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Teaching English in the First Grade of Primary School

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Zásady pro vypracování

Studentka se bude ve své práci zabývat problematikou výuky anglického jazyka u dětí mladšího školního věku. V teoretické části práce nejprve představí cíl výuky anglického jazyka v současném pojetí. Dále uvede specifické charakteristiky žáka mladšího školního věku, konkrétně žáka v prvním ročníku základní školy. Dále bude diskutovat procesy osvojování cizího jazyka a uvede souhrn základních principů i příkladů specifických technik relevantních pro cizojazyčnou výuku u dětí mladšího školního věku. V praktické části pak bude vhodně zvolenými výzkumnými nástroji zjišťovat, do jaké míry jsou tyto principy respektovány ve výuce angličtiny v prvním ročníku základní školy.

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ANNOTATION

This thesis deals with teaching English to young learners, specifically in the first grade in primary schools. Theoretical part focus on the aim of teaching learners through communicative competences. This part also aims at describing young learners and the principles that should be used when teaching English to young learners. The practical part deals with the research question, whether the principles defined in the theoretical part are used in an English lesson in first grades in primary schools.

KEYWORDS

Young learners, second language acquisition, principles of teaching English

ANOTACE

Tato práce se zabývá výukou anglického jazyka mladých žáků, specificky žáků v první třídě na základní škole. Teoretická část je zaměřena na obecný cíl výuky anglického jazyka skrz komunikační kompetence. Tato část také popisuje mladé žáky a principy, které by měly být použity při výuce anglického jazyka mladých žáků. Praktická část se zabývá výzkumnou otázkou, zda se principy vydefinované v teoretické části využívají při výuce anglického jazyka v prvních třídách základních škol.

KLÍČOVÁ SLOVA

Mladí žáci, osvojování druhého jazyka, principy výuky anglického jazyka

OBSAH

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ABBREVIATIONS

CEFR – Common European Framework of Reference for Languages

MŠMT – Ministerstvo Školství, mládeže a tělovýchovy České Republiky

TPR – Total Physical Response

INTRODUCTION

In an increasingly globalized world proficiency in English has become an asset for individuals seeking to enhance their personal and professional prospects. This results in many countries putting more emphasis on teaching foreign languages from an early age. Therefore, English language is often included in their primary education with the intention of providing learners with communicative skills in English from an early age.

The purpose of this paper is to examine the methods of teaching English in the first grade in primary schools, focusing on strategies and principles used by teachers promoting language learning among young learners. Through a relevant literature and research in primary schools, this thesis aims to provide an insight into the usage of the principles of teaching to young learners, specifically in the first grade of primary school.

As this paper aims at young learners, the theoretical part focuses on the description of young learners and their development. Some of the specific aspects of their language acquisition and the difference between the first and second language acquisition will be explained as well. The principles of teaching English to young learners, obtained from the previous characteristics, will be presented as the research question of this paper is whether the principles of teaching English in the first grade in primary school are used by teachers.

In the practical part, research will take place in primary schools. It will be done through observation sheet created specifically for the purpose of this paper. The observation will take place in the lessons of three different teachers in the first grades. The findings obtained from the observation will be presented and summarised at the end of the research. More details will be brought into this paper and the research question stated above will be answered. The research question, whether the principles of teaching English to young learners are used in the first grade in primary schools, will be answered after the data are presented in conclusion.

THEORETICAL PART

1 The Aim of Teaching English

Introducing the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment (CEFR) is necessary to define the aim of teaching English. According to Harmer (2007, 95), the Council of Europe and the Association of Language Testers in Europe have been collaborating to determine the language competency levels of various language learners. The Council of Europe (2021, 27–28) states that CEFR offers a thorough description of language proficiency, a set of Common Reference Levels (A1 to C2) described in illustrative scales. Beacco et al. (2016, 10–11) mention that these descriptors can be used to define competences in a foreign language to help learners to make an accurate picture of their language skills. According to the Council of Europe (2021, 27–28), promoting the positive formulation of educational objectives and results at all levels is one of the CEFR's key concepts. Harmer (2007, 141) suggests that with the help of the statements for general overall ability, students of a foreign language can assess themselves in various skill areas.

1.1 Communicative Language Competences

The communicative language competences help the learners and the teachers to assess learners' achievements or progress in language learning. According to Johnson (2008, 25), linguists use the term “competence” to describe the different levels of knowledge and skill that are involved in using language and the word “communicative” refers to something more wide-ranging than just grammar. Beacco et al. (2016, 11) suggest that communicative language competences and general competences can be the starting point when connected with language communication activities. The Council of Europe (2021, 129) divides communicative language competences into linguistic, sociolinguistic, and pragmatic competence and their subcategories. They also state that the competences are closely connected and cannot be taken as separate parts as they are not isolated from each other. However, only linguistic and pragmatic competence are relevant to this paper, as they are the only competences that work with pre-A1 level, accurate for young learners.

As mentioned above, linguistic competence has several subcategories that help to assess the learner's language learning more thoroughly. According to Akhmanova (1971, 454), linguistic competence means how the learner knows the language and is measured by how the learner uses it. The Council of Europe (2021, 130) divides linguistic competence into

subcategories such as general linguistic range, vocabulary range, grammatical accuracy, vocabulary control, phonological control, and orthographic control. Of all subcategories mentioned above, general linguistic range and grammatical accuracy are the only subcategories that take into consideration the level appropriate for young learners and therefore are relevant to this paper.

The first subcategory to be introduced is the general linguistic range. According to the Council of Europe (2021, 130), learning a language requires trying to use more complicated language and stepping out of one's comfort zone to improve the language. They consider decreasing learners' control over their language as a healthy process when they take on more challenging activities. According to them, the learners go from frequent misunderstandings to being able to express their thoughts precisely and without restrictions on what they want to say. MŠMT (2021, 25) states that young learners should be able to react verbally or non-verbally. The Council of Europe (2021, 131) expects young learners on the pre-A1 level to be able to use isolated words or simple expressions to express information about themselves.

The second subcategory included in linguistic competence is grammatical accuracy, a skill meant for the correct usage of the language in a sentence. The Council of Europe (2021, 132) suggests that grammatical accuracy shows the learners' ability to use grammar correctly while expressing thoughts which is difficult as learners have to concentrate on the thoughts and the grammar simultaneously. According to Puchta (2019, 210), learners will not pay attention to grammar automatically in communicating, and therefore they need to be pushed to pay attention to it. The Council of Europe (2021, 132) also says this might be why accuracy usually decreases during a more difficult task. According to them, young learners should be able to use the simple word/sign order principles to make statements.

Pragmatic competence is also part of the communicative competences alongside linguistic competence. Those two competences are closely connected and seem similar. However, there is a difference between them. According to the Council of Europe (2021, 137), linguistic competence focuses on correct language usage, and pragmatic competence is concerned with the language usage in texts and the learner's knowledge of the language principles, for example, how to organise and structure the text. Saville-Troike (2006, 134) says that pragmatic competence is part of an ability to use language appropriately and refers to

knowledge that learners must be able to interpret and convey meaning in the communicative situation. The Council of Europe (2021, 137) divides pragmatic competence into flexibility, turn-taking, thematic development, coherence and cohesion, propositional precision, and fluency. Similarly, as in linguistic competence, only two subcategories fit in this paper with the description for pre-A1 level learners.

One of those subcategories is propositional precision which describes the level of detail that can be included in a statement. The Council of Europe (2021, 141–142) defines it as an ability to determine how to articulate what the learner wants to express and how well the learner can communicate details and shades of meaning. According to them, the young learner can simply share some personal information. MŠMT (2021, 25) mentions that the young learner should be able to understand simple commands and questions stated clearly and slowly by the teacher.

The second subcategory is fluency, which assesses whether a learner can speak easily and without mistakes. According to the Council of Europe (2021, 142), fluency refers to one's repertoire and learners' ability to talk without hesitations and pauses to sustain a longer conversation and express themselves spontaneously. Harmer (2007, 97) says it is easier for learners at a higher level to organise the discussion, whereas beginners do not have this ability. According to them, the learners can repeat sentences or participate in controlled cue-response drills. The Council of Europe (2021, 142) believes young learners at the pre-A1 level should be able to express truly short, previously rehearsed, and isolated expressions with the help of the teacher and gestures. MŠMT (2021, 25) adds that a young learner can use phrases or words already encountered in the lessons.

2 Young learners

Defining a young learner is crucial for this paper, and one way to do so is by determining their age. According to Phillips (1993, 5), the young learner is a child from five or six years to eleven or twelve years old, usually starting the first school year. Similarly, Vágnerová (1999, 163) considers the young learner as the child attending school from lower primary education, usually from six or seven years old to the first year of upper primary education when the learner is around eleven years old. Scott and Ytreberg (1990, 1–4) also describe a young learner in the same age range as the other authors and state that young learners are specific

because they can only keep their attention for a short time and have a concise concentration span.

2.1 Short Attention Span

Every teacher should take into consideration that young learners have a different attention span than adults and adjust the activities accordingly. According to Čížková et al. (2003, 69), the child's attention is unstable, and it changes quickly, however, as the child gets older, the attention gets better, and the child can concentrate for a more extended period. Similarly, Shin and Crandall (2013, 29) suggest that the child gets distracted very quickly, and their attention does not last for a longer period and therefore, the lesson plan should be arranged as a series of short activities. According to them, young learners of five to seven years old should be able to concentrate on activities five to ten minutes long, and learners up to ten years old should manage to handle activities up to fifteen minutes long. Tomlinson (1999, 63) says that every child has a different attention span, and therefore some can pay attention for a longer time, and some can find it challenging to concentrate for ten minutes. Čížková et al. (2003, 89) suggest that to be successful in fulfilling school requirements, the child is obligated to actively pay attention to what is required. She also says that ten minutes is usually the period that can be counted on. Similarly, Kyriacou (2007, 37) mentions that young learners should not be exposed to long lectures as they find it difficult to pay attention for such a long time.

2.1.1 Techniques and Methods to Maintain the Attention

However, there are ways to engage young learners in longer activities despite their short attention spans. Shin and Crandall (2013, 29) suggest that time is not crucial in a child's attention span. They say young learners can concentrate on longer activities if they find them funny and exciting. Kyriacou (2009, 28) states that teachers can sustain a child's attention and concentration by changing learning activities, involving the child in the activity, and using the child's interest in the activities. Similarly, Shin and Crandall (2013, 29) suggest that teachers should introduce fun activities to young learners and engage their curiosity and imagination. According to them, to increase children's attention, teachers can include various kinds of audio-visual aids, such as YouTube videos, singing or playing songs with them, or movie clips. There are also some other strategies how the teacher can help to keep the child engaged in the activity or maintain their attention for a longer time. According to Scott and Ytreberg (1990, 5), the teacher should rely on more than just spoken activities, as young learners need movement and senses to be included. Butler (2019, 306–307) suggests that games should also

be part of the lesson as it helps children to develop their sense of self and communication. According to him, people use games not only to acquire knowledge and skills such as cognitive, social, emotional, and physical but also for fun.

The teacher can maintain the attention of learners easily with the help of the surrounding, in this case the classroom. Scott and Ytreberg (1990, 5) say that having plenty of objects around and entirely using the classroom is essential. Harmer (2007, 177–178) mentions that pictures, objects, and other things are ideal for presenting language. According to him, images can be used in multiple activities such as drills, games, or exercises focusing on understanding. Shin (2014, 557–558) suggests that as children are active and like to move around, the lesson should include various activities to get them on their feet and encourage them to interact with realia. Scott and Ytreberg (1990, 6) say that due to the short attention span, variety in the classroom is essential for young learners and not only in the variety of activities but also pace, organisation, and voice. Harmer (2007, 114) suggests that there are many ways how the teacher can help the learner to hear and understand, such as through gestures, mimics, or expressions. Shin (2014, 557–558) mentions that one of the ways how to keep lively children included in the lesson is Total Physical Response. Brewster et al. (2002, 35) similarly suggest that this method works well with young learners and beginners.

Total Physical Response (TPR) has several advantages when included in teaching English to young learners. Shin (2014, 558) says TPR joins language with movement, usually through commands. She says that connecting the language and movement helps learners remember the words more easily. According to Brewster et al. (2002, 35), children listen to something and are asked to show their comprehension through actions afterward. Reilly and Sheila (1997, 9) suggest that the children are asked to mime or do what they are saying this way. According to Harmer (2007, 68), it can be realised through the teacher's commands to learners, such as "pick up the triangle from the table and give it to me". He says that second language learners can benefit from the commands as they learn from them. According to Shin (2014, 558), TPR can be seen in activities when the teacher says, "Stand up" and stands up while saying it. Celestino (1993, 902–903) mentions that this strategy is similar to the "Simon Says" game and is an excellent way to connect language with reality. According to him, if the teacher instructs the learner to draw something by saying "draw a house" it might also be a great way to assess the understanding and recognition of the vocabulary.

2.2 Development

When defining a young learner, age is only one of many essential elements of learning. Scott and Ytreberg (1990, 1) state that age does not determine what a child can or cannot do because every child develops differently. According to Langmeier and Krejčířová (1999, 109-112), there are three types of development, and that is physical, cognitive, and emotional development. Čáp (1997, 180) divides development similarly to Langmeier and Krejčířová however, he mentions that there can also be workforce and social development.

Physical development is not as important as the other two developments but still plays a significant role in a child's development. Čížková et al. (2003, 94) suggest that physical development in the classroom can differ significantly in many aspects, such as sex, height, or weight. Langmeier and Krejčířová (1999, 109) say that it is effortless to assess the child based on size or weight, but it is the least evidential method. According to Čáp (1997, 180), physical development is essential as the school requires the child to be physical ability, especially with writing and drawing. A more physically developed child will probably be able to complete tasks more effortlessly. Langmeier and Krejčířová (1999, 109) suggest that children with pettier figures might often struggle with the school requirements, and their physical development should be taken into consideration when assessing.

Cognitive development is essential for assessing whether the child is ready to start attending school. Čížková et al. (2003, 88) point out that a child around six years old goes through a significant cognitive change. They say the most noticeable difference would be the transition from global to analytic perception. According to them, this enables the child to differentiate visual and sound elements essential for reading, writing, and counting. Langmeier and Krejčířová (1999, 111) have a similar opinion and suggest that in the first year of school, the child can better distinguish parts of the pattern previously seen as a whole. According to Vágnerová (1999, 151), the child can see more details, such as the shape or direction, which can help them distinguish some letters, for example, "b" and "d". Čížková et al. (2003, 94-97) say that the ability to analyse and distinguish allows the child to improve cognition. She also mentions that cognitive development relates to emotional development.

Another part of a child's development is called emotional development. Langmeier and Krejčířová (1999, 112) use this term when assessing the child's control over feelings and impulses. According to them, emotional development is essential in school, especially with discipline and the child's ability to put emotions aside and accomplish the task. Similarly, Čáp (1997, 180) mentions that children must be emotionally developed to obey the teacher's instructions and finish the tasks. Čížková et al. (2003, 97) suggest that emotions play an essential part in the success and satisfaction of a child. They also say that the child is more concerned about himself at the beginning of his school years but starts to work in the collective later. Čáp (1997, 180) expresses a similar opinion that a child needs to respect the school's rules and cooperate with the teacher and the rest of the class.

2.2.1 Factors Influencing the Development

A couple of factors that can influence a child's development can be distinguished. Phillips (1993, 5) says that every child's development is influenced by several factors such as environment, sex, culture, or how high are the expectations of their parents. Čížková et al. (2003, 88) express their opinion that cognitive development is influenced by innate dispositions and a child's family environment and upbringing. They also suggest that family and interaction within the family have a significant role in moral development. As previously stated, physical appearance, especially weight, can influence a child's development. Langmeier and Krejčířová (1999, 180) state that biological disposition and social influence are connected, especially for a child with a lower weight.

Similarly, some factors influencing a child's development can affect a child's ability to learn the language. Phillips (1993, 5) states that a child's development can be affected by the culture or the environment they live in. Čížková et al. (2003, 63–64) mention that child's language development is different for every child due to individual differences or surrounding's impulses. Johnson (2008, 77) says that to acquire language, the child must be exposed to it. McCarthy (1952, 423–434) suggests that the home atmosphere is crucial. She says that children who did not have enough interaction with their parents had worse language results than the children that were actively part of the conversation at home. However, the child's environment can also impact how the child learns English. Johnson (2008, 74) says there is a significant difference between a learner living in a target language country and a learner exposed to English only in the classroom and nowhere else.

3 Acquisition

There is a difference between acquiring a first language and a second language. Johnson (2008, 77) says that acquiring a language is a process when a learner obtains the language, and this process can be divided into two sorts. According to him, the first language acquisition is when a child manages to acquire the language at a very young age, and the second is when a child or an adult can pick up the language by being exposed to the language, especially while living in the target language surrounding. Lust (2006, 28–29) suggests that for learners to acquire the language, they must be exposed to it because we cannot expect them to learn it without hearing it. Similarly, Johnson (2008, 88) argues that acquisition occurs only when the children are exposed to the language and not when they produce it. However, he mentions that output is also significant to see the difference between what the child says and what the proficient speaker says and, by doing that, get closer to how the language works. Guasti (2002, 4) believes that children are more likely to acquire language with the help of positive evidence, which means hearing what others say.

There is a question of whether children must learn rules and systems first to acquire the language. Guasti (2002, 3) believes that children do not learn the language by learning rules but acquire it spontaneously while being exposed to it. According to him, the learner learns the language when they hear it. On the other hand, Lust (2006, 28) argues that there are systems and rules that children must acquire and to do so by encountering negative and positive evidence to acquire language. He also points out that positive evidence represents the occurrence of rules systems in languages presented to learners. Johnson (2008, 46) also mentions the importance of children obtaining rules and systems and divides them into systematic, sociolinguistic, and strategic competencies.

The first type of language to acquire is a first language. According to Clark (2009, 3), acquiring a first language differs in many aspects. She says that languages are different in grammatical or phonetical form, and therefore every language might be acquired differently. Saville-Troike (2006, 4) describes the first language as a language acquired in childhood and has the same function as a mother tongue, despite some differences between those terms. Ortega (2013, 3–4) says that first language acquisition usually happens between eighteen months and three to four years when the child is syntactically and morphologically deployed. Similarly, Saville-Troike (2006, 4) suggests that the first language is acquired at a very young

age, specifically before the child reaches three years old. Clark (2009, 378) indicates that a three- or four-year-old child already has a vocabulary containing fourteen thousand words and can use them in everyday speech.

The definition of a second language and second language acquisition is essential for this paper because understanding how children acquire a second language is vital to define the principles for teaching English. According to Ellis (1997, 3-4), a second language is any language other than the native language, therefore, second language acquisition refers to how people learn this language. Similarly, Ortega (2013, 1–2) describes second language acquisition as a field that focuses on the human ability to learn languages that are not the mother tongue. Saville-Troike (2006, 2) adds that a second language does not only mean second but can mean third or fourth if the language is other than the first.

A second language can be learned in diverse ways based on language exposure. Saville-Troike (2006, 2) mentions that there are two ways to learn a second language: informal, formal second language learning, or a mixture of both. Ortega (2013, 6) similarly divides the learners into naturalistic, instructed or a combination. She explains the term naturalistic learner as someone who learns the language through informal opportunities such as multicultural schools, workplaces, or neighbourhoods. On the other hand, according to her, the instructed learner learns the language in schools or private lessons. Similarly, Saville-Troike (2006, 2) says it is naturalistic contexts where informal second language learning is realised and formal second language occurs in classrooms. According to Gass et al. (2008, 368–369), exposure to the language is the significant difference between those two ways. They suggest that learners are often exposed to the language only in the classroom.

4 Young Learner's Second Language Acquisition

When talking about acquisition, the difference between a younger learner and an older learner is significant. According to Singleton and Pfenninger (2019, 1), the reason for the interest in young learner language acquisition is firstly a recent increase of young learners learning English globally and the realisation that young learners do not acquire language same as older learners as they are not yet fully cognitively and emotionally developed. According to Hestetræet (2019, 223), when choosing the vocabulary to teach, it is essential to consider children's cognitive development and select the vocabulary that relates to that and is age

appropriate. Ghosn (2019, 380) suggests that this applies to vocabulary and developing materials for children. According to her, materials should be designed for children's cognitive development and psycho-social needs. She uses attention span as an example, as it is a demanding skill and maintaining attention depends on whether the teacher uses more concrete or abstract material.

To acquire a new language, children must be able to pick up receptive and productive skills. Singleton and Pfenninger (2019, 36) suggest that learners can transfer their mother tongue into the process of learning the second language in the literacy, cognitive skills and academic linguistic area, so they do not have to learn everything twice. In this case, literacy refers to reading and writing, whereas cognitive skills include listening and speaking. According to Kirkgöz (2019, 172), listening as a receptive skill is a process of understanding messages with the help of the context and knowledge of the language. She says it is essential to develop listening skills as it significantly impacts other skills and provides input for speaking and writing. Scott and Ytreberg (1990, 21–21) suggest that the first skill children acquire is listening, especially if they cannot read yet. According to them, children learn a foreign language through their ears, and what they hear is the only language source. Kirkgöz (2019, 172) suggests that speaking, a productive skill, is the active use of language used to express meaning, unlike listening skill which is the passive use of language to interpret the meaning. According to Johnson (2008, 150), listening is prior to speaking, such as speech is prior to writing; therefore, receptive skills should be learned before productive skills. Kirkgöz (2019, 172) believes that young learners encounter, understand, practice and learn a new language through spoken language. She says: “While listening is the initial stage in first and second language acquisition and the skill that children acquire first, speaking will often quickly follow and provide evidence to the teacher of learning, whether this is superficial or deep.”.

4.1 Corrections

When learners are acquiring a new language, especially spoken skills, it is understandable that they will make a lot of mistakes and it is vital to know when to correct them. Guasti (2002, 3) says that contrary to second language acquisition, there are only rare corrections of learner’s errors as the learner acquires the language spontaneously by being exposed to the language input. According to her, children do not accept and even refuse the corrections. However, Johnson (2008, 300) suggests that mistakes must be corrected from the beginning because if the learners repeat the mistake, they might remember it and then it is almost impossible to

correct them. Harmer (2007, 137) says: “One of the things that puzzles many teachers is why students go on making the same mistakes even when those mistakes have been repeatedly pointed out to them.”. Ur (2012, 88–96) mentions that some teachers can recall a situation when they corrected a learner in one lesson but heard the same mistake in the next one. She suggests that correction does not bring immediate or permanent results, so the goal of correction is to point out the mistakes the learners are making to prevent learners from making them again. In other words, according to her, the main function of error correction is to prevent learners from fossilizing mistakes.

However, correcting the learner’s errors is not as simple as it seems as it might cause more damage if it is done incorrectly or too often. Johnson (2008, 300) says that it is vital that the teacher acquire the skill to correct the learner’s mistakes. Ur (2012, 88–96) describes error correction as telling somebody that a mistake occurred in their answer and that they should change it. However, Johnson (2008, 301–304) advises the teacher to be careful when correcting the learner’s mistake as it can easily destroy the learner’s motivation to learn or the confidence to speak. Similarly, Ur (2012, 88–96) states that correction often jeopardises the relationship between the corrector (most likely the teacher) and the corrected, so the teacher should be sensitive about the corrections. Johnson (2008, 301–304) suggests that the number of errors learners on lower levels will make might become so big that it would be impossible to correct all the mistakes. Therefore, he suggests focusing on various groups of errors in different lessons, for example focusing on pronunciation errors on one day and verb forms on the other day. On the other hand, he also mentions that learners are invested in their errors and want the teacher to correct them despite the activities that focus on fluency and not accuracy.

As stated above, it is vital to know how to correct a learner’s mistake, however, the teacher should also acquire the ability to assess the situation and correct the learner at a right time. Harmer (2007, 142) suggests that the teacher must make a distinction between fluency and accuracy. He says that the correction of errors must be modified according to the activity and whether it focuses on the learner’s fluency or accuracy. However, according to Johnson (2008, 301–304), there are ways how to correct the errors without breaking the learner’s flow, for example writing the errors down and pointing them out later. Similarly, Scott and Ytreberg (1999, 33–34) suggest that the teacher should not interfere with the learner’s flow in the activity and note down the mistakes made, however, if a learner asks for help during the activity, the teacher should provide it. However, Harmer (2007, 137) suggests that the teacher

should not distance themselves from the activity as they might need to mediate the conversation if it breaks down.

The correction is a process divided into two parts. Jonson (2008, 303–304) suggests that it is vital to analyse the mistake before trying to correct it. According to him, the teacher should first indicate the error and then correct it. Harmer (2007, 144) also divides correction into the first stage, when the mistake is indicated, and the second stage, when the teacher might help the student to correct the mistake. Jonson (2008, 303–304) lists several ways to indicate that the learner made an error. Some of those ways could be for example repeating the wrong words with a rising intonation or some kind of signals, such as making facial gestures or clicking fingers. Some of the ways to correct the mistakes he mentions might be asking the class to help, giving the correct answer, repeating the same sentence or word but in the correct way, or encouraging the learners to think of a correct answer instead of correcting them straight away.

4.2 Vocabulary

One of the factors a teacher should take into consideration while teaching to young learners is memory. According to Ghosn (2019, 380), the memory of a child of seven is developing, and the child will not be able to remember the same amount of information as an older learner. She suggests that rehearsal and repetitive naming of the information is one of the ways to improve memory. Harmer (2007, 346) has a similar opinion and mentions that repetition plays a significant part in language learning and can help the student remember the information. However, Johnson (2008, 241) argues that repetition activities might be time-consuming and ineffective. Vágnerová (1999, 171–172) says that young learners must repeat the information to remember it even if they do not do it out loud. According to McCarthy (1990, 117), new information (word) should be encountered at least seven times for most learners to memorise it. Scott and Ytreberg (1990, 21–22) point out that when the teacher says some information, the children cannot listen to it again or adjust the speed as he could while reading. Therefore, it is essential to repeat information multiple times, speak clearly, and adjust the speed to the learner's ability. They also suggest that the teacher should give the learner a lot of visual back-ups such as facial expressions, movement, mime, and pictures. Harmer (2007, 114) mentions that exaggerated mime and expression will probably work best. However, according to him, gestures might not have the utilised meaning, and their appropriation depends on the situation.

The memory of young learners affects the size of their vocabulary. Cameron (2001, 75) says that the more words the learner knows, the more effectively they can speak the language. According to Allen (1983, 104–105), approximately thirty thousand words should be learned to acquire the language. However, she says that not all of them will be used productively, and it is enough to understand most of them. According to her, three thousand words are necessary to be productive, which means that the learners will learn those words more to use them in speech or writing. Cameron (2001, 75) suggests that learning about five hundred words a year is realistic for young learners. McCarthy (1990, 117) narrows this down to eight to twelve words per sixty-minute lesson when eight words should be enough for young learners.

Connection to reality is also essential for the child at an early school age. Langmeier and Krejčířová (1999, 121–122) suggest that the child needs a concrete thing or the possibility to imagine those things. Vágnerová (1999, 163–164) supports this argument by saying that the child cannot learn unless they can connect the curriculum to reality. She suggests that a child's previous experience or interaction with people significantly helps them learn, as they can easily recall them. Čížková et al. (2003, 97) mention that cognitive development relates to emotional development.

When talking about vocabulary, there are many ways how the teacher can introduce new words in a fun and engaging way. Allen (1983, 8) suggests that while presenting vocabulary, the teacher can use pictures, explanations in the student's mother tongue or definitions in simple English to express the meaning. However, she says that the definition in English must be introduced in words the class can understand, which might be impossible for beginners. Hestetræet (2019, 223) mentions that vocabulary introduced to young learners should be on a basic level, such as a chair or a dog, rather than a more specific level, meaning a rocking chair or spaniel or more general level, such as furniture or animal. This relates to the fact that children cannot yet comprehend abstract vocabulary.

4.3 Learning Styles

Presenting the vocabulary with more senses included should be part of every lesson. Allen (1983, 7–8) suggests that using multiple senses is helpful to learning language for young learners, and therefore, vocabulary introduced to young learners should be people or things present in the classroom, such as a door, a window, a pencil, a girl or a boy. She says that seeing the thing while listening to its foreign name should be included in presenting the vocabulary. Harmer (2007, 82) similarly says that young learners' ability to understand comes from hearing and seeing the word, and if they can touch it is even more fruitful for them. Brewster et al. (2002, 35) have the same opinion and say that young learners must always use their senses. According to Allen (1983, 7–8), the number of senses the learner uses can influence the success of the learning process as the learner is more likely to learn something while hearing, seeing, and touching it. Brewster et al. (2002, 34–35) suggest that young learners must use their senses more than older learners.

As stated above, all the senses included in the activity help the learners to acquire the language. However, every learner is different and needs a different approach. Harmer (2007, 121) suggests that the lesson should be designed based on the children's learning styles and the stimulus they respond to, such as visual or audio. According to Brown (2000, 122), learners tend to prefer one or the other style, however, the most successful learners can use both visual and auditory styles. Lightbown and Spada (2006, 59) describe "learning styles" as how learners comprehend and deal with information. According to them, there are visual, aural, and kinaesthetic learners, and every group deals with new information differently. Similarly, Kyriacou (2007, 45) says it is children's preference of how they would like to experience the learning activities. Lightbown and Spada (2006, 59) say that visual learners prefer learning by seeing things, auditory learners prefer hearing things, and kinaesthetic learners learn through physical actions such as touching something or miming. Brown (2000, 122) specifies it by saying that visual learners learn through reading, drawings, or other graphic information, and auditory learners tend to learn by listening to lectures or audiotapes.

Here are some of the more specific activities providing learning styles. Shin (2014, 558–559) presents a series of activities for the learning styles, for example, storytelling, TV shows, movie clips or YouTube videos can be used to include audio-visual types in the lesson. According to her, auditory styles can be presented in songs, chants, rhymes or listening

activities. Kyriacou (2007, 46) agrees that teachers should be aware of different learning styles, however, she says it might be problematic to design the lesson based on a child's favoured learning style. According to her, it is possible that if the child would be taught only in one style, he might not fully develop all the learning skills. She also suggests that combining all learning styles would be difficult in the classroom.

Learning styles are one of many aspects that should be considered when designing lesson activities. Multiple Intelligences are closely connected with learning styles and should also be contemplated. Shin and Crandall (2013, 45) mention that teachers should consider learning styles associated with multiple intelligences in the classroom. According to Harmer (2007, 90), multiple intelligences were introduced by Howard Gardner, a Harvard psychologist, in his book "Frames of Mind". He says that all people possess multiple intelligences, such as musical, linguistic, visual-spatial, kinaesthetic, logical-mathematical, intrapersonal, and interpersonal, however, some might be more dominant. Armstrong (2009, 6–7) has the same opinion but adds naturalist intelligence to all mentioned above. According to him, learners with stronger linguistic intelligence are able to use words effectively, with logical-mathematical intelligence, they can use numbers, learners with spatial-oriented intelligence can perceive visual-spatial words, while bodily-kinaesthetic intelligence helps learners to use their bodies to share ideas. Harmer (2007, 90) says that bodily-kinaesthetic intelligence is typical for athletes, whereas visual-spatial might be a good navigator. Armstrong (2009, 6–7) states that musical intelligence allows learners to work with rhythms, interpersonal intelligence refers to the learner's capability to understand the feelings, moods or intentions of a different person, intrapersonal intelligence helps the learner to have a clear self-image and learners inclining to naturalist intelligence get more quickly familiar with the individual's environment.

However, when one learning style works with the student, it does not mean that it will work with the other students as well. Shin and Crandall (2013, 45) mention that multiple intelligences can be combined with learning styles and therefore be more specific. Armstrong (2009, 72) suggests that multiple intelligences offer a variety of strategies that can be easily included in the lesson and helps the teacher to develop new strategies. Harmer (2007, 91) points out that even though the teacher is not able to teach every learner individually, including activities for all the bits of intelligence is a great way to allow learners to try them all. Armstrong (2009, 72) suggests that the teacher cannot influence whether the teaching

strategies will be effective for all the learners, as every student has different preferences and react differently. Harmer (2007, 90) says: “If we accept that different intelligences predominate in different people, it suggests that the same learning task may not be appropriate in different people, it suggests that the same learning task may not be appropriate for all of our students.”.

5 The Principles of Teaching English to Young Learners

In the previous chapters, specific ways of teaching English to young learners were presented. Based on that, four principles were created and will be described in this chapter.

The first principle is the principle of short activity. As stated above, the young are specific by short attention span. Therefore, when the teachers create activities, they should be careful about the time they are planning to spend on those activities. According to Shin and Crandall (2013, 29), the activities should not take more than ten minutes and should change often to maintain the learners’ attention. However, there are exceptions and even if the activity takes more than ten minutes, the learners can keep their attention. Kyriacou (2009, 28) suggests that when the child is included in the activity or when the learner’s interest is included as well.

The second principle concerns the correction of learners’ mistakes. As stated before, young learners should be corrected as they can easily fossilize the wrong answer and it takes more time to correct it afterward. Johnson (2008, 301–304) suggests that the teacher should give the learner a clear sign that mistake occurred and should help the learner to correct the mistake. However, Ur (2012 88–96) mentions not to overcorrect the learners as their relationship to English or the teacher could be easily broken. Johnson (2008, 303–304) presents methods that can be used to correct the learners’ mistakes. Some of the methods are for example rising intonation after repeating the wrong answer, correcting the learner, or letting the learner think of the right answer.

The third principle is called the principle of concrete vocabulary. According to Vágnerová (1999, 163–164) or Langmeier and Krejčířová (1999, 121–122), it is vital to obey this principle as learners need to learn the vocabulary that is concrete and therefore can imagine or connect the word to the reality. Therefore, the teachers should present only the vocabulary that obeys this rule.

The last principle is the audio-visual principle. According to Harmer (2007), Brown (2000) and Lightbown and Spada (2006), learners should be provided with the senses when learning English. Although including all the senses in the activity would be impossible, the auditory and visual learning styles can be implemented into the lessons easily. As already stated, the learners do not know how to read and therefore, listening is the main source of English. Therefore, the learners should be provided with spoken words and some kind of visual aid should be included. Some of the visual aids could be for example pictures, videos, or real objects.

6 Conclusion to the Theoretical Part

In the theoretical part, the aim of teaching English was presented. As this paper aims at young learners, defining them was necessary. The development of young learners was explained, as well as the specific aspects, such as short attention span. Acquisition in general as well as the acquisition of the young learner was described to draw the attention to the difference between acquiring the first language and the second language and their processes. After that, some of the principles of teaching young learners were given and these principles were summarized at the end to make them clear as there was no explicit mention in the previous text that they were the principles this paper was focusing on.

The theoretical part of this paper serves as the basis for the research described in the practical part and the research will be done with the help of the principles defined above.

PRACTICAL PART

7 Introduction

In the theoretical part, the principles of teaching English to young learners were described and this theoretical part was used as a basis for the practical part. The practical part of this paper aims to find out whether those principles are used in the first grade in primary schools.

7.1 Research Question

To obtain the results from this research, it is vital to define the research question of this paper. Švaříček and Šed'ová (2007, 69) suggest that research questions are the heart of every research. They mention that it helps the research to bring better results with set aims and shows which way should the research continue. The research question for this paper is: "Are the principles of teaching English to young learners used in first grades of primary school?"

7.2 Research Methodology

To accomplish this research, it was necessary to choose the proper method for data collection. Before selecting the research method, a type of research was specified as the researcher believed that it would help to see the aim more clearly. According to Kothari (2004, 2), the primary purpose of realising research is to answer a question by finding the truth that has yet to be discovered. He distinguishes four types of research study groups, such as exploratory (formulative), descriptive, diagnostic, and hypothesis-testing research studies. For this paper, descriptive research was selected as it fits the paper's aim the most. Kothari (2004, 2) says that descriptive research aims to precisely show the aspects of a person, condition, or group. This paper aims to describe young learners and based on that, create a group of principles, therefore, this research objective was the most appropriate option.

7.3 Observation

For the research method, observation was chosen as the author believed that it would bring the best results in comparison to other methods such as a questionnaire. Kothari (2004, 96–97) says that observation is a very common process as people observe things in their surroundings every day. According to Gavora (2000, 77), observing is the activity when one analyses something by looking at it, taking notes, and evaluating it. Similarly, Kothari (2004, 96–97) suggests that observation is becoming a scientific tool when being methodically

organised and documented. According to him, observation brings more advantages as it is almost unbiased when it is done correctly, and it is not influenced by the past or future.

There are also several categories included in the observation. Gavora (2000, 79) says that there is a direct observation and an indirect observation. He explains that in direct observation, the observer is present in the classroom and makes notes right there. The second type of observing he mentions is a method in which the observer watches a video and makes notes based on the action presented in that video. Wragg (2002, 17) argues that if the lesson is only recorded, the teacher might miss some important elements in the classroom that could influence the way how the lesson went, such as the temperature in the classroom. He also says that learners react to the camera and their performance might differ based on that. According to Kothari (2004, 96–97), the observation can be either controlled or uncontrolled. He suggests that uncontrolled observation is happening in a natural environment contrary to controlled observation which is pre-defined as it is usually used while observing some kind of experiments. The aim of this paper is to see whether the principles are used in the lessons and therefore the uncontrolled type of observation took place. Direct observation was also chosen for this paper as the researcher considers being in the classroom and being able to move around more efficiently, and beneficial and it allows gathering a bigger amount of information.

7.4 Background of the Research

As already stated, this paper focuses on young learners, specifically learners in the first grade in primary schools. Therefore, the research was done in primary schools in the first grades. After deciding on the research method, it was vital to choose and contact teachers to be observed. As not many schools teach English in the first grade as a compulsory subject, it was necessary to determine where English is taught in the first grade. This information was found in the School Educational Program or the schedules of the schools. Based on that several schools were chosen. Then the emails were sent with some basic information about the situation and the researcher. However, only a few teachers replied to the email and that led to a choice of three schools, two in a smaller town and one in a bigger city. To have a better perception of the research, one teacher was observed in every school. Also, as first grades are doing parallel lessons, it was vital to observe only one class in the school so the activities would not be the same.

7.4.1 School 1

The first school observed is a primary school in the town that has around ten thousand residents and is situated in the region of Pardubice in the Czech Republic. It has about six hundred students divided into thirty-one classes. The whole school has two buildings, and the lower classes are in another building than the upper classes. This school has four first-grade classes, and each has around twenty learners. The English class does not divide into groups, so the English teacher must work with twenty learners. Learners are also staying in the same classroom as there are no language classrooms in this building. In this school, one hour of English for first-grade learners is realised in a week, and only one teacher is teaching it. However, there are assistants present in the classroom to help the teacher to manage the bigger number of learners.

7.4.1.1 Teacher 1

The teacher observed at this school is mainly first-grade teacher and class teacher of eighth grade. This teacher teaches English in all the first grades but also throughout all the grades. The bachelor's and master's degrees of this teacher were obtained from an unknown university.

7.4.2 School 2

The second school is also a primary school situated in the same town as the first school. It has around eight hundred learners divided into twenty classes. About thirty teachers teach at this school and same as in the first school, only one teacher is teaching English in the first grades. There are three first-grade classes with about twenty-five learners. As English class is not compulsory the class divides into those who are learning English and those who stay in the classroom improving Czech or mathematic skills. This leaves about twelve learners in the lesson. The school has several language classrooms, and the first graders use them for every English lesson. The language classrooms are organised in a way to allow the teacher to work with them to the maximum as the teacher sees all the students. There is also a carpet where learners can do multiple activities. However, as the language classroom seems like an advantage, the teacher must come to the regular classroom and take all the learners to the language classroom which takes time either from the children's break or the lesson. At this school, two classes of English are realised in a week.

7.4.2.1 Teacher 2

The teacher I observed at this school teaches only first graders. She used to teach in a school in a very small town and after maternity leave started to teach at this school. This was her second year there. It is not public which university this teacher finished and got the master's degree from.

7.4.3 School 3

This school, contrary to the previous two schools, is located in the big city in the region of Pardubice. About eight hundred learners attend this school and are divided into thirty-one classes. There are forty-six teachers and four first-grade classes. All of the first-grade classes divide into half leaving about ten learners in the classroom. The first graders do not use the language classroom but the school childcare room. Similarly, as in the previous school, it brings many advantages, such as a carpet, and many games. However, the main difference is that learners get to the class by themselves which does not take time from the lesson. At this school, English is compulsory and therefore every group has it. Same as in the previous schools, there is only one teacher to teach English to the first grades, however, there is always an assistant in the classroom, making sure, the learners are provided with every help they need.

7.4.3.1 Teacher 3

The last teacher I observed teaches English in the lower-primary school, especially in the first to third grades. This teacher finished their master's degree at an unknown university and has about twenty years of experience now.

7.5 Observation sheet

After the schools and teachers to be observed were selected, it was time for creating an observation sheet. As already mentioned above, the observation needs to be recorded and analysed. Cohen et al. (2018, 544) mention that it is more efficient to have an observation sheet prepared before attending the observation. Therefore, based on the theoretical part of this paper, a list of four principles was created. The aim of the observation sheet was to record the activities used in the first grades in which the principles were found afterwards. To be able to record the activities, the chart in Microsoft Word was created. The first cell was for the description of the activity, the second cell stated the principles with the choice of whether the principle occurred in the activity or not, and the last cell was for details about the principles in the activity. However, those two cells were not filled during the observation. The observation

sheet also included some information about the lessons observed, such as the name of the school, the teacher's name or the date of the observation to help organise the research. This information was hidden afterwards so the research remained anonymous.

7.6 Pilot Observation

Before the actual observation could happen, the pilot observation took place to ensure that there was enough time to fill-in the sheet or that it was possible to detect whether it is possible to find the principles in the description of the activity. The validity and reliability also must have been taken into consideration when analysing the observation sheet. According to Gavora (2000, 71 – 73), validity means the ability of the tool to detect what is supposed to be detected and reliability, on the other hand, is focused on how precisely the tool will detect the information. Cohen et al. (2018, 561) suggests that validity in observing is important, as the observer has to decide on many aspects, such as observing only some learners or the whole group. He adds that the observer must be consistent with the observation and recording so the results would be the most precise. To ensure that the observation sheet indeed is valid and reliable, the pilot observation and analysis must have been done. The pilot observation took place in School 2 on 16th February. During the observation, the data was recorded on the observation sheet. At the end of the lesson, the data was analysed. As the principles were clearly visible in the description of the activity there were only a few slight changes made. Firstly, the space for correction was added and secondly, the space for time range was added as well. After those changes were made, the observation sheet (Appendix 1) was ready, and the observations could start.

7.7 Data Collection

As already mentioned, the data was collected from three different schools and three different teachers. However, all of the observations were done in the first grades in a time window from 16th February to 3rd March. In each school three observations took place which means that together with the pilot observation ten lessons were observed. All the teachers were assured that the observations are anonymous and their name or the name of the school will not be published anywhere. This was done for private reasons and to ensure that the teachers would not feel pressure to change anything. Švaříček and Šed'ová (2007, 45) suggest that the research should be anonymous, and the research should not be published if confidentiality

cannot be promised. The teachers also were not informed about what is observed as they could easily include the principles in the lesson and the research would not be valid anymore.

With the help of the prepared observation sheet, the observations were recorded. Most of the lessons were only forty minutes long. In the observation sheets, the activities, the time range of the activities, and how the teacher corrected the learners were described. As the information about time is only relevant when the activity was either shorter or longer than ten minutes, time was not measured precisely. Therefore, if the activity was for example nine minutes long, ten minutes were recorded in the observation sheet. The corrections, similar to the information about time, were summarized and not included in the description of the activity so the observation sheet was more synoptical.

7.8 Data Analysis

After all the observations were finished and data was obtained from them, it was time to analyse every lesson. Cohen et al. (2018, 186) say that it is vital to plan how the data would be analysed even before starting the observation. Gavora (2000, 117) suggests that analysis occurs in every research method working with words such as interview, questionnaire, or transcript of the observation. Cohen et al. (2018, 643) mention that qualitative data analysis helps to apprehend, clarify, and interpret the obtained data. Gavora (2000, 80–81) suggests that when observing the occurrence of the principles, the frequency is analysed. He says that the observer should make a record every time the principle occurs, and this process is called coding.

When done right, coding can make the analysis of the obtained data easier for the researcher. Gavora (2000, 80) says that to be able to analyse the observation data coding is vital. Cohen et al. (2018, 653) also suggest that coding is a necessary part of the data analysis however, they also mention that it is only a part of the six-step process. Gavora (2000, 80) divides coding into interval coding and natural coding. According to him, interval coding is used for recording how often the observed category occurs. In other words, every three seconds the observer write a code for a category that is happening. He describes natural coding as a process where the observer makes a record of the category at the beginning of the activity. Švaříček and Šed'ová (2007, 211–212) suggest that open coding is the most appropriate method for the analysis of the data collected from the observation. According to them, the record from the observation must be divided into units, such as sentences, words, or

paragraphs. They say that after that, the codes should be added to those units. For this paper, a chart (Figure 1) was created and afterwards the codes were added based on the principles defined in the theoretical part.

Principle	Description	Code
Short activity	Activities that are not longer than 10 minutes.	Time: 1 – 10 minutes
Concrete vocabulary	Vocabulary must be concrete. The learners can imagine them or connect them to the reality.	A picture Real Flash cards
Audio-visual	The activities should be audio-visual (the learners should have a auditory and visual background to the activity).	Played an audio To look A picture To see To show To ask
Correction	The teacher corrects the learner either by repeating the right answer, asking class for help or other techniques.	Repeated the wrong answer with rising intonation Asked for the right answer Teacher said the correct answer. Repeated the word but correctly.

Figure 1: Principles for Teaching Young Learners and Codes

In Figure 1 the principles are, what the principles mean and the codes for distinguishing the principles found in the observation sheets. The principles are thoroughly defined in the theoretical part and the descriptions here only help us understand or remind us what is meant by the names of the principles. Every code also has its colour to make the analysis more comprehensive for the researcher. Not all the codes are included as there was a big amount of them and therefore only a few of them are mentioned.

7.8.1 Codes

As the principle of short activity is measured differently than the other principles, during the analysis the focus was on the information about the time. The code for this principle was “time” plus the number from one to ten. As already mentioned, the activity should take less than ten minutes and therefore when the estimated time of the activity was in that range, it was highlighted, and the code was written down into the Figure 1. The principle of concrete vocabulary was closely connected with the audio-visual principle. As mentioned above, the learners have to be able to imagine the words or connect the words with the reality. Therefore, the codes found in the observation sheets were most of the time the same for both principles. Some of those codes would be for example “a picture” or a “flash cards” as they prove that the vocabulary is concrete and at the same time it is a way to present the vocabulary in an audio-visual learning style. However, the less objective way of analysing this principle would be to look at the words and deciding whether they are concrete or not. As already mentioned, the audio-visual principle was presented in codes such as “a picture” or “flash cards”. However, there were more codes that indicated the presence of this principle. Codes such as “to show”, “to see” or “to ask” and “to listen” are typical for visual and auditory learning styles in the lessons, however, whether those codes were within the one activity was vital. Usually, those two codes of both auditory and visual learning styles appeared in the activity and therefore were considered as audio-visual styles. The codes for the last principle were found in phrases like “Repeated the wrong answer with the rising intonation.” or “asked for the right answer”.

8 Findings

After all the observation sheets were analysed, the findings were organised into several parts. To make it easier to see the findings, the principles would be presented in groups according to the teachers.

8.1 The Principle of Short Activity

As stated before, the short activity principle is based on findings from the theoretical part. In the observed lessons, the length of the activities was examined and if the activity was shorter than ten minutes, the principle of short activity was fulfilled. Even when the principle has strictly given rule, some exceptions were taken into consideration. Some activities are, for example, necessary to complete or, according to Shin and Crandall (2013, 29), the activity is so engaging that the attention span of learners is maintained for a longer period of time.

However, the principle of the short activity means that the activity presented in the lesson should take less than ten minutes and the activities should be changed more often.

8.1.1 Teacher 1

Teacher 1 in the lessons successfully used the principle of short activity. None of the activities in their lessons were longer than ten minutes. Although some of the activities were close to ten minutes, the activities were usually engaging for the learners and therefore the learners kept their attention for a longer time. The time span of activities used by this teacher varied from a minute to ten minutes. The teacher mostly worked with activities around five minutes long however, some of the tasks took longer either because the learners simply did not cooperate or because the learners were so engaged in the activity that they did not want to move on to the next task. Overall, this teacher successfully fulfilled this principle in all the lessons.

8.1.2 Teacher 2

Activities presented by the Teacher 2 were in alignment with this principle. However, even here were few exceptions. For example, the first lesson contained only four activities because one of them was a checkpoint that took around twenty minutes which significantly took time from the lesson. Despite the fact that the activity was twice as long as it should be, the learners did not lose their attention as they found the checkpoint challenging. On the other hand, the rest of the activities in that lesson were shorter and more engaging. Similarly, the rest of the lessons were structured with shorter and more engaging activities. The teacher often struggled with a similar problem as the first teacher, when learners were not cooperating and therefore the tasks took more time which led to learners losing their attention. When this occurred, improvisation often took place and the teacher implemented one-minute activities between longer ones. The principle of short activities was achieved almost in every lesson this teacher created.

8.1.3 Teacher 3

Teacher 3 was also successful in implementing this principle into the lessons. However, some of the activities took more than ten minutes and therefore the principle was not fulfilled in these cases. Contrary to the previous teachers who made the longer activities engaging or it was necessary to complete the activity, this teacher sometimes used longer activity just to fill the gaps between the activities. One of these activities would be for example the game where students made two lines and were supposed to guess what picture is on the floor. Every time

someone said the wrong answer, the game started from the beginning which made the activity quite boring for the learners and perhaps the teacher as well. However, the time spans varied from a minute to fifteen minutes, most of them being up to five minutes and therefore this teacher achieved to use the principle of the short activity in every lesson with some exceptions.

8.1.4 Summary

As mentioned above, this principle was used by all the teachers observed. Although the teachers might plan the activity shorter, some factors can easily influence its length. One of these factors would be the learners that are not willing to cooperate with the teacher or simply do not understand what the teacher asks them to do. Another factor would be that learners are engaged in the activity and want to proceed with the activity. This factor is however more manageable as the teacher can change the activity and learners should obey this change. In some cases, the activities took longer as they were necessary to complete, such as tests. Overall, all the teachers managed to include this principle in their lessons and therefore the short activity principle is considered as fulfilled.

8.2 The Principle of Concrete Vocabulary

The principle of concrete vocabulary was defined in the theoretical part where several authors, such as Vágnerová (1999) or Langmeier and Krejčířová (1999) suggest that when teaching vocabulary to young learners, the connection to reality is necessary as they cannot yet comprehend abstract words. The vocabulary presented in the lesson should be therefore words learners can see or imagine, such as a chair, boy or, a cat.

8.2.1 Teacher 1

Teacher 1 was successful in following the principle of concrete vocabulary, as all the words taught were concrete and connected to reality. As the teacher's first activity at the beginning of each lesson was giving commands for stretching, the words "raise, jump or spin" might not be comprehensible by children. However, the teacher showed them the meaning of the words and therefore the principle was fulfilled in this case. All the lessons focused on birthdays and therefore in the first lesson, words such as a balloon, a birthday card, a cake, a candle, or a present were presented. The teacher also included words from previous lessons, such as a book, a pencil, a pencil case, a doll, or a train. The second lesson was closely connected to the first lesson as the topic was the same and therefore the vocabulary was almost the same. The only difference was that learners were learning how to say how old they are and ask someone

their age. Although the question “How old are you?” is not concrete learners must know this phrase. Otherwise, all the words mentioned above are concrete and therefore the principle of concrete vocabulary was accomplished by this teacher.

8.2.2 Teacher 2

The difference between the vocabulary taught by the first teacher and the second teacher was significant. Contrary to Teacher 1, the lessons of Teacher 2 differed as every lesson had a different theme. The first lesson’s topic was face and hygiene connected to it. The words used in class were eyes, ears, head, hair, face, teeth, mouth, and nose. The learners were also learning phrases such as wash your hands, wash your face, brush your hair, or brush your teeth. As mentioned before, the lessons of the first teacher were following the vocabulary from the previous lesson, however, the second teacher taught a completely different vocabulary in each lesson. However, the last lesson focused on the vocabulary the learners recall. The second lesson focused on food and the vocabulary taught was cheese, sandwiches, milk, biscuits, eggs, and bananas. Words used in the last lesson were not prepared by the teacher but learners. The teacher used the activities for learners to recall the vocabulary taught in previous lessons. However, this was not the only topic of the lesson, the learners also became familiar with the phrases I like, and I do not like. Although these two phrases would not be considered concrete vocabulary as well as the question “How old are you?” used by the first teacher, the rest of the vocabulary was concrete, and the teacher abided by the principle.

8.2.3 Teacher 3

This teacher had a similar approach to Teacher 1 and all the lessons were almost identical. However, contrary to the first teacher who taught the same words with help of different activities, this teacher used the same vocabulary with almost the same activities in every lesson. The Total Physical Response method in stretching activity was also used at the beginning of the lesson with commands such as hands up, hands down, or jump. The vocabulary taught were adjectives good, bad, scared, fine, happy, and sad. Those adjectives were presented on flashcards with kites and the teacher asked the learners what kite it is. Therefore, the learners also learned the word kite. Contrary to the first two teachers, Teacher 3 did not include vocabulary from previous lessons, so the learners did not have the chance to practice words previously learned. However, all the vocabulary presented in the observed lessons was in alignment with the concrete vocabulary principle and therefore the teacher successfully managed to fulfil it.

8.2.4 Summary

The teachers did not have any problems with this principle. Although there were some exceptions, the rest of the vocabulary was concrete and therefore the principle was accomplished.

8.3 The Audio-Visual Principle

In the theoretical part, the fact that the usage of more senses while learning brings a positive outcome. Harmer (2007) and Brown (2000) suggest that every learner needs a different approach and therefore the activities should include both visual and auditory styles. According to Brown (2000, 122) for learners that prefer visual style would be beneficial pictures, videos, or reading, and for the auditory style it would be audiotapes or listening to the teacher. Therefore, for the principle to be fulfilled, there must be both visual and auditory materials available for learners.

8.3.1 Teacher 1

In the first lesson, all the activities except for one were audio-visual. The first activity was stretching, when the teacher was giving the commands and showed the learners what to do. Therefore, the learners received audio-visual input for learning the words. Most of the visual aspect of the learning was given to the learners through pictures in a book, flash cards or real objects. For example, in the activity for reminding the vocabulary the teacher was saying the words and showing the plastic cake with candles. Learners then counted how many candles are on the cake. This principle was also used in the listening activity when the learners worked with the pictures in the book while listening to the audio. However, some activities did not have a visual aspect to them. One of those activities would be the one where the teacher was thinking about some word and the learners were supposed to guess the right word. On the other hand, the teacher offered the learners to see the pictures in the book to see what vocabulary the learners already learned. In the following lessons, the principles were followed as well, the only exception was when the learners were singing a song. In the activity for learning the question “How old are you?” was the principle included by the teacher drawing a cake and candles on the whiteboard. The learners were then saying how old they are based on the number of candles. Overall, the audio-visual principle was accomplished by Teacher 1 in all the lessons.

8.3.2 Teacher 2

This teacher did not follow the principle as much as the first teacher. In the first lesson, the audio-visual principle was used only in one activity and its follow-up part. The teacher put flash cards on the ground and the learners were supposed to go and find the picture teacher named. When the teacher ran out of pictures on the ground, the follow-up activity was in order. The learners were supposed to find a picture and put it on the place the teacher mentioned. The visual aspect was realised by the flash cards and real object in the classroom, such as the table, the carpet, the chair, or the board. In the second lesson, the principle was used in all the activities. One of the activities was when the teacher had flash cards and was showing them to the learners. According to how high the teacher was holding the card, the learners were changing how loud they were talking. Another activity would be when there were flash cards on the carpet and when learners closed their eyes the teacher took one of the cards and hid it. Then the learners were supposed to say which card is missing. One of the activities with a more visual aspect was when the learners created their cards with pictures. In the last lesson, the learners were working with the cards they created in the previous lessons. They were sitting on the carpet and at first teacher said the word and learners pointed at the picture, then the learner said the word and other learners were pointing. At the end of the lesson, the learners played matching cards with the same cards. Although the first lesson seemed like the teacher would not use the audio-visual principle in the lessons, the rest of the lessons proved that Teacher 2 can include the principle in the activities.

8.3.3 Teacher 3

As already mentioned, when talking about the principle of concrete vocabulary, this teacher used almost identical lesson plans for all three lessons observed and therefore there were only a few of the activities to analyse. However, the principle was used in the first activities in all the lessons when the teacher was giving instructions such as hands up and down, jump or turn around while displaying what to do. One activity that was in alignment with the principle and was not used by the other two teachers was a video of the episode from Peppa Pig. The learners were watching the video, which was a visual input, about a topic connected with the lesson. At the end of the video, the characters in the video were jumping and the teacher made use of that and asked the learners to jump like them while jumping with them. Another activity including this principle was Bingo. The learners had their own cards with faces on kites and organised them into two rows. The teacher was showing the cards while naming it and the learner who had three kites in a row shouted bingo. In the second lesson the learners

were drawing faces on the template of the kite. When they were done with their kites they sat in the circle and presented their kites with the help of the teacher. The kites served as a visual aspect to this activity. In the last lesson, one of the activities containing audio-visual principle was when the teacher told the learners to make two lines. The teacher put the flash card between them facing the floor and the learners were supposed to guess what kite is on the card. The Teacher 3 showed the ability to appropriately use the audio-visual principle in the lessons.

8.3.4 Summary

As mentioned before, auditory, and visual learning style were used in most of the activities in the lessons. As learners in the first grade cannot read yet, the auditory learning style was the base for presenting the words to the learners. Therefore, when the teachers used some visual context connected to what the learners were learning, the principle was achieved.

8.4 The Principle of Correction

The correction principle is based on Harmer's (2007), Johnson's (2008) or Scott and Ytreberg's (1990) opinion that it is vital to know when and more importantly how to correct learners' mistakes. Therefore, the teachers should address the mistake and then help the learner to correct it. The principle is fulfilled when the teacher corrects the learner by several way stated by Jonson (2008, 303–304) such as repeating the error in a correct way or encourage the learner to correct their answer on their own. These ways were stated in the theoretical part of this paper.

8.4.1 Teacher 1

This principle was used in every lesson taught by the Teacher 1. In the first lesson, more techniques of correcting learners' mistakes were used. The most common ones were repeating the word but in a correct way or waiting for the rest of the class to find the right answer. For example, in the first lesson, a learner said a wrong answer when the teacher was showing flash cards. The teacher repeated the wrong word with rising intonation, indicating that the answer is not correct and asked the class if they knew the right answer. With this the teacher did not put the pressure on the learner and gave the opportunity to everyone say the right word. Other method of correction was presented in the activity focused on presenting the new phrases. Every student was supposed to ask the question and when they made a mistake in pronunciation the teacher simply repeated the question but in a right way. However, in some activities the correction was not necessary and therefore the teacher decided not to correct

anything. This case was shown for example in activity when the teacher was thinking about word and the learners were supposed to guess what word the teacher thinks about. In this case the teacher only needed to hear the correct answer and if the learner said wrong word the teacher only shook their head and the activity continued. This teacher proved the ability to correct the learners in a right time and correct way and therefore the correction principle was fulfilled.

8.4.2 Teacher 2

This teacher did not capitalise on this principle to the fullest. There were activities the teacher should correct the learner but did not do it. However, in some activities was the correction appropriately used. For example, when the teacher was presenting new vocabulary and a mistake occurred, the teacher immediately corrected the learners, so they did not acquire the word in a wrong way. Another way how the teacher used this principle in the classroom was either by repeating the way it is supposed to be pronounced or saying no and waiting if other learners know the right answer. If not, the teacher repeated the word again, so the learners heard how to say it correctly. Another case when the teacher corrected the learners was when the learners were supposed to put the flash cards on various places. When the learner put it somewhere else, the teacher took the flash card and asked the learners where the learner was supposed to put the card instead. If no one knew the answer, the teacher pointed at the place and said the right answer. There were also some activities where the correction was not essential for example when learners were singing song, and someone made a mistake. The teacher did not want to break the flow and therefore decided not to correct the learner. This would be the example of fluency correction, however, the teacher did not correct the learner at all. It might be beneficial to write down the mistakes and point them out after the song. Although the Teacher 2 did not use correction as much as possible, it was used correctly, and it was visible that the teacher knows when to correct and when not to correct learners' mistakes.

8.4.3 Teacher 3

The last teacher only said the correct answer right away or asked the learners for the correct answer. For example, when the teacher was showing the flash cards, reaction on the incorrect answer was asking the other learners for help. In the activity with two lines and flash cards, the teacher asked, "What kite it might be?", and when the learner said for example "It is happy kite." the teacher turned the picture and when it was not happy the teacher said, "No it is good kite.". In this case the teacher should encourage the learners to say the correct answer.

However, the activities where the teacher asked the rest of the class for the right answer were used more often and therefore the learners were provided the opportunity to think about their mistakes. As in the case of the first two teachers, there were also activities that did not require correction and the teacher appropriately did not correct the learners during this activity. There were not activities that focused on the learning new words and therefore the correction of pronunciation, which is important for the learners to not to fossilize the word with wrong pronunciation, was not recorded. However, otherwise the corrections were made by the right methods and the teacher appropriately included the correction principle in most of the activities.

8.4.4 Summary

To successfully achieve of the correction principle, the teacher must know when and how to correct the learners which is not always easy. However, all the teachers proved their ability to correct the learners' mistakes appropriately and at the right time. Those corrections were made in every lesson and therefore the principle was fulfilled.

9 Conclusion to the Practical Part

To conclude the findings in the practical part, the Figure 2 was created, based on the analysed data from the observation sheets. The data was used to help organise the findings from the observation. The chart is divided according to the teachers, the lessons, and the principles. When the principle was fulfilled in the lesson, the tick was added into the right cell. For example, if the first teacher used the short activity principle in the first lesson, the first cell would be marked as accomplished.

	Teacher 1			Teacher 2			Teacher 3		
	Lesson 1	Lesson 2	Lesson 3	Lesson 1	Lesson 2	Lesson 3	Lesson 1	Lesson 2	Lesson 3
Short activity	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Concrete vocabulary	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Audio-visual	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Correction	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓

Figure 2: The Fulfilment of the Principles

From the chart is obvious that all the principles were used by every teacher in every lesson. As the aim of this research was to find out if the principles for teaching young learners are used in the first grades, the chart only shows if the principles were used and not how many

times they were used. Therefore, it is possible to say that every principle was used in the lesson at least once. The research question stated at the beginning of the practical part was whether the principles of teaching English to young learners are used in the first grade of primary school. Based on findings from the practical part, this question was answered as the principles were included in the lessons.

CONCLUSION

This paper aimed at teaching English in the first grade of primary school. Throughout this research, several methods and strategies were identified and main principles of teaching English to young learners were created. These principles can be effective while presenting English language to first-grade learners, including the use of engaging and interactive activities.

In the theoretical part, the aim of the teaching English was presented through describing the communicative competences and their CEFR. The young learners were described, and their physical, cognitive and emotional development was specified. Based on that, the principles such as the principle of short activity, of concrete vocabulary, audio-visual principle and the principle of correction were obtained. These principles were thoroughly described and summarized at the end of the theoretical part.

In the practical part, the aim and the research question were presented. After that, the observation as the research method was selected. To contact the schools and teachers was vital in order to start the observations. The observations took place at three schools where observing one teacher per school and three lessons per teacher. Before the observations started, the observation sheet was created, and the pilot lesson took place. After the actual observations, the observation sheets were coded, and the data was obtained from them. At the end of this part, the findings were summarized, and the research question was answered.

In conclusion, the findings in the practical part suggest that successful implementation of all the principles specified in the theoretical part took place in every school observed. As already stated, the research question was whether the principles of teaching English in the first grade in primary schools are used and not how many times it occurred in the lesson. Therefore, once the principle occurred at least in one activity, the principle was considered as fulfilled for the lesson.

RESUMÉ

Tato práce se zabývá principy vyučování anglického jazyka žáků v prvních třídách na základních školách. Cílem teoretické části je představit charakteristiky mladých žáků a jejich osvojování jazyka. Poté na jejich základě vymezit principy vyučování anglického jazyka pro tuto věkovou kategorii. Praktická část se bude věnovat výzkumu provedeném v prvních třídách základních škol. Tento výzkum cílí na otázku, zda jsou tyto principy na základních školách v České republice využívány.

První kapitola je věnována komunikačním kompetencím. Je zde popsán Společný evropský referenční rámec a dále i komunikační kompetence. Zmíněny jsou zde i například podkategorie lingvistických nebo pragmatických kompetencí. Na základě těchto podkategorií jsou vypsány základní nároky na mladé žáky, kteří jsou na úrovni nižší než A1.

Druhá kapitola se zabývá charakteristikou mladých žáků. Jejich věkové vymezení se určuje od šesti, či sedmi let do jedenácti až dvanácti let. Vágnerová uvádí, že období mladého žáka začíná nástupem do první třídy na základní školy a končí přechodem na druhý stupeň. Dále je zde rozebrán fakt, že žáci nejsou schopni se soustředit na jednu aktivitu déle než deset minut, a proto by aktivity neměli trvat déle než těchto zmíněných deset minut. Toto je jeden z principů výuky anglického jazyka a zároveň důležitá charakteristika mladého žáka. Další charakteristika, která mladé žáky dělí od ostatních žáků je vývoj. Tato část kapitoly je dále rozdělena na psychický, kognitivní a emoční vývoj, kde je u každého vývoje uvedena charakteristika specifická pro mladé žáky. Jsou zde také zmíněny faktory, které mohou ovlivnit vývoj dítěte. Takovými faktory může být například to, v jaké kultuře vyrůstají, jejich pohlaví, či to, jaké očekávání od nich mají jejich rodiče. Tyto faktory jsou následně propojeny s osvojováním anglického jazyka, jelikož většina, z již zmíněných faktorů hraje roli i v tomto procesu.

Třetí kapitola je věnována osvojování jazyka. Před začátkem výuky cizího jazyka je třeba si objasnit, jak osvojování takového jazyka funguje a v čem se liší u žáků různých věkových kategorií. Jelikož se první jazyk osvojuje jiným způsobem než ten další, byl v této kapitole specifikován způsob osvojení jazyka jak prvního, tak i jazyka druhého. V této kapitole byl také určen rozdíl mezi prvním a dalším jazykem, kdy první jazyk je jazyk mateřský a další je jakýkoliv jazyk jiný, než je ten mateřský. Na konci této kapitoly jsou shrnuty dva způsoby osvojování si jazyka. Podle Saville-Troike (2006), první způsob je, když je žák obklopen

jazykem, který si právě osvojuje, jinde než ve třídě. Druhý způsob je právě zmíněná třída, kdy žák není vystaven jazyku jinde než v ní.

Čtvrtá kapitola navazuje na osvojování jazyka a je více specificky zaměřena na osvojování jazyka mladými žáky. Začátek kapitoly se věnuje receptivním a produktivním dovednostem v souvislosti s osvojováním jazyka, jelikož je nutné si uvědomit, že si nejprve žáci osvojí receptivní dovednost a až poté tu produktivní. Dále jsou zde popsány zbylé principy pro výuku anglického jazyka právě těchto mladých žáků. Jedním z těchto principů je způsob, jakým by učitel měl opravovat žákovi chyby a za jakých okolností tyto chyby opravovat. Dalším principem je výběr slovní zásoby tak aby slovíčka byla konkrétní a propojitelné s realitou. Poslední princip zmíněný v této kapitole je zaměřený na audio vizuální styl učení. To znamená, že děti by měli dostat jak zvukový podklad pro učení, tak ten vizuální.

V páté kapitole byly shrnuty všechny principy vyučování anglického jazyka v prvních třídách, jelikož tyto principy nebyly explicitně vyjádřeny v předešlých kapitolách. Nakonec v závěru teoretické části bylo shrnuto, co vše bylo popsáno v předchozích kapitolách. Poznátka uvedená v teoretické části slouží jako podklad pro část praktickou, jelikož cíl praktické části je zjistit, zda jsou principy vydefinované v teoretické části využívány ve výuce anglického jazyka v prvních třídách na základních školách.

Praktická část se věnovala výzkumu o výskytu principů ve výuce zmíněných v předešlém odstavci. V první části byl nejprve popsán cíl jak teoretické, tak praktické části a následovně byla vydefinována výzkumná otázka. Výzkumná otázka této práce byla, zda se v prvních třídách základních škol využívají principy výuky anglického jazyka pro mladé žáky. Dále byl specifikován druh výzkumu, který sloužil k lepšímu uchopení celého výzkumu a výzkumné otázky. Na základě výzkumné otázky byla vybrána observace jako metoda pro realizaci výzkumu, jelikož tato metoda byla autorem této práce vyhodnocena jako nejvíce objektivní. Následovně bylo kontaktováno několik učitelů, ze kterých byli vybráni pouze tři, kdy každý z nich byl z jiné školy. Tímto měl být zajištěn větší rozsah výzkumu. V následující kapitole byli představeni vybraní učitelé a školy. Před uskutečněním observací byl připraven observační arch, který obsahoval tabulku pro popsání aktivit v hodině, informaci o tom, zda byly principy splněny a následný popis principů v aktivitách. Dále bylo potřeba provést pilotní observaci pro odhalení nedostatků v observačním archu a uskutečnění případných změn. Po pilotní observaci bylo v observačním archu uděláno pár změn a následná verze archu byla připravena na observace. Jak bylo již zmíněno, observace proběhly na třech

školách v hodinách tří učitelů. U každého učitele byly pozorovány tři hodiny, celkem tedy i s pilotní observací bylo pozorováno deset vyučovacích hodin.

Poté co byla sesbírána data z observací, observační archy byly analyzovány otevřeným kódováním a na základě těchto kódů vznikla zjištění tohoto výzkumu. Toto kódování probíhalo způsobem, kdy na základě procházení observačních archů byly nalezeny specifické kódy pro každý princip a na základě výskytu těchto kódů bylo vyhodnoceno, zda byl princip splněn. Na základě těchto kódů byla vytvořena tabulka pro poskytnutí vhledu do situace. Následně tato zjištění z observací byla slovně představena podle jednotlivých principů a učitelů, kdy byly popsány aktivity, ve kterých se princip vyskytl, a jak bylo zjištěno, že se zde vyskytl. V závěru praktické části byla vytvořena tabulka, kde bylo vyobrazeno, v jakých hodinách a u jakých učitelů byly principy zahrnuty do výuky. Tato tabulka ukázala, že v každé hodině byl každý princip využit alespoň v jedné hodině. Na základě výsledků z observací byla odpovězena výzkumná otázka, jelikož bylo na základě zjištění dokázáno, že principy výuky anglického jazyka v prvních třídách základní školy jsou využívány. Bohužel, jelikož tento výzkum byl proveden pouze na třech školách, není možné říct, že jsou principy využívány v celé České republice a výzkum se tedy nedá zobecnit.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: Blank Observation Sheet

Observation sheet

Class:	Date:	Time:
Teacher observed:	Observer:	

Description of an activity	Principles: YES/NO	Principles in the activity
Correction: Time:	1. Short activity: 2. Concrete vocabulary: 3. Audio-visual: 4. Correction:	
Correction: Time:	1. Short activity: 2. Concrete vocabulary: 3. Audio-visual: 4. Correction:	
Correction: Time:	1. Short activity: 2. Concrete vocabulary: 3. Audio-visual: 4. Correction:	
Correction: Time:	1. Short activity: 2. Concrete vocabulary: 3. Audio-visual: 4. Correction:	

APPENDIX 2: Observation Sheet from the first lesson

Observation sheet

Class: 1A	Date: 20.2.	Time: 40
Teacher observed: Teacher 1	Observer: Hana Navrátilová	

Description of an activity	Principles: YES/NO	Principles in the activity
The teacher was giving them commands for stretching. She was showing them what to do (TPR). Correction: there was no correction Time: a minute	1. Short activity: YES 2. Concrete vocabulary: YES 3. Audio-visual: YES 4. Correction: NO	1. The activity was no more than a minute long and therefore the principle of short activity was fulfilled. 2. The vocabulary in the activity was concrete, such as raise your hand, stand up and so on. -> fulfilled. 3. The teacher said the commands out loud and showed the children what they are supposed to do -> fulfilled. 4. Correction was not done; however, the teacher gave the learners feedback by doing what they were supposed to do -> not clear
She showed them a cake with candles, present, birthday card and flashcards with balloon and the badge. She was reminding them the vocabulary from last time. Correction: the teacher repeated the right answers Time: 4 minutes	1. Short activity: YES 2. Concrete vocabulary: YES 3. Audio-visual: YES 4. Correction: YES	1. The activity was in a 10-minute range -> fulfilled 2. The vocabulary was concrete -> fulfilled 3. The teacher showed them the real objects or flashcards -> fulfilled 4. The teacher corrected the learners by repeating the right answer -> fulfilled.
She had a picture of a present with a hole in the wrapping and she asked the students to figure out what the present is. She was asking	1. Short activity: YES 2. Concrete vocabulary: YES 3. Audio-visual: YES 4. Correction: YES	1. the activity was short, but children seem to be tired of it very quickly, however, the time limit was accomplished -> fulfilled

<p>"Is it a book, is it a pencil case..." First was a train, then a book and a doll.</p> <p>Correction: when a learner said a wrong thing, the teacher waited if anyone else will say the right answer. If nobody said the right answer, the teacher said it.</p> <p>Time 5 minutes</p>		<p>2. the vocabulary was concrete -> fulfilled</p> <p>3. the teacher was showing the flashcards, while asking the questions -> fulfilled</p> <p>4. The teacher corrected the learner by repeating the right answer or waiting if other learner says it right -> fulfilled</p>
<p>Book - There was a picture with the balloons. "what can u see in the picture?" "Is there a balloon?" They were describing the picture. In this activity, she used Czech for explaining something. (usually when children asked her something in Czech) She was asking them a question and the learners were replying.</p> <p>Correction: When the learners said something wrong, she either repeated the word but correctly (if the pronunciation or the word was wrong) or waited word the other children to say the right answer.</p> <p>Time 5 minutes</p>	<p>1. Short activity: YES</p> <p>2. Concrete vocabulary: YES</p> <p>3. Audio-visual: YES</p> <p>4. Correction: YES</p>	<p>1. the activity was short, and children seemed to enjoy it -> fulfilled.</p> <p>2. the vocabulary was concrete -> fulfilled</p> <p>3. the learners were looking at the picture in the book while listening to the teacher asking questions. -> fulfilled.</p> <p>4. the teacher corrected them by repeating the right answer or waited if anyone else knew the answer. -> fulfilled.</p>

<p>Listening activity - she played an audio with questions - "is it a present? No. Is it a balloon? Is it a red balloon? Yes. Number ten? Yes, very good." and children were supposed to look for the number in the balloon and say it out loud.</p> <p>Correction: The teacher waited for the right answer</p> <p>Time: 5 minutes</p>	<p>1. Short activity: YES</p> <p>2. Concrete vocabulary: YES</p> <p>3. Audio-visual: YES</p> <p>4. Correction: NO</p>	<p>1. The activity was short -> fulfilled</p> <p>2. the vocabulary was concrete (balloon, present, ...) -> fulfilled.</p> <p>3. The children were looking at the picture in the book while listening to the audio. ->fulfilled</p> <p>4. The teacher was not correcting because there was nothing to correct.</p>
<p>Then she said that she's thinking about one thing from the picture. The children were asking "Is it a present...? Children were practising words, colours and numbers. Then children were thinking about one thing from the picture and others were asking about it.</p> <p>Correction: in this activity the teacher was correcting the children when they said the question wrong. She repeated the question.</p> <p>Time: 10 minutes</p>	<p>1. Short activity: ?</p> <p>2. Concrete vocabulary: YES</p> <p>3. Audio-visual: NO</p> <p>4. Correction: YES</p>	<p>1. this activity was in a 10-minute range; however, the activity was long, and the children lost their attention after a bit -> technically fulfilled, practically not.</p> <p>2. The vocabulary was concrete (colours, numbers, birthday vocabulary) -> fulfilled.</p> <p>3. There was no visual part in this activity ->not fulfilled</p> <p>4. the teacher was repeating the question right ->fulfilled.</p>
<p>Board activity - she put a picture inside the board and draw a present. Something like a hangman. The children were guessing what the present is and every time they were wrong, she draw a part of the Otto's face (a cat). The children could use a book to see what they learned so far.</p> <p>She was giving them points. One children drew a few points on the table and instead of</p>	<p>1. Short activity: YES</p> <p>2. Concrete vocabulary: YES</p> <p>3. Audio-visual: YES</p> <p>4. Correction: NO</p>	<p>1. The activity was also 10 minutes long, however, contrary to the previous activity, the learners seemed very engaged in the activity -> fulfilled.</p> <p>2. the activity was concrete (school supplies) -> fulfilled</p> <p>3. children seen the picture when they guessed it right -> fulfilled.</p> <p>4. No correction in this activity -> not fulfilled.</p>

<p>punishing him, she used the situation and got the children to count the points.</p> <p>Correction: In this activity, the teacher did not need to correct anyone.</p> <p>Time: 10 minutes</p>		
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