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Learner-centeredness in lower-secondary English classes

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ANNOTATION

The bachelor thesis deals with learner-centeredness in teaching English in lower secondary classes. The paper is divided into two parts. Within the theoretical framework of the thesis, the historical development of learner-centeredness is outlined, learner-centred principles are analysed in detail, and a characteristic of the role of the learner and the teacher is provided. In addition, several advantages and disadvantages of this approach are discussed as well as brief characteristics of a lower secondary English learner. The research in the practical part is conducted in the form of unstructured observations that are subsequently analysed in comparison to information provided in the theoretical part.

KEYWORDS

English Language Teaching, learner-centeredness, principles teacher, learner

NÁZEV

Výuka zaměřená na žáka na druhém stupni základní školy a v nižších třídách víceletých gymnázií

ANOTACE

Tato bakalářská práce se zabývá výukou zaměřenou na žáka a jejím využití při výuce anglického jazyka na druhém stupni základní školy a v nižších třídách víceletých gymnázií. Práce je rozdělena na dvě části. V teoretické části této práce je shrnut historický vývoj takto orientované výuky a následně jsou diskutovány její principy. Práce se dále zaměřuje na roli učitele a žáka, na možné výhody a nevýhody, které tato výuka přináší do hodin angličtiny. Součástí je i stručný popis žáka staršího školního věku, který byl zvolen jako cílová skupina pro realizaci výzkumného šetření. Výzkum, který je součástí praktické části bakalářské práce je proveden formou nestrukturovaných observací, které jsou následně analyzovány v porovnání s informacemi poskytnutými v teoretické části.

KLÍČOVÁ SLOVA

Výuka anglického jazyka, výuka zaměřená na žáka, principy, učitel, žák

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

APA – American Psychological Association

CLL – Community Language Learning

CLT – Communicative Language Teaching

ELT – English language teaching

ISCED – International Standard Classification of Education

LC – learner-centeredness

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INTRODUCTION

Over the past few years, learner-centred teaching has been an increasingly common trend in modern education. This approach emphasises methods that shift the focus from the teachers as givers of information to the learners. Traditionally teacher-centred approach focused more on what teachers did than on what learners are learning. Therefore, the learners might have become passive and not able to take responsibility for their own learning. The learner-centred approach puts the learner in the middle of the teaching-learning processes and focuses on the individual learners' learning.

The thesis is divided into two main parts, theoretical and practical. The former consists of four parts. The first chapter outlines the development of the learner-centeredness from the roots of the concept in Ancient Greece to modern developments. It focuses on several movements and the most prominent educators that contributed to the development of learner-centeredness. Subsequently, an analysis of learner-centred principles is provided. The principles are divided into four groups, and each of them is described in detail. Also, the interconnection of these principles is emphasised. The third chapter is devoted to the depiction of the learner-centred classroom from the teacher's point of view as well as from the learner's perspective. Moreover, benefits and possible disadvantages that learner-centeredness brings to the classroom are analysed. The last chapter of the theoretical part characterises a lower-secondary learner, as the research takes place in lower-secondary English classes. The definition of the lower-secondary learner according to International Standard Classification of Education is provided, and what is more, the possible evidence that learner-centred approach seems rather appropriate for this group of learners is provided.

The practical part consists of the research that was conducted in the form of unstructured observations within two educational institutions in the lessons of two teachers. Firstly, the research is introduced, and the choice of the methodology is reasoned. Secondly, the aim of the research is stated which is to find out whether the learner-centred principles are used by the teachers in lower secondary English classes and how do the teachers use them. Lastly, the collected data are analysed, and findings are compared with the theoretical base provided in the theoretical part.

Finally, I would like to notify that all the translations of Czech authors are mine.

THEORETICAL PART

1 Historical development of the learner-centred teaching

1.1 Origins of the concept

First notions of learner-centeredness can be traced back as early as Plato's Socratic dialogues. The idea of this approach has roots in Ancient Greece (469 – 399 B.C.). (Ellis, 2004)

However, Rousseau was the first one to present a comprehensive description of learner-centred ideas in his "Emile" that was published in 1762. The principle that appears throughout the whole book is that children see, think and feel in their own way and we should not teach them in a way as adults see, think and feel. Children are naturally interested in learning and education should give them opportunities to discover things and make conclusions from their own experiences and adults should not make them learn things that are beyond their grasp. (Darling, 1994) Rousseau indicated that it does not matter what children learn, but it matters that they do not do anything against their will. (Rousseau, 1979).

From such a point of view, the aim of education is to develop learners' desire to learn. For Rousseau, this is the fundamental principle of any good education, and what is more, he explains that schools should be made to fit the child rather than the other way round. He also considers the fact that every child is an individual and so education needs to be individualised to meet his personal needs and developments. (Darling, 1994)

1.2 Modern developments in psychology

As it was mentioned above, the main principles in learner-centred views lie in respect of children's individual differences in learning, their interests and learning through experience. These ideas were later further developed by writers such as Dewey (1859 – 1952), Piaget (1896 – 1980) and Vygotsky (1896 – 1934) and others, as the development of learner-centeredness was connected with several movements both in psychology and pedagogy.

One of the most prominent movements that shaped learner-centred teaching was constructivism. The idea of this movement was based on the assumption that learners are key initiators and constructors of their knowledge rather than passive receivers of knowledge from 'expert' teachers. Constructivism distinguishes two perspectives that are under this broad term. The first is called cognitive constructivism, and it is related to Piaget's model that emphasises the interaction between the child and the world around him in constructing knowledge by actively making sense of the world in contrast to receiving whole ideas from an authority. (Barraket, 2005) The second term is social constructivism which is associated with the work of Vygotsky who claims that learning takes place in a social context as the child is not an isolated learner but an active discoverer in a world of other people with whom he interacts to gain experiences. (Cameron, 2001)

Next philosopher who illustrates the characteristics of learner-centred education is John Dewey whose work was among others influenced by Copernican revolution. He linked this new approach to change that Copernicus introduced. He claims that the change in education from the teacher being the centre of education to a child who becomes the 'sun' about which the education revolve is not unlike the Copernican revolution. (Henson, 2003) Dewey is also the founder and one of the most prominent representatives of pragmatic psychology. He perceives education as a tool for solving problems that people encounter in real life. He also believes that school should relate to life and represent a place where a child learns directly through life instead of school being just a classroom where a child is given tasks. (Henson, 2003)

1.3 Methods and approaches in ELT

In the 50s of the 20th century, the humanistic tradition started to appear in the USA. Petty points out that one of the most famous humanistic psychologists, Carl Rogers, puts great emphasis on the idea that learning is not what others do to the learners but what learners do themselves, which means that they should learn actively. (Petty, 1996, p. 52)

Nunan mentions the best-known proponents of humanism in language teaching such as Gattegno who created the Silent Way, Curran who developed Community Language Learning, and a producer of an approach known as Suggestopedia Lozanov. (Nunan, 1991)

Caleb Gattegno's Silent Way was not only connected with humanistic approaches but also with cognitive approach. Larsen-Freeman (2014, p. 53) claims that although it "did not stem directly from the Cognitive Code Approach, it shares certain principles with it."

The cognitive approach appeared in the early seventies as a critique of audio-lingualism¹, as the idea that learning a language means forming a set of habits was challenged. Linguist Naom Chomsky suggested, that "language must not be considered a product of habit formation, but rather of rule formation. Accordingly, language acquisition must be a procedure whereby people use their own thinking processes, or cognition, to discover the rules of the language they are acquiring." (Larsen-Freeman, 2014, p. 54)

It is possible to connect learner-centred approach to some extent to the Cognitive Code Approach since: "Rather than simply being responsive to stimuli in the environment, learners were seen to be much more actively responsible for their own learning, engaged in formulating hypotheses in order to discover the rules of the target language" (Larsen-Freeman, 2014, p. 53)

The cognitive approach brought many new ideas into the language teaching, and from this point forward it is evident that learner-centred principles could be traced in the new methods and theories.

Similar to the rejection of the linguistic theory underlying Audio-lingualism in the United States, Situational Language Teaching², that represented the dominant approach to teaching English as a foreign language in Britain, began to be questioned by applied linguists which resulted in the emergence of a new language teaching methodology called Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). As opposed to the traditional approaches that viewed language learning as a habit formation, CLT emphasised that "being able to communicate required more than linguistic competence; it required communicative competence – knowing when and how to say what to whom" (Larsen-Freeman, 2014, p. 121). Therefore, as Richards and Rodgers (2001, p. 155) claim CLT aims to "make communicative competence the goal of language teaching and develop

¹ Audio-lingualism is an oral-based method that uses drilling to help learners overcome the habits of their native language and form new habits through conditioning – helping them to respond correctly to stimuli through reinforcement. The method emphasizes teaching grammatical sentence patterns and their use. (Larsen-Freeman, 2000)

² Situational Language Teaching refers to an approach developed by British applied linguists from the 1930s to 1960s that puts emphasis on speech and structure as the basis of language (Richards and Rodgers, 2002)

procedures for the teaching of the four language skills that acknowledge the interdependence of language and communication.”

With the emergence of this new methodology, the role of learners, teachers, and materials have also changed. Learners were no longer seen as passive recipients of knowledge, but they were considered active communicators that are actively engaged in the teaching-learning processes. (Larsen-Freeman, 2014) The role of the teacher has changed as well, as several roles were ascribed to teachers in CLT. Richards and Rodgers (2001) describe the two most important roles of the teacher. The first role that teachers started to assume is the role of a communication facilitator whose responsibility is to establish situations likely to promote communication. The second role is to become an independent participant in the learning-teaching group. The primary function of materials used in CLT is to promote communicative language use in real-life situations that learners are likely to experience.

It can be concluded that CLT and learner-centeredness share various principles, especially in promoting learner autonomy and active participation and emphasising the communicative goals of education regarding real-life needs.

As it was mentioned above, the Silent Way was one of the major trends in the 20th century. According to Gattegno, as Nunan (1991, p. 238) states in his book “the method is learner-centred in that teaching is subordinated to learning”. Gattegno brought a remarkable change to a learning process by looking at it from the learner’s perspective, as Larsen-Freeman claims:

“Gattegno concluded that learning is a process which we initiate by ourselves by mobilising our inner resources (our perception, awareness, cognition, imagination, intuition, creativity, etc.) to meet the challenge at hand. In the course of our learning, we integrate into ourselves whatever ‘new’ that we create, and we use it as a stepping stone for further learning.” (Larsen-Freeman, 2014, p. 54)

It is evident that the Silent Way shares many principles with the learner-centred approach. Other methods that follow humanistic tradition are called Suggestopaedia and Community Language Learning.

Suggestopaedia is now called Desuggestopaedia “to reflect the importance placed on desuggesting limitations on learning.” (Larsen-Freeman, 2014, p. 73) The originator of this method Georgi Lozanov believes that “the human mind is capable of prodigious feats of memory if learning takes places under the appropriate conditions.” (Nunan, 1991, p. 139) The reason for our inefficiency is

that we set up psychological barriers and we fear that we will fail because of limitations in our ability to learn. According to this method, people only use five to ten percent of their mental capacity and to avoid not making better use of their reserve capacity, people need to eliminate the feeling of not being successful and negative associations they have towards learning. In other words, the limitations we think we have need to be “desuggested”. (Larsen-Freeman, 2014)

Some degree of learner-centeredness could be traced in this method, especially in the principle that learning should take place in a positive atmosphere which helps the student to overcome their barriers towards learning that they may possess. Also, the relationship between the teacher and the student is essential for both methods. Another connection could be made in the emphasis on learner’s feelings which make an important function of social aspects in learning.

The last method that will be analysed in this chapter is Community Language Learning (CLL) that also shares some principles with learner-centeredness. CLL advises teachers to consider their students as ‘whole persons’. “Whole-person learning means that teachers consider not only their students’ intellect, but also have some understanding of the relationship among student’ feelings, physical reactions, instinctive protective reactions, and desire to learn.” (Larsen-Freeman, 2000, p. 89)

Also in this method, the relationship between the learners and the teacher is important, which is similar to a previously discussed method. Larsen-Freeman suggests that the teacher should become a “language counsellor” which means someone who can understand the struggle students face when they learn another language since they often feel threatened by a new learning situation. The teacher should be able to help learners overcome their negative feelings. (Larsen-Freeman, 2014)

Some aspects that could be considered learner-centred are the importance of working together, as the learners often work in small groups to create a sense of community and they are able to learn from each other and cooperation is highly encouraged. Also, the students have a choice what they want to learn, so they naturally develop a sense of responsibility, if they feel in control and they can interfere with the creation of syllabus, and thus they are “more willing to learn when they have created the materials themselves.” (Larsen-Freeman, 2014, p. 98) All of these principles could also be found in the learner-centred principles.

It is apparent from the discussions of various principles that both humanistic and constructivist theories share certain principles with learner-centeredness. Humanistic theories can be connected to learner-centred approach mainly by taking into consideration learner's feeling and constructivist theories with the belief that learners are constructors of their knowledge based on their past experiences as well as with the idea that learning is connected to social context.

2 Learner-centred principles

In 1990, American Psychological Association (APA) appointed a special Task Force on Psychology in Education in order to “determine ways in which the psychological knowledge base related to learning, motivation and individual differences could contribute directly to improvements in the quality of student achievement.” (McCombs, 1997, p. 3) The second purpose was to create general principles that could form a framework for school redesign and reform. The resulting document originally consisted of twelve principles. This document was revised in 1997, and two more principles were added with attention to diversity and standards. (McCombs, 2001, p. 184)

These fourteen learner-centered principles are divided into four groups, metacognitive and cognitive factors, motivational and affective factors, developmental and social factors and individual differences factors, that will be discussed in the following chapters.

2.1 Metacognitive and Cognitive factors

The principles within the first group, metacognitive and cognitive factors, describe how a learner thinks and remembers. In accordance with constructivism described above, they discuss factors that are involved in constructing the meaning through linking new knowledge with already existing information.

Nature of the learning process is the first principle that APA (1997) describes as a complex subject matter that is most effective when it is an intentional process. They describe successful learners and those who are active, goal-oriented, self-regulating, and assume personal responsibility for contributing to their own learning. APA (1997, p. 2) states that “the principles outlined in this document focus on this type of learning.”

The second principle is called goals of the learning process, and it emphasises the importance of creating personally meaningful goals with support and instructional guidance of teachers that help the student create learning goals that are consistent with both personal and educational interests. (APA, 1997) Dörnyei (2007) explains that there is a diversity of educational goals and the goals

that students actually pursue during their classes. He suggests that teachers should allow their students to negotiate their goals and find out what topics they are interested in and then build these into the curriculum as much as possible.

Dörnyei (2007) also underlines the importance of short-term goals, as especially learning a language takes several years to acquire a minimum working knowledge and to focus too much on the ultimate purpose of the learning process may cause that students lose the initial motivational momentum. It is proposed that students keep a record of their weekly goals by creating a “goal-setting logbook” where they set their goals for a specific week. They list actions that they take to accomplish it, they will describe how they will recognise that they have achieved their goals and list possible difficulties they may encounter and strategies to overcome them.

The third principle couples focus on the construction of knowledge by building links between new information and experiences and their existing knowledge base. APA (1997, p. 2) claims that “the nature of these link can take a variety of forms, such as adding to, modifying, or reorganising existing knowledge or skills.” They also consider thinking and directing one’s own learning as a natural and active process that occurs all the time with all the people. However, what is learned, remembered and thought about differs with each individual or even with different subject areas. (McCombs, 1997)

Next principle suggests that students should also be empowered by teachers to understand that they may use different strategies, such as strategic thinking, reasoning, problem-solving or concept learning, to help them reach their goals. Learning outcomes may be also enhanced “if educators assist learners in developing, applying, and assessing their strategic learning skills. (APA, 1997, p. 3)

What is more, the fifth principle within this group pays attention to metacognition, and a claim is made that learners not only create a repertoire of strategies, but they also reflect on what works well for them by constantly evaluating and improving their effectiveness. Also, learners are able to deal with a problem if it occurs or if they do not make sufficient progress. They can choose alternative methods which facilitate creative and critical thinking and enhance their responsibility for learning. (APA, 1997)

It should be recognised that learning is greatly influenced by the last principle – context of learning as learning does not occur in a vacuum. Teachers that are familiar with both their learners and the learning environment should adapt various settings to their learners’ level of prior knowledge, cognitive abilities, and their learning and thinking strategies, as cultural or group influences can impact motivation or ways of thinking. Therefore, to achieve this, a positive classroom environment has a significant impact on student learning. (APA, 1997)

2.2 Motivational and affective factors

This group focuses on motivation as one of the factors that influence learners’ performance. To provide an understanding of what motivation means, Williams and Burden (1997) offer a model of motivation that suggests that it is a complex construct that is divided into two categories based on whether the motivational influence is internal and external. Within these two categories, they distinguish a number of subcomponents. For the reference, the framework of L2 motivation is provided in the appendices.

The first principle, Motivational and emotional influences on learning, discusses motivation as a factor that fundamentally influences what and how much is learned, as well as, the fact that “Motivation to learn is influenced by the individual’s emotional states, beliefs, interests and goals, and habits of thinking.” (APA, 1997, p. 3) Dörnyei (2007) explains that certain emotional states influence motivation and learners’ performance. He exemplifies anxiety, fear or hopelessness as emotions that detract from motivation and contribute to low performance while positive emotions such as curiosity centre on learner’s intrinsic motivation and therefore generally enhance and facilitate learning and performance. To sum it up, positive classroom environment generally improves learning which is directly connected to the concept of humanistic tradition discussed above.

The second principle within this group discusses intrinsic motivation to learn. As it is apparent from the context, teachers using learner-centred principles should aim to learners’ intrinsic motivation rather than extrinsic. APA (1997, p. 2) points out that “the learner’s creativity, higher order thinking, and natural curiosity all contribute to motivation to learn.” Dörnyei (2007) supports this claim by pointing out that such motivation is closely connected to learners’ interest in and

anticipated enjoyment of the language learning activity. He believes that the key to generating interest is to arouse students' curiosity and attention by pointing out challenging, exotic or satisfying aspects of L2 learning or connecting L2 learning with activities that students already find interesting.

Dörnyei (2007) also suggests that motivation not only needs to be generated but also successfully maintained throughout the whole process. It could be done by creating tasks of optimal novelty and difficulty that are comparable to real-world situations, meet needs for choice and control and are perceived by learners as interesting, personally relevant and meaningful, and on which they believe they can succeed. (APA, 1997)

Effect of motivation on the effort is the third principle within this group that puts stress on the fact that: "Acquisition of complex knowledge and skills requires extensive learner effort and guided practice. Without learners' motivation to learn, willingness to exert this effort is unlikely without coercion." (APA, 1997, p. 4)

Dörnyei (2007) characterises effort as one of the causes to what students usually attribute their success or failure. He suggests that teachers should avoid emphasising the importance of ability and instead should highlight the role of effort. By making learners believe that higher level of effort leads to the greater possibility of success, teachers make learners more willing to invest energy and effort along with persistence over time. Effective strategies include providing effort feedback which means that teachers should encourage learners to explain their failures by the lack of effort or the choice of appropriate learning strategy rather than their inability. APA (1997) points out the interconnection of this principle with other principles within this group, as stimulating positive emotions, intrinsic motivation, and methods that increase learners' perceptions that a task is interesting and personally relevant are suggested as strategies that enhance effort.

2.3 Developmental and social factors

The third group centres on factors which recognise that learning is an interactive process. That is, learning occurs best when "differential development within and across physical, intellectual, emotional, and social domains is taken into account." (APA, 1997, p. 4) Teachers need to develop

an awareness and understanding of developmental differences among children with and without emotional, physical, or intellectual disabilities to create appropriate materials to avoid overemphasis on one type of developmental readiness, for example reading readiness, which may preclude learners from demonstrating off their capability in other areas of performance. (APA, 1997)

To sum it up, teachers should take into account these differences when choosing appropriate tasks and teaching techniques for different learners but also for different age groups which means, for example, to avoid paying too much attention to reading and writing when teaching young learners.

At the same time, the importance of social influences on learning is stressed as learning is enhanced by opportunities to interact and to engage cooperatively in learning tasks. Cooperation is strongly advocated by Kasíková (2007) who proposes several principles that form the concept of Cooperative learning. Firstly, it focuses on positive interdependence which means that each member of the group is responsible for the success of the group as a whole. Secondly, face-to-face interaction enhances the development of social skills and provides opportunities for oral practice. The third principle is an individual responsibility which means that every member of the group has a particular role to play in completing the activity. Lastly, she points out social skills, as such activities provide opportunities to use various skills such as leadership, decision-making or conflict management.

Therefore, activities that allow social interaction need to be created in the classroom and the teachers should respect for diversity and encourage flexible thinking and social competence. According to APA (1997), in these activities learners have an opportunity for perspective taking and reflective thinking that may lead to higher level of cognitive, social, and moral development, as well as self-esteem. Kasíková (2016) proposes several methods that promote cooperation such as discussion, problem-solving activities, project work, simulation or role-play.

Dörnyei points out a number of benefits of cooperative learning including the fact that it fosters group cohesiveness meaning that:

“When students work together they tend to like each other regardless of ethnic, cultural, class or ability differences. This is because in cooperative situations students are dependent on each other and Motivational Strategies in the language classroom share common goals, which in turn create a feeling of solidarity and comradesly supportiveness.” (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 100-101)

This principle is in accordance with Community Language Learning mentioned above that focuses on the relationship between students and the teacher and among students, as positive climate helps learners feel safe to share ideas, actively participate in the activities and create a sense of community. (APA, 1997)

2.4 Individual differences factors

The last group centres on the inherent differences among learners and on the need for teachers to take into account these differences when designing learning tasks. Tomlinson (2014) explains that even though today's teachers work with a classroom where students are approximately the same age, the teachers still need to take into account different learner's needs. She states that: "Teachers who differentiate provide specific alternatives for individuals to learn as deeply as possible and as quickly as possible, without assuming one student's road map for learning is identical to anyone else's." (Tomlinson, 2014, p. 4) Furthermore, she provides an explanation that:

"A differentiated classroom is, of necessity, student-centered. Students are the workers. The teacher coordinates time, space, materials, and activities. Her effectiveness increases as students learn to help themselves, their teacher, and one another achieve group and individual goals." (Tomlinson, 2014, p. 21)

The first principle in this group revolves around individual differences in learning. This principle stresses the fact that learners are born with and develop their own capabilities and they have acquired their own unique preferences for how they like to learn and the pace at which they learn through a variety of diverse experience, and there is a need for teachers to help learners reflect on these preferences and expand or modify them, if they are not useful in helping learners reach their goals. (APA, 1997)

Tomlinson (2014) describes these differences in ways in which a learner prefers to learn as learning profiles and stresses the importance for teachers to differentiate based on learning profiles. She exemplifies that:

"Some students need to discuss concepts with peers to learn them well. Others work better alone and through writing rather than a group discussion. Whereas some students learn easily from part-to-whole, others need to see the big picture before specific parts make sense. Some students prefer logical or analytical approaches to learning. Other classmates prefer creative, application-oriented lessons." (Tomlinson, 2014, p. 19)

The second principle discusses differences among learners' linguistic, cultural, and social background. Because of these differences, teachers need to pay attention to diversity with respect to language, ethnicity, race, beliefs, and socioeconomic status. Teachers who are able to accommodate such diversity in their learning tasks and context can enhance levels of motivation and achievement. (APA, 1997)

The last principle focuses on assessment; APA (1997) points out that learners need to feel challenged to learn effectively. Setting appropriately high and challenging standards on the learner as well as learning progress are integral parts of the learning process. What is more, an ongoing assessment is necessary to inform both learners and teachers about the progress towards the learning goals.

Regarding learner-centeredness, self- and peer assessment seem to be major factors, as opposed to the non-learner-centred classroom where the assessment is done primarily by the teacher. Nevertheless, learner-centeredness promotes active involvement of the learner in the teaching-learning processes which implies that the learner should also take responsibility for the area of assessment. As APA (1997) suggests, it can improve learners' self-appraisal skills and enhance motivation and self-directed learning. Dörnyei (2007, p. 105) argues that: "self-assessment raises the learners' awareness of the mistakes and successes of their own learning, and gives them a concrete sense of participation in the learning process." Scrivener (2005) suggests that teachers might distribute a list of criteria, ask students to evaluate themselves against each criterion and then encourage a discussion in small groups where would learners reflect on what they wrote.

Likewise, learners benefit from peer assessment. Campbell and Kryszewska (1992) suggest that to be able to correct each other, learners have to pay attention which enhances their ability to work together and learn from each other. They also point out the fact that if activities encourage peer correction, this way group work genuinely becomes cooperative language learning which is in accordance with another learner-centred principle discussed in Section 2.3.

3 Characteristics of the learner-centred classroom

The chapter will provide a characteristic of the L-C classroom since the principles discussed in the previous chapter are reflected in the roles that teachers and learners assume as well as in benefits and disadvantages that L-C teaching brings to the classroom.

3.1 The role of the learner

With a change from teacher-centeredness to learner-centeredness, learners assumed different roles in a learner-centred language classroom. They are no longer treated as passive receivers of knowledge, but they need to contribute to their own learning. As Nunan (2000) suggests, in a traditional language classroom learners are cast into passive, reproductive roles by only practising patterns provided by teachers, textbooks, and tapes rather than learning how to use language creatively themselves. He explains that they only learn how to communicate in model situations, but they are not able to respond appropriately in authentic situations.

However, in a learner-centred learning context, the learner becomes an active participant in the learning process. Tudor (1993) explains that to shift the focus from teachers to learners, they need to develop awareness in the following areas. Firstly, they need to be aware of themselves as language learners which is related to their motivation to learn as well as the amount of effort they are willing to put in, and their attitudes to the target language and to the process of learning itself. Secondly, they need to develop awareness of their learning goals which involves developing an understanding of why they are studying the target language and their current abilities in the language together with the ability to analyse and discuss their goals. Thirdly, they should be aware of their learning options including various learning strategies, study options, and resources they can use. Lastly, Tudor believes that students need to develop language awareness to get an idea of how the language is structured and used in different meanings and registers

Nunan (2000) explains another important factor in learner-centeredness, and that is the creativity principle. It means that in the classroom in which it is activated, learners are given opportunities to use the language in new, unexpected ways, and they are provided with the language that they will need to respond appropriately to new situations in the world outside of the classroom. Tasks are

designed in a way that “allow learners to practice identifying the key grammar and vocabulary in the real-world texts and to develop the skills of reading, writing, speaking and listening in an integrated way, just as in authentic communicative situations.” (Nunan, 2000, p. 70)

Cooperation with other learners but also with their teachers is also an important factor to make a creative use of the language they have learned. Nunan (2000, p. 70) claims that: “In this way, classrooms themselves act as a bridge to the outside world rather than as a linguistic quarantine station where learners are protected from the risks involved in having to engage in genuine communication.”

3.2 The role of the teacher

To provide a better comparison, this chapter will cover a brief depiction of the traditional³ roles of the teacher as well as a description of the roles that teachers assume in a learner-centred environment.

Tudor (1993) compares the roles that teachers assume in a teacher-fronted classroom and the learner-centred roles that teachers perform. He points out two primary roles that teachers perform in the traditional setting of the classroom. The first is called a knower which means that the teacher functions as a source of knowledge both in term of the target language and the choice of methodology. He plays a figure of authority which decides on what should be done and how this should be done. The second role that Tudor describes is an activity organiser who sets up and steers learning activities in the right direction, motivates and encourages students and provides feedback on their performance.

To conclude it, in the traditional classroom teacher becomes a controlling element in the classroom who has all the responsibility for learning or choice of the topics. Harmer (2001) defines such role as a controller which is the role that exemplifies the qualities of a teacher-fronted classroom which is a transmission of knowledge from the controllers to their students.

³ Traditional roles are understood as roles that teachers assume in transmission teaching.

On the contrary, as Weimer (2002) describes, the role of the teacher has changed with a shift from teacher-centred to learner-centred education, the teacher has to adopt a facilitative role serving as a model to his/her students. Weimer lists several metaphors that have been used to convey the characteristics of this role. She uses a metaphor of a gardener who prepares the ground, tills and cultivates but his plants do the growing. (Fox, 1983 cited in Weimer, 2002)

Kafumu (2010) describes the role of the facilitator as a teacher who focuses on learners' needs, interests and abilities, who promotes peer communication, discovery, problem-solving, and active learning which enhances learners' involvement in teaching-learning processes and an active interaction between teachers and students. Similarly, Weimer (2002) suggests a description of a facilitator as a teacher whose role is to connect students and resources, design activities and assignments that engage learners, facilitate learning in individual and collective contexts and model from their vast experience for novice learners how challenging material can be accessed, explored and understood.

Other roles proposed include the roles of guides, designers of the learning experience, and learning counsellor (Tudor, 1993) It is important to realise that teachers' roles may change during the whole lesson and that they often overlap. Richards and Lockhart (1994) exemplify that:

“In the opening phases of a lesson where the teacher is modeling new language patterns, the teacher may be particularly concerned with planning and quality control. At a later stage of the lesson where students are working independently, the teacher's role may be that of a facilitator. The way in which teachers interpret their roles leads to differences in the way they approach their teaching. It leads to differences in how teachers understand the dynamics of an effective lesson and consequently different patterns of classroom behavior and classroom interaction” (Richards and Lockhart, 1994, p. 106)

An important note that was made by Weimer (2002) is that while teachers are expected to assume new roles, what do they do with the traditional ones? Weimer explains that the roles have not changed from the traditional ones, but the difference is that the role has been proposed as an alternative in the past whereas with learner-centred teaching it is not optional. Tudor (1993) also believes that teachers do not need to get rid of their traditional roles as knower and activity organiser mentioned above, they simply need to assume some new roles.

3.3 Benefits of learner-centeredness

It is apparent from the previously discussed chapters that numerous advantages emerge from the learner-centred approach. A summary of these benefits will be provided here, as the conviction is that this method brings significant benefits to the language classroom.

Learner-centred teaching promotes a high level of learner autonomy, as learners are both given responsibility for creating their own goals as well as an opportunity to be the main creator of the knowledge. As Nunan (2012, p. 104) states: “Learners who have reached a point where they are able to define their own goals and create their own learning opportunities have, by definition, become autonomous.”

Another key factor in learner-centeredness is motivation. As it was mentioned in Section 2.2, such approach enhances learners’ internal motivation, which is closely connected to goals setting as Hamer (2001, p. 53) points out: “motivation is closely bound up with a person’s desire to achieve a goal”. Motivation is also connected to the learning environment, as “there is a need for a supportive, cooperative environment to suit the various learner types and the teacher’s rapport with the students it critical to creating right conditions for motivated learning.” (Hamer, 2001, p. 53) Interesting classes according to Harmer also enhance intrinsic motivation, as:

“If students are to be intrinsically motivated they clearly need to be interested both in the subject they are studying and in the activities and topics they are presented with. We need to provide them with a variety of subjects and exercises to keep them engaged. (Harmer, 2001, p. 53-54)

It can be concluded that LC highly promotes learners’ intrinsic motivation, as goals, positive learning environment and task that respond to individual learners’ interests are included in the previously discussed learner-centred principles.

As it was already mentioned, learning is most meaningful to the learners when the topics are relevant to them, as Campbell and Kryszewska (1992, p. 8) confirm:

“Learner-based teaching allows us to introduce local and international issues and ideas which are of current interest to particular groups, for example, elections, cultural events, or scientific developments. Learner input may be especially important where there is no up-to-date English-language coverage of such topics available.”

But not only differentiated topics improve learning, but also tasks that respond to learners' needs regarding learning profiles and, cultural and social backgrounds. Thanks to these differences the lesson could become more variable, thus enjoyable for the learners.

Peer activities, as well as peer correction, are following factors from which learners may benefit. They develop social competence, as learners are encouraged to work together and learn from each other. They develop a sense of group solidarity, and they are working "with one another, not in competition with one another." (Campbell and Kryszewska, 1992, p. 9)

Last but not least, it is evident that in a language classroom, learner-centeredness allows learners with opportunities to use the language actively and interactively which makes the learning more effective than just hearing and passively repeating the language.

3.4 Disadvantages of learner-centeredness

Expectably some problems may arise when implementing learner-centeredness into the teaching-learning process. Campbell and Kryszewska have summarised these issues into three areas: learner resistance, demands on the teacher and external restraints

3.4.1 Learner resistance

Campbell and Kryszewska (1992) suggest that learners bring different preconceptions about the learning process to the classroom, such as some learners may think that they are learning only by talking and listening to the teacher and consider working with other learners as useless. Some learners may have rather competitive than cooperative character, or some of them may have low self-esteem which precludes them from contributing to the lesson. The fact that the learners' concept of teaching and learning may be entirely different from that of the teachers' is also confirmed by Richards and Rodgers (1994) who state that:

"When learners and teachers meet for the first time, they may bring with them different expectations concerning not only the learning process in general but also concerning what will be learned in a particular course and how it will be learned." (Brindley, 1984, p. 95 cited in Richards and Lockhart, 1994, p. 34)

Richards and Lockhart (1994) suggest that assumptions that learners and teachers bring to the classroom may have a significant effect on the teaching-learning process and if they do not meet, it might lead to learners undervaluing an activity assigned by the teachers. These assumptions are created by learners based on their previous learning experience but also based on their culture which is confirmed by saying that:

“Language learners might value some language learning strategies which the teacher may try to discourage. For example, students from a culture where rote learning and memorization are widely used may think that these are useful strategies in learning English. However, their teacher may come from a culture where such strategies are not valued and may try to discourage their use by learners.” (Richards and Lockhart, 1994, p. 55)

Campbell and Kryszewska (1992) suggest to introduce learner-centeredness gradually and be sensitive to learners’ opinions before adopting a new way of working with them. This gradual implementation of learner-centred principles into language teaching is also advocated by Nunan and Lamb (1996) who state that:

“It is not desirable to thrust self-instruction and self-directed learning on to learners who are resistant to it, and it is very important that those of us who are enthusiastic about self-instruction do not confuse the idea, or our enthusiasm to introduce it, with the learners’ ability or willingness to undertake it. I believe that the way forward is to introduce into the learning program elements which train learners towards greater autonomy and aim towards a gradual development towards full autonomy.” (Dickinson, 1987, p. 1-2 cited in Nunan and Lamb: 1996, p. 156)

3.4.2 Demands on the teacher

Another problem that may arise is that learner-centeredness puts high demands on the teacher who is “faced with the responsibility for the sequence of events in the classroom, a role which is normally left to the coursebook in conventional teaching.” (Campbell and Kryszewska, 1992, p. 10) Nunan (1996:43) points out the importance of planning a lesson, as “the potential success or failure of a lesson will often be determined by the amount of planning and preparation the teacher is able to devote to the lesson, class or unit of work.” Planning a lesson is crucial as many learner-centred activities are interdependent which require the teacher to have a clear idea of where the activity is going, how it is organised, and the teacher must give accurate and precise instruction. If the teacher fails in doing this, the learners might be confused and not produce the material necessary for the activity to continue. (Campbell and Kryszewska, 1992)

3.4.3 External restraints

Finally, what seems to be the biggest issues that teachers need to deal with is an external syllabus, which the teacher is required to follow, that does not allow for full implementation of learner-centeredness. Nunan explains that if a language is a system for expressing meanings and if different learners communicate differently, then these differences should be reflected in the syllabus which means that “there ought to be different syllabuses for different learners“. (Nunan, 2000, p. 51)

From the learners' point of view such individualised syllabuses might be advantageous, however, as there are curricular documents that restrain teachers from adjusting syllabuses to individual learners' need, it is not realistic in the Czech Republic which will be commented on in the next paragraph. Richards and Lockhart (1994) explain that many teachers would prefer to make decisions about syllabus content based on students need. With that being said, it is evident, that there is a conflict between the teachers' persuasion and an external syllabus that they need to follow.

Education in the Czech Republic is defined by the System of Curricular Documents. National Education Programme defines education in general, and it is followed by Framework Education Programme (RVP) that defines an obligatory framework for creating School Education Programme. This document was incorporated into the education system of the Czech Republic by law No.561/2004 Coll. on Preschool, Basic, Secondary, Tertiary Professional and Other Education. Framework Education Programme for Basic Education (RVP ZV) determines specific objectives, forms, length and content of education as well as the organisational structure, professional profile, conditions of education and the ways and procedures of the final evaluation and the main principles for the development of the School Education Programme. (RVP, part A, p. 5-6)

Framework Education Programme for Basic Education defines several aims that are directly in accordance with learner-centeredness, such as that basic education should allow learners to adopt various learning strategies, promote creative thinking and problem-solving, lead them to communicate, it should develop their ability to cooperate, and it should allow learners to develop their individual skills. (RVP, part C, p. 8-9)

Although this document specifically determines the content and expected outcomes of lower-secondary education, it seems that it also promotes individual learners' needs and allows the teachers to contribute to creating the syllabus on the level of individual subjects in School Education Programme. Therefore, provided that they meet the expected content and outcomes, they might design a syllabus that is in accordance with learner-centeredness. However, even though there is a potential involvement, the syllabus often appears as external which creates restrictions that might be the reason why teachers may not deal with individual learners' needs, as they might have to cover the obligatory topics or grammatical structures.

Campbell and Kryszewska (1992, p. 10) suggest that: "Even if the teacher is required to follow an external syllabus, it may still be possible to cover parts of the syllabus using learner-based activities."

It is evident from the discussion of the problems that implementing learner-centeredness is a process that is time-consuming and that puts high demands both on the learner and the teacher which might preclude teachers from promoting learner-centeredness in the classroom. Moreover, even if the teachers would like to implement learner-centred principles in their classroom, they are faced with external restrictions that regulate what they need to do and when they need to do it. It is an important issue that needs to be dealt with even to start the process. With that being said, it seems unlikely that teachers would fully implement this approach in the context of Czech educational system. Despite these problems, it is believed that the benefits teachers find when trying some of the activities are worthy and will persuade to try to use more.

4 Lower-secondary learner

4.1 Definition of the lower-secondary learner

Lower-secondary learners are understood as learners who attend lower-secondary schools that are classified by International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED). ISCED was designed to serve as a framework to classify education programmes using a cross-classification variable: levels of education. The purpose was to create a framework that would provide cross-nationally comparable data. (ISCED, 2011, p. 6)

ISCED refers to lower-secondary education as level 2 of education which typically varies from 2 to 5 years (4 years in the Czech Republic). According to ISCED, programmes at level 2 are usually designed to build on the learning outcomes from ISCED level 1. Programmes are usually organised around a subject-oriented curriculum, and they introduce theoretical concepts across a variety of subjects. (ISCED, 2011, p. 33)

A typical age of students who enter level 2 varies from the age of 10 to 13. However, the age 12 is the most common, which also applies to education in the Czech Republic. With that being said, it can be concluded that the term lower-secondary learner in the Czech Republic refers to the learner usually of the age of 12 to the age of 15. Many writers refer to this period of life as pubescence and characterise learners as teenagers.

4.2 Characteristics of the lower-secondary learner

Scrivener (2005) suggests that although teenage classes might be among the most exciting and learners might be motivated and focused especially on things relevant to themselves; the teachers definitely consider them the most demanding. There are several teenage-related problems which might require teachers to have a few specific techniques. Scrivener (2005) and Harmer (2001) agree on several problems that teachers find difficult to deal with such as teenagers might have a low self-esteem which might result in low participation in the class, for example in activities that require spoken English, simply because they might feel embarrassed. Next problem might be their motivation that might appear low especially if they are forced to do something they do not want to

and what is more, their interests usually change quickly, and they get bored. Also, teenagers are usually outspoken, and they are usually willing to state what they think or stand up to requirements they disagree with.

As Scrivener (2005) describes, these problems may arise from a lack of involvement. He suggests that especially teenagers need to feel in control which means that if they choose what to do and how to do it, they will more likely be engaged. Such approach seems to be in accordance with learner-centeredness, and it might suggest that learner-centred teaching might be especially appropriate for this group of learners.

PRACTICAL PART

5 Introduction to the research

In the theoretical part, the most important theories and an analysis of the learner-centred principles and the roles of the teacher and the learner were introduced to create a theoretical base for the research. The research was conducted in January/March 2017 in the forms of observations within six English lessons of two teachers at two elementary schools.

The choice of a qualitative research method in the form of observations was obvious since the realisation of the learner-centred principles in the classroom was explored and, as it was described in the theoretical part, these principles are not supposed to be dealt in isolation but holistically and in the context of a learning environment. The research was inspired by Gavora's (2000) unstructured observations that are characterised as a detailed, holistic, inductive and unprejudiced method. To record the classes I have used a "thick description" that Gavora describes as a method that aims to get an accurate and detailed transcript of the class. The aim was to provide a holistic record of everything that happened in the classes in the same order as it happened and as much accurate as possible. However, there are several limitations to the research. Firstly, the fact that the research was conducted within lessons of only two teachers might be a limitation, since no general conclusion whether and how the teachers use the learner-centred principles in lower-secondary English classrooms cannot be drawn. Secondly, the research was conducted within only two weeks. Therefore the representation of lessons during the whole school year might be distorted.

The research focuses on the realisation of the learner-centred principles in lower secondary English classes. The aim of the practical part of the thesis was formulated into two research questions.

- Do the teachers in lower secondary English classes use learner-centred principles?
- How do teachers use the principles?

6 Data collection

The research was conducted within two elementary schools, with the cooperation of two English teachers. In respect of research ethics, the names of the particular educational institutions or the teachers are not mentioned. Twelve English lessons were observed in total in the seventh and eighth grade. The number of observed lessons in each grade was six, and I did not participate in the lessons.

One lesson was dedicated to pilot the observation sheet to test the choice of the unstructured observations as a research method to avoid possible complications. I have tested the observation sheet at the same elementary school in the eighth grade where the observations took place. I have decided to make notes in English. However, when I needed to describe what was happening quickly, I used Czech in order to make sure to note down as much as possible. There were no complications when testing the observation sheet, and the choice seemed rather convenient as many activities overlapped and to analyse the principles the description, as well as the overall impression of the lesson were needed.

The observation sheet was divided into the introductory part and a part for a description of the lesson. In the introductory section, the number of the observation sheet according to the order in which the lessons were observed is provided. Then the date, time, the grade and the observed teachers are noted. The description part was recorded in the same order as the activities took place in the class. Additionally, not only activities but also any other comments or situations were described to maintain the authenticity of the observation.

7 Data analysis

According to the aforementioned theoretical background, learning is most effective when it is goal-oriented, individualised based on learners' needs regarding learning profiles, topicality and readiness and if the learners are intrinsically motivated and they are given the opportunity to participate in the teaching-learning process actively. Regarding evaluation, it is believed that self-evaluation or peer-evaluation also enhance learning due to the fact that learners feel like they are able to interfere with the teaching-learning process.

With that being said, to analyse the collected data, I have created more general four categories based on the learner-centred principles that were analysed since it is not possible to observe every principle separately given the interdependence and interconnection of the principles.

I have divided the analysis into four categories: goal orientation, motivation, differentiation and assessment. Each category is discussed based on the observation sheets in accordance with the aim of the research, and it is compared with the learner-centred principles provided in the theoretical background. In the introductory part of each category, the first research question is answered regarding both observed teachers. Subsequently, the second research question is discussed based on how both of the teachers did actually use the principles, and finally, potential improvements are provided.

7.1 Goal orientation

The first category focuses on the goal-orientation of the learning process that was discussed in Section 2.1. As it was already mentioned, successful learners are oriented on goals that should be personally meaningful, and teachers should allow pupils negotiate their own goals as Dörnyei (2007) confirms that there is a diversity of educational goals and goals that learners pursue during their classes.

In any of the classes that were observed the goals were not explicitly stated. Even though the teachers may have set a goal for their classes, they did not communicate them in any way. Both of the teachers usually welcomed the pupils at the beginning of the lesson and immediately started

with an activity or a revision of the previous lesson. Nunan (1988) explains that with the teachers who make the goal of the lesson explicit, learners are likely to achieve a realistic idea of what should be done, they develop an awareness of their role as language learners, self-evaluation becomes more accessible and learners are more likely to perceive activities as relevant which enhances their intrinsic motivation.

In the classes that were observed it was possible to note only short term goals given the fact that the observations took two weeks. The goal of the lesson was not stated at the beginning of the lesson or at the beginning of the week in any of the observed classes. One of the principles of learner-centeredness emphasises the importance of goals that learners create themselves. In the classes, learners were not given the opportunity to state their goals either orally or in a written form. Although I have not observed teachers or learners setting the goals I have checked their textbook (Project 3) where at the end of each unit there is a “progress exercise” where they can check what they have learned in the particular unit. Given the fact that the textbook promotes self-evaluation, the goals should be formulated in the lesson as they become standards by which learners can evaluate themselves.

One of the advantages of setting goals in the classroom as Dörnyei (2007) argues is increased learner autonomy. He also explains that if teachers are interested in implementing goal-setting into their classroom, the process should be gradual which means that teachers may start with giving learners choices by listing a set of goals and ask them to commit to a particular set and gradually expand their opportunities towards full autonomy. Also once the teachers introduce it, Dörnyei suggests that teachers encourage goal-setting on a regular basis by setting weekly or monthly goals that are more realistic and achievable for the learners. This gradual process seems feasible for lower-secondary teachers as it is a planning process that although it may be quite time-consuming, it is attainable for this group of learners.

7.2 Motivation

The area of motivation as another learner-centred principle was also examined during the observations because of its interconnection with other principles and its significant influence on

the process of learning. When observing the lessons, I have focused on external and internal factors of motivation.

In the lessons of both teachers, an external motivational influence prevailed, usually in the form of marks. This could be exemplified in the activity of Teacher 2 who used marks to motivate learners to work quickly. In the activity, the first three pairs that finished the exercise first got a mark 1, however, only one pair finished the exercise quickly and even though they had a kind of “reward” a vast majority of pupils did not cooperate on the task. It may have been caused by the fact that they were not able to choose with whom they want to work with or little motivation to work together as they had two textbooks and both of them saw the exercise they were just supposed to complete it together. A Little adjustment of the activity might help with this problem. The activity was aimed to describe a house, one of the students might have been given a picture of the house, and one of the students might have been given a set of questions (such as: “What is the colour of the roof?”). If they could not see their worksheets, they would have to cooperate to complete the activity.

In the lesson of Teacher 1, marks were also a motivating factor, as teacher marked their work in the class. If the pupils repeatedly did not work on the exercises they were given; they received a mark 5. However, the pupils remained unmotivated to work on the tasks. As Covington (1992) points out one of the reasons that pupils do not participate in the lesson may be because of their fear of failure. Dörnyei (2007) points out that especially for teenagers, for whom their image is important, the risk of failure might be the reason not to participate. It is suggested that if teachers are sensitive to their pupil’s self-esteem, they are likely to respond in a positive way. As it was described in Section 2.2, learners usually attribute their success or failure to their ability. It might be avoided if teachers provide learners with effort feedback.

It seems like there is a diversity between teachers’ and learners’ perception of marks as a motivational influence. Even though teachers may try to motivate pupils by giving them marks, this effort may have the opposite effect than intended. As Williams and Burden (1997) confirm, external reinforces in the form of rewards and punishments may work in the short term, however, it has been revealed that punishments as motivators tend to not only be ineffective in bringing about positive change, but they can have the opposite effect. Williams and Burden also emphasize that relying on rewards and praise may have an adverse effect especially if learners are already

intrinsically motivated. For learners they might convey a message about the kinds of behaviour that are likely to gain approval thus their future behaviour will depend more on how their outcomes are valued by significant others than on the activity itself.

Regarding intrinsic motivation as one of the learner-centred principles, I have observed a few techniques that were used by the teachers in the observed classes. In one of the classes of the Teacher 1, the teachers used a song New York by Frank Sinatra to introduce a reading activity about New York that they did from the magazine. As Dörnyei (2007) confirms this is one of the techniques how to increase an attractiveness of the task which makes learning enjoyable for the learners which automatically enhances their intrinsic motivation. In the observed classes of the Teacher 2, I have also observed some techniques such as using humour, in one of the classes the teacher introduced the class telling pupils that they will revise grammar the whole lesson and then told them that it was a joke. The pupils seemed much more excited for the next activity. Dörnyei (2007) advocates this technique as it enhances intrinsic motivation and it also improves classroom atmosphere which definitely enhances learning as it was described in Section 2.2. In the classes that were observed, the teacher used this technique quite often which made the classes relaxed and enjoyable, as Williams (1997) confirms the teachers who have a friendly and understanding relationship with their learners foster greater learner achievement and positive attitudes towards their subject. This could be exemplified in the observed classes of Teacher 2 who at the beginning of the class chatted with pupils for a while about various topics or asked them about their previous classes. Moreover, if they wrote tests in the previous classes the teacher showed compassion with pupils' marks by saying "I'm sorry" or "Great".

7.3 Differentiation

Differentiation based on individual learners' needs is an area that is connected to several learner-centred principles discussed in Section 2.1, 2.3 and 2.4. Tomlinson (2014) suggests that teachers may differentiate based on students' learning profiles, interest and readiness. This chapter will discuss all three areas. Unfortunately, in the classes that were observed, the teachers did not seem to promote differentiation. However, several activities could be considered partly differentiated or could be potentially adapted based on pupils' individual needs.

7.3.1 Learning profiles

Differentiated learning profiles are based on learners' gender, culture, or learning styles⁴ as it was discussed in Section 2.4. In the observed classes of Teacher 2, there was an activity that had a potential to be differentiated based on pupils' learning styles. When the teacher introduced a new topic and a new vocabulary in the first observed lesson, the pupils were given the opportunity to practise the new vocabulary using different learning styles. They were able to learn visually when the teacher used pictures using Quizlet to introduce the vocabulary. Auditory learners benefited when the teacher played the recording, and they were supposed to order them in the same order as in the recording as well as kinaesthetic learners benefited in this activity as the pupils were moving the pieces of paper and sticking them to the blackboard. Learners who prefer reading/writing learning style were given the opportunity to write the words next to the pictures on the blackboard. Although implementing activities that aimed at all the learning styles while presenting a new vocabulary is definitely a step forward towards learner-centeredness, the pupils were not given a choice on which part they want to participate. To differentiate according to learner-centred principles, the activity might be modified to let pupils choose if they want to learn visually, by listening, by writing/reading or if they prefer kinesthetic learning.

Unfortunately, in the classes of Teacher 1. I have not observed any differentiated activities. In every class, one or two of the pupils were orally examined while others worked individually on an exercise from their workbook. They might have been given a choice how would they prefer to be examined. Moreover, the pupils who worked individually during the examination might have been given a choice of activities based on their learning styles, or they might have been offered to use different learning strategies such as inductive or deductive learning (it applies for teaching/learning grammar too). Moreover, when presenting a new vocabulary, the teacher only read the words and the pupils repeated them. Learning vocabulary is an activity that could be easily adapted to learners' needs for example by using various learning strategies that would reflect various pupils' learning styles.

According to learner-centred principles, learners should be empowered by teachers to use a variety of learning strategies which seem to be especially applicable to learning grammar. In the observed

⁴ See Fleming's VAKR model.

classes, both teachers taught grammar only once which makes it impossible to make any general conclusions, for that reason following analysis only applies to the observed activities.

Teacher 1 used deductive approach when presenting new grammar (the difference between too and enough) and wrote notes on the blackboard that pupils copied into their notebooks then the pupils were asked to complete an exercise in their workbooks where they chose between too/enough in the given sentences, whereas Teacher 2 taught grammar rather inductively. When presenting new grammar, the teacher used a video that pupils saw where the people used sentences like “It looks great.” “It sounds great.”. The teacher asked pupils to find two verbs that people in the video used in these sentences and then asked them what the following word was. Then the teacher created several sentences that seemed quite relatable for the pupils such as: “I like math.” and the pupils reacted using It sounds + an adjective. Then they switched the roles, and the pupils created their own sentences, and the teacher reacted.

Even though none of the teachers gave learners an opportunity to choose a learning strategy according to their preference, which means that the activities cannot be considered differentiated, hence they might also seem as non-learner-centred, the activity of Teacher 2 seems to be slightly more in accordance with learner-centeredness, especially the second part, as Nunan (2012) advocates that grammar should be taught communicatively to enable learners to use grammar in order to express different communicative meanings.

7.3.2 Topicality/Interest

Differentiation based on individual learners’ interests could be done by adapting topics to learners’ needs. Although such process might be time-consuming as it requires teachers to do an analysis of the pupils’ interests and then adapt topics to the learners, it is definitely worth it as it was mentioned above that tasks that learners perceive as interesting enhance their intrinsic motivation to learn.

When choosing the topics, both of the teachers in the classes that I observed used solely the topics that were given by the textbook. Although Teacher 1 also used a magazine in the classes, the pupils were not given an opportunity to choose the topic. There was a potential if the teacher wants to use something else than the textbook in the classes, the pupils might at least choose the topic from the

magazine. Also, when the teacher orally examined the pupils, they were given a topic in advance from the magazine about which they were supposed to talk about a few minutes. If the learners were given a chance to choose the topic from the magazine or maybe an entirely different topic that they are interested in, the likelihood that the learners would not be prepared for the examination might decrease. In the observed classes, it happened two times that pupils were not prepared and they were given a mark 5.

Similarly, Teacher 2 in the lesson also relied on the textbook regarding the topics. The teacher followed the topics in the textbook, however, did not follow the exercises in the textbook explicitly. The teacher often used the Interactive Whiteboard in the classes rather than the textbook. Pupils might perceive using technology as interesting in comparison with the textbook which might be beneficial in the classes as such technique may increase their intrinsic motivation which was discussed above.

Both teachers in the observed classes gave learners quite often an opportunity to create their own sentences when presenting a new grammar or when doing a reading activity. This could be exemplified in the lesson of Teacher 1 where the pupils did a reading activity about different sightseeing in New York in pairs, and then they were supposed to choose one place that they think people should visit in New York and write five sentences why should people visit the place.

Despite obvious benefits that differentiation based on learners' interest brings to the classes, the teachers are limited by the Framework Education Programme for Basic Education that specifically defines the content of education which may preclude teachers from adapting topics to learners' needs as it was already discussed in Section 3.4.3.

7.3.3 Readiness

According to Tomlinson (2014) readiness refers to student's entry point regarding knowledge, understanding or skills. This area was defined in Section 2.3 where it was emphasised that teachers should take into account these differences among children.

In the observed classes of Teacher 1, I have observed only differentiation based on learners' special needs where pupils with dyslexia did not write the vocabulary test, but they were examined orally. In other tasks, all pupils participated equally. In the classes of both of the teachers that were observed, the tasks seemed to be appropriate for the pupils' developmental level. It appeared that they were not asked to do activities that would be beyond their intellectual, social, emotional or physical development.

What is more, the time I spent observing the lessons was too limited to make any conclusions about pupils' developmental readiness in any of the aforementioned domains and for that reason, it is not possible to provide a detailed analysis of this area.

7.4 Assessment

The area of assessment is the last but not least principle that was examined during the observations in classes. This chapter will be analysed based on the learner-centred principle described in Section 2.4 where the importance of self- and peer assessment was emphasised. This principle is closely connected to the chapter where the goal-orientation of the classes was analysed as goals set standards by which self-evaluation becomes much more accessible to the learners. Unfortunately, integration of self- or peer evaluation seems to be quite neglected by both of the teachers.

As it was already mentioned both teachers work with the textbook (Project 3) that promotes self-evaluation, however, I was not able to observe how do the teachers work with this activity in the textbook. In most of the observed classes of both of the teachers, learners were evaluated exclusively by the teachers. The feedback in each activity was provided orally immediately after pupils' response and the teachers mostly focused on accuracy. The teachers provided feedback by either verbal praise or by following correction of the incorrect answers or the incorrect pronunciation. In the observed classes, Teacher 1 usually praised pupils by saying "excellent" as well as Teacher 2 who praised pupils by saying "nice", "ok", "not bad". In the classes of Teacher 1 evaluation of an oral examination and a written vocabulary test was realised in the form of marks. Similarly, Teacher 2 used marks as a tool to evaluate pupils which was discussed in Section 8.2.

It is evident that such evaluation is not in accordance with learner-centred principles, however, in the classes of Teacher 2, I have observed two activities that could be considered an inclination towards peer evaluation. In the first activity, the pupils were supposed to write the words next to the pictures on the board, and afterwards, the teacher asked them if there were any mistakes and asked them to correct them. However, the teacher corrected the mistakes on the board. In the second activity, the teacher asked two pupils to go in front of the board and one pupil to take a piece of paper and correct the pupils and count their points. The teacher showed pupils pictures, and they were supposed to say what is in the picture. The pupil who counted their point decided who was quicker and if the word was correct and gave the pupil a point. Afterwards, the pupil counted all the points and announced the winner.

Likewise, in the classes of Teacher 1, there were several activities where the pupils might have been given a chance to assess their performance or their peers' performance. For example, when the teacher orally examined the pupils at the beginning of each class, they might have been given a chance to evaluate their performance based on criteria that would be stated in advance. Such approach to self-assessment is advocated by Scrivener (2005) which was already stated in Section 2.4. Also, in the observed classes of both teachers, peer evaluation appeared randomly when the teachers asked pupils to correct other pupils or provide them with a cue, however, such assessment seemed rather unintentional.

8 Conclusion of the thesis

The aim of the thesis was to find out whether the teachers use learner-centred principles in lower-secondary English classes and how do the teachers use them. Despite the current conviction that the learner should be in the centre of the teaching learning processes and education should be as much individualised based on learners' needs as possible which is in accordance with learner-centred approach thus implementing its principles into teaching might be anticipated, the research proved otherwise. Nevertheless, the findings in the thesis do not indicate that the teachers' approach is not right as there is no agreement about the right or wrong approaches to teaching in general.

The research revealed the fact that the learner-centred principles were hardly ever used or not used at all in the observed classes and the use of the principles seemed rather random and unintentional. Given the fact that the principles are supposed to be dealt holistically, it can be concluded that none of the observed classes was in accordance with learner-centeredness. However, there were several activities, especially in classes of Teacher 2, in which the potential to implement learner-centred principles was apparent. These activities were subsequently discussed with the teachers and several modifications of activities in accordance with learner-centeredness were proposed. The teachers agreed with the suggestion to implement the learner-centred principles into teaching gradually and in spite of several restraints attempt to cover parts of the syllabus using learner-centeredness which is highly recommended by Campbell and Kryszewska (1992).

To summarise the bachelor thesis, learner-centeredness is a topic that deserves much more attention. Although many authors highlight the positive effects of this approach especially regarding language learning, only a few of many publications are dedicated exclusively to language learning. Moreover, it might be concluded that the reason for not implementing learner-centred principles, particularly in the Czech Republic, may not be just a matter of teachers' conviction but it might be the need for school redesign as the purpose of these principles was to create a framework for school redesign.

9 Resumé

Tato bakalářská práce se zabývá výukou zaměřenou na žáka a jejím využitím při výuce anglického jazyka na druhém stupni základní školy a v nižších třídách víceletých gymnázií.

Práce je rozdělena na dvě části, teoretickou a praktickou. Teoretická část v první kapitole nejprve popisuje historický vývoj principů výuky zaměřené na žáka, soustředí se na její počátek, zejména v myšlenkách Jeana Jacquese Rousseaua, který mezi prvními popsal ideu vzdělávání, které odpovídá potřebám dítěte. Následuje seznámení s vybranými směry v psychologii, resp. s myšlenkami autorů, kteří byli s těmito směry spojeni a přispěli k rozvoji takto orientovaných myšlenek. Zejména pak myšlenka sociálního konstruktivismu spojená s prací Lva Semjonoviče Vygotského, která zdůrazňuje propojenost vzdělávání a sociálního kontextu. Další z autorů, který významně přispěl k vývoji výuky zaměřené na žáka, byl John Dewey. Dewey postavil dítě do středu vzdělávání a tento postoj přirovnal ke Koperníkově revoluci. V neposlední řadě se pak tato kapitola práce věnuje metodám a přístupům k výuce angličtiny, důraz klade zejména na humanistické koncepty vyučování a zdůrazňuje především ty principy, které tyto metody sdílí s výukou zaměřenou na žáka.

Druhá kapitola se zabývá principy výuky zaměřené na žáka, které byly formulovány v roce 1997 za účelem vytvoření rámce pro školní reformu. Tento dokument obsahuje čtrnáct principů rozdělených do čtyř skupin. První skupina definuje metakognitivní a kognitivní faktory, které obsahují principy přímo propojené s myšlenkami konstruktivismu popsaného v první kapitole. Tyto principy zdůrazňují důležitost cílů ve vzdělávání, a to zejména těch, které si žák stanoví sám. Neméně důležitý je také princip, který se zaměřuje na výukové strategie a schopnost žáka využívat těchto strategií k dosažení cílů. Důraz je také kladen na pozitivní klima třídy, které, dle těchto principů, významně ovlivňuje učení. Další skupinou, mající vliv na učení, jsou motivační a afektivní faktory. Motivace je, pro potřeby této práce, definována na základě modelu vnitřní a vnější motivace (přílohou této práce). Hlavním cílem, z pohledu výuky zaměřené na žáka, je pak především vnitřní motivace, kterou je třeba u žáka nejen vzbudit, ale také ji udržet. Vliv motivace na snahu je další z principů této skupiny, a to zejména proto, že tomuto faktoru obvykle sami žáci přisuzují svůj úspěch nebo neúspěch, čímž výrazně ovlivňuje jejich motivaci. Další skupinou principů, definující učení jako interaktivní proces, jsou vývojové a sociální faktory. Tyto

poukazují na vývojové rozdíly mezi dětmi a nutnost, a tedy i potřebu, vytvoření materiálů, které nekladou přílišný důraz na jeden typ vývojové připravenosti, stejně tak tyto principy vyzvedávají důležitost sociálních vlivů a doporučují zařazení kooperativních aktivit do výuky. Tento princip je plně v souladu s přístupem k výuce popsaným v první kapitole, který se nazývá Community Language Learning. Závěrem druhé kapitoly je diskutována také poslední skupina těchto principů, která se soustředí na individuální rozdíly mezi žáky a pak na potřebu, resp. apel na učitele brát ve výuce zřetel na tyto rozdíly. Dle této skupiny principů by výuka měla být diferenciována na základě jejich preferencí v učení a tyto preference by měly být reflektovány ve výukových strategiích. V neposlední řadě výuka zaměřená na žáka podporuje aktivní účast žáka na procesu učení a výuky, což znamená jeho aktivní účast na hodnocení. Principy takto orientované výuky zdůrazňují důležitost sebehodnocení a hodnocení vrstevníků. Sebehodnocení přispívá k motivaci a autonomii žáka, stejně tak, jako hodnocení vrstevníků prospívá žákům tím, že podporuje spolupráci.

Následující třetí kapitola pak představuje třídu, ve které je využívána výuka zaměřená na žáka. Úvod této kapitoly se zaměřuje na roli žáka, kterou charakterizuje s pomocí opačného konceptu výuky a zdůrazňuje tak, že s žákem už není zacházeno jako s pasivním příjemcem znalostí, ale jako s aktivním spoluúčastníkem na procesu učení. Role žáka přímo reflektují principy popsané v předchozí kapitole, a to zejména ve smyslu motivace, stanovování cílů, využití výukových strategií a dalších principů, na kterých se žáci aktivně podílejí. Následně se tato kapitola věnuje roli učitele, která je charakterizována na stejném principu, jako role žáka, a to tak, že učitel nyní již nemá roli, kterou Harmer definuje jako controller, ale zaujímá roli definovanou jako facilitator, který se zaměřuje na potřeby žáka, podněcuje kooperativní učení, komunikaci s vrstevníky a aktivní učení tím, že dává žákům příležitost podílet se na procesu výuky. Zároveň je zdůrazněno, že tato role není jediná, kterou by si učitel měl osvojit, jeho role se v průběhu hodiny často mění, není tedy potřeba zbavovat se tradičních rolí, ale využívat jich, jako jednu z alternativ. Tato kapitola také vyzdvihuje některé z výhod výuky zaměřené na žáka, jež jsou zřejmé z diskuze principů a rolí učitele a žáka. Zejména je evidentní, že tato výuka dává žákům příležitost používat aktivně a interaktivně jazyk a podněcuje efektivní učení a spolupráci mezi žáky. Zároveň se také očekává, že při zařazení této výuky mohou vyvstat problémy, a některým z nich se věnuje závěr této kapitoly. Mezi tyto problémy patří různá očekávání žáků, jak by měla výuka vypadat, což nemusí vždy odpovídat principům výuky zaměřené na žáka a žáci pak mohou klást odpor

k zařazení těchto principů do výuky. Řešením by mohlo být postupné zařazování směřující k pozvolnému rozvoji žákovy autonomie. Další problém pak představují požadavky na učitele, takto orientovaná výuka je považována za časově velmi náročnou na přípravu. Poslední problém, který tato kapitola popisuje, jsou vnější překážky, nastiňuje tak situaci vzdělávání v České republice a diskutuje, jak systém vzdělávání, přestože se zdá být alespoň z části v souladu s výukou zaměřenou na žáka (učitelé se podílí na vytvoření Školního vzdělávacího programu), limituje učitele Rámcovým vzdělávacím programem, který přesně definuje obsah a cíle vzdělávání. Částečným řešením tohoto problému by pak mohlo být pokrytí částí sylabu zařazením aktivit, které odpovídají výuce zaměřené na žáka.

Poslední kapitola teoretické části práce se věnuje definici žáka staršího školního věku a příslušné vzdělávací instituci, kterou tento žák navštěvuje. Důvodem k zařazení této kapitoly bylo, že výzkum, provedený v praktické části práce, je zaměřen právě na tuto cílovou skupinu žáků, a to zejména proto, že z diskutovaných charakteristik, uvedených v teoretické části, výuka zaměřená na žáka vyvstala, jako především vhodná pro žáka staršího školního věku. Žák je zde klasifikován na základě mezinárodní standardní klasifikace z roku 2011. Na základě odborné literatury je pak nastíněna charakteristika tohoto žáka ve spojení s výukou jazyka dle zaměření této práce.

Praktická část bakalářské práce je uvedena vymezením cíle práce, zjistit, zda a jak jsou principy výuky zaměřené na žáka využívány v hodinách anglického jazyka na druhém stupni základní školy a v nižších třídách gymnázií. V úvodu je popsán použitý metodologický postup, proces sbírání dat a limity zvoleného způsobu výzkumu, zejména, jak limitace počtu učitelů a pozorovaných hodin omezuje vytvoření uceleného a všeobecně platného závěru. Výzkum byl proveden formou nestrukturovaných observací v součtu dvanácti vyučovacích hodin anglického jazyka u dvou vybraných učitelů, na dvou základních školách, a to v sedmé a osmé třídě. Jedna vyučovací hodina byla věnována pilotáži, jejím účelem bylo zjistit vhodnost zvolené metodologie a předejít pozdějším možným komplikacím. Pozorování bylo uskutečněno formou nestrukturovaných observací, a to především z důvodu potřeby zachytit holisticky a přesně události ve třídě. Principy takto orientované výuky jsou mnohdy propojené a nelze je pozorovat v izolaci, ale pouze jako celistvý obraz. Observační list, resp. způsob jeho vyplnění, je součástí přílohy této práce.

Další kapitola se zabývá analýzou získaných dat. Pro potřeby analýzy byly vytvořeny čtyři kategorie, vycházející z diskutovaných principů výuky zaměřené na žáka. Již z konceptu této výuky vyplynulo, že není možné pozorovat každý princip odděleně, zároveň doba strávená pozorováním byla omezená, což představovalo určitou limitaci posouzení některých principů. Využití principů je tedy následně analyzováno na základě čtyř kategorií: orientace na cíl, motivace, diferenciaci a hodnocení. Každá kapitola je pak diskutována na základě observačních listů a data jsou porovnána s principy popsány v teoretické části. V každé kapitole jsou pak zodpovězeny obě výzkumné otázky a zároveň jsou navrženy úpravy aktivit v souladu s výukou zaměřenou na žáka.

Výzkum ukázal, že pozorování učitelé spíše nevyužívali principů výuky zaměřené na žáka nebo je využívali jen zřídka, nicméně, zejména ve výuce učitele č. 2 byl pozorován určitý potenciál, v zařazení principů této výuky v několika aktivitách. Co se týká jednotlivých kapitol, cíle v pozorovaných hodinách nebyly stanoveny ani učiteli, ani žáky, přestože učebnice, s kterou při výuce pracovali (Project 3) obsahuje na konci každé kapitoly aktivitu zaměřenou na sebehodnocení, tudíž by žáci měli mít příležitost pro stanovení si cíle, který by se následně stal měřítkem pro sebehodnocení.

Výzkum dále ukázal, že v pozorovaných hodinách se učitelé spoléhali zejména na vnější motivaci, která spočívala, u obou učitelů, zejména ve formě známkování. Vnitřní motivace byla využívána zřídka, objevila se zejména u učitele č. 2, kdy učitel často využíval humoru a krátké konverzace o obecných tématech na začátku hodiny k navození pozitivní atmosféry ve třídě.

Další kategorií, na kterou se výzkum zaměřil, byla diferenciaci. Tato kapitola byla rozdělena do tří podkapitol, kritériem bylo, zda učební profily, výběr témat a výběr aktivit dle připravenosti, odpovídaly potřebám jednotlivých žáků. Výzkum odhalil, že učitelé v pozorovaných hodinách diferenciaci nevyužívali, přesto se ukázalo, že několik aktivit, zejména učitele č. 2, nabídlo rozmanitost, především v reflektování různých učebních stylů žáků ve strategiích vyučování, kde pouze chybělo dát žákům možnost výběru. Co se týče výběru témat, oba pozorovaní učitelé se v hodinách drželi striktně témat daných učebnicí, nicméně, opět učitel č. 2 v hodinách využíval pro prezentaci Interaktivní tabuli, což by mohlo cílit na vnitřní motivaci žáků, pokud by vnímali využití technologie jako zajímavé. Diferenciaci na základě připravenosti nebylo možné pozorovat, především kvůli časové limitaci výzkumu.

Jako poslední pak výzkum ukázal, že v pozorovaných hodinách žáci neměli příležitost k sebehodnocení a byli skoro výhradně hodnoceni učiteli. Nicméně u učitele č. 2 se objevily dvě aktivity, které by se daly považovat jako inklinace k hodnocení vrstevníků, dá se ale spíše říci, že v pozorovaných hodinách obou učitelů se hodnocení vrstevníků objevilo více méně náhodně, jevílo se tedy jako neúmyslné.

10 List of literature

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Appendix A - *Williams and Burden's framework of L2 motivation* (Williams and Burden, 1997, p. 138-140)

Internal factors	
Intrinsic interest of activity	Perceived value of activity
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Arousal of curiosity • Optimal degree of challenge 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Personal relevance • Anticipated value of outcomes • Intrinsic value attributed to the activity
Sense of agency	Mastery
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Locus of causality (origin versus pawn) • Locus of control re process and outcomes • Ability to set appropriate goals 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Feelings of competence • Awareness of developing skills and mastery in a chosen area • Self-efficacy
Self-concept	Attitudes
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Realistic awareness of personal strengths and weaknesses in skills required • Personal definitions and judgements of success and failure • Self-worth concern • Learned helplessness 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To language learning in general • To the target language • To the target language community and culture
Other affective states	Developmental age and stage
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Confidence • Anxiety, fear 	
Gender	
External factors	
Significant others	The nature of interaction with significant others
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Parents • Teachers • Peers 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mediated learning experience • The nature and amount of feedback • Rewards • The nature and amount of appropriate praise • Punishments, sanctions
The learning environment	The broader context
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Time of day, week, year • Size of class and school • Class and school ethos • Comfort • Resources 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Wider family networks • The local education system • Conflicting interests • Cultural norms • Societal expectations and attitudes

Appendix B - Completed observation sheet

OBSERVATION SHEET 1

DATE: 28.2.2017

TIME: 11:55 - 12:40

CLASS: VII.C

TEACHER OBSERVED:

LESSON DESCRIPTION:

The teacher welcomes pupils, she asks them how they are. They talk about a test they wrote that day. She asks about their feelings and shows sympathy with their marks. They chat for a while about the lunch and next class they're going to have.

THE TEACHER SPEAKS IN ENGLISH ALL THE TIME. PUPILS TOO.

She starts with a revision and asks pupils if they remember what they did last week and if they liked it. Everyone answers "yes". The teacher displays the text book on the Interactive Whiteboard (IW) and asks pupils if they remember the characters they talked about in the previous lesson. She doesn't ask individual pupils but the whole class. Everyone answers that they do and they look interested.

The teacher points out at the picture (Project 3, p. 33, ex. 7) on the IW and pupils talk about the people in the picture (what they were doing). Then they move to the previous exercise (p. 32, ex. 2) - they have completed the exercise previous lesson so teacher asks individual pupils questions about the people in the picture (e.g.: "What was Jane doing at 8:00?").

T opens Quizlet on the Internet and displays it on the IW and tells Ps they will start a new topic: DISASTERS. T asks P for explanation or synonym. Some Ps translate it into Czech, some tell that it is when st bad happens. They go through the vocabulary on Quizlet. There are pictures of words connected to the topic and pupils guess what the word is. Then she turns around the picture and the word appears and she plays the recording with pronunciation. She plays with it (let it say or half of the word) and Ps seem amused.

The overall impression of the activity is relaxed and amusing. When they come across a difficult word (e.g. through) they practise the pronunciation for a while (e.g. the sound). The teacher doesn't ask individual pupils, they just shout it if they know the word. Everyone participated in the activity.

T asks two pupils to go to the IW and they play a game (picture - fastest) - she asks other 2 pupils -> dragon (It counts the time who is the word).

T takes flashcards (the same as on the IW) and asks "What's this?" -> the pupils who answers first take the card and stick it to the blackboard. She asks "How many pictures are on the board?" - someone answers and she tells them to listen to the recording and repeat the words. After each word she stops it and asks a P to go to the board and put it in the correct order. When they have all the pictures in the same order as the

According, the teacher asks the same number of pupils to go to the board and choose one word and write it next to the picture. Everyone goes at once so they argue for a while but they are able to divide the pictures and agree on who writes what. The T prints at every word and asks if there is any mistake - if there is she corrects it and she T writes it on the board.

The T asks ~~to open the book~~ → NO she asks them to listen to the article about a natural disaster and remember the most. She stops at different parts and asks them what do they remember. The Ps tell her what they know. They talk about it with the T who asks follow-up questions. She asks them "What did he do?" → she pupils don't know → she asks "Did he take a selfie?" - the pupils answer "no" and laugh. Then she shows them the text they heard in the textbook and they go through ex. 3 together. She asks questions and pupils shout the answers.

The teacher circles some words in the text on the W and asks what they mean and also circles some ^{verbs} words in the past simple and asks for the present form.

She says goodbye.