A2 reference levels described in the CEFR² (ibid., p. 19). Therefore, the CEFR will be introduced in the following section and analysed in the research part of the paper.

6.2. The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages

The CEFR is a document serving as a tool of the Council of Europe Language Policy for ensuring greater unity among the members of the European community (CEFR, p. 2). The description and evaluation of the CEFR from the ELF point of view is necessary as it is reflected not only in Czech curricular documents but also in many other countries of the European Union and thus it influences English language teaching in both national and international contexts.

The proposed European unity should be achieved by the fact that the CEFR “provides a basis for the elaboration of language syllabuses, curriculum guidelines, examinations, textbooks, etc. across Europe” (ibid., p. 1). The framework outlines

² A1 level should be achieved by completing stage 1 and A2 level by completing stage 2 of basic education

general criteria for evaluating achievements in foreign language learning in different educational contexts of European countries and is thus claimed to be a tool for improving European mobility. Firstly, the criteria serve as proficiency levels that facilitate students' self-reflection and autonomous learning by raising their awareness of their present state of knowledge and providing resources for independent setting of objectives, materials selection, and self-assessment. In other words, the CEFR describes what learners need to learn in order to communicate effectively and specifies the context of language use. Secondly, the mutual recognition of competencies functions as a basis of language certification in that it specifies the content of examinations and provides motivating evaluation criteria. From the point of view of authorities, ranging from educational administrators over examining bodies to teachers, the document unites their practices and assures that they work towards learners' needs by aiding to plan learning programmes by determining the objectives and content and promoting continuity (ibid., pp. 1, 6).

Regarding the learners' needs in the ELF context, it is the ability to communicate with speakers from different L1 backgrounds that is important. Although the CEFR stresses the mutual intelligibility, it is not evident that it should be accomplished via communicating predominantly in English. On the contrary, the main principles of the Council for Cultural Communication include promoting the heritage and diversity of European languages in general and their knowledge as a way to the international understanding and preventing discrimination and prejudice (ibid., p. 2). At the same time, governments should ensure that citizens of their countries have access to language learning that would satisfy their communicative needs (ibid., p. 3).

Another characteristic of the CEFR is that it prefers plurilingualism to multilingualism. While the latter concept focuses on learning foreign languages in isolation from one another, plurilingualism stresses the need to gain knowledge of different languages or codes that should be interrelated and lead to the development of overall communicative competence of a person (ibid., p. 4). The instrument for monitoring one's communicative competence in different languages is the European Language Portfolio in which language aspects and communicative situations are treated analytically so that the users of the portfolio can better define their aims and evaluate their skills according to individual needs (ibid., p. 5).

As already stated, the evaluation should be conducted with reference to the Common Reference Levels. The CEFR defines six levels of proficiency ranging from the lowest A1 (breakthrough) to the highest C2 (mastery) (ibid., p. 23). The levels are

firstly described on a global scale, which should be helpful for the basic orientation of non-specialist users as well as course designers and teachers (ibid., p. 24). For the practical and more specific usage of the scales, each of the levels is further elaborated into categories reflecting receptive, interactive and productive skills while using “Can do” descriptors of learners’ strategies that connect their communicative competencies with communicative actions (ibid., pp. 24-25).

The CEFR further details categories for specific language uses and users. This should allow considering and specifying what learners should be able to do in the language in particular contexts (ibid., p. 43). The categories comprise domains and situations for language use; the themes, tasks and purposes of communication; communicative activities, strategies and processes; and text. Additionally, elaboration is made in terms of user’s general and communicative competencies, including scaled characteristics of individual linguistic competencies for all of the six proficiency levels (CEFR, chapter 5).

7. RESEARCH

7.1. Research Aim

The aim of the research is to investigate the reflection of English as a lingua franca on several levels in the context of basic education in the Czech Republic. The research comprises the analyses of relevant parts of documents that determine the standards and objectives of the given stages of education, i.e. the FEP BE and the CEFR. The research further evaluates textbooks, as material teaching aids used to achieve the standards and objectives, and elicits teachers’ attitudes to English as a lingua franca. Since the matter of introducing English as a lingua franca teaching into the formal education is a complex process that needs to take place on all of the three levels, the research outcomes should provide a multifaceted view of the extent of support for ELF teaching in lower-secondary education in the Czech Republic.

To increase the reliability of the findings, the following research questions are answered by the individual phases of the research:

1. Do the FEP BE and CEFR articulate learners’ general abilities with respect to ELF communication, with the stress on interaction with non-native speakers?

2. Do the FEP BE and CEFR express the need of being able to communicate with speakers of various NNS and NS accents?
3. Do the FEP BE and CEFR specify phonetic correctness in accordance with the Lingua Franca Core?
4. Do the listening materials in textbooks contribute to the development of receptive accommodation skills by providing various NNS and NS accents and raising learners' awareness of the differences?
5. Do the pronunciation activities in textbooks focus on teaching the Lingua Franca Core features and abandon the teaching of non-core aspects for production?
6. Are the teachers familiar with the concept of English as a lingua franca?
7. Do the teachers consider themselves appropriate pronunciation models for their learners and do the teachers identify their English accents with their L1 community rather than inner-circle varieties?
8. Do the teachers approve of teaching pronunciation according to the Lingua Franca Core?
9. Do the teachers consider it important to provide learners with listening to various NNS and NS accents?
10. Are the teachers contented with listening and pronunciation activities in the textbooks they are using?

By answering the questions, the research findings should illustrate to what degree it is feasible to introduce the ELF paradigm into pedagogical instruction in the basic education in the Czech Republic. Nevertheless, since only two textbooks and two teachers are included in the study, the results should not be generalized to the whole target context.

7.2. Research Methodology

The research is based on the outcomes of the theoretical part and its methodology can be labelled as the case study. The research is divided into three main parts - documents analysis (section 7.3.), textbook evaluation (section 7.4.) and the research of teachers' attitudes (section 7.5.).

According to Nunan (1992, p. 74), the case study is characterized by making use of a range of different methods of data collection and data analysis. In this paper, each of the research sections employs a different method. Firstly, the documents analysis is an

analysis of text that investigates to what extent the requirements and formulations of the FEP BE and the CEFR accord with the notion of the lingua franca paradigm, as outlined throughout the theoretical part of the paper. Secondly, the textbook evaluation uses a set of criteria defined in section 4.3.2. in order to determine to what degree audio materials of two selected coursebooks relate to the demands of English as a lingua franca teaching. Thirdly, the elicitation of teachers' attitudes is conducted by the use of structured interview. The research of attitudes is based in part on previous findings of teachers' ELF attitudes (section 5.1.) and in part on the suggested non-native teacher's role of a pronunciation model for pupils (section 4.1.).

To further specify the research methodology, Grotjahn (in Nunan, p. 4) offers a typology of applied-linguistics research based on three aspects: data collection (experimental/non-experimental), the type of data (qualitative/quantitative) and the type of analysis of the data (statistical/interpretive). As for this study, qualitative data is collected in the non-experimental way and analysed in the interpretive way.

7.3. Documents Analysis

As previously stated, the documents analysis investigates the reflection of English as a lingua franca in the FEP BE and CEFR. The analysis attempts to answer research questions 1-3.

1. Do the FEP BE and CEFR articulate learners' general abilities with respect to ELF communication, with the stress on interaction with non-native speakers?
2. Do the FEP BE and CEFR express the need of being able to communicate with speakers of various NNS and NS accents?
3. Do the FEP BE and CEFR specify phonetic correctness in accordance with the Lingua Franca Core?

The FEP BE is investigated prior to the CEFR analysis, as the latter document should provide deeper insights to the analysis of the former.

7.3.1. Analysis of the FEP BE

The analysis focuses on the educational field Foreign Language and Second Foreign Language. The description of the field is analysed in the first subsection while the content is analysed in the second subsection.

7.3.1.1. Reflection of ELF in the description of the field Foreign Language

The EFP BE design presupposes the possibility of teaching different languages according to the field Foreign Language. However, the placement of teaching English language to the field common for all foreign languages opposes the basic principles of English as a lingua franca. Jenkins (2000, pp. 9-10) explains that English is different from other languages in that it is not learnt predominantly to communicate with native speakers and thus does not fit the traditional label foreign language. The paradigm of English as a foreign language refers to the native-speaker controlled practice (*ibid.*, p. 5) while the English as a lingua franca is used and shaped mainly by non-native speakers and teaching ELF ought to differ accordingly.

The field Foreign Language and Second Foreign Language is claimed to provide a basis for pupils' ability to communicate across Europe and in other parts of the world (FEP BE, p. 19). Regarding this argument, the document is in accord with the concept of ELF, as English is frequently used in international (both European and global) contexts as a lingua franca among people from different first language backgrounds. Therefore, although the need to communicate with other non-native speakers is only implied and not directly articulated, this formulation reflects the nature of ELF communication.

The following paragraph of the document states that the communicative abilities obtained from this educational field are to promote learners' mobility in their future educational and professional encounters (*ibid.*, p. 19). Again, the demand on communicating primarily with non-native users of the language is not explicitly expressed. Moreover, if the language were learnt according to the ELF paradigm, it would be necessary for L2 varieties of English to be considered legitimate codes that are not discriminated against when compared with native-speaker varieties, which is often not the case even in expanding-circle settings (see sections 3.2. and 5.1. of this paper). Hence, the teaching of ELF does not seem currently feasible according to this part of the document as the learners' future mobility might be limited due to their language variety.

To answer the first research question, the description of the educational field does not stress the need to communicate with non-native speakers of the language and the reflection of ELF in the formulation of learners' general abilities is only implied, but not directly articulated.

7.3.1.2. Reflection of ELF in the Content of Foreign Language

The content of the subject foreign language specifies expected outcomes in the areas of receptive, productive and interactive skills, and subject matter for stages 1 and 2 of basic education. The analysis focuses on the level of reflection of ELF demands in the formulation of expected outcomes requiring listening comprehension and/or oral production. Moreover, if relevant, the subject matter is also commented on from the point of view of ELF. As already mentioned, the requirements of the field are based on the A1 and A2 levels of the CEFR. A detailed analysis of the proficiency levels is conducted in section 7.3.2.

Stage 1

Regarding the receptive skills, the first expected outcome is formulated as: “pupils will understand familiar words and simple sentences related to the topics being covered” (ibid., p. 25). This criterion in any way particularizes neither the speakers that should be understood nor their accents. The formulation hence allows the following possibilities. Learners will understand the target words and simple sentences uttered by a native speaker of any NS variety, or a non-native speaker, whose speech displays traces of whatever first language, or both. Therefore, this expected outcome can be seen as inclusive of ELF. Nevertheless, the inclusion of different NS and NNS interlocutors is not directly expressed.

The second expected outcome states that “pupils will understand the content and meaning of simple authentic materials (magazines, pictorial and listening materials) and use them in their activities” (ibid, p. 25). This formulation is also very unclear and can be interpreted in several ways. Firstly, it is not evident what is meant by the term *authentic* and thus the word itself may differ with respect to relevant definitions. Rost (2002, p. 123) defines authentic as “any and all the language that has been actually used by native speakers for any real purpose, that is, a purpose that was real for the users at the time the language was used by them”. When understood in this way, the focus is on native-speaker English and comprehending non-native varieties is not required. On the contrary, Wilson provides a different view. “If a text exists for communicative purposes other than teaching language, then it is authentic” (2008, p. 30). According to this definition, the expected outcome means the ability to understand any recorded accent and it could be appropriated to suit the lingua franca paradigm. Additionally, Rost (2002, p. 134) offers another perspective, claiming that whatever input that satisfies learner’s search for knowledge and is meaningful for the learner is authentic. Similarly

to the Wilson's definition, the latter one allows interpreting the expected outcome in line with the lingua franca perspective. Additional problem lies in the word *simple*. Given that the accent is a determinant of difficulty, it can be assumed that the simple accent is either the one influenced by the same first language as the pupils', or any other based on the similarity to the latter accent or its familiarity to the students. Thus it is not clear what accents the recordings should contain and the need to comprehend different varieties of the language is not explicitly articulated.

The last of the expected outcomes for the category of receptive skills relevant to this paper reads as follows: "Pupils will read a simple text aloud containing familiar vocabulary; reading is fluent and phonetically correct" (FEP BE, p. 25). If the question whether reading aloud belongs among receptive skills is abandoned, the expected outcome is ambiguous by the use of *phonetically correct*. The concern is what or who it is that determines the norms of correctness. The correct pronunciation may be either in concord with the notion of the Lingua Franca Core, according to RP, or any other accent. Moreover, correctness may be judged with relation to the intelligibility, but it is not mentioned who are the interlocutors. Since the document refers to the CEFR, the correctness is associated with phonological control defined for the A1 level. The CEFR, as will be revealed in subsequent sections of the paper, requires the elimination of L1 phonological transfer to achieve higher levels of proficiency, so that the notion of sustaining certain features of mother tongue is not inherent in this key competence and the Lingua Franca Core is not reflected.

In terms of productive skills, this paper deals with expected outcomes specifying requirements for the spoken output. In stage 1, there are two expected outcomes that are relevant. The first one states that "Pupils will reproduce, both orally and in writing, the content of a text and simple conversation of appropriate difficulty" (ibid., p. 26). This expected outcome does not again specify any criteria of correctness, including phonological. As such, the formulation can be applied to the requirements of ELF as well as any other concept. The ambiguity is even more obvious from the second productive expected outcome. "Pupils will modify short texts while adhering to their meaning" (ibid., p. 26). This statement is ambiguous in many respects. It is not evident what kind of modification is intended, what a short text is, whether the text is spoken or written and, if spoken, who the speaker is – a native or a non-native speaker. Due to the ways of formulation, the expected outcomes in productive skills theoretically provide space for the application of the ELF paradigm, but the requirements of being able to

communicate with speakers from different first language backgrounds are not overtly acknowledged.

As far as interactive skills are concerned, FEB BE includes one expected outcome for stage 1: “Pupils will participate actively in a simple conversation, greet and say good-bye to both an adult and a friend; provide the required information” (ibid., p. 26). This formulation partly specifies the interlocutors, though there are no specifications of their origin. From the ELF perspective, the interpretation admits evaluating the learners according to the requirements for interaction with non-native speakers, but as in the previous cases, the target interlocutors are not stated.

The FEP BE further defines the subject matter of the educational field in stage 1. However, since the subject matter does not reveal any implications for teaching ELF, it is not analysed.

Stage 2

The expected outcomes for stage 2 display similar indications to those of stage 1. The first receptive key competence is formulated as follows: “Pupils will read aloud texts of appropriate length, fluently and respecting the rules of pronunciation” (ibid., p. 26). Although reading is considered a receptive skill, the concern is rather on pronunciation than understanding, as reading aloud is required. The expected outcome states that pupils should *respect the rules of pronunciation* without further specification. Learners can therefore be evaluated according to the norms of native speakers as well as Lingua Franca Core requirements, though the requirements on phonological control in the CEFR will reveal that the rules are connected primarily with native-speakers and that a foreign accent should be gradually reduced.

The next expected outcome makes again reference to understanding authentic materials. But since it seems to refer to reading rather than listening comprehension, it will not be analysed besides acknowledging that the results of the analysis would be in line with the demands on understanding authentic materials in stage 1 outlined above.

The third receptive expected outcome contains a reference to convergence strategies: “Pupils will understand simple and clearly pronounced speech and conversations” (ibid., p. 26). The key phrase for the discussion is *clearly pronounced*. From the ELF perspective, learners should be able to comprehend speakers who accommodate their speech according to the Lingua Franca Core, as the core is designed in a way to promote intelligibility of various non-native interlocutors. At the same time, the convergence should be applied by NSs as well since authentic NS speech, especially

in authentic conversations, is considered far from simple, including aspects like fall starts, high speed of delivery, unstructured speech and incomplete sentences (Wilson, 2008, p. 30). Therefore, this key competence reflects the need to converge to a certain set of rules, but instead of demanding pupils' employment of receptive accommodation, it puts the requirement on the speaker(s). As a result, although the inclusion of a diversity of NNS accents in pupils' receptive repertoires is possible by the interpretation, the expected outcome does not reflect ELF explicitly. Moreover, demands on employing accommodation skills by the learners are not directly articulated.

Among the productive skills that learners should develop, there are three expected outcomes that due to their broad formulation provide space for favouring ELF teaching, but not directly address it. They read as follows. "Pupils will form a simple (oral or written) message related to a situation from family and school life and other studied theme areas", "Pupils will request simple information" and "Pupils will provide a brief summary of the content of a text, speech and conversation of appropriate difficulty" (FEP BE, p. 26). None of the expected outcomes specify the target interlocutors so that they can comprise both native speakers and non-native speakers. In addition, the latter expected outcome is ambiguous because of the formulation of *appropriate difficulty*. The notion of difficulty has been discussed above, so that it will not be analysed here. As in many previously described cases, the expected outcomes provide space for the inclusion of the ELF perspective, but do not refer to it overtly.

The last expected outcome in the category of productive skills that will be analysed is again connected with the criteria of correctness: "Pupils will create and modify grammatically correct simple sentences and short texts" (ibid, p. 26). Since the norms of correctness are not formulated, the phrase *grammatically correct* can be associated either with NS norms or intelligibility criteria of ELF communication.

The expected outcome in the interactive skills category addresses the need of employing convergence skills: "Pupils will, in a simple manner, make themselves understood in common everyday situations" (ibid., p. 26). The *make themselves understood* refers to putting productive convergence strategies into operation. Since particular interlocutors are not specified, the expected outcome may suggest the correct production of Lingua Franca Core aspects, which should enhance pupils' intelligibility in the communication with non-native speakers. At the same time, though, the formulation may be interpreted for the need of NNS-NS contexts and thus suggesting learners' conforming to native-speaker receptive demands. Teaching ELF can be

applied to this expected outcome, but the need to communicate with both native and non-native interlocutors is not explicitly stated.

The theme areas defined in the subject matter of stage 2 include one specification that is in a direct contrast to ELF. In particular, pupils should learn about “the socio-cultural environment of relevant language areas and the Czech Republic” (ibid., p. 26). The problem is that the extent of *relevant language areas* for English as a lingua franca contexts is too wide to be covered. Jenkins (2000, p. 74) thus acknowledges, that the international use of the language is not connected to any specific culture and that culture learning should not be part of English as a lingua franca learning. What is proposed to be the basis for the common contextual background of interlocutors is the expertise in specific professional fields that is developed in courses of English for specific purposes (ibid., p. 96, n. 4). On the contrary, the traditional English as a foreign language paradigm often contains information about native-speaker cultures that develops foreign interlocutors’ socio-cultural appropriateness in English (ibid., p. 74). As a result, the given theme area is impliedly targeted to the communication with native speakers.

7.3.2. Analysis of the CEFR

The analysis of the reflection of English as a lingua franca in the CEFR should particularize the broad formulations of the Framework Educational Programme for Basic Education, as the CEFR provides a framework on which basis the FEP BE has been developed. The CEFR is designed to provide a common framework to be applied to various languages. However, as in the case of FEP BE, this generalizing contradicts the concept of English as a lingua franca. The analysis focuses on relevant parts of the framework, particularly the notion of plurilingualism, common reference levels, language use and the language user/learner, and the user/learner’s competence.

7.3.2.1 Plurilingualism

Achieving plurilingualism is one of the key concepts promoted by the CEFR and supported by the framework design (CEFR, p. 2). According to the CEFR (p. 4), the idea of plurilingualism is that people on the basis of communicating in their mother tongue and additional languages gradually gain experience and knowledge of other languages. The languages should consequently interact and form one’s overall communicative competence. It is illustrated below that this concept corresponds in many aspects with the ELF paradigm.

Firstly, the claim that the individual languages should interact and be parts of a common competence implies that the languages influence each other. Therefore, speaking English with an accent influenced by one's first language, as promoted by the Lingua Franca Core (section 3.4.1), is in line with the notion of plurilingualism advocated by the CEFR.

The CEFR provides examples of plurilingualism in practice. "A person can call flexibly upon different parts of this competence to achieve effective communication with a particular interlocutor" and "partners may switch from one language or dialect to another, exploiting the ability of each to express themselves in one language and to understand the other" (p. 4). These arguments are in concord with the nature of ELF as the international uses of the language among its non-native speakers presuppose the knowledge of at least three languages in the interaction and suggesting the possibility of switching between the individual codes (hereafter code-switching). In fact, by analysing the English as a lingua franca corpus, Klimpfinger (2007, p. 57) reveals that code-switching is used for numerous purposes in the ELF contexts and it is often a communicative strategy that helps achieve mutual understanding (ibid., p. 39). Moreover, the author (ibid., p. 58) acknowledges that the amount of code-switching and the languages employed vary in respect to particular interactions and interlocutors, which is reflected in the first of the two CEFR statements cited in this paragraph.

There is another argument from the section on plurilingualism that supports teaching English according to the ELF paradigm. The statement promotes "experimenting with alternative forms in different languages" and the goal of language learning should not be "the ideal native speaker as the ultimate model" (CEFR, p. 5). What the CEFR advocates is the redefinition of norms and objectives from the NS-controlled practice to specific needs of users of the language for their particular purposes in the international communication and allowing them to modify the language accordingly (see sections 3.1.3. and 3.2).

Additionally, the framework claims that achieving a particular level of proficiency in a certain language at a given time is only a partial, though significant, objective while the main target of language learning ought to be the development of pupils' "motivation, skill and confidence in facing new language experience out of school" (ibid., p. 5). Concerning specifically English, this implies that learners should gain knowledge about the sociolinguistic development of the language functioning as a lingua franca, as they are likely to use English with speakers of various first languages.

7.3.2.2. Common Reference Levels

Chapter 3 of the CEFR provides descriptors of common reference levels. The framework firstly formulates the individual levels on a global scale, i.e. describes holistically what the user should be able to do in the language³. Secondly, illustrative descriptors are outlined to provide more specific criteria than the global scales⁴. It is stated that the descriptors of individual levels should be content-related so that translatable to “each and every relevant context” (CEFR, p. 21). Therefore, teaching English according to the ELF concept should be possible to be applied into the CEFR criteria. The analysis focuses at first on the global descriptors and consequently on the illustrative descriptors.

What clearly supports teaching English as a lingua franca is the claim that the mastery level of foreign language learning (C2) is not associated with achieving the “native-speaker or near native-speaker competence”, but rather with gaining communicative abilities that characterise a successful learner (ibid., p. 36). Given this argument, proficiency in English for lingua franca contexts should not be based on native speaker norms, but on one’s efficiency in communication with speakers of various first languages. Nevertheless, the analysis of the proficiency levels descriptors will illustrate that the common reference levels do not provide a systematic basis for ELF teaching.

Regarding the A1 level, learners are supposed “to understand and use familiar everyday expressions and very basic phrases aimed at the satisfaction of needs of a concrete type” (ibid., p. 24). Similarly as the FEP BE, the CEFR does not specify who the speaker that pupils are to understand is and, therefore, this can comprise both native speakers and non-native speakers of various accents. Thus, this criterion is theoretically applicable to English as a lingua franca teaching although the ELF needs are not directly mentioned. The users are further to be able to “interact in a simple way provided the other person talks slowly and clearly and is prepared to help” (ibid., p. 24). This criterion emphasises the employment of accommodation strategies that are a vital aspect of ELF communication. However, the accommodation is required on the part of the interlocutor rather than the learner and there is no suggestion that learners should be able to use at least basic convergence strategies themselves. Concerning the A2 level, no implications for teaching ELF are evident besides the same non-specification of interlocutors as in the A1 level.

³ The table with the global descriptors of individual levels can be found in the CEFR on page 24

⁴ The illustrative descriptors can be found on pages 26 and 27 of the CEFR.

A discrepancy arises when the specifications of additional four higher levels are analysed. B1 users should, on one hand, be able to “deal with most situations likely to arise whilst travelling in an area where the language is spoken” (ibid., p. 24). The criterion presupposes the ability to communicate in ELF contexts, which is likely to be demanded by travelling to countries of outer and expanding circles where English is often used as a lingua franca. Meanwhile, the same B1 students are to “understand the main points of clear standard input” (ibid., p. 24). The latter specification is in contrast with the former in that it is unlikely that pupils will encounter only Standard English when travelling to different destinations, be they in whatever of the three circles. Additionally, the descriptor of B2 level refers directly to the communication with native speakers by stating that the language proficiency of the given level should make “regular interaction with native speakers quite possible without strain for either party” (ibid., p. 24). As a result, the B2 users should be capable of communicating with native speakers, while the need to successfully operate in interaction with non-native speakers is not articulated.

It is C1 and C2 users who are to be able to operate in NNS-NNS contexts, but the need is only implied from the formulations. The need to receptively accommodate to different interlocutors is implied in the description of the C2-level user, who “can understand with ease virtually everything heard” (ibid., p. 24). The *everything heard* suggests that the users of language should not have any troubles in comprehending diverse accents, which in terms of English includes both native and non-native varieties. This is complemented by the specifications of C1 level by stating that the users “can use language flexibly and effectively for social, academic and professional purposes” (ibid., p. 24). As the communication in English in the social, academic and professional settings often involves the interaction between non-native speakers, the flexibility and efficiency is connected with the ability to accommodate both productively and receptively to different interlocutors. It is then evident that comprehending different varieties and using English in ELF contexts is attributed to and required from high-level users of English. However, such a conclusion is only implied, as the need to communicate with non-native speakers is not explicitly stated.

Regarding the arguments above, ELF communication is connected with the highest two levels, while there is an ambiguity and a lack of continuity in achieving this objective throughout the individual lower levels in the global descriptors in the CEFR. Therefore, teaching English according to the lingua franca paradigm is not systematically supported by the global descriptors.

Concerning the illustrative descriptors, the specifications are structured into three categories, namely understanding – comprising listening and reading, speaking – comprising spoken interaction and production, and writing. The most relevant categories for the lingua franca contexts as well as for this paper are listening and speaking and thus these are analysed below in a greater detail and it is investigated whether they provide insights into the discrepancies arising from the analysis of global scales.

As far as listening is concerned, the illustrative descriptors are in line with the global ones. In particular, it is not specified what interlocutors A1 and A2 users should comprehend (in *ibid.*, p. 26). This again makes it possible to apply the CEFR descriptors to English as a lingua contexts, though no demands on receptive accommodation are outlined. B1 and B2-level users are both supposed to understand diverse listening texts in standard dialect (*ibid.*, pp. 26-27). As a result, the B1 and B2-level users should be able to carry out various listening tasks involving speakers of Standard English⁵, while understanding other varieties is not a part of their competence. The C1-level description does not specify the interlocutors while the reference to accents is made in C2. The C2 users should be able to understand “any kind of spoken language provided [they] have some time to get familiar with the accent” (*ibid.*, p. 27). *Any kind of spoken language* in terms of English requires understanding diverse native and non-native varieties and the notion of *getting familiar with the accent* refers to the need of developing receptive convergence to different speakers, which is in line with the concept of lingua franca. It is evident from the illustrative descriptors of listening skills that the ability to communicate in ELF contexts is impliedly attributed only to the highest-level users of English while the target interlocutors of lower levels are either not specified or native speakers.

The descriptors for speaking skills show the same tendencies as those for listening abilities and complement the findings from the analysis of global scales. The A1 and A2-level specifications (*ibid.*, p. 26) list communicative tasks users are to be able to carry out without mentioning particular interlocutors or contexts. The B1-level specifications underline the ambiguity of global scales by claiming that the speakers can communicate for travel purposes in areas where the language is spoken (*ibid.*, p. 26),

⁵ The issue of Standard English is very complicated when the accent is taken into account (see Jenkins, 2000, p. 203-204). Since it is beyond the scope of this paper to provide deeper insights, the terms ‘standard dialect’ and ‘Standard English’ are not further analysed, but the analysis would probably reveal a great ambiguity of the descriptors in terms of accent.

while receptive abilities are limited to comprehending standard input. The B2 users should not have difficulties in regular communication with native speakers (ibid., p. 27) and hence the main target at the B2 level is clearly the interaction with native speakers, while the context for the B1 level remains unclear, at least with English language. The need to communicate in ELF contexts is reflected only in the specifications of C1 and C2 levels. Nevertheless, the ability to interact with non-native speakers is not directly mentioned at any of the levels, but the formulation of the descriptors allows such an interpretation. In case of C1 it is the use of language for social and professional purposes (ibid., p. 27) that is articulated, and the C2 users should not have difficulties in any kind of conversation and be able to appropriate the language use to particular contexts (ibid., p. 27). As mentioned above, the social and professional domains often involve communication in ELF. Similarly, the contexts of the use of English include the international interaction where native speakers are a minority group.

The illustrative descriptors thus reveal the same implications as the global scales, i.e. the competence in operating in ELF communication is implied only in the two highest levels and specifications for a gradual development of this competence is not provided. ELF teaching could be theoretically applied to the two lowest levels, but the continuity is not provided in the following stages, as the two intermediate levels prioritize the communication with native speakers. As a result, the Common Reference Levels in the CEFR do not provide appropriate support for teaching and learning English according to the lingua franca paradigm.

7.3.2.3. The language use and language user/learner

This part of the CEFR is claimed to provide a structure of parameters to state what the learners are expected to do in the language in order to be able to act (ibid., p. 42). Given this statement, if the CEFR is to be used as a reference point for teaching English as a lingua franca, the parameters have to include the reflection of the necessity to communicate with native, but mainly non-native interlocutors. However, the CEFR does not give answers to the issues like in what domains learners will need to operate, what people they will need to interact with, in which situations learners will need the language or what has the lasting value when learners' careers later diverge. Such considerations are to remain pedagogical decisions in a particular context (ibid., p. 44), which is in line with Seidlhofer (2005), who claims that teaching English according to the ELF concept remains the teacher's decision. Consequently, the CEFR lists a number of contexts in which language is used, but whether students are to manage the

communication in these situations when communicating with native and/or non-native speakers is not the concern of the framework. It is then logical that the chapter does not include much reference to ELF communication. On the other hand, several specifications regarding the interaction with native speakers are made, which indicates that the framework provides descriptors for the NS-NNS rather than NNS-NNS context.

The CEFR presents a table (ibid., p. 48-49) of descriptors for the external use of the language with respect to various domains, locations, persons, objects, events, operations and texts. The list of persons comprises numerous interlocutors from family members to different professionals, without any indicators of nativeness or non-nativeness. A similar pattern is repeated in all the categories in the table and thus ELF is not directly addressed among the parameters, which makes it difficult to apply the demands of ELF interaction to this overview of language uses.

The necessity to communicate with non-native speakers is mentioned in the section describing purposes and tasks that speakers are to conduct. The CEFR specifies a range of tasks that users of the language are required to carry out with both native and non-native speakers at work as members of host community in a foreign country (ibid., p. 54). Nevertheless, given the previous finding that the ELF communication is attributed to the speakers with C1 and C2 levels of proficiency and that the intermediate students are able to successfully comprehend only native speakers, only the highest-level speakers are competent to work in a foreign country, if the interaction with non-native speakers is involved.

The section on communicative activities and strategies informs that:

strategies are a means the language user exploits to mobilise and balance his or her resources, to activate skills and procedures, in order to fulfil the demands of communication in context and successfully complete the task in question in the most comprehensive or most economical way feasible depending on his or her precise purpose (ibid., p. 57).

It was discussed in sections 3.4.2 and 4.2. of this paper that one of the main determiners of successful ELF communication is accommodation. Although the CEFR does not include a direct reference to convergence strategies, it contains a table presenting monitor and repair strategies (ibid., p. 65) that partly relate to accommodation skills. Nevertheless, no description is available for the A1 and A2 levels, which implies that learners on these levels are not able to make use of such strategies, while they are a central concern of ELF authors. Strategies to compensate for communication breakdowns or mistakes are then listed for the higher levels. The specifications concern mainly grammar and vocabulary and suggest that communication breakdowns should occur only until reaching the B2 level. Meanwhile, more advanced users of the language

self-correct their mistakes. At the C2 level, mistakes are hardly made and if they are made, they are self-corrected without the interlocutors' mentioning. However, it is not specified who or what determines what is correct and what is not, and there is no reference to the use of language as a lingua franca. The evaluation can thus differ when judged according to native-speaker norms or requirements of ELF talk, and from this point of view the information in the CEFR can be interpreted in different ways and theoretically appropriated to ELF teaching.

In terms of listening activities and strategies (*ibid.*, p. 66-68), the pattern revealed from illustrative descriptors is repeated. Moreover, a special section is devoted to activities including listening to native speakers (*ibid.*, p. 66) while no space is dedicated to NNS-NNS contexts. It thus seems that the CEFR prioritize the communication with native speakers of the language over the interaction with non-native speakers.

The CEFR further contains descriptors that are directly in contrast with ELF research. Firstly, the illustrative scale for the use of contextual cues and inferring meaning does not reflect the findings of ELF studies. According to the CEFR, the B1 learners are able to "check comprehension by using contextual clues" and the C1 users are even more skilful in such abilities (*ibid.*, p. 72). This is in contrast to Jenkins' research outcomes, which revealed that learners applying for a C1-level certificate had great difficulties with contextual processing during classroom speaking activities among non-native interlocutors from various mother tongue backgrounds (Jenkins, 2000, p. 81). Secondly, the descriptors of strategies to ask for clarification illustrate that by reaching the B2 level a speaker is fully competent to ask for help when misunderstandings occur (CEFR, p. 82). However, Jenkins (2000, p. 77) found out that the potential C1 users of English are often reluctant to signal non-comprehension in ELF talk so as not to pinpoint the pronunciation features of one's L1 transfer. As a result, the scales connected with contextual processing and signalling misunderstanding would have to be redefined for ELF contexts.

The section on communicative strategies makes direct references to the interaction with native speakers, but does not explicitly articulate strategies for the NNS-NNS contexts. Moreover, certain formulations are in contrast to the findings of English as a lingua franca research. Thus, this part of the CEFR does not provide a sufficient basis for ELF teaching.

7.3.2.4. The user/learner's competence

The fifth chapter of the CEFR outlines competencies that a user of a foreign language is to possess in order to successfully operate in the situations commented on in the previous section. The analysis of the competences underlines the fact that the framework is based primarily on the need to communicate with native speakers of the target language and that ELF teaching does not have an explicit support in the CEFR.

The framework expresses the need for users of the language to be aware of the homogeneity of the target language community, in other words to have a certain level of sociolinguistic competence (CEFR, pp. 118, 121). The section describing the sociolinguistic competence includes reference to the dialect and accent as markers of, besides other things, national origin and regional provenance (ibid., p. 121). The framework thus refers to the ability of coping with different varieties. However, while the ELF communication requires mainly interaction with non-native speakers, the illustrative examples in the CEFR include only reference to native varieties, particularly Scottish, Cockney, New York (ibid., p. 121). This implies that the target in the CEFR is the interaction with native speakers. Furthermore, regarding the sociolinguistic competence the framework contradicts the suggestions of ELF researchers. Specifically, from the B2 level learners are to “begin to acquire an ability to cope with variation of speech” (ibid., p. 121). The formulation does not specify whether non-native dialects are included, although their inclusion is possible according to the formulation. At the same time, the citation implies that the A1 and A2 users, who are the target group of this paper, should not yet start acquiring the competence to understand various accents, which is in contrast with the lingua franca concept that recommends that this ability should be gradually developed, from the lowest levels. Hence, despite the fact that the CEFR addresses the need to manage the variation of language, it does not provide complex descriptors for achieving this objective in concord with ELF propositions.

The central issue for the purpose of this paper is the section on phonological control in the CEFR. The two highest descriptors in the rating scale of pronunciation skills can be interpreted in different ways. They read as: “Has acquired a clear, natural, pronunciation and intonation” for the B2 level, and “Can vary intonation and place sentence stress correctly in order to express finer shades of meaning” (ibid., p. 117) for the C1 users (C2 level is not specified). It is not detailed by the B2 formulation what *clear* pronunciation is. In the English as a lingua franca context, the clarity would be connected with the proper realization of Lingua Franca Core features. On the contrary, the requirements of communication with native speakers would probably suggest a

different interpretation. Similarly, the notion of *natural pronunciation* could advocate the unnecessary of employing aspects of fast connected speech and pitch movements according to native-speaker patterns, since they are unnatural for most foreign users of English and not demanded by the Lingua Franca Core. At the same time, all these specific features are natural for native speakers, so they may be required from the foreign learners, if the descriptor is interpreted in relation to native-speaker norms. The C1 descriptor is directly in accord with the Lingua Franca Core in that it articulates the ability to place the sentence-stress correctly. However, it is not particularized in what way the users are to vary the intonation and the two different interpretations are again possible.

Additional analysis of the scales reveals contradictions of English as lingua franca. Firstly, the scale refers to a foreign accent as something that should be gradually reduced. This is evident from the statements that the A2 users speak with a “noticeable foreign accent” and the B1-speakers are intelligible despite “a foreign accent is sometimes evident and occasional mispronunciations occur” (ibid., p. 117). Although no further reference to accent is made at higher-level descriptors and it is not mentioned whether the foreign accent should disappear completely, these criteria imply that the foreign accent ought to be gradually limited to a very low extend, while the retention of certain features of mother tongue is promoted by the Lingua Franca Core. Secondly, the description of the A1 users relates learners’ intelligibility to native-speaker interlocutors (ibid., p. 117), and no reference is made to communication requirements with non-native speakers in any of the levels. Hence, the communication with native speakers seems to be prioritized by the scales.

To conclude, the association of the descriptors primarily with the interaction with native users and the illustration of foreign accent as a lower-level phenomenon are not in accord with the principles of lingua franca paradigm. Additionally, the descriptors of the two highest levels do not make it clear whether the native-speaker norms or Lingua Franca Core criteria are to be applied. As a result, the correct placement of nuclear stress is the only phonetical aspect that is in line with the Lingua Franca Core.

7.3.3. Conclusion to the documents analysis

The analyses of the FEP BE and the CEFR revealed that despite certain signs that the documents could be used as a basis for English as a lingua franca teaching, it would be hardly feasible in practice. The main problem is placing English language teaching and learning into the same category with other languages while English, unlike most

other languages, is learnt mainly to interact with non-native speakers and the English as a lingua franca communication should adhere to different norms.

Regarding the first research question, the general abilities are not explicitly associated with lingua franca requirements in any of the documents. The lingua franca reflection is implied in the CEFR by the promotion of plurilingualism, by not connecting the mastery of the foreign language with the NS-competence and by covertly articulating that the high-level users are competent in the interaction with non-native speakers. Concerning the FEB BE, despite the complete absence of specifications of interlocutors, the application of teaching English as a lingua franca would be theoretically possible according to the description of the educational field. Nevertheless, this conclusion is only implied from the broad formulations, and no particular demands on communication with non-native speakers are expressed. Moreover, the inclusion of the socio-cultural learning in the theme areas of stage 2 directly contradicts the lingua franca concept.

As for the second research question, the need to effectively communicate with speakers of various native and non-native varieties is not explicitly acknowledged by the documents. The FEP BE does not particularize target interlocutors' origins in any way. The CEFR, besides one occasion, does not directly articulate the need to communicate with non-native speakers of the language, but several references to the interaction with native speakers are made. Moreover, although it is claimed that the paper should be applicable to all contexts, certain parts of the CEFR contradict lingua franca research findings. The development of accommodation strategies, a vital aspect of international uses of English, is not directly addressed in the framework and the partial reference to it is not sufficient for the needs of ELF teaching.

The norms of phonetic correctness are not specified in the FEP BE, but, as has been revealed by the CEFR analysis, they are more often associated with the interaction with native than non-native speakers. Particularly, correctness in the higher levels is connected with the reduction of first language features, while the Lingua Franca Core leaves space for the mother tongue transfer in the none-core aspects. The only direct accordance of the CEFR with the Lingua Franca Core is the production of nuclear stress. Therefore, if English as a lingua franca teaching is to be implemented into the classroom practice, different criteria from those provided by the documents are needed.

7.4. Textbooks Evaluation

7.4.1. Textbooks Selection

Two textbooks, namely Project and Way to Win, were selected for the evaluation. The selection is based on the findings by Jurková (2011, p. 37) indicating that Project and Way to Win are the most frequently used English textbooks in Czech primary schools. Besides, since Project is designed in Great Britain and Way to Win in the Czech Republic, the choice offers a comparison of materials developed in the inner and expanding circle. The latest editions of both coursebooks (Way to Win, 2005 and Project, 2008) are analysed, which makes the reflection of English as a lingua franca more likely, as the greatest amount of lingua franca research has taken place in recent years. Two levels of each textbook corresponding to the binding stages of the FEP BE are evaluated in order to reveal whether the materials fulfil the need of expanding learners' receptive repertoire in line with their linguistic competence.

7.4.2. Research Tool

A list of criteria defined in section 4.3.2. is used for the evaluation (see Appendix 1). The list should provide answers to research questions 4 and 5.

4. Do the listening materials in textbooks contribute to the development of receptive accommodation skills by providing various NNS and NS accents and raising learners' awareness of the differences?
5. Do the pronunciation activities in textbooks focus on teaching the Lingua Franca Core features and abandon the teaching of non-core aspects for production?

As a result, the evaluation reveals to what extent listening and pronunciation activities reflect the concept of English as a lingua franca. The outcomes of the evaluation are summarized in tables in Appendix 2.

7.4.3. Project

The coursebook package of Project includes the Teacher's book, Student's book and Workbook. The listening materials are provided on two Class CDs and an interactive disc is attached to the workbook in order to provide mainly grammar and vocabulary practice. Since the interactive disc does not contain any audio materials, it is not analysed in this paper. The levels chosen for this analysis are Project 1 and Project 3

since they are claimed to be designed for students at the A1 and, respectively, A2 levels corresponding to the stage 1 and stage 2 of FEP BE.

7.4.3.1. Project 1

The investigation of listening tasks in Project 1 (the class CDs are referred to as Hutchinson, 2008c and Hutchinson, 2008d) revealed that the recordings are designed mainly to provide listening and pronunciation practise either in explicit pronunciation exercises or in vocabulary/grammar introduction activities, often involving repetition of target items so that learners are to copy the model speaker. The recordings are firstly evaluated from the point of view of developing listening skills for ELF contexts and subsequently with respect to phonological aspects addressed in the pronunciation and vocabulary exercises.

Regarding the development of listening skills for the purposes of international communication the materials in general do not fulfil the needs of preparing learners for coping with the real-life variation of English language. As outlined in section 4.3.2., the recordings should include at least a limited range of accents comprising ideally both NS and NNS varieties. However, the analysis shows that Project 1 presents only native speakers, and mainly those of RP accent.

The textbook contains just one speaker (in Hutchinson, 2008d, tracks 34 and 62), whose production of a vowel sound differs from the common variety promoted by the coursebook. Specifically, the speaker pronounces /æ/ as /ʌ/ in the words *fat*, *hasn't*, *black* and *hands*. Even though this could lead to a very basic awareness raising of the diversity of English, no space is devoted to it so the learners' realization of the issue would have to take place subconsciously, which is improbable given that the difference concerns only one speaker in two 1 minute's recordings. The lack of awareness raising is even more evident from the fact that although speakers in track 81 (in Hutchinson, 2008c) claim to be from the USA and Canada, they speak with RP and no illustration is made of American or Canadian varieties. Moreover, tracks 51 (in Hutchinson, 2008c) and 14 (in Hutchinson, 2008d) feature characters from expanding circle countries, namely Hungary, Slovakia and Thailand. The accents nevertheless do not differ from the British RP speakers presented in the rest of the textbook and this corresponds to the findings of Matsuda (section 4.3.2.) in that coursebooks mainly promote L1 English. In addition, the implication that native and non-native accents are the same gives an incorrect perspective of the use of language in the world by illustrating that fluent RP is spoken by expanding-circle learners and an unrealistic model is presented to the pupils.

As a consequence, instead of raising learners' awareness of the ways English is used in the world as a lingua franca and preparing them for the tasks outside the classroom, the textbook presents one variety of British English regardless of the nationality of interlocutors. From the developing receptive convergence point of view, the listening activities in Project 1 are evaluated negatively because they oppose the sociolinguistic reality and provide an incorrect image of English in the world without offering hardly any diversity of input.

Concerning the pronunciation activities, Project 1 contains 21 exercises and 18 of them are relevant for this paper. Most of the tasks require both perception and production of the target aspects. The production is realized by repeating after an RP speaker, so that the model is not in accord with the lingua franca requirements because it seems to function as a norm (see sections 4.1. and 4.3.2).

On the segmental level, the textbook contributes to increasing intelligibility in lingua franca contexts by activities aimed at the perception and repetition of consonants, which is in accordance with the Lingua Franca Core. In particular, the focus is put on contrasting /r/ and /l/, /tʃ/ and /dʒ/, /f/ and /s/ (in Hutchinson, 2008a, pp. 33, 35, 57). But since the model speakers provide the input in RP, the non-rhotic [r] is used in contrast to the suggestion of the LFC to choose its rhotic variant. The RP accent, on the other hand, conduces to the textbook's concord with the Lingua Franca Core in that the intervocalic [t] is indirectly required, if this consonant occurs in pronunciation and vocabulary exercises. No special regard is given to the fortis/lenis distinction, and neither aspiration nor different vowel length connected with this opposition is addressed, so in this respect the LFC is not reflected. Likewise, the consonant clusters are not addressed directly, but when the textbook activities require their production, the pronunciation according to RP norms is endorsed instead of taking lingua franca needs into consideration.

In terms of vowels, Project 1 reflects the demands of the Lingua Franca Core only to a limited extent. The coursebook includes activities aimed at the auditory and productive distinction between long and short vowels (in *ibid.*, pp. 5, 7, 21, 55), which is in accordance with the core. However, since pupils are to repeat the target sounds or words according to the RP model, there is no space allocated for the regional variation in the quality of vowels, advocated by the LFC and the conformity to native-speaker norms is implied. The emulation of NS pronunciation rather than promoting regional variation is further complemented in activities focused solely on vowel quality (in *ibid.*, pp. 43, 45, 69).

Suprasegmental features that Project 1 focuses on are mainly pitch movement, word stress and rhythm. As mentioned in section 3.4.1., what is considered critical by the LFC is the nuclear stress. The nuclear stress is referred to in only one exercise of the coursebook (in *ibid.*, p. 23). On the contrary, three exercises are dedicated to teaching pitch movement in statements, *wh-* and *yes/no* questions (in *ibid.*, pp. 29, 31, 47), but this suprasegmental aspect is not part of the LFC. In the same line is the focus of Project 1 on word stress and stressed-timed rhythm addressed in three exercises (in *ibid.*, pp. 19, 41, 53). As a result, the coursebook prioritizes teaching suprasegmental features that are considered unnecessary for the intelligibility in communication among non-native speakers, while the critical nuclear stress is dealt with only in one activity without putting a special emphasis on this phenomenon.

An ambiguity concerns the dental fricatives /θ/ and /ð/ that are suggested to be substituted by different consonants by the Lingua Franca Core because they are labelled as unteachable in the classroom contexts and redundant for intelligibility. Whereas the coursebook does not aim any overt pronunciation practice at /θ/ and /ð/, several vocabulary activities demand pupils to repeat the two sounds after an RP model in vocabulary exercises, e.g. in the word *maths* (*ibid.*, p. 34). Given the difficulty of producing the two consonants for many non-native speakers, it is dubious that pupils will be able to pronounce the words as required without direct instructions.

From the arguments above it is evident that the reflection of English as a lingua franca in Project 1 is scarce. The ELF paradigm is reflected only in a few pronunciation activities focusing on vowel quantity, consonant production and sentence stress. Meanwhile, the main drawback is the invariable promotion of Received Pronunciation even in the situations where this accent is unlikely to be encountered. The given variety is presented in the vast majority of tracks on class CDs, be they for the purposes of developing listening skills, pronunciation or vocabulary. Moreover, RP serves in many cases as a model to be copied in non-core areas, which contrasts with acknowledging learners' own national variety of language that is suggested by lingua franca advocates. Also the finding that the practice of non-core features is addressed more often than core aspects indicates that Project 1 supports teaching English according to the foreign language paradigm rather than the lingua franca concept. The textbook recordings and relevant activities are thus evaluated as inadequate for ELF teaching.

7.4.3.2. Project 3

Audio materials accompanying Project 3 (referred to as Hutchinson, 2008f and Hutchinson 2008g) are, as in the case of Project 1, designed for developing listening skills, pronunciation teaching and vocabulary/grammar presentation. The analysis reveals identical outcomes to the evaluation of Project 1, so that the materials in general do not provide a sufficient basis for teaching English as a lingua franca.

In terms of listening activities and developing receptive convergence by providing different accents, Project 3 should include a greater diversity than Project 1. Nonetheless, Project 3 incorporates almost constantly speakers of RP, so the extension of pupils' receptive repertoires does not take place. The textbook recordings feature only two characters who are not natives of Great Britain, which is even fewer than Project 1 does. The first case concerns track 7 (in Hutchinson, 2008f) that presents a boy claiming to come from New Zealand and who has already lived in the UK for two years. The speaker's accent is a British one, very similar to that of the majority of RP speakers, differing only in substituting the diphthong /ei/ by /ai/ in the words *great*, *play* and *rained*. The same divergence from the common pronunciation can be found on track 46 (in Hutchinson, 2008g) in the expressions *anyway* and *raining* when uttered by a different speaker, presumably a British character, so that the variation in pronunciation cannot be attributed to New Zealand accent. The second non-British person is presented in track 44 (in Hutchinson, 2008g). This speaker claims to be Polish, but has the same accent as the rest of British characters in the textbook. Therefore, not only do the recordings in Project 3 not contribute to the developing of receptive accommodation, but they also fail to increase pupils' receptive repertoire in accordance with their increased level of proficiency. Moreover, by presenting a Polish character speaking RP accent the textbook sets an unrealistic model for expanding-circle students.

Pronunciation activities again require pupils to listen and repeat after an RP speaker and the conformity to NS norms is implied despite the fact that occasional accord with the Lingua Franca Core occurs. The teaching of segmental aspects partly reflects the Lingua Franca Core in that two exercises (pp. 35 and 75 in Hutchinson, 2008e) address the distinction between voiced and unvoiced consonants. Nevertheless, although the target letters and words are pronounced by the model speaker with aspiration after /p/, /t/ and /k/, the aspiration is neither referred to overtly nor its significance for successful intelligibility is pointed out. Since the absence of instruction concerns also different lengths of vowels preceding voiced and unvoiced consonants, the textbook fails to raise learners' awareness of important features of pronunciation stressed by the LFC. There

are other four exercises (pp. 21, 23, 37, 51 in *ibid.*) that focus on the reception and production of consonant sounds, which is in accord with the lingua franca core. However, the exercise on page 23 demands the NS-like production of /θ/ and /ð/, which, according to Jenkins (see section 3.4.1. of this paper), puts an irrelevant learning load on pupils who should be rather instructed to substitute these consonants by different ones.

Concerning vowel sounds, exercises in Project 3 are in line with those in Project 1. In particular, the coursebook prioritizes the distinctions of both quantity and quality. But whereas the quantity distinction is in accordance with the Lingua Franca Core, producing the sounds with RP quality opposes the lingua franca concept.

On the suprasegmental level, the situation is again similar to Project 1. Sentence stress is addressed only in one exercise (in *ibid.*, p. 57), while pitch movement in statements, wh- and yes/no questions is the subject of four activities (in *ibid.*, pp. 39, 69, 71 and 73). Moreover, the coursebook further diverges from the Lingua Franca Core by dedicating two exercise to the production of weak forms (in *ibid.*, pp. 59 and 61) and one activity to word stress (in *ibid.*, p. 45) that are not parts of the core. On the basis of the ratio of addressing the core and non-core features and providing the RP speaker as the model even in the non-core aspects, the coursebook does not facilitate teaching pronunciation according to the ELF concept.

The fact that Project 1 and Project 3 promote the inner-circle centred instruction is additionally apparent from one reading exercise (in Hutchinson, 2008a, p. 72) that asks students to identify “English-speaking countries” and the correct answer includes only inner-circle areas (Hutchinson, 2008b, p. 77) while learners can choose also India, China, Poland and Italy. In fact, besides informing that English is an official language in India (*ibid.*, p 77), no acknowledgement is provided that the language is used also in the outer and expanding circles, which creates the image that English belongs only to the inner circle and that the other countries are ‘non-English speaking’.

In conclusion, the analyses of Project 1 and Project 3 revealed that the series is not adequate for teaching ELF. The reflection of ELF in the coursebooks is only occasional and often concerns aspects common for both English as a foreign language and English as a lingua franca paradigms, such as the production of consonant sounds (except /θ/, /ð/ and /r/) or vowel quantity. Listening texts do not contain a sufficient material for developing pupils’ receptive convergence, as they present almost invariably RP accent. Even if there is a potential space for improving students’ receptive accommodation skills – when including characters from expanding-circle countries or inner-circle areas

other than Great Britain – the textbook creates a deficient picture of the way English is used in the world instead of raising learners' awareness of the variation. Other finding that contributes to the negative evaluation of the textbooks concerns imparting the RP speaker as the pronunciation model that is often required to be copied in non-core aspects. Furthermore, the items not belonging to the Lingua Franca Core are addressed more frequently than the core features and consciousness of the importance of the core aspects is not increased by the textbooks. As a result, learners are being prepared for the communication with native speakers, but ideally only with those speaking with RP accent since the textbooks do not prepare the pupils efficiently for coping with other varieties.

7.4.4. Way to Win

The coursebook package of Way to Win includes Student's book, Workbook, Teacher's guide, and audio materials for teachers and learners. The textbook levels 6 - 9 should correspond to school grades of lower-secondary education and lead students from the CEFR level A1 to A2. However, it was revealed that the school participating in the case study uses Way to Win 8 as the end point and therefore this part of the coursebook series was selected for the analysis, instead of Way to Win 9. Way to Win 6 was chosen because it is closest to the first binding stage of the FEP BE. Concerning the audio-recordings, the school involved in the case study uses the materials for teachers and abandons those for learners. As a consequence, only the teacher's materials will be analysed, comprising two CDs for each level of the textbook.

7.4.4.1. Way to Win 6

Audio materials for Way to Win 6 (CD 1 and CD2 are referred to as Betáková and Dvořáková, 2005c; Betáková and Dvořáková 2005d) serve, as in the case of Project, for improving listening skills, pronunciation teaching and presenting vocabulary items.

Concerning the listening practice, the coursebook presents mainly British native speakers in the inner-circle context. Majority of the characters speak RP or its close varieties. However, in several recordings a certain level of divergence from the common accent appears, including both native and non-native-speaker accents. As regards the native accents differing from RP, speakers in two tracks (Betáková and Dvořáková, 2005d, tracks 19 and 35) produce the glottal stop instead of /t/ at the end of the sentence *I've got it*. According to (Wardhaugh, 2006, p. 47), the glottal stop is a common aspect of Estuary English – a modified version of RP – and the feature is frequently used in

many other accents throughout the British Isles. Therefore, its inclusion in the textbook increases pupils' chances of comprehending a number of British regional accents. In track 3 on CD 1 a speaker substitutes /θ/ in the word *three* by /f/, which illustrates the point made by Jenkins (2000, p. 138) that this problematic fricative is sometimes not realized even by native speakers themselves. Another divergence from RP relates to vowel quality and is obvious in track 25 (in Betáková and Dvořáková, 2005d), in which the speaker puts /ʌ/ in the place of /æ/ in the words like *back*. Concerning non-native varieties, the coursebook comprises Indian accent spoken in two tracks (Betáková and Dvořáková, 2005c, track 15; and Betáková and Dvořáková, 2005d, track 39). Although it is not clear whether a real Indian or a native speaker provides the input, the accent is considerably marked on the levels of rhythm and intonation and offers a realistic illustration of the Indian English for learners. The textbook includes also Czech learners of English (in Betáková and Dvořáková, 2005d, tracks 14 and 15), but they speak with a NS accent (RP or very close to it) so that a non-realistic model is provided to the pupils. The presentation of the Indian speaker with an Indian accent and Czech learners speaking a British variety implies that on the receptive level, pupils should be aware of the diversity of English in the world, but at the same time they are given a model suggesting the emulation of native-speaker norms.

Way to Win 6 does not focus any direct attention to raising learners' awareness of the differences in pronunciation, and it is questionable if they are able to realize the diversity subconsciously. However, given the level of the coursebook, a sufficient variation of input is illustrated and the exposure to different accents itself increases pupils' receptive convergence in general, although the process would be more efficient if activities aimed at the particular differences were included. On the basis of the arguments, the evaluation of the listening materials is positive, with the exception of associating Czech learners with a British accent.

In terms of pronunciation teaching and vocabulary presentation, an RP speaker functions as a model. Since the vocabulary activities focus solely on the presentation of lexical items without the need of learners' production, the focus of the analysis is solely on pronunciation exercises. The model speaker seems to function as a norm for correct pronunciation, which is implied from the teacher's guide, where the necessity to copy the model pronunciation by pupils is stated (Betáková and Dvořáková, 2005b, e.g. p. 9).

The textbook contains nine pronunciation activities and all of them concentrate on segmental aspects. However, the teacher's guide (*ibid.*, p. 23) expresses the need of emulating both the nuclear stress and intonation by repeating sentences in an exercise

aimed at vowel quantity. As a result, the reflection of the Lingua Franca Core is only partial in that nuclear stress is a core aspect, while pitch movement is a non-core feature. On the segmental level, the coursebook activities are in line with the Lingua Franca Core by dedicating one exercise to the recognition and production of vowel quantity, particularly /i/ and /i:/ (in Betáková and Dvořáková, 2005a, p. 17). In addition, five activities are aimed at the recognition and in one case also production of consonants, a core aspect (in *ibid.*, pp. 9, 33, 48, 71, 81). But since the production is required by only one of the exercises, the concord with the Lingua Franca Core is limited. The requirements of the core are, however, reflected by not including the dental fricatives /θ/, /ð/. The coursebook is in a direct contrast with the Lingua Franca Core in two exercises. Firstly, the recognition and production of non-rhotic /r/ is demanded (in *ibid.*, p. 64). Secondly, vowel quality is addressed on both receptive and productive levels in two activities (in *ibid.*, pp. 23, 57), so that no space is provided for regional variation if the model RP-pronunciation is to be followed. Moreover, certain core aspects are not included, specifically the aspiration, lenis-fortis contrast and consonant cluster simplification.

In conclusion, the pronunciation exercises accord with the Lingua Franca Core in certain aspects but contradict the core in others. A disadvantage is that an RP speaker is presented as a model to be copied in both core and non-core features. Furthermore, some core aspects are not addressed at all and several non-core aspects are taught. Consequently, teaching pronunciation according to the ELF paradigm is not systematically supported by Way to Win 6.

7.4.4.2. Way to Win 8

Way to Win 8 does not include any pronunciation activities. This is a considerable drawback given that no direct attention is paid to the subskill most threatening intelligibility in ELF communication. The audio materials (CD 1 and CD2 are referred to as Betáková and Dvořáková, 2005e and Betáková and Dvořáková, 2005f) thus serve mainly the purposes of developing listening skills. As in case of Way to Win 6, some of the audio materials present vocabulary items. But because the vocabulary exercises do not require production, the analysis concentrates solely on the listening tasks.

The accents presented in most tracks are again RP or its close variants. However, the coursebook contains additional range of native and non-native accents. The first unit of the textbook introduces Wales and its culture. As a result, several listening exercises present Welsh speakers. What is a common divergence of the Welsh characters in the

recordings from RP is the substitution of /æ/ by /ʌ/ in the words like *dad* (Betáková and Dvořáková, 2005e, track 4), *thanks* (ibid., track 6) and *haven't* (ibid., track 8). Moreover, the Welsh characters pronounce a strong rhotic /r/ in, e.g. *friends* and *right* (in ibid., tracks 16, 18, 19 and 20). The rhotic /r/ is also realized by a Scottish character, who moreover illustrates h-dropping in the word *hat*, which is then pronounced as /æt/ (ibid., track 26). CD 1 additionally contains an American accent with the rhotic /r/ (track 21), a British variety substituting /ei/ by /ai/ in *way*, *stay* and realizing the glottal stop in *it* (track 30), and also a British dialect with a strong accent where *myself* is produced like /miself/, *that* with the glottal stop instead of the word-final /t/ and *ain't* is used as a negative operator (track 14).

US English is the most frequent variety in units 7, 8 and 9, as the US culture and realia is the focus of these chapters of the textbook. As a consequence, the American accent is spoken in more than 15 tracks on CD 2. Although General American is presented in most activities and no regional varieties of the American English are included, the textbook directly raises learners' awareness of the differences between the US and British pronunciation (Betáková and Dvořáková, 2005f, track 24). The most significant difference between the varieties is the production of /r/, with the American rhotic version closer to the Lingua Franca Core.

Besides General American, non-native accents marked by intonation and stress are presented in 7 tracks. It is specifically Indian English (ibid., tracks 2, 3, 5), another non-specified Oriental variety (ibid., track 1), an Afro-Caribbean (ibid., track 11) and a Vietnamese accent (ibid., tracks 42 and 44).

On the basis of the accentual diversity in *Way to Win 8*, the textbook is evaluated as adequate for ELF teaching. Despite putting the main stress on the UK-US difference, the inclusion of a range of inner-circle varieties as well as non-native accents should sufficiently develop learners' receptive convergence. The only drawback is that the direct awareness raising activity concerns only the two native accents, but given the amount of diversity, the receptive accommodation is likely to take place subconsciously. Furthermore, extending learners' receptive repertoires is evident after the analysis of both levels of *Way to Win*, as the number of accents is significantly higher in the more advanced coursebook.

Therefore, despite the fact that Czech speakers are associated with a British accent in *Way to Win 6*, the listening materials in both grades of the textbook are evaluated positively from the point of view of improving receptive accommodation skills. In terms of pronunciation the evaluation is negative. Although the analysis of *Way to Win 6*

reveals certain concord with the Lingua Franca Core, the demands are not directly and systematically reflected. Besides, *Way to Win 8* does not provide any explicit support for pronunciation teaching be it according to English as a foreign language or lingua franca paradigms, which is evaluated as the main weakness.

7.4.5. Conclusion to the Textbooks Evaluation

The analyses revealed differences between the amount of reflection of English as a lingua franca in *Project* and *Way to Win* in terms of developing receptive convergence. While *Project* includes only a very limited diversity and promotes almost entirely RP accent, *Way to Win* contains a range of native and non-native varieties. Even though both coursebooks illustrate Central-European speakers speaking with British accents and provide thus an unrealistic model for the learners, differences arise with other nationalities and regional speakers. *Project* sustains the unrealistic presentation regardless of the character's origin throughout all listening extracts, but *Way to Win* provides native and non-native accents on the basis of the origins of speakers, which makes the textbook listening materials much more reflective of English as a lingua franca. The latter textbook moreover includes an explicit awareness raising of the differences (concerning British and US English) and extends the number of varieties with the growing level of learners. As a result, *Way to Win* is evaluated positively and *Project* negatively from the point of view of the development of receptive accommodation skills. The result of the analysis also reflects the effort of British enterprises to promote British English around the world. Such a practice is not that evident in the case of *Way to Win*, designed in the Czech Republic.

In terms of pronunciation teaching, neither of the textbooks reflects the Lingua Franca Core and both *Project* and *Way to Win* are evaluated negatively. Although a certain concord with the core is apparent in both coursebooks, each of them omits teaching some core features and, especially in *Project*, attention is paid more often to the non-core than core aspects instead of concentrating on the areas threatening intelligibility in lingua franca contexts. The coursebooks also seem to present RP speakers as the norm that should be imitated, which contradicts the allowance of space for a local variety advocated by the Lingua Franca Core. In addition, *Way to Win 8* does not include any pronunciation tasks, so that the most important language aspect for intelligibility in lingua franca communication is not targeted.

7.5. The Research of Teachers' Attitudes

7.5.1. Background Information

Two teachers were selected on the basis of their using Project and, respectively, Way to Win. For ethical reasons, the teachers are referred to as teacher A and teacher B. Teacher A utilizes Project and teacher B uses Way to Win. Both participants are women, speak Czech as their first language, have a major degree in English language teaching and teach in classes ranging from the 6th to 9th grades of the primary school. Teacher A has been teaching English for 10 years and teacher B for 4 years. The interviews were carried out on the 4th and 5th June 2012 and were conducted in Czech.

7.5.2. Research Tool

A structured interview was used to elicit the teachers' attitudes to English as a lingua franca (see Appendix 3). The focus of the interview was to answer research questions 6 – 10 outlined in section 7.1.

6. Are the teachers familiar with the concept of English as a lingua franca?
7. Do the teachers consider themselves appropriate pronunciation models for their learners and do the teachers identify their English accents with their L1 community rather than inner-circle varieties?
8. Do the teachers approve of teaching pronunciation according to the Lingua Franca Core?
9. Do the teachers consider it important to provide learners with listening to various NNS and NS accents?
10. Are the teachers contented with listening and pronunciation activities in the textbooks they are using?

To avoid ambiguity of the questions in the interview form, the interview was piloted with one English teacher in the basic education. In order to illustrate the implications of English as a lingua franca for teaching practice, the (not) teaching of /θ/ and /ð/ was used as a sample aspect in the formulation of some of the questions.

7.5.3. Research Outcomes

Regarding the familiarity of the teachers with English as a lingua franca, neither of the participants heard of the concept before the interview, so that they were briefly explained the main principles of the concept.

Responses to the second and third questions of the interview form revealed that both of the teachers consider their accents appropriate pronunciation models for pupils and do not perceive themselves as subordinate when compared to native-speaker teachers. Teacher B articulated that any non-native variety is sufficient for the purposes of basic education, if, put in her words, “it sounds at least a bit English”. To explain, the participant stated that the main role of primary school teachers is to provide the very basics of the language and that the accent is not the crucial aspect. However, both of the participants associate themselves with a native-speaker accent, rather than a L2 variety. In particular, teacher A expressed that she combines features of British and American accents in her speech and informs learners about the differences to raise their awareness. She explained the efficiency of her accent by the fact that she is a competent speaker of the language in the interaction with both native and non-native speakers. Teacher B related her accent to British English due to her longer-term residence in the country. The latter responder also communicated the effort and desire to sound native-like. Contrary to Jenkins’ study (section 4.1. of this paper), both of the participants rejected the idea that a native-like accent is connected with professional success of the teacher.

Concerning the relative status of native and non-native English teachers, the responders articulated invaluable benefits of the Czech teacher (in Czech primary schools), especially in terms of providing learners with the basics of grammar and language system, while the native English teacher’s advantages were connected mainly with interactive skills, which were seen by both participants as the complementation of the Czech teacher’s roles.

Reactions to questions four and five disclosed negative attitudes of the participants to teaching pronunciation according to the ELF paradigm. Both teachers articulated using different criteria for evaluating learners’ pronunciation in respect to the activity type. In particular, it was communicative efficiency rather than accuracy during communicative tasks. Nevertheless, in more structured exercises both teachers claimed to correct phonetic mistakes. When directly interrogated, the teachers claimed to require the production of /θ/ and /ð/, even though teacher B admitted to vary the demands according to the abilities of specific classes or learners. When asked if they would approve of not teaching the two dental fricatives (substituting them by other

consonants), the participants responded negatively and stated that they would probably teach them even if such a practice were part of the curriculum. According to teacher A, the mentioned sounds are typically English and she could not imagine their omission from the pronunciation core. Teacher B connected the substitution with the lowering of standards and thus limiting learners' future chances and status in the language. The former argument reflects teachers' general uncertainty in practical issues concerning English as a lingua franca and the latter is in concord with Jenkins' finding that the professional success is associated with native-speaker norms (section 4.1.).

The participants acknowledged the need to provide learners with different accents, however, they were doubtful about non-native varieties. Both teachers stated that they used recordings of various native-speaker varieties in order to prepare the pupils for the real-life communication. Teacher A was well aware of the lack of diversity in Project and admitted complementing the textbook by materials from other sources. As regards non-native accents, teacher A does not present them in the classroom, although she admitted that they might be beneficial for developing learners' receptive repertoires. But at the same time, she expressed worries that non-native accents could set an inappropriate model for learners. Teacher B did not perceive any advantages of non-native varieties for basic school pupils. She further communicated that non-native accents are "unnecessary extras", and stated that native-speaker varieties are the basics to be presented at primary schools and that non-native accents can be employed at later stages of the education.

The level of the participants' contentment with listening and pronunciation activities in textbooks differed. Teacher A, using Project, approved of the audio materials and, in particular, expressed her satisfaction with pronunciation activities. She explicitly conveyed a positive attitude to teaching /θ/, /ð/ and intonation. Since these items are not part of the Lingua Franca Core, the argument supports her negative perception of the practical implementation of ELF teaching. Teacher B, on the other hand, was not satisfied with the textbook *Way to Win*. The reasons were not, however, connected with the accents or specific activities but rather with a general complexity and difficulty of the textbook, so that no implications for the ELF attitudes arise. When directly asked about the accents in the textbook, teacher B was well aware of the inclusion of US English, but less so of the presented non-native accents. In addition, the teacher did not seem to pay a great importance to the absence of pronunciation activities in *Way to Win* 8.

Negative attitudes to ELF were evident from responses to the last question of the interview form. Teacher A directly expressed her dislike of the concept, and connected it with lowering of standards. Simultaneously, she admitted the possibility that ELF might gain prestige in the future, illustrating it by an example of the City and Guilds examination, where she noticed promoting communicative efficiency over grammatical accuracy. Teacher B acknowledged that she would be willing to accept ELF if it had support in textbooks, which is, nonetheless, in contrast with her previous resentment of the notion. The resentment is then apparent from her clarification that the teaching of ELF would lack system and demands on the learners would be lower, which would generally lead to the decrease in their proficiency.

7.5.4. Conclusion to the Research of Teachers' Attitudes

The interviews revealed negative attitudes to English as a lingua franca teaching and associating English language teaching with inner-circle varieties. One of the reasons may be the participants' unfamiliarity with English as a lingua franca concept prior to the interview. Given the phenomenon of gatekeeping (section 4.1.), it is unlikely that the responders had ever considered such a change of paradigm. The teachers' attitudes are in most respects in line with Jenkins' research (section 4.1.).

Concerning the research question 7, the participants associated themselves with the role of pronunciation model. However, teacher B did not give much importance to the teacher's accent in general, which implies her underestimating the role of pronunciation, and is contrary to her later-expressed demand of teaching non-core aspects according to a native-speaker model. The inclination to inner-circle Englishes is also supported by the teachers' identifying themselves with native-speaker varieties rather than an L2-influenced accent.

In contrast to Jenkins' study, the responders did not relate teachers' professional success to a native-speaker variety, which however does not correspond with their identification with native-speaker accents. The native-speaker teacher was perceived as complementary, while the non-native English teacher was considered the primary authority for basic school learners.

Research question 8 is answered negatively. Both responders were sceptical to the teaching of pronunciation according to the English as a lingua franca paradigm even if there were a curricular support. As in Jenkins' study, the participants claimed to promote fluency and communicative efficiency over error correction in certain types of activities, but they rejected the possibility of omitting non-core features from the

syllabus. Teaching English as a lingua franca was seen as the lowering of standards and limiting learners' future achievements in the language. This is in concord with implications stated in section 4.1. and confirms the connection of success with native-speaker standards.

Research question 9 was answered positively in terms of native accents, but not with regard to non-native varieties. Both teachers consider it necessary to expose learners to different varieties. Nevertheless, they present only inner-circle accents, while non-native varieties are seen as either setting a wrong model (teacher A) or unnecessary for basic-school education (teacher B). The argument of teacher A is in line with Jenkins' findings (section 4.1.) in that errors are often tolerated in production, but not as a model.

The last research question was answered positively by teacher A and negatively by teacher B. The participants' appreciation of the textbooks reveals that teachers put emphasis on native-speaker varieties. Project was evaluated positively mainly on basis of teaching non-core aspects, and the lack of range of accents was claimed to be compensated by different sources. Way to Win was evaluated negatively and the teacher was aware of its promoting US English, but not non-native accents.

8. CONCLUSION

This case study analysed three interconnected levels of basic education in the Czech Republic. Although certain positive implications for English as a lingua franca teaching were revealed on all of the levels of the research, the overall outcome displays insufficient support for the implementation of the English as a lingua franca paradigm into practice.

On the documents level, the need to communicate effectively with speakers of different varieties is implied only in certain parts of the Common European Framework. In terms of general abilities, some formulations are in line with the lingua franca concept. However, the competence to interact with non-native speakers is associated only with the highest-level users of the language, while the ability to successfully communicate with native speakers is explicitly related to intermediate levels. This suggests that the interaction with native speakers should be concentrated on prior to the communication with non-native speakers, which is in contrast to the lingua franca propositions. Regarding the Framework Educational Programme for Basic Education, the target interlocutors and criteria of correctness are not specified and, as a result, teaching English as a lingua franca could be theoretically conducted according to the document. Nevertheless, the framework contradicts the lingua franca paradigm by

including socio-cultural learning about relevant language areas. Given also that the Framework Educational Programme is based on the Common European Framework and its reference levels, the interaction with non-native speakers is not assumed to be the target of basic-school learners, i.e. A1 and A2-level users of the language.

The textbooks evaluation indicates that English as a lingua franca requirements are met only in listening activities of *Way to Win*. The coursebook provides different native and non-native accents on the basis of the origins of the characters and extends the number of the varieties with the increased level of the textbook. *Way to Win 8* dedicates space to raising learners' awareness of the language variation, although this concerns only British-US differences. The disadvantage of the coursebook is that Czech learners are illustrated as speaking with Received Pronunciation. *Project* was evaluated negatively in all of the aspects mentioned above. The textbook presents Received Pronunciation speakers regardless of the nationality of characters, which creates an unrealistic impression that the accent is spoken all around the world and learners' receptive repertoire is not developed. The analysis of *Project* illustrates the language distribution by British enterprises and the promotion of Oxford English worldwide.

The pronunciation activities in the textbooks do not accord with the Lingua Franca Core. Both textbooks include exercises aimed at the production of non-core features and copying a native-speaker model. Moreover, the core aspects are often not addressed and, even if they are included, their importance for the intelligibility in the international communication is not mentioned. The biggest drawback revealed by the analysis is the complete absence of pronunciation activities in *Way to Win 8*, so that the coursebook does not support intelligibility in English as a lingua franca contexts by the omission of the most crucial linguistic area.

Teachers' attitudes elicited by the case study display negative perceptions of the lingua franca paradigm, which may be partly caused by their unfamiliarity with the concept. On the one hand, the teachers associate themselves with the role of pronunciation models, as advocated by English as a lingua franca advocates. The responders also perceive the need to provide learners with listening to different accents. On the other hand, the teachers are reluctant to present non-native varieties and relate their own ways of speech to native-speaker varieties. Both participants disapprove of teaching pronunciation according to the lingua franca paradigm and support the underlying theme of the previous research of teachers' attitudes to English as a lingua franca by connecting the professional success with native-speaker accents and lingua franca teaching with the decrease of standards and limitations of future chances. The

assessment of textbook audio materials by the teachers is not based primarily on the inclusion of a range of varieties, perhaps because the responders complement the coursebooks by other sources. Also the responders' demands on the pronunciation activities do not accord with the concept of English as a lingua franca.

To conclude, it was revealed that, firstly, the prescriptive documents do not articulate their objectives and criteria in terms of lingua franca requirements. Secondly, the textbooks do not provide a sufficient basis for teaching pronunciation according to the Lingua Franca Core and, thirdly, the teachers are reluctant to approve of the paradigm shift. As a result, the introduction of the concept to the pedagogical practice lacks support on all three investigated levels. Even though the outcomes of the research cannot be generalized, it seems that teaching English according to the lingua franca paradigm in basic education in the Czech Republic will remain, at least for some time, only a hypothetical issue.

9. RESUMÉ

Diplomová práce se zabývá angličtinou jako jazykem mezinárodní komunikace, a vyučováním podle konceptu označovaného *angličtina jako lingua franca*. Práce nejprve daný koncept popisuje v teoretické části a na tomto základě je poté vypracována výzkumná část. Cílem je zjistit, zda-li v kontextu základního vzdělávání v České republice existuje dostatek podpory a vhodných podmínek pro vyučování anglického jazyka podle modelu *lingua franca*.

V kapitole 2 v teoretické části práce jsou nejprve definovány pojmy angličtina jako rodný, druhý a cizí jazyk. Následně je představen model tří koncentrických kruhů, který slouží jako ilustrace počtu rodilých a nerodilých mluvčích angličtiny. Z nadefinovaných pojmů vyplývá, že angličtina jako rodný (první) jazyk je kód, jenž je téměř bez výjimky osvojen mluvčími již v raném stádiu života. Tito rodilí mluvčí jsou posléze charakterizováni specifickými lingvistickými, pragmatickými a paralingvistickými kompetencemi, které jsou podpořeny společnými kulturními znalostmi. Rodilí mluvčí také ztotožňují svou identitu s rodným jazykem. Angličtina jako druhý jazyk často slouží jako oficiální jazyk v určité zemi, jejíž obyvatelé hovoří ovšem jinou rodnou řečí. Pro lidi v těchto státech je potom velmi důležité umět hovořit anglicky, aby byli schopni komunikovat ve své zemi v oficiálních kruzích, jež zahrnují například vládu, vzdělávání nebo právo. Angličtina jako cizí jazyk slouží především účelům mezinárodní komunikace. S ohledem na postavení anglického jazyka jako globálního prostředku komunikace je angličtina vyučována jako primární cizí jazyk v bezpočtu zemí po celém světě a žádná jiná řeč není vyučována tak hojně. Charakter angličtiny ve světě se často znázorňuje pomocí tří koncentrických kruhů. Takzvaný vnitřní kruh zahrnuje státy, kde je angličtina užívána jako rodný jazyk. Počet rodilých mluvčích se pohybuje mezi 320 až 380 miliony. Do vnějšího kruhu patří země, kde se anglicky mluví jako druhým jazykem a počet těchto uživatelů je 300 až 500 milionů. Rozšiřující se kruh referuje k oblastem, kde angličtina funguje jako cizí jazyk a počet mluvčích je zhruba 500 milionů až jedna miliarda. Ačkoliv se jedná pouze o přibližná čísla, je všeobecně uznávané, že počet nerodilých mluvčích převyšuje množství rodilých mluvčích.

Kapitola 3 se zabývá angličtinou jako jazykem mezinárodní komunikace. Výzkumy ukazují, že přibližně 80 procent mezistátní komunikace v angličtině probíhá bez účasti rodilých mluvčích. Následující sekce kapitoly nastiňuje vývoj, jenž dal vzniknout zmíněné situaci. Aspekty, jež přispívaly k rozšíření angličtiny do různých částí světa před začátkem dvacátého století, byly především koloniální politika Velké Británie a

průmyslová revoluce, v jejímž čele stála Velká Británie a posléze Spojené Státy Americké. Ve dvacátém století to byla hlavně pokračující ekonomická dominance Spojených Států, jež vytvářela poptávku po anglickém jazyce. V posledních několika desetiletích je to ale také distribuce vyučování anglického jazyka zprostředkovávaná převážně Velkou Británií a Spojenými Státy, což stále zvyšuje čísla anglicky hovořící populace. Tato distribuce je však kritizována některými autory zabývajícími se využíváním angličtiny. Zatímco se totiž mezinárodní jazyk modifikuje komunikací nerodilých mluvčích a úspěšně jsou používány nestandardní formy, britské a americké společnosti dále vyvážejí svojí řeč do všech koutů světa. Autoři proto navrhují, aby se na základě výzkumů angličtiny mluvené mezi nerodilými mluvčími vytvořilo nové paradigma angličtina jako lingua franca, které by bylo alternativou pro tradiční vyučování jazyka podle norem rodilých mluvčích. K tomu je ovšem potřeba, aby angličtina jako lingua franca byla plně kodifikována a uznávána jako legitimní dorozumívací prostředek. Autoři prosazují, aby nerodilé dialekty a akcenty byly postaveny na stejnou úroveň jako regionální variace rodilé angličtiny, a aby nebyly hodnoceny jako prvky poukazující na sníženou jazykovou schopnost

Jak již bylo řečeno, angličtina jako lingua franca je specifická prvky netypickými pro konverzaci mezi rodilými mluvčími. Tato práce stručně uvádí lexiko-gramatické charakteristiky a zaměřuje se především na výslovnost cílového jazyka, která je nejkritičtější jazykovým aspektem pro vzájemné porozumění na mezinárodní úrovni mezi nerodilými mluvčími. Jelikož angličtina je používána v různých částech světa, mezinárodní komunikace se vyznačuje výskytem mnoha různých přízvuků ovlivněných rodnými jazyky mluvčích. Pro zajištění srozumitelnosti byl navržen fonologický sylabus, vytvořen na základě studie komunikace mezi nerodilými mluvčími. Tento sylabus definuje prvky, jež je třeba správně vyslovit, aby došlo k porozumění posluchačem, pro kterého je angličtina cizí nebo druhý jazyk. Zároveň jsou identifikovány aspekty běžné pro rodilé mluvčí, které neohrožují srozumitelnost v mezinárodní komunikaci a mohou být tudíž modifikovány na základě rodného jazyka, což zároveň podpoří možnost vyjádřit národní identitu v angličtině přízvukem. Vyučování podle lingua franca sylabu má přinést zefektivnění vyučování a učení se výslovnosti pro mezinárodní účely komunikace tím, že bude možné zaměřit pozornost na prvky důležité pro srozumitelnost, zatímco aspekty neohrožující úspěšnou komunikaci nebudou požadovány. Aby bylo zajištěno porozumění rodilým mluvčím, prvky, jež nejsou součástí sylabu, mají být osvojeny receptivně. Vedle prvků uvedených v sylabu, klade lingua franca vysoký nárok na schopnosti přizpůsobit se receptivně i

produktivně komunikačním partnerům s různými cizími přízvuky. Zatímco na produktivní úrovni by tato schopnost měla být spojena s produkcí prvků zahrnutých ve fonologickém sylabu, na receptivní úrovni jde především o návyky spojené s porozuměním různým akcentů rodilých, ale především nerodilých mluvčích.

Následující kapitola práce se věnuje vyučování receptivních dovedností a výslovnosti s ohledem na rozdílné zdroje cílového jazyka. Učitel, který je nerodilý mluvčí angličtiny a jenž má stejný rodný jazyk jako žáci, je považován za ideální a realistický model výslovnosti, přičemž se předpokládá, že správně realizuje prvky zahrnuté ve fonologickém sylabu. Komunikace mezi žáky ve vícejazyčných třídách by naopak měla přispívat k rozvoji receptivních a produktivních schopností přizpůsobit se mluvčím různých přízvuků. V jednojazyčných třídách však komunikace mezi žáky k této dovednosti nepřispívá, a je tedy nutné ji rozvíjet, alespoň co se týká receptivní úrovně, pomocí audio nahrávek. Z tohoto důvodu je kladen nárok na poslechové nahrávky v učebnicích, aby obsahovaly různé přízvuky nerodilých i rodilých mluvčích a aby navíc navyšovaly rozmanitost akcentů se vzrůstající jazykovou kompetencí žáků. Audio nahrávky v učebnicích slouží také k rozvoji výslovnosti a měly by být v souladu s fonologickým sylabem angličtiny jako lingua franca, tudíž se soustředit na produkci prvků zahrnutých v sylabu a omezit další aspekty pouze na receptivní úroveň.

Přístupy učitelů k angličtině jako lingua franca významně ovlivňují implementaci konceptu do vyučování. Předchozí výzkumy přístupu učitelů jsou shrnuty v kapitole 5. Společným výsledkem jednotlivých výzkumů je neochota akceptovat vyučování angličtiny jako lingua franca. Učitelé často spojují svojí identitu s angličtinou rodilých mluvčích a přiřazují normy rodilých mluvčích k profesní prestiži. Další překážkou jejich přijetí nového modelu jsou očekávání a nároky široké veřejnosti, jež spojují vyučování jazyka s angličtinou mluvenou v zemích vnitřního kruhu. Přízvuky vyskytující se v mezinárodní komunikaci mezi nerodilými mluvčími jsou naopak asociovány se sníženými standardy, nároky a omezováním budoucích šancí žáků.

Závěrečná část teoretické části práce popisuje dokumenty určující cíle vyučování cizího jazyka v základním vzdělávání v České republice. Prvním z nich je Rámcový vzdělávací program pro základní vzdělávání. Jeho popis se soustřeďuje na hlavní principy, klíčové kompetence a vzdělávací obor cizí jazyk, patřící do vzdělávací oblasti jazyk a jazyková komunikace. Druhým relevantním dokumentem je Společný evropský referenční rámec pro jazyky, k němuž Rámcový program odkazuje.

Výzkumná část práce nejprve stanovuje svůj cíl, kterým je zjištění podpory pro vyučování angličtiny jako lingua franca na třech úrovních v kontextu základního

vzdělávání v České republice. K dosažení cíle napomáhá zvolená metodologie a stanovené otázky, které výzkum objasňuje. Stanovené otázky slouží navíc k zvýšení hodnověrnosti výzkumu. Samotný výzkum je rozdělen na tři části - analýzu dokumentů, hodnocení učebnic a zjištění přístupu učitelů k angličtině jako lingua franca.

Analyzovanými dokumenty jsou Rámcový vzdělávací program pro základní vzdělávání a Společný evropský referenční rámec pro jazyky. Závěry analýzy ukazují, že cíle vzdělávání v oboru Cizí jazyk v Rámcovém programu nespecifikují cílovou skupinu komunikačních partnerů, ani kritéria správnosti. Určité části a odkaz na Společný evropský referenční rámec naznačují, že by se vyučování mělo soustředit především na komunikaci s rodilými mluvčími, což je v nesouladu s konceptem angličtiny jako lingua franca. Referenční rámec posléze obsahuje jisté implikace na schopnost komunikovat s nerodilými mluvčími. Rozvíjení této kompetence ale nemá v dokumentu systematickou podporu a není v souladu s požadavky vyučování podle konceptu lingua franca. Celkový problém obou dokumentů pramení z toho, že pro vyučování anglického jazyka jsou stanoveny stejné cíle a kritéria jako pro ostatní jazyky, které jsou ovšem používány především ke komunikaci s rodilými mluvčími.

Hodnocení učebnic se soustředilo na audio nahrávky sloužící k rozvoji poslechových dovedností a výslovnosti, a jejich reflektování potřeb komunikace v angličtině jako lingua franca. Pro výzkum byly vybrány dvě učebnice Project a Way to Win, jež jsou podle předchozího šetření nejčastěji se vyskytující učebnice angličtiny na českých základních školách. Jako nástroj výzkumu byl použit seznam kritérií, vyplívajících z teoretické části práce. Co se týká rozvoje poslechových dovedností, specifická role učebních materiálů z pohledu mezinárodní komunikace je rozvoj schopností porozumět různým přízvukům. Kladně v tomto ohledu byla ohodnocena učebnice Way to Win, zatímco učebnice Project byla ohodnocena negativně, jelikož prezentuje výhradně mluvčí oxfordské angličtiny. Obě učebnice byly následně negativně ohodnoceny z hlediska rozvoje výslovnosti pro potřeby komunikace v lingua franca kontextech. Ani jedna učebnice totiž nereflektuje lingua franca syllabus a vyučování výslovnosti je spojeno s imitací rodilých mluvčích i v aspektech, jež by měly poskytovat prostor pro specifický přízvuk.

Přístupy učitelů k angličtině jako lingua franca byly zjišťovány pomocí strukturovaného rozhovoru. Byli vybráni dva učitelé, jeden využívající učebnici Project a druhý Way to Win. Ani jeden z účastníků neznal model angličtiny jako lingua franca před začátkem rozhovoru. Když byli s konceptem seznámeni, oba učitelé vyjádřili negativní přístup k vyučování výslovnosti podle lingua franca konceptu a i v dalších

aspektech jeví inklinaci k normám rodilých mluvčích anglického jazyka. Podobně jako předchozí studie přístupů učitelů, rozhovory ukázaly, že angličtina jako lingua franca je vnímána coby snižování nároků a limitování možných budoucích šancí studentů.

Závěrečná kapitola práce poskytuje celkové shrnutí výzkumu, jehož výsledky indikují, že angličtina jako lingua franca nemá dostatečnou podporu ani na jedné ze tří zkoumaných úrovní, a její aplikace do vyučování na základních školách v České republice se v současné době jeví jako nepravděpodobná.

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11. LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix 1 – Criteria for Textbook Evaluation

Appendix 2 – Outcomes of Textbook Evaluation

Appendix 3 – Interview Form

Appendix 1 – Criteria for Textbook Evaluation

Listening

- Inclusion of native-speaker accents
- Inclusion of non-native speaker accents
- Gradual extension of the amount of diversity
- Differences of the accents from RP
- Raising awareness of the differences

Pronunciation

- What accents are used as models- L1/L2?
- What aspects of pronunciation are addressed (core/non-core – receptively /productively)
- Concord with the Lingua Franca Core

Appendix 2 – Outcomes of Textbook Evaluation

LISTENING

| Project 1 | |
|--|---|
| Inclusion of NS accents | No, mostly RP. Only one speaker substituting /æ/ by /ʌ/. US and Canadian characters speak RP. |
| Inclusion of NNS accents | No, Hungarian, Slovakian and Thai characters speak RP. |
| Gradual extension of the amount of diversity | Not relevant here |
| Differences of the accents from RP | No differences except the substitution of /æ/ by /ʌ/. |
| Raising awareness of the differences | No. |
| Evaluation | Negative |

| Project 3 | |
|--|---|
| Inclusion of NS accents | No, mostly RP. Only two speakers substituting /ei/ by /ai/ and one of them claims to be from New Zealand, but the substitution is not probably result of NZ accent. |
| Inclusion of NNS accents | No, a Polish character speaks RP. |
| Gradual extension of the amount of diversity | No. |
| Differences of the accents from RP | No differences except the substitution of /ei/ by /ai/. |
| Raising awareness of the differences | No. |
| Evaluation | Negative |

| Way to Win 6 | |
|--|---|
| Inclusion of NS accents | Yes, RP, two speakers employ glottal stops. One speaker substitutes /θ/ by /f/. One speaker substitutes /æ/ by /ʌ/. |
| Inclusion of NNS accents | Yes. Indian accent in two tracks. But Czech characters speak RP. |
| Gradual extension of the amount of diversity | Not relevant here. |
| Differences of the accents from RP | NS - differences as outlined above in the table. NNS (Indian) - rhythm and intonation. |
| Raising awareness of the differences | No overt practice. |
| Evaluation | Positive, except the Czech characters speaking RP |

| Way to Win 8 | |
|--|---|
| Inclusion of NS accents | Yes, RP, Welsh, Scottish, GA, and other two unspecified UK accents. |
| Inclusion of NNS accents | Yes. Indian, Afro-Caribbean, Vietnamese, and one unspecified oriental accent. |
| Gradual extension of the amount of diversity | Yes. |
| Differences of the accents from RP | Welsh – substitution of /æ/ by /ʌ/, strong rhotic /r/, Scottish – strong rhotic /r/, h-dropping GE – rhotic /r/ other NS – substitution of /ei/ by /ai/, glottal stop NNS (all of them) – rhythm and intonation |
| Raising awareness of the differences | Yes, US-UK difference. |
| Evaluation | Positive |

PRONUNCIATION

| Project 1 | |
|-----------------------------------|---|
| Model accent | Received Pronunciation |
| The consonant inventory | Yes, but non-rhotic /r/ is promoted |
| Phonetic requirements | Not addressed |
| Consonant clusters simplification | Not addressed |
| Vowel quantity | Yes, but RP vowel quality is required productively |
| Tonic nuclear stress | Yes, but marginal in comparison with non-core suprasegmental features |
| Evaluation | Negative |

| Project 3 | |
|-----------------------------------|--|
| Model accent | Received Pronunciation |
| The consonant inventory | Yes, but /θ/, /ð/ and non-rhotic /r/ production |
| Phonetic requirements | Aspiration to be copied without overt instruction, voiced-voiceless distinction productively, but no focus on the length of the preceding vowel. |
| Consonant clusters simplification | Not addressed |
| Vowel quantity | Yes, but RP vowel quality is required productively |
| Tonic nuclear stress | Yes, but marginal in comparison with non-core suprasegmental features |
| Evaluation | Negative |

| Way to Win 6 | |
|-----------------------------------|---|
| Model accent | Received Pronunciation |
| The consonant inventory | Yes, but mostly receptively and non-rhotic /r/ is required productively |
| Phonetic requirements | Not addressed |
| Consonant clusters simplification | Not addressed |
| Vowel quantity | Yes, but RP vowel quality is required productively |
| Tonic nuclear stress | Yes, but also production of pitch movement according to RP model |
| Evaluation | Negative |

| Way to Win 8 | |
|-----------------------------------|------------------------|
| Model accent | Received Pronunciation |
| The consonant inventory | Not addressed |
| Phonetic requirements | Not addressed |
| Consonant clusters simplification | Not addressed |
| Vowel quantity | Not addressed |
| Tonic nuclear stress | Not addressed |
| Evaluation | Negative |

Appendix 3 – Interview Form

Education:

Number of years of teaching English:

Students' age (grades):

1. Have you ever heard of English as a lingua franca?

2. How do you value/assess your own accent? / Do you consider yourself a suitable pronunciation model for pupils? / Do you desire to have a more native-like pronunciation?

3. How do you perceive the status of NS and NNS teachers?

4. How do you evaluate pupils' pronunciation? (to achieve NS-like pronunciation/ intelligibility criterion/ fluency-accuracy)

5. Do you approve of sustaining some features of mother tongue when teaching pronunciation (e.g. substitution of /θ/ and /ð/)? If not, why?

6. Do you find it useful to provide learners with listening to different varieties (NS-NNS)?

7. Are you contented with listening and pronunciation activities in the textbook? If not, why?

9. Do you see the possibility of teaching English as a lingua franca in the future? (in the basic education, other education)