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Developing Upper-Secondary Learners' Autonomy
in English Language Lessons

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Návrh zadání:

Cílem této diplomové práce je prozkoumat, zda a jakými způsoby lze rozvíjet autonomii žáků ve výuce anglického jazyka na čtyřletém gymnáziu. V teoretické části práce bude diplomantka definovat koncept autonomie a zasadit jej do širšího kontextu vzdělávání v České republice ve vztahu k výuce anglického jazyka. Dále zde bude definovat aspekty autonomie, které jsou klíčovými ve vztahu k osvojování anglického jazyka a představí možnosti rozvoje autonomie žáka čtyřletého gymnázia ve výuce anglického jazyka. Východiska teoretické části pak budou sloužit jako základ pro realizaci výzkumného šetření prostřednictvím případové studie, ve které bude diplomantka na vybraném gymnáziu zjišťovat pomocí pozorování a dotazování, zda a jak učitelé anglického jazyka podporují rozvoj autonomie u žáků čtyřletého gymnázia ve výuce anglického jazyka.

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Anotace:

Tato práce se zabývá rozvojem autonomie studentů v hodinách anglického jazyka na čtyřletém gymnáziu. Teoretická část definuje současné přístupy ke vzdělávání, rozvoj autonomie, pojem komunikační kompetence, který následně kriticky porovnává na základě dvou vybraných modelů a v neposlední řadě poskytuje teoretický základ o tom, jakými způsoby je možné rozvíjet autonomii studentů v hodinách anglického jazyka. Teoretická část slouží jako základ k části praktické, ve které bylo za pomoci případové studie zjišťováno, zda a jak je autonomie u studentů čtyřletého gymnázia rozvíjena a také to, do jakých komunikačních kompetencí tento rozvoj autonomie cílí.

Klíčová slova:

Rozvoj autonomie, autonomie žáka, výuka anglického jazyka, případová studie, současné přístupy ke vzdělávání, komunikační kompetence

Annotation:

This work deals with the development of learner autonomy in English language classes at a four-year grammar school. The theoretical part defines current approaches to education, autonomy development, the concept of communicative competence, which is then critically compared, based on two selected models and it also provides a theoretical basis for the ways in which it is possible to develop learner autonomy in English language classes. The theoretical part serves as a basis for the practical part, which, with the help of a case study, investigated whether and how learner autonomy is developed at the selected four-year grammar school and also which aspects of communicative competence are supported in this development.

Keywords:

Autonomy development, learner autonomy, English language teaching, case study, current approaches to education, communicative competence

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List of Abbreviations:

ELT – English Language Teaching

ELL – English Language Learning

TBL – Task-Based Learning

Introduction

Nowadays, it may be suggested that there is a certain pressure on people in the amount of information they need to deal with. In education, it can be seen in the growing need to teach learners how to be more autonomous and think critically, in order not to lose oneself in the flow of new information all around. One may say that what is valid now does not necessarily have to be valid in a few days and that is mainly because of the fast changes in the world.

This thesis aims to find out whether and how learner autonomy is developed at a selected four-year grammar school in ELT classes. This topic was opted for because autonomy development seems to be a bit left behind in the Czech educational system. So as already mentioned, this thesis deals with the topic of autonomy development and is divided into two parts – the theoretical and practical part.

The first chapter in the theoretical part then deals primarily with current approaches to education, either generally speaking or in the context of language education. The reason is that the majority of the approaches could be applied both to most of the subjects in the Czech educational system or specifically to language teaching. Furthermore, it puts the educational approaches in connection to the concept of learner-centredness and individualisation and differentiation and tries to show how it contributes to autonomy development. The next chapter then discusses what autonomy is about, defines the term in particular and it also discusses the conditions for autonomy development in school classes. It could be said that the first two chapters are a bit more general and define the concepts more broadly, whereas the third and fourth chapters are more focused on language teaching itself. Specifically, the third chapter defines what communicative competence is and critically compares two models – The CEFR and a model by Murcia. Thanks to that, it was possible for the author to choose one of the models, based on which of them seemed more appropriate for this thesis. The last chapter then discusses directly autonomy development in language classes, presenting ways in which it can be supported.

The practical part then characterises and presents the strategy of a case study, together with the description of data collection tools that were used to collect the data needed for the research. Both the observation sheet and the interview are based on the list of autonomy features, which was created on the basis of the findings from the theoretical part of this thesis. All the data was then analysed and described, and the practical part ends with a discussion of the findings.

THEORETICAL PART

1. Current Approaches to Education

1.1 Approach Definition

To define what approach in teaching means, one may suggest that an approach does not define how to teach specifically, but it rather provides a framework, according to which teachers choose teaching methods and techniques. In language teaching, there are also different views on what language is - it can be seen as a system of rules and structures, as a means of communication, or as a tool for social interaction. Similarly, there are different theories of language acquisition, for example, behaviourist theory, which emphasizes repetition and reinforcement of correct responses, or cognitive theory, which focuses on how students actively process information. Based on these theories, specific teaching methods are then created, such as the direct method or the communicative approach. Importantly, the approach does not change in a specific class or situation - it is rather a philosophical foundation on which the entire teaching is based. Teachers who share the same approach can still use different methods according to the needs of their learners. Moreover, the approach to language teaching is constantly evolving, combining different theoretical perspectives to make learning as effective as possible and meet the real-world needs of learners (Richards and Rodgers, 2014, 14-19).

1.2 Approaches and Paradigms to Education and Language Teaching

Educational psychology has undergone various changes throughout its history that have influenced language teaching. In the late 19th century, psychology sought to establish itself as a science that would be comparable to the natural sciences. This led to the use of scientific methods to study human behaviour. This development led to a division between two main groups of psychologists – some focused on the study of the human mind, i.e. thoughts and emotions, while others argued that the only measurable way to study a person was to analyse their observable behaviour. Different approaches prevailed in different countries, which led to the lack of a unified view of psychology as a whole. Two main trends have had a significant impact on education, and especially on language teaching: positivism and later behaviourism, which emphasized learning through repetition and reinforcement of behaviour. The next was cognitive psychology, which focused on mental processes such as memory,

thinking, and understanding (Brown, 2000, 86-92). These theories not only shaped the ways in which languages were taught, but also influenced pedagogical approaches in general, and still serve as the basis for various methods in education today (Williams and Burden, 1997, 6-7).

1.3A Comparison of Current Approaches to Education

1.3.1 The Positivist School and Behaviourism:

The positivist school of psychology emerged in the late 19th century and sought to bring psychology closer to the natural sciences, which rely on experimental methods. Psychologists at the time believed that human behaviour could be understood and predicted by studying specific, measurable phenomena. Therefore, they focused on studying animal behaviour because they considered their reactions to be simpler and easier to study than human thoughts and feelings. This approach focused on what could be seen and measured and dismissed all phenomena that could not be experimentally verified, including human thoughts and emotions (Williams and Burden, 1997, 8-9). This trend led to the development of behaviourism, a theory that explains behaviour based on conditioned responses to various stimuli. Behaviourism argues that all human behaviour can be explained as a response to stimuli from the environment that have been repeatedly associated with some consequences. Probably the most famous example is Ivan Pavlov's experiment, which found that dogs would start to salivate at the sound of a bell if the bell was regularly associated with food. This process is called classical conditioning, and it shows how new responses to stimuli are formed in both humans and animals. Behaviourism, therefore, emphasizes how repetition and conditioning influence behaviour, and this approach has proven very successful in language teaching because it focuses on repetition, responding to the right stimuli, and reinforcing positive behaviour in learners (Brown, 2000, 84-85).

1.3.2 Cognitive psychology:

In contrast to that, cognitive psychology rather focuses on the mental processes and inner world of the human mind, rather than on external behaviours that are observable and measurable. It is interested in how the human mind processes information. It examines how people think, remember, and learn. Cognitive psychologists see the learner as an active participant in the learning process who uses various mental strategies to understand the structure of language or other knowledge. Thus, cognitive psychology examines not only

how people behave, but also how they get to these behaviours through thought processes (Williams and Burden, 1997, 13). Brown adds to this, stating that in behaviourism, which focuses on the measurable descriptions of behaviour (“what happened”), cognitive psychologists ask “why did it happen”. They use logic, and deduction to search for the causes of human behaviour, whether innate, psychological, social, or environmental. This approach is therefore more focused on explanation than mere description of phenomena, and although it is more speculative and less exact, it offers deeper insight into the human mind (2000, 22-23).

1.3.3 Humanism and Social Interactionism:

Humanism is an approach based on cognitive psychology, as it focuses on the inner world of the individual, that is, on their thoughts, feelings, and emotions. These aspects are often neglected, but they are very important for understanding the learning process in its entirety. The humanistic approach to learning emphasizes the need to take into account not only the intellectual but also the emotional component of learning. In language teaching, this has led to methods that focus on the whole person, that is, on their personal involvement, emotional safety, and the minimization of anxiety. Humanistic methods include, for example, the silent method, suggestopedia, or community language learning, which focuses on the psychological aspects of teaching and attempts to remove extraneous factors that could disrupt learning, such as fear or stress (Brown, 2000, 93-94). Similarly, social interactionism is also based on cognitive psychology, but it is a psychological approach that emphasizes the importance of social interaction in the learning process. According to the theory of social interactionism, as presented by psychologists such as Vygotsky and Feuerstein, learning is a social process, where communication and cooperation with others play a key role in the development of thinking and skills. This approach takes into account both the cognitive and humanistic aspects of learning, as it emphasizes that learning is connected to the personal and social involvement of the individual. Thus, in the context of language teaching, social interactionism focuses on the interaction between learners that supports the development of their language skills and understanding (Williams and Burden, 1997, 38-40).

1.3.4 Constructivism:

Constructivism is an educational approach that emphasizes the active involvement of learners in the learning process. Instead of passively receiving information, learners are encouraged to construct their own understanding of the world based on previous experiences, new stimuli,

and interactions with people around them (Brown, 2000, 23). There are two main branches of constructivism: cognitive and social. Cognitive constructivism, inspired by the ideas of Jean Piaget, says that learning is a developmental process in which learners discover and transform information that they receive on their own. According to this approach, learners learn best when they actively process complex information and connect it to their prior knowledge (Brown, 2000, 23). Social constructivism, whose most prominent representative is Lev Vygotsky, emphasizes that thinking and learning take place in a social context - that is, in collaboration with teachers and classmates (Williams and Burden, 1997, 42).

In language education, constructivism primarily focuses on the learner, emphasizing their active role in the learning process. The teacher is not the only one who passes information to others anymore, but rather a guide who creates a stimulating environment, provides feedback and helps students formulate their own conclusions (for more information, see chap. Teacher Roles). Learners learn not only through independent exploration of the language, but also through interaction with others - for example, through conversation, group work or involvement in real communicative situations. This approach supports a deeper understanding of the language and its practical use, because learners are not just passive listeners, but active participants in the learning process (Brown, 2000, 23-24).

1.4 Learner-Centredness

As indicated in the previous sub-chapters, especially in the conception of constructivism, it may be suggested that in contemporary education, the focus is primarily on the learner, not the teacher. This shift towards learner-centred teaching emerged in the 1980s in connection with the growing influence of humanistic approaches to learning and teaching (Richards and Rodgers 2014, 32). At the same time, there has been a growing emphasis on the diversity of learners and the need to take their individual needs into account (Benson 2012, 31). Because of that, the learner-centred approach should be discussed in this sub-chapter, together with the concept of individualisation and differentiation.

As stated in the book by Weimer, one of the biggest changes nowadays is the shift from the teacher to the learner when it comes to teaching and learning (2002, 21-23). According to her, learner-centred teaching might be considered a didactic philosophy where the active participation of the learners in the teaching and learning process plays a crucial role. This approach shifts the teacher's role from that of the main source of information to that

of a guide and supporter, while students take responsibility for their own learning (*for more information, see chap. Teacher Roles*). Weimer, in her book *Learner-Centred Teaching*, identifies five key changes that are necessary for this approach: changes in the role of the teacher, student responsibility, the balance of power in the classroom, the content of the instructions, and the assessment process itself (2002, 49).

These characteristics may be considered key elements in the development of learner autonomy as well, according to Little (1991, 4-5). He states that autonomy includes the ability of students to plan, manage, and evaluate their own learning process. He also says this skill is not innate but must be developed through appropriate pedagogical methods, such as project-based learning, self-assessment, or group work (for more information, see chap. 3) (1991, 4–5). However, as Dörnyei points out, in developing autonomy it is important to take into account individual differences between learners – e.g. their learning style, motivation, and cultural background – because these factors play a key role in their engagement in learning (Dörnyei, 2001, 13-14).

1.5 Individualisation and Differentiation

Based on the previously mentioned, it could be suggested that learner-centred approach and the concept of individualisation and differentiation are closely linked, as they both contribute to the autonomy development of learners (Benson, 2011, 12-13). Even though individualisation and differentiation share some similar characteristics, e.g. that both terms take into consideration learner differences, like their needs, learning styles, abilities, or interests (Ellis, 2015, 146), the main difference in these two approaches is that individualisation is about adapting the teaching process to each learner individually, whereas differentiation is more about dividing learners into groups based on their needs and abilities (Kasíková, Dittrich and Valenta, 2007, 154).

1.5.1 Individualisation:

To make it clear, differentiation and individualisation do not mean the same thing, as suggested above. The definitions by Kasíková, Dittrich, and Valenta may help to delimit these and make the difference clear. Starting with individualisation, it is perceived by them as a process of learning where each child in the class learns on their own (2007, 154). Harmer also describes this concept, explaining how to deal with individual differences of learners in a class. To find out how the learners in one class are different from each other, he advises

either observing the class for a while or using more appropriate methods, such as e.g. questionnaires (1991, 90).

1.5.2 Differentiation:

According to Kasíková, Dittrich, and Valenta, differentiation is seen as a division of learners into different groups, taking into consideration their diverse levels in a particular subject (2007, 154). Furthermore, Tomlinson defines differentiation as the process in which teachers adjust instructions to accommodate the different learners' skill levels, interests, and learning styles in the classroom. This may include changes in the pace of giving instructions, the type of assignments, the complexity of the materials, or the amount of support materials that the students receive (2001, 1-2).

2. The Concept of Learner Autonomy Development

As it has been indicated in the previous chapter, the learner-centred approach together with individualisation and differentiation play a key role in autonomy development. Therefore, in this chapter, the concept of autonomy will be discussed and explained together with the class conditions for its development.

2.1 Historical Background of Learner Autonomy Development

In the book *Language Learner Autonomy - Theory, Practice and Research* (2017), Little provides a detailed overview of the historical development of the concept of learner autonomy, highlighting key figures and influences that shaped this approach. He states that the foundations of the modern concept of autonomy were laid by Henri Holec in his groundbreaking work *Autonomy and Foreign Language Learning* (1979), where he defined autonomy as “the ability to take responsibility for one’s own learning” (Holec in Little, 2017, 5-6). Holec’s contribution was particularly in his emphasis that autonomy is not a natural trait of every learner, but a skill that requires support and development through appropriate pedagogical practice. This work became a cornerstone for further research on autonomy and significantly influenced the way autonomy has been perceived in language education (Holec in Little, 2017, 6-7).

Little also emphasizes that these theoretical approaches were closely linked to broader trends in education that focused on individualization (see chap. *Individualisation and Differentiation*) and active student involvement in the learning process in the 1970s and 1980s. Educators began to move away from the traditional transmissive model of teaching towards approaches that emphasized collaboration, students’ critical thinking, and the development of their ability to take responsibility for their own learning. These changes have significantly contributed to autonomy becoming one of the key concepts in modern pedagogical theory and practice (Little, 2017, 8-10). This is also confirmed by Weimer, who describes in his book what is different in a lesson when the attention is redirected from the teacher to the learners and a large amount of autonomy in learning is given to them. The first key point in this approach is the motivation of the learners (see chap. *The role of motivation in learning and autonomy development*), which, according to the book *Learner-Centered Teaching*, is directly dependent on the “balance of power” between the teacher and the learners. The point of this approach is that the teacher “retreats”

into the background in the classroom and a greater emphasis is placed on the independence of the learners in their own learning process (2002, 72).

2.2 Current Conception of Autonomy Development in RVP G

In this sub-chapter, the main educational areas and competences in RVP G will be discussed in relation to autonomy development. This will be done for a better overview of how it is exactly outlined in RVP G and also to briefly explain why the Tassinari model of autonomy development was chosen for this work – and to demonstrate how it is relevant to the current main curricula document in the Czech Republic (for a more detailed description of Tassinari model, see chap. 2).

2.2.1 RVP G – Key Competences

2.2.1.1 Learning Competence

Starting with key competences, learning competence in RVP G strongly reflects the cognitive and metacognitive components of Tassinari's model. For instance, the RVP G emphasizes the ability to organize and plan one's learning process and all activities connected to it and use this ability to enhance one's personal development and growth (2021, 8). This is in alignment with the cognitive component of Tassinari's model, which involves goal-setting and strategic thinking in learning (2012, 28). Similarly, the ability to reflect one's learning process is in alignment with the metacognitive aspect of the Tassinari model, where it is stated that learners can evaluate and regulate their learning processes (2012, 28).

2.2.1.2 Communicative Competence

In the area of communicative competence, certain parallels could be observed with Tassinari's social component. The RVP G describes communicative competence as the ability to formulate one's ideas in a comprehensive way so that it is clear and appropriate in a particular situation while also being sensitive to the feelings and experiences of communication partners (2021, 9). This reflects the social aspect of autonomy, as effective communication often requires collaboration and adaptability in diverse contexts (Tassinari, 2012, 28).

2.2.2 RVP G – Educational areas

2.2.2.1 A Foreign Language - Receptive Skills

The educational areas of RVP G further illustrate this alignment as for instance in the domain of a foreign language, specific examples can be drawn from receptive, productive,

and interactive speech skills. For receptive skills, learners are expected to "understand the main points and ideas of an authentic oral expression of more complex content on a current topic" (2021, 17). This corresponds with the cognitive component of Tassinari's model, as it requires analyzing, synthesizing, and applying knowledge (2012, 28).

2.2.2.2 A Foreign Language – Productive Skills

Productive skills, on the other hand, in RVP G involve the ability to "formulate opinions clearly, fluently, and grammatically correctly" and "describe surroundings and personal interests in detail" (2021, 17). These tasks highlight the action-oriented component of Tassinari's model, which focuses on learners' capacity to independently use knowledge in meaningful ways (2012, 28).

2.2.2.3 A Foreign Language – Interactive Skills

Interactive skills according to the RVP G description, such as the ability to interact with others in a way that is not only appropriate but also spontaneous enough based on the situation, are supposed to align with both the social and action-oriented components (2021, 17, 2012, 28). These skills are crucial for autonomy, as they encourage learners to navigate complex communicative scenarios and adapt their strategies accordingly.

As suggested above, the alignment between Tassinari's Model of Autonomy and the key competences and educational areas outlined in RVP G demonstrates a shared commitment to fostering independent, reflective, and socially adept learners. By addressing various dimensions of autonomy—cognitive, metacognitive, action-oriented, and social—both frameworks emphasize the importance of equipping students with the skills and strategies needed to take ownership of their learning (2012, 24-40, 2021 8-17). So it could be said that this synergy provides a strong theoretical and practical basis for promoting autonomy in Czech secondary education, particularly in the context of foreign language learning.

2.3 Definition of Learner Autonomy Development

This sub-chapter has the intention to define what autonomy is when it comes to the learning process and educational system. At first, it should be stated why autonomy is becoming quite an important topic these days. As the website [cambridge.org](https://www.cambridge.org) states, the tendency for implementing learner autonomy more and more nowadays originates at the time when students were forced to adapt their lessons on online meetings due to certain factors in the past. Because of that, they also had to manage their own learning and adapt themselves

to the new approaches to education (Cambridge 2021). According to Lewis, who is interested in developing autonomy through collaboration in the classroom environment, says that learners who seek autonomy should be determined to engage actively in their learning process and make decisions about it, but also be willing to reflect on their learning and evaluate it (Cambridge 2019).

As the next step, the definition of learner autonomy itself should be explained. According to the website cambridge.org, learner autonomy is mainly about independence in one's learning process. It emphasises primarily the term "managing one's own learning", which they consider to be vital for developing such skills that a person can use even outside of the educational process and without constant teacher guidance (Cambridge 2021) Holec confirms this point as he describes autonomy as learners' capacity to take responsibility for managing their own learning (Holec, 1981 in Little, 1991, 7). Similarly, Benson adds to this and describes learner autonomy as a student's ability to take charge of their learning process. This form of autonomy includes stepping back from dependence on the teacher, thereby embracing accountability for personal educational growth (2011, 58). Tassinari supports this idea with a claim that learner autonomy is the capacity of a learner to be in charge of their own learning process yet still, the extent differs every time, highly depending on the particular situation. She further mentions that probably the most important part of the autonomy process is that the learner can interact with others and also find stability in terms of these proportions in various conditions (2012, 28).

2.3.1 Definition of Learner Autonomy Development according to Tassinari

To introduce the Tassinari model of autonomy in more detail, it is mainly focused on the definition of autonomy and the description of all the components connected to it. She describes in particular the skills, competences, and actions and what they mean. For instance, they are described as verbs for a better understanding, such as "dealing with my feelings", "motivating myself", "planning", "choosing materials and methods" and many more. She also states that these components have no hierarchy in their order – and they are all mutually related (2012, 28-29). This means that learners are completely free in choosing what component to start with – they are in no way bound to start with a particular one and follow a certain path to complete it (2012, 29). You can see the components in the following picture:

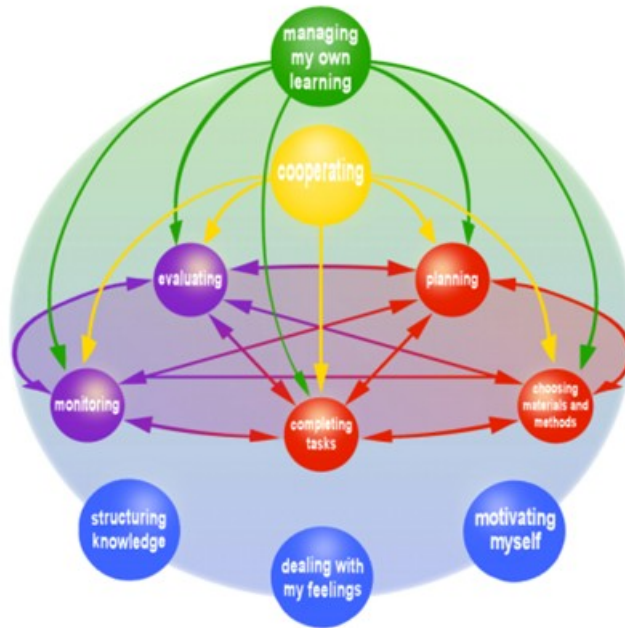


Figure 1. The Dynamic Model of Learner Autonomy (Tassinari 2010, 203 in Tassinari 2012, 29)

Among the most important components of learner autonomy, according to her, are:

- cognitive and metacognitive components (cognitive and metacognitive knowledge, awareness, learners' beliefs)
- an affective and a motivational component (feelings, emotions, willingness, motivation)
- an action-oriented component (skills, learning behaviours, decisions)
- a social component (learning and negotiating learning with partners, advisors, teachers...) (2012, 28).

2.4 Conditions for Learner Autonomy Development

To successfully develop learner autonomy in classes, certain conditions must be followed, such as the motivation of the learners, their individual differences, or the teacher roles as well. Little reminds us of the fact that if there is a shift in the responsibility for learning from the teacher to the learners, their roles change as well as organisation of the teaching and learning process (1991, 7).

2.4.1 The Role of Motivation in Learner Autonomy Development

Motivation plays a key role in the learning process, especially when it comes to developing student autonomy. This is also confirmed by Dörnyei, who states that motivation may be considered the “engine” of learning, which determines not only the level of student engagement in educational activities but also their ability to overcome obstacles and achieve long-term goals (2001, 14-15). Similarly, Harmer sees motivation as some kind of power within a person that does not allow them to stop doing things until they reach their goal (1991, 98). Brown in Harmer adds that motivation is often about ego as well and that ego is the one thing that e.g. pushes a person to spend long hours doing demanding activities in order to achieve what they want (Brown in Harmer, 1991, 98).

2.4.2 Teacher Roles in Learner Autonomy Development

Before this sub-chapter moves on to the individual teacher roles, it should be explained who a teacher actually is. According to Kantorová, a teacher is a person who shares the responsibility for the upbringing and education of children or adolescents (usually with parents). A teacher is in charge of not only classroom management but also of learner activities and participates in the development of their personalities (2008, 163). However, as Weimer says, the role of a teacher has changed over the last few years. She suggests some metaphors that are connected with teachers. For instance, she likens teachers to a gardener and a garden – the gardener may be partly responsible for the success of a beautiful garden, but the real credit goes to the flowers themselves. And this also applies to teachers, whom she describes as "guides" in the learners' learning process in order to support their autonomous learning (2002, 74-75).

In reaction to the “guide” role of a teacher, some other teacher roles may be mentioned further. Harmer divides teacher roles into five different terms that more or less support learner autonomy development, based on the individual description. These roles are dependent on the specific situation and needs of the students. Each of the roles has its own specific purpose and contributes to different aspects of teaching. The roles are divided as follows:

Controller: The teacher as a “controller” is the central figure who directs the teaching and controls what happens in the classroom. In this role, the teacher gives instructions, sets the pace of the lesson, decides on activities and controls how learners are involved.

Prompter: As a “prompter”, the teacher provides support to students when they are struggling or have forgotten what they are supposed to say. The teacher gives subtle hints or prompts to help students communicate.

Participant: In the “participant” role, the teacher actively collaborates with students, participating in activities and engaging in discussions or exercises.

Resource: As a “resource”, the teacher serves as a source of information and materials for the students. They help in finding answers to questions, provide explanations or show how to use certain language structures.

Tutor: In the role of “tutor”, the teacher works with individuals or small groups of students, providing personal feedback, advising on problems, and helping with individual development (Harmer, 1991, 107-111).

2.4.3 Contribution of Individualisation and Differentiation to Learner Autonomy Development

It could therefore be said that individualization and differentiation play a key role in the development of student autonomy. Benson confirms this statement and says that autonomy in education requires students to be aware of their needs, set their own goals and be able to manage their own learning process (2011, 58). Weimer (2002) also states that teachers play a key role in promoting autonomy by creating conditions in which students take responsibility for their learning through differentiated tasks and space for independent choice (2002, 74-75).

3 Models Of Communicative Competence

In response to the previous chapter, where the concept of autonomy together with the conditions for its development were discussed, this chapter moves from rather general principles to the English language itself, specifically to the definition and division of communicative competence as this chapter will serve as the theoretical basis for the purpose of answering the questions in the practical part of this thesis.

3.1 Definition of Communicative Competence

To follow the aim of this thesis and be able to state, which aspects of communicative competence are covered in the practical part of this work, an explanation of what communicative competence is is provided in the following sub-chapter. Several authors are describing communicative competence whose view will be compared to see how this concept developed over time. Furthermore, other more contemporary descriptions of communicative competence can be found in some other documents. For the purpose of this thesis, the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) will be mentioned, together with the author Celce Murcia and her book *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language*, where she also describes communicative competence from a different perspective. In other words, it is the differences between these two models that led to the selection and critical analysis of them. This sub-chapter intends to critically compare more concepts of communicative competence, to be finally able to choose just one to stick to it, mainly for the practical part.

The concept of communicative competence, introduced by Dell Hymes, refers to an individual's ability to convey and exchange information effectively with others (Hymes, 1983, 9). Hymes coined this term in response to Noam Chomsky's (1965) notion of competence, which he criticized as being overly narrow and insufficiently detailed (Brown, 2000, 246). Hymes' perspective was later supported by Savignon (1983), who emphasized that communicative competence depends on interaction, which is inherently dynamic and variable. This view underscores that effective communication requires at least two participants actively engaged in the process (Savignon in Brown, 2000, 246).

3.2 Models of Communicative Competence by Celce Murcia and The CEFR

Based on the information above, communicative competence could be perceived as a set of connected units that support effective real-life communication. The CEFR adds to this and defines it as a set of three interconnected components, as follows. These three components are then critically compared to the conception of communicative competence by Murcia, who, unlike the CEFR, talks about four different components.

Linguistic competence: It covers the general linguistic range, including vocabulary and vocabulary control, phonological control, orthographic control, and also grammatical accuracy (2001, 108-110). Murcia talks about grammatical competence, where she covers the learner's ability to distinguish between various types of grammatical forms and also language features like morphological, lexical, phonological, and syntactic. The learners then should be able to use them actively and create meaningful sentences (2014, 17).

Sociolinguistic competence: The CEFR description of this competence is very similar to the one of Murcia's strategic competence as it deals with the description of sociocultural appropriateness. But Murcia, in her conception of sociocultural competence, states that an understanding of the social context of the language is needed here, even though it cannot be fully stated what sociocultural appropriateness is about. Yet, it is usually successfully followed in many diverse real-life situations (2014, 17). In strategic competence, she says that even though this one might seem slightly less important than the other three, it is not fully the case. The reason is that strategic competence helps communicators deal with limiting factors in life, such as tiredness or distraction, which are ever-present in people's lives. Therefore, it can distinguish between more or less competent communicators, based on their ability to effectively use these coping strategies (2014, 17-18).

Pragmatic competence: The last competence describes e.g. turn-taking in communication, flexibility, coherence and cohesion, spoken fluency, thematic development, and propositional precision (Council of Europe, 2001, 108-130). Murcia talks about discourse competence, which is not only about the isolated words or phrases anymore, but it is rather focused on the longer speech or utterance, either spoken or written. It deals with the logical side of the utterance, and how meaningful and efficient it is (2014, 17-18).

Both Murcia and the CEFR state that all of the components are mutually related, they cannot be separated from one another and stand individually. (2001, 108-130, 2014, 17-18).

3.2.1 Definition of Linguistic Competence

This diploma thesis works with various aspects of communicative competence in the practical part and for that reason, a detailed definition of these competences is provided below.

The first competence to deal with is linguistic competence. The CEFR describes linguistic competence in detail and distinguishes between lexical, grammatical, semantic, phonological, orthographic, and orthoepic competence (2001, 111-118). So the description is based on the CEFR (2001), but also on the conception of Murcia (2014), and is critically compared as follows:

Lexical Competence: This competence focuses primarily on the knowledge and usage of vocabulary, which covers both lexical units (words and phrases) and grammatical units (articles, conjunctions, prepositions,..). There is also the ability to correctly use collocations, idiomatic expressions, fixed phrases, and formal expressions, like greetings and more (Council of Europe, 2001, 111). Murcia does not define lexical competence on its own, but these units are a part of grammatical competence, as it covers such terms as the understanding of lexical units (including idioms, collocations of fixed expressions) and their correct usage in sentences and texts (2014, 17).

Grammatical Competence: In general, grammatical competence is about understanding and correctly using grammatical rules in well-structured sentences. CEFR distinguishes between two main categories – morphology and syntax. While morphology deals with the word formation and structure of words, syntax is more focused on the structure of sentences and word order (Council of Europe, 2001, 112–113). This seems to be in perfect alignment with the description of grammatical competence by Murcia, where she describes very similar stuff – morphology, syntax, and also lexical aspects, which belong to the lexical competence in CEFR (2014, 17).

Semantic Competence: It deals with the learner's ability to understand and correctly interpret the meaning of words, sentences, and longer texts, including such terms as synonyms, antonyms, hyponyms but also ambiguity, metaphors, and more (Council of Europe, 2001, 115). In comparison to this, Murcia does not explicitly state semantic

competence on its own but covers it into grammatical competence. The reason is that grammatical competence in her conception includes such terms as morphology or syntax, but also the understanding of words and their relations in sentences and broader contexts (2014, 17).

Phonological Competence: This competence covers mainly the ability to produce individual sounds of a language (phonemes) and their types (e.g. allophones) and also the ability to recognize them. At the same time, the correct usage of intonation, rhythm, or accent is important. This ability is crucial for the natural sound of the language and it covers the ability to adapt one's pronunciation in a way that meets the standards of the particular situation. (Council of Europe, 2001, 116–117). Murcia describes this ability in her definition of grammatical competence again, stressing that pronunciation is a key component in language teaching. She states that language learners should be able to acquire not only the individual sounds, but also intonation, accent, or rhythm, which is in perfect alignment with the CEFR definition, as can be seen above. Last but not least, she says that language teaching should concentrate not only on accuracy but also on the naturalness of one's spoken performance, taking into consideration the context and audience (2014, 17).

Orthographic Competence: It relates to the ability to write and read effectively in the target language, including recognition and production of individual letters, spelling rules, interpunction, and more. It also covers the knowledge of typographical conventions such as capitalization or symbols (e.g. @, #, or \$). This competence ensures that written communication is clear, understandable, and meets the requirements of the target language (Council of Europe, 2001, 117). Murcia does not define this competence on its own again. But she touches on this topic in the description of grammatical competence, describing the learners' ability to manage spelling, including the knowledge of spelling rules and interpunction. For her, teaching writing is crucial not only because she considers it a mechanical skill, but also a tool for the correct expression of thoughts (2014, 17-18).

Orthoepic Competence: The last competence in The CEFR is orthoepic, which deals primarily with the ability to read out loud with the correct pronunciation or when coming across unknown written words. Reading out loud correctly usually covers a prepared text beforehand. It further involves the ability to e.g. consult a dictionary or the knowledge of punctuation marks and more (Council of Europe, 2001, 117–118). This competence

as a separate category cannot be found in the model by Murcia again, but she briefly describes it in the grammatical competence, as all the previous aspects of this competence. She mentions such terms as the accuracy in pronunciation of individual words or the intonation (2014, 17-18).

3.2.2 Definition of Socio-linguistic Competence

This competence deals with the ability to use language correctly in a variety of social contexts. This includes understanding the social and cultural norms, conventions, and expectations that influence language interaction (Council of Europe, 2001, 118). Murcia adds to this, saying that in sociolinguistic competence, one needs to be aware of the social context of the language being used, such as the roles of the speakers or the interaction function (2014, 18). This competence further divides into the following components. The description is based on the CEFR (2001) again, but also on the conception of Celce Murcia (2014), and is critically compared as follows:

Linguistic Markers and Social Relations: It relates to e.g. the greetings people choose in a particular situation (Hello, good morning, how do you do, see you later,..), the usage of address forms (Sir, madam, first names only, professor, dear, mate,..), it also covers the turntaking in conversation or the use of expletives (My god!, dear!, hell!,..). All of these choices people make are dependent on the situation and they choose the degree of formality accordingly (Council of Europe, 2001, 119). Murcia does not define this component of its own and it is rather covered in her conception of socio-linguistic competence in general (e.g. the content appropriateness, the speakers' sensitiveness to the cultural meanings attached to the language or social conventions). She does not provide specific descriptions of the examples, such as greetings, address forms, expletives, or more (2014, 18).

Politeness Conventions: This point refers to language forms and behaviours that are considered polite or decent in specific social and cultural contexts. These conventions concern how people use language to express respect or formality in their relationships with others. It is further divided into four groups – positive politeness (e.g. showing interest, expression of gratitude, admiration, offering gifts,..), negative politeness (expression of regret, apologising, using phrases like “I think” and more,..), appropriate use of “please” and “thank you” and the fourth group is impoliteness (expressing dislike, contempt, complaints,..) (Council of Europe, 2001, 119). Again, Murcia does not specifically define politeness in such

detail. Instead, she briefly mentions it with the help of content appropriateness, stating that there is not a sufficient description of sociocultural rules of appropriateness, even though people are usually successful in their recognition as they are often able to communicate appropriately in many different contexts and situations (2014, 18).

Expression of Folk Wisdom: This includes language forms that express common opinions and attitudes in society, such as proverbs, idioms, well-known quotes, or expressing beliefs, values, etc. These phrases are part of culture and have an impact on sociocultural competence because they are considered to be generally known and are often used in everyday communication, such as in newspaper headlines. Examples include: proverbs (“a stitch in time saves nine”), idioms (“a sprat to catch a mackerel), values (“it’s not cricket”), and more (Council of Europe, 2001, 120). In the conception of socio-linguistic competence by Murcia, there is not a detailed description of such folk wisdom, but she rather states that cultural awareness plays a key role when communicating in a foreign language, especially English as it is a language of speakers whose primary language is often different. For that reason, it is crucial to be fully aware of the culture of an English-speaking country rather than just knowing something about it (2014, 18).

Register Differences: They indicate differences in language that are used depending on the specific situation and formality. These differences include different levels of formality, such as: frozen (very formal language, e.g. "Pray silence for His Worship the Mayor!"), formal ("May we now come to order, please."), neutral ("Shall we begin?"), informal ("Right. What about making a start?") and more. It could be said that this linguistic variability allows speakers to adapt their way of communicating to different social contexts (Council of Europe, 2001, 120). This component is not stated in detail in the socio-linguistic competence by Murcia and she covers this in the description of content appropriateness (2014, 18).

Dialect and Accent: They concern the ability to recognize linguistic features that indicate various social or cultural characteristics, such as social class, nationality, ethnicity, etc. These features may further include, for example, vocabulary (such as the Scots "wee" for "small"), grammar (such as "I ain't seen nothing" instead of "I haven't seen anything"), pronunciation (such as "boid" instead of "bird"), and more (Council of Europe, 2001, 121). Murcia says that there are many variations of the English language nowadays and that an “ideal native speaker” who would know all the rules and would be able to use them appropriately in every

situation, does not exist. Whether it would be all around the world or in our own country. She adds that there are several coping strategies that people use in unfamiliar contexts or when their knowledge of rules is not sufficient to communicate clearly. She puts coping strategies into a different component of communicative competence and that is strategic competence (2014, 18).

3.2.3 Definition of Pragmatic Competence

Pragmatic competence means that a person knows how to use language correctly in different communication situations. It includes, for example, how to organize information correctly to make it clear, how to express different functions such as requests, offers, etc., how to organize communication according to what is important in a given situation, for example, how to conduct an interview. Murcia does not define pragmatic competence, but she uses the term discourse competence, where she covers the overall understanding of the meaning of a particular text, which is called bottom-up processing. Then she describes the understanding of the overall purpose and theme of the text, which is called top-down processing (2014, 17).

Based on the information above, pragmatic competence is further divided into two detailed groups. The description is based on the CEFR (2001) again, but also on the conception by Murcia (2014), and is critically compared as follows:

Discourse Competence: This competence covers the ability to organize sentences in a way that makes communication flow and make sense. It includes the flexibility to adapt to different situations, the ability of turn-taking in a conversation, effectively develop a topic (thematic development), and maintain a logical and connected structure of a text or conversation (coherence and cohesion). Concerning a written text, it deals with the general understanding of the information (e.g. the way the written text is structured and organised, how stories or jokes are told, and more) (Council of Europe, 2001, 123). This competence is key to creating clear and coherent communication that adapts to the context and needs of the speakers (Council of Europe, 2001, 123-125). Murcia specifically uses this term to cover all the aspects of pragmatic competence, and how it is described in the CEFR. She mentions both bottom-up processing and top-down processing (see above), but also the importance of coherence and cohesion of a particular text (2014, 17).

Functional Competence: It means the ability to use language to achieve specific communicative goals. This includes various functions such as expressing opinions, requests, offers, challenges, answers, or sharing information. This competence helps us decide what language is best to use in a given situation, for example how to ask something politely, how to give instructions, or how to share a personal experience (Council of Europe, 2001, 125-128). It could be said that Murcia covers this topic rather in the conception of socio-linguistic competence as she describes there the appropriateness of the content the speakers express or the active negotiation of the meaning, together with the role of turn-taking in a conversation and more. In discourse competence, she covers the general understanding of the meaning and purpose of the utterance (2014, 18), which seems not to be in full alignment with the CEFR description of this component of pragmatic competence.

3.3 Choice of the CEFR

The analysis of the individual components of competences shows that both models differ in some aspects concerning communicative competence, such as terminology and the concept of individual categories. The reasons below can explain it in more detail:

The CEFR divides linguistic competence into six individual categories, very rich and detailed in their description. This enables a deeper insight into the subject and offers a concrete framework for how it is possible to analyse and develop these aspects in the classroom. In comparison, Murcia does not divide these aspects into such detailed categories, and instead, she describes them all in her conception of grammatical competence. Similarly, in the area of sociolinguistic competence, the CEFR describes in detail the specific phenomena such as politeness conventions, dialects, or differences in registers, while Murcia works with the more general concept of cultural awareness and contextual adequacy, describing this phenomenon in sociocultural and strategic competence. In the area of pragmatic competence, both models emphasize the ability to use language correctly in specific communication situations and to recognize meanings that arise from the context. However, the CEFR emphasizes the importance of pragmatic strategies such as negotiating meaning, dealing with ambiguity, or using appropriate expressions in formal and informal contexts. Murcia focuses more on the concept of this competence which includes understanding and using language patterns that correspond to cultural norms

and communication expectations, which partly overlaps with the concept of sociolinguistic competence in the CEFR.

Because the aim of this work is to determine which aspects exactly are covered in the autonomy development in the individual lessons, The CEFR model seems to be a more complex and detailed tool for the purposes of this thesis.

3.4 Purpose of the CEFR

The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) was created to provide readers with a comprehensive and universal framework for the description of language knowledge and skills. Its main goal is to facilitate comparability of language teaching, testing, and evaluation across various countries and education systems. The CEFR also serves as a practical tool for designing language curricula, including curriculum guidelines, textbooks, syllabuses for examinations, and the planning of language learning programs across Europe. Its primary objective seems to be the facilitation and streamlining of collaboration among educational organizations while promoting uniformity in educational programs for all stakeholders within the educational system (2001, 1-6).

3.5 Comparison of the CEFR 2001 and 2022

For the purpose of the aim of this thesis, mainly the model of The CEFR 2001 will be used in this work. The reason is that the 2001 model seems to be fully adequate as the aim of this diploma thesis focuses on the concrete aspects of communicative competence, with emphasis on linguistic competence. The updates in the CEFR 2022, in particular the expansion of descriptors for mediation, online interaction, responding to literature, or for plurilingual and pluricultural competences (2022, 13), that also cover and reflect the changing nature of communication in a globalised and digitalised world, where learners increasingly operate in multilingual environments. These revisions emphasise not only the ability to understand and convey meaning across languages and cultures but also the skills needed to engage effectively in online communication, such as managing interaction in digital environments, adapting language to different audiences, and working critically with a variety of texts, including literary works (2022, 13-14). All the previously mentioned do not seem to directly address these fundamental components of communicative competence, which are crucial for the research of this thesis.

In contrast, the CEFR 2001 provides a detailed and precise framework for the division of communicative competence and its division, which is sufficiently specific and detailed for the analysis of the research. The division into components such as linguistic, socio-linguistic, and pragmatic competence (2001, 111-118) covers all the basic areas that constitute communicative competence, and which form the core of the research of this work. While the 2022 updates are valuable for specific applications in the context of mediation and modern communication, for the focus on communicative competence and its development in English language teaching, the 2001 framework remains fully sufficient. For these reasons, following the 2001 CEFR for the purposes of this thesis seems to be fully sufficient.

4 Ways Of Learner Autonomy Development In ELT Classes

The last chapter follows the language focus from the previous chapter and discusses possible ways of autonomy development in a four-year grammar school in ELT classes. First of all, the definition of language learner autonomy is needed, before discussing the individual ways in particular.

4.1 Definition of Language Learner Autonomy

The article by Sabitha. S. R. Najeeb called Learner autonomy in language learning comes with an explanation to autonomy development when it comes to the language learning process and says that this was not taken into consideration in Holec's definition of learner autonomy. The article states that learning a language is a social process that requires interaction of students. That means that students, who decide to learn a foreign language, need to be willing to cooperate and communicate with others. So, when it comes to terms like "autonomous learning" and "independent learning", they are often seen as synonymous terms and for the reasons described above, have started to play a crucial role in language education (Najeeb, 2012, 2).

Furthermore, Littlewood also emphasizes the role of autonomy in fostering intrinsic motivation and active participation, which leads to greater responsibility for one's own progress. This aligns with the broader goal of developing self-directed learning, which is crucial for language acquisition and lifelong learning (2004, 75). Similarly, Tassinari agrees with this point, stating that there may be a certain agreement in the fact that learner autonomy tries to support the language learning process and also learners' life-long learning. She also mentions some of the questions that troubled her before she created this model of autonomy development, which is the inspiration for this chapter. The questions were e.g. how it would be possible to achieve such support in learning a foreign language, what methods and tools could be used to do so, and how to find the so-called "golden mean" between focusing on learning a foreign language and learning "how to learn". Her final question was whether different approaches to learning different foreign languages would be needed or whether one model would be sufficient. These questions led to the creation of this model later, which, according to her, aims to describe its basic principles and show how this model can be used in language learning advising (2012, 24-25). For this reason, this last chapter follows this model and is structured accordingly. It also serves as a basis for the empirical part.

4.2 The Role of Motivation in ELT

Motivation was already discussed in the section The Role of Motivation in Autonomy Development, but in this sub-chapter, the same topic will be discussed in terms of English language teaching (ELT).

As Harmer states, motivation plays a crucial role in English language teaching (ELT) because it influences how students approach the learning process, the effort they put into learning, and the results they achieve (1991, 98). It is mainly because learning a foreign language is different from studying other school subjects because it is closely connected to the social side of a person. Language forms an important part of identity, and its use reflects who a person is and how they present themselves to others. Therefore, learning a new language does not only mean learning grammar, rules or certain skills, but also adapting your perception of yourself, adopting new cultural and social patterns of behaviour and thus changing yourself to a certain extent. Learning a second language is actually a process of acquiring a new social identity. Unlike other school subjects, languages require the acquisition of not only theoretical knowledge but also patterns of behaviour typical of another society (Williams and Burden, 1997, 115).

In the context of English language teaching, Harmer also says that motivation can be divided into two main categories: intrinsic motivation (internal, where students learn for the sheer joy of learning) and extrinsic motivation (external, where motivation comes from external factors such as rewards or peer pressure) (Harmer, 1991, 98-99). Concerning the external sources of motivation in ELT and ELL, Harmer says that various factors may influence the learners. According to him, it is important to consider them as they, to some extent, impact the attitudes of the learners' learning process. The external factors may be e.g. the goal, the society we live in, the people around us, or curiosity (1991, 98-99).

4.3 Planning in ELT

Tassinari states that planning one's own learning content is a key process in which the learner consciously sets the goals of their learning, selects appropriate activities, methods, and materials, and organises their learning efforts with the intention of achieving the desired outcomes. She also defines planning as a part of a broader management of one's own learning, which includes identifying specific goals, allocating time, and continuously adapting the plan according to the learner's progress and changing needs. This process allows learners to take

responsibility for their learning and develop their autonomy (2012, 31-32). An illustrative example here could be the CEFR, which describes what exactly planning entails at individual language levels (A1-C2), in this case, it concerns productive skills. While planning is not specified at A1, at levels A2 – B2 it is described in quite a detail – e.g. planning how to convey the main ideas of what is to be communicated, how to do it, and what the learner needs to do it. At levels C1 and C2, the formulation of planning then remains the same as for B2 (2001, 64).

Planning is also mentioned in the RVP G, specifically in the section of key competences -> the competence to learn. The RVP G says that the student should be able to plan and organize the learning content himself and then use this ability for his own personal development. Based on this, the learners then reflect on their progress and adjust the choice of procedures in the learning process (2021, 8). As Little adds to these ideas, a teacher should serve as a support to the learners when planning their work, and learning process, fostering both their learning and language needs, setting the objectives, and also choosing the appropriate materials (2017, 121).

4.4 Choosing Materials and Tools in ELT:

As already stated earlier, autonomous learning includes the learners' responsibility for their learning process. This means that they make active decisions about their learning objectives and also choose the way of approaching them (Littlewood, 2004, 75-76). To do this, students need to learn how to choose appropriate materials for their learning, and it is crucial that teachers help students recognize their own interests, abilities, and areas in which they excel. Teachers should show learners how to make good choices about materials and evaluate how their choices affect their progress. This process requires the support of the teacher, who essentially serves as a model and motivator. For example, suppose a student wants to read a particular book for an English assignment but finds that he or she has difficulty understanding it because the level of language is too challenging. In that case, the teacher can recommend an easier alternative or help the student create a list of unfamiliar words and help them look up their meanings (American Psychological Association, 2025).

Tools such as diaries, portfolios, posters, and others also play a key role in the process of selecting materials. For example, Language diaries, are very effective in supporting self-reflection. Learners can write down new words, phrases, and goals or record their progress

and feedback from teachers or classmates. Diaries (or logbooks) also support the development of metacognitive skills and help students to become aware of how they are learning and what they can improve. Portfolios, on the other hand, allow students to collect evidence of their learning – for example, essays, recordings of speaking, or test results (Little, 2017, 51). The CEFR also states that portfolios support the ability to reflect because students can monitor their progress and learn from their mistakes. It describes the reasons for the creation of the European Language Portfolio (ELP) and states that this was the first step towards taking into account the experiences of the individual and the circumstances in which they were acquired when recognising and assessing the acquired knowledge of an individual (2001, 142).

4.5 Structuring Knowledge:

As already stated before, in an autonomous classroom, learners are responsible for their own learning process and procedure. Learners are not allowed to do anything in an autonomous class. On the contrary, the teacher insists that the learners set their goals and choose the appropriate activities they want to do in their learning process. In other words, they have the responsibility for what they decide to do in the class (Little, 2017, 18). For that reason, several tools were described above, which may help the learners structure their knowledge and learning. Weimer agrees with this point in the sense that to take responsibility for one's learning, one needs to be intellectually mature enough and have some essential learning skills. She expresses her worry about the fact that the actions that are made about all the conditions for learning make an impression that teachers are the ones who are fully responsible for the learners' learning. But in fact, as she states, this can never be true. The decision to learn is exclusively the learner's decision. Teachers may influence it, but they should never control the process (2002, 102). Once learner take and accept responsibility for their learning, they may start structuring their knowledge independently, based on their needs. Structuring knowledge is a key element in all stages and activities of autonomous learning. It involves the process of organizing and integrating new information with existing knowledge, making it more accessible and easier to apply. By actively structuring knowledge, students can better manage their learning, monitor their progress, and take responsibility for their own learning (Freie Universität Berlin, 2025).

4.6 Completing a Task:

An English Language Learning (ELT) task is an activity aimed at improving language learning, where the output of the task can be discussed or assessed, such as a grammar exercise, problem-solving, or writing assignment. Before the task, the teacher prepares a substitute activity for faster learners, ensures that students are paying attention by repeating instructions and keeping them brief, and provides examples to clarify expectations. The teacher may also check students' understanding by paraphrasing or translating. Ongoing support from the teacher, who guides students and answers their questions, is essential during the task. After the task is completed, feedback is provided to evaluate the results of the task, discuss solutions, and mark the end of the activity, helping students reflect on their work (Ur, 2024, 41-47). Harmer adds to this, introducing the idea of Task-Based Learning (TBL). He says that when completing a task, learners are as likely to learn the language as in completing any other activities (e.g. focusing on language forms as such). But instead of memorising the grammatical rules or language structures, learners are given a task that they need to resolve. He also names a few stages to the structure of a task, and how the learners can approach it. The stages are pre-task, where the teacher explains the context of the task, then it is the task itself, where learners need to come up with some ideas, then is planning, where learners explain what is the logic behind the structure of the individual points to the task and the last step to completing the task is report and reading, where learners present their suggestions to resolving the problem and the rest of the class respond to it if needed. In the end, the teacher helps the learner with the language focus, e.g. help them correct any mistakes that occurred during their speech (1991, 71-72).

4.7 Cooperating:

Cooperative learning is a method that promotes more effective learning and greater student satisfaction through group work, where individuals work together to achieve a common goal. This approach to learning emphasizes mutual assistance between students who work together to complete tasks. According to some authors, cooperative learning is a process in which students not only learn by explaining the material to others but also enrich each other with new knowledge (Er, 2014, 110). However, careful teacher planning and coordination are necessary to achieve success. The advantage of this method may be that it allows weaker students to improve thanks to support from stronger classmates, who, at the same time, consolidate their own knowledge. Cooperative learning also motivates students to take

responsibility for the team result, which leads them to be more disciplined and complete tasks on time (Er, 2014, 110).

However, before moving to cooperation and group work in ELT classes, it should be stated what individual work is in ELT and ELL.

4.7.1 Pair work:

Ur suggests that both group and pair work cover collaborative activities in a class, but the difference is in the purpose of these two different learner groupings. She says that pair work is usually easier to organise as learners are usually already seated in pairs. Pair work might be useful in situations where learners need to e.g. compare their answers, often to written exercises. But in general, it could be said that Ur prefers group work to pair work in the ELT and ELL process. In comparison, Harmer sees pair work as an opportunity for the learners to practise their language skills together, whether it is about reading texts or resolving some other activities. The biggest advantages, according to him, are e.g. the increase in the speaking time in a classroom, it allows learners to be more independent since they do not necessarily need the guidance of a teacher or he agrees with Ur that pair work is kind of quick and easy when it comes to organising the class (1991, 165).

4.7.2 Group work:

Penny Ur admits that group work, in comparison to pair work, is more difficult to organise as it often requires moving not only learners but also the furniture in the classroom. Group work is often also more difficult to control for a teacher, especially if it is done in a class with poor discipline. But she says that group work, despite the drawbacks, has some advantages in comparison to pair work. It is because in group work, the learners are usually more active as they can share ideas with more people, which is especially beneficial when playing games (e.g. some competitions) in class. Discussions on various topics are also easier to do in bigger groups of learners than just in pair work (2024, 33-35). Harmer confirms these ideas, stating that group work can be used instead of pair work in such activities where pair work would not be sufficient. These can be situations or tasks such as writing a group story, a role-play, preparing a presentation, discussing a particular topic, or more. He says that group work, similarly to pair work, increases the speaking opportunity in a language class, enhances the chance for more varied opinions that may contribute to the discussions, or it supports learner autonomy again as learners need to make their own decisions instead of relying

on what they are told. But as he admits, there are some disadvantages to group work as well, such as it tends to be very noisy sometimes, some teachers may feel like they may lose control over the teaching and learning process, and not all learners would necessarily appreciate working in groups (1991, 165-166).

4.8 Monitoring:

Monitoring may be seen as the ability of a learner to monitor and assess his or her own learning performance. It involves a transition between two levels of thinking – at the first level (called object level), the student directly solves the task, while at the second level (called meta-level), he or she reflects on and evaluates his or her performance. If he or she realizes that he or she is doing something wrong, he or she can change his or her approach and adjust his or her learning strategy. Monitoring occurs either directly during the task (e.g., the student notices an error and corrects it) or later during the overall assessment of his or her learning (Dignath et al, 2023, 62). To add to this idea, Krashen's monitoring hypothesis assumes that learners acquire a language, e.g. grammatical structures, naturally in a certain sequence, with a conscious understanding of the rules of the language coming later. Once students gain explicit knowledge of grammatical rules, they are able to consciously control and modify their spoken and written speech – that is, use the so-called monitoring. However, this process requires sufficient time and appropriate conditions, such as focusing on the language form or sufficient time to think while producing the language (Krashen, 2009, 14-15).

4.9 Evaluation:

When it comes to evaluation at school, Kolář and Šikulová describe it as the only act of evaluation in people's lives that tends to be systematic. It is because evaluation is something that the teacher prepares and organises beforehand and does regularly (2009, 16). But as they state in their book, it does not have to be only the teacher who evaluates the learning process, but even the learners themselves (*for more information, see subchapter self-assessment and peer-assessment*). Because learners not only learn in the class but also evaluate their learning processes and allowing them to do so may significantly enhance the quality of their learning activities (2009, 137). In terms of ELT and ELL, evaluation plays a key role in assessing student performance. This process is essential for achieving the set goals and optimal outcomes in the educational process. Evaluation in English Language Teaching involves the collection, analysis, and interpretation of various information about

how teaching is conducted and how learners learn. Based on this information, teachers, schools, and educational institutions can make informed decisions that will help not only improve student performance but also increase the overall effectiveness and quality of educational programs. This evaluation cycle is constantly present in pedagogical practice and serves as a tool for ensuring quality teaching that meets the needs of learners and the requirements of educational objectives (Rao, 2018, 338).

4.9.1 Self-Assessment:

As already mentioned above, teachers are not the only ones who evaluate learners. Tassinari sees self-assessment as a part of the process of evaluation, which should support learners in their autonomy development (2012, 27). When self-assessment is involved, it focuses more on the autonomy of the individual, which means that the teacher remains in the background. However, still not completely, because the teacher in these situations acts more as an “organizer” whose task is to help students understand their own cognitive learning processes. However, this process also depends on the individual abilities of each student. The aim of self-assessment is for schools to support students in carrying it out, thus preparing them to make decisions in real life. By supporting students’ autonomy in self-assessment, the teacher can improve their psychological resilience and, above all, their responsibility for their own actions (Slavík, 1999, 28). Harmer says that there are some ways through which a teacher can lead their learners to self-assessment in the process of ELL. Either the teacher can ask the learners to give themselves marks and then check how they align with the teacher’s marks. The other option is a bit more formal when at the end of a unit, the teacher can ask the learners to state what they can or cannot do (e.g. now I can interrupt politely in conversation). This form of self-assessment is a crucial part of the CEFR as well, ensuring that language learners can measure their skills effectively in various language areas (1991, 140-141).

4.9.2 Peer-Assessment:

Harmer states that also peer assessment can be highly beneficial for learners when monitoring their language production. For instance, peer assessment might be seen in a situation when a teacher asks a learner if he or she thinks that something that has been said or written is right or at the end of an activity when learners are asked how they have got on, all this can be considered peer assessment (1991, 140). One of the biggest advantages of peer assessment is

similar to the one of self-assessment as both approaches may support learners in their autonomy development, relying more on themselves than only on what the teacher says. Peer assessment also seems to support learners in their cooperative skills since they usually work in groups to be able to provide feedback to one another (Edge, 1989, 26). Another bright side of peer assessment and peer feedback might be the fact that it is more likely to be accepted better by the learners than teacher assessment. It might be because peer assessment may be more comprehensive for the other learners than when a teacher assesses them, and so it may support their engagement in the class as well (Brookhart, 2008, 60).

On the other hand, peer assessment should not be the only kind of assessment that appears in the class. It should be made clear that learners should not be the only ones who assess their peers as this could lower the quality of the teaching and learning process. But at the same time, even teachers should not be the only ones who assess the learners, because in such cases, learners would be fully omitted from the assessing process (Kolář and Šikulová, 2009, 137-142). As Weimer says, a balance needs to be found in how much teachers lead the lesson and how much they let learners participate in the process (2002, 21-23).

4.10 Dealing with Feelings:

Research on social and emotional learning has uncovered various strategies to help students manage negative emotions that can interfere with their learning. In the past, social and emotional issues were often viewed as separate from the learning process, but it's now clear that they play a crucial role in students' academic success. Problems such as bullying, social isolation, and exclusion due to learning difficulties must be addressed within the curriculum to enable students to become self-directed and actively engaged in their learning. Some effective methods to help students regulate their emotions include supporting them in identifying and naming their feelings, teaching them how to engage in internal dialogue to challenge negative thoughts, helping them view challenges as part of a bigger process where setbacks are normal, motivating them to work harder to overcome obstacles, and fostering collaboration with peers to support each other in areas of difficulty (American Psychological Association 2025). Moreover, in the field of English Language Teaching (ELT), it is important to focus on emotional intelligence (EQ), which helps reduce anxiety and improve learning. Creating a supportive environment where learners feel safe and valued is crucial for their academic success and personal development. Teachers should promote not

only language skills but also emotional literacy, the ability to express feelings, especially in a second language. In today's era of communicative teaching, which emphasizes collaboration among students, it is important to focus on techniques that improve group dynamics and help students overcome fear, anxiety, and other barriers to communication (British Council 2025).

PRACTICAL PART

5 Research

The research for the practical part of this thesis is introduced together with the methodology, tools, background information, and data analysis. The research might be considered a case study and data analysis a mixture of quantitative and qualitative approaches. In the following section, a case study will be defined together with other terminology needed for this research. But before this chapter moves on to the definitions, the aim of the practical part should be introduced.

5.1 Research Aim

The aim of this diploma thesis is to investigate whether and in what ways students' autonomy can be developed in English language teaching at a four-year grammar school and what aspect of communicative competence is supported the most in those lessons.

More specifically, the aim of the practical part is to find out whether and how learner autonomy is developed at a four-year grammar school and what aspects of communicative competence are covered in that process.

Questions to be explored:

1. Which aspects of autonomy development do ELT teachers address in the lessons?
2. Which autonomy feature is developed the most often in ELT lessons?
3. Which aspects of communicative competence are supported in this ELT autonomy development?
4. Which aspects of communicative competence are supported the most in these lessons?

5.2 Research Methods and Tools

5.2.1 Case Study

The research strategy was a case study. The representative unit of the case study is a unit that is in the main focus of the research (Mareš, 2015, 115). A case typically represents a specific entity, such as an individual, group, institution, organization, or community. In an educational setting, this could refer to a student, a group of students, a class, a teacher, or an entire school (Mareš 2015, 115). In this thesis, the case under investigation is a selected grammar school

and its English classes led by two distinct teachers. Denscombe says that a case study focuses on the detailed examination of one specific case, which is its main characteristic. Researchers sometimes focus on multiple cases, but the key principle of this approach is to focus on a single case rather than a broader spectrum. This approach is essentially the opposite of a large-scale study, which examines a large number of samples. The advantage of a case study is that it can yield deeper and more valuable insights that would not be revealed in larger studies. The goal is to gain general knowledge from a detailed examination of a specific situation (2007, 52-53).

5.2.2 Data collection tools:

The data were collected with the help of the Tassinari model of autonomy (addressed in the theoretical part). The observation sheet was based on this model and also the list of autonomy features that belongs to this sheet. The second tool was an interview, which was conducted with each of the teachers separately.

5.2.2.1 What is an observation sheet:

According to Gavora, it could be suggested that observation sheets form an integral component of observation systems, which are comprehensive tools designed to facilitate systematic data recording. These systems include detailed descriptions of categories of phenomena, along with methods for their identification, documentation, and evaluation. Observation sheets typically center around a predefined list of teacher or student activities, serving as the foundation for structured observation (2010, 76–77). Likewise, Wragg highlights that observation sheets enable objective data collection by targeting specific actions or interactions, reducing potential observer bias, and providing a structured approach to assessment. Such tools are indispensable for evaluating and enhancing educational practices and classroom dynamics (1999, 136).

5.2.2.2 What is empirical research and observation method:

As Čábalová states, empirical research is usually about focusing on educational processes and about exploring it. This type of research employs such methods that facilitate the understanding of such a process (2011, 97). Based on that, this research for the practical part of this diploma thesis may be considered empirical research. She also adds that there are several methods of research in educational processes, where the main focus is on the observed phenomena and the process of upbringing. One of the methods that are described in her book

is the observation method, which is further categorized into smaller subtypes, such as direct and indirect observations and structured and unstructured approaches (Čábalová, 2011, 100-101). Creswell agrees with this point in the way that he states that observation may be considered a process in which a person collects open answers and such information that they are collected immediately from the lesson. This can be done, according to him, while watching the lesson and what the people are doing there (2012, 213). As Gavora adds, he also describes observations as an activity where a person observes and watches what the people in the class do, then the person describes this process with further analysis and evaluation (2010, 76). Čábalová agrees with this statement and confirms that empirical research in educational studies involves analyzing the outcomes of such studies (2011, 100).

This empirical research utilized the observation method, specifically the direct structured observation method, as the most appropriate choice. As a basis for this research, an observation sheet was created, together with the list of autonomy features that may have been observed in the lessons. One of the advantages of the direct observation method may be that the data collected convey a relatively high directness. It is not based on what other people say or claim about the situations in the lessons, but it is all based on direct information and evidence (Denscombe 2007, 206). On the other hand, the direct observation method might have some drawbacks, too, and one of them may be that it provides the researcher with the answers about what happens in the lessons, but not why it happens (Denscombe 2007, 214).

To overcome this drawback and gain both answers, another data collection methods was used in this research, specifically an interview with the teachers, which brings me to the next sub-chapter of data analysis tools.

Data analysis tools: The collected observation data will be coded based on the categories of autonomy features from the Tassinari model. Frequency and patterns of observed practices will be analysed with the help of quantitative analysis.

Interview transcripts will undergo open-coding analysis to identify recurring themes for autonomy development.

5.2.2.3 What is quantitative analysis:

As Čábalová states, the quantitative research method primarily relies on numerical data. It focuses on examining the measurable aspects of phenomena, specifically analysing their

quantity, scale, and frequency (2011, 97-98). For this reason, the quantitative research category was chosen for this research because I concentrated on the amount and number of individual autonomy features, specifically which are used the least and the most in the lessons observed. A similar situation was with the aspects of communicative competence, where I focused as well on which are supported the least and the most during the same lessons. Denscombe (2007, 226) adds to this view and points out that quantitative approaches facilitate clear comparisons, trend identification, and statistical interpretation, allowing researchers to draw data-driven conclusions about patterns in teaching practices and classroom interactions. According to him, these features may make quantitative research suitable for studies aiming to uncover systematic differences or correlations in educational settings (2007, 226).

5.2.2.4 What is open coding:

Coding is a crucial process in qualitative research that involves identifying, classifying, and organizing relevant data. This process entails assigning specific terms, labels, or more detailed phrases to sections of text, allowing researchers to systematically analyze the material (Švaříček & Šed'ová, 2007, 92). The coding process helps to structure and interpret data in a way that makes it easier to draw conclusions. According to Hendl, open coding is particularly beneficial because it allows researchers to expand and refine the set of codes as they delve deeper into the text, providing flexibility to adapt the analysis as new patterns and insights emerge. This iterative approach ensures that the coding remains dynamic and responsive to the evolving understanding of the data (2005, 247). The ability to adapt the coding scheme as the research progresses is key to capturing the complexities of qualitative data and ensuring that all significant elements are adequately addressed (Miles & Huberman, 1994, 56).

5.2.2.5 What is an interview:

An interview is a widely used research method that enables researchers to gather in-depth information about individuals' opinions, feelings, emotions, and experiences. It provides insights into human perspectives that are often difficult to capture through other data collection methods, such as observation or questionnaires (Denscombe, 2007, 174). While methods like observation and questionnaires can describe "what" happens, interviews focus on understanding "why" things occur, offering a deeper layer of qualitative data (Silverman, 2013, 45). According to Kvale, interviews are considered a conversation with a purpose,

where the researcher actively listens and seeks to understand the meaning behind the participants' responses (1996, 7). This method is particularly valuable when exploring complex phenomena that cannot easily be quantified, helping researchers interpret the nuances of human behaviour and thought (Patton, 2002, 349). The flexibility of interviews also allows for the exploration of emerging themes that might not have been considered initially, enhancing the overall trustworthiness and validity of the research (Brinkmann, 2013, 83).

5.3 School Choice:

The most important choice was made when considering which case to choose for the purpose of this research. Because the selection of cases for a case study must always be based on their relevance to the practical or theoretical problem being researched. However, other factors should also be considered, such as the way in which the case study will be used and the degree of flexibility in its selection. The most common reason for choosing a particular case is its typicality – that is, the fact that it has key characteristics in common with other similar cases. Due to this similarity, it can be assumed that the conclusions drawn from this case study will be applicable to a wider group of similar situations to some extent (Denscombe, 2007, 57-58).

For my research, I chose a four-year grammar school (the choice was done already in January 2024) where I spent a significant amount of time during my practice teaching. This grammar school is attended by students aged approximately 15 to 19. I focused on two teachers who were also my mentors because I spent the most time with them during my teaching practice and had the opportunity to observe their teaching methods in detail. I conducted the research in all grades from the first to the fourth, which allowed me to gain a comprehensive view of the development of student autonomy across individual grades. I paid main attention to teachers – specifically, whether and how they support the development of autonomy in their students.

5.4 Research Outline:

The research took place gradually from the beginning of October to the end of December before the Christmas holidays began. The research consisted of 30 observation lessons. The observations took place in all four grades, with two teachers. There were four lessons before the main research, where I tested the first observation sheet, which I created

in cooperation with my supervisor. However, it turned out that I needed to modify it so that I could write down more detailed data, so we modified the sheet. It was then used in all 30 lessons. You can see the detailed schedule of when the research took place below:

School Choice: 14th January 2024

Creating the first observation sheet: 30th September 2024

Creating the list of autonomy features to the observation sheet: 30th September 2024

Piloting the observation sheet: 2nd-4th October 2024

Creating the new observation sheet: 7th October 2024

Main Research: 9th October - 20th December 2024

Creating an interview: 14th February 2025

Conducting the interview with the mentor teachers: 24th February 2025

Data analysis: 3rd February - 28th February 2025

Because all the research went as planned, I did not need to change anything during the process. Except for the first observation sheet, so I did not count the first four lessons into the main research. But other than that, everything went as originally planned.

5.5 Information about Observations:

As I already mentioned, the observations took place at the school of my own choice, specifically at the school where I was also doing a one-year teaching practice as part of my studies. I had two mentor teachers, and I could not influence this choice in any way. The reason why there were two of them was that the first of them only had time for me in the spring of 2024, so the second of the mentor teachers was in charge in the autumn of 2024. The observations took place in their classes because the teaching practice was quite time-consuming and it would have been complicated for me to keep up with the observations and my own teaching, which I also had to do at that time, and also going for observations to other teachers as well.

There were 30 observed lessons and 4 as a pilotage. However, I do not include this in the research, I only take into account the main research within the 30 lessons. The observations took place in classes from the first to the fourth year, with more

observations taking place in the first and third year, and just a few in the second and fourth year. This was because I had to stick to the mentor teachers' schedule and on the days when I was supposed to teach (Wednesday - Friday), there were more first and third years on the schedule. Each of the classes also had A and B and, for example, 3.A was further divided into two more groups, due to the higher number of learners in the class. In the second year, I had the opportunity to observe only 2.B, and in the fourth year it was 4.A and 4.B, although in a smaller number of lessons.

As already explained above, for the purpose of data collection, I used an observation sheet that was created beforehand in cooperation with my supervisor, together with the list of autonomy features that belonged to the observation sheet, so that I could easily analyse later which autonomy feature was covered in the particular activity. In the observation sheet, there were seven columns. In the column "activity description", I tried to write down as much information as possible about how the lesson went in detail so that I would have sufficient data for the analysis later. In the first column, there are numbers of individual activities, the second column was to write down the time needed for each activity if needed, but it later proved that it was not important to me for the research. The third column was for interaction patterns, the fourth one was for the activity description, and the seventh column was there to make some other comments if needed. The fifth column was to write down the autonomy feature that appeared in the activity and the sixth was for the aspect of English the autonomy was aimed at. But I needed these two columns rather for the data analysis later than that I would write these pieces of information right in the lessons. Moreover, for the data analysis, I needed to change the content of the sixth column and write aspects of communicative competence there rather than aspects of the skills in English. For more information, see sub-chapter data analysis and interpretation.

The next, and also last, step after analysing the observation sheets was an interview with my mentor teachers. The content of the interview was the same for both of the teachers, the only difference was in such questions where I collected different data from the observation sheets. The interview consists of 22 questions, that are open-ended. All of the questions were in Czech. The reason why I decided on the interview method is the fact that, according to Silverman, an interview can go deeper into the problematics and can provide the researcher with answers to why it happens, while a method like an observation sheet rather just informs the researcher of what happens (for more information, see sub-chapter "what is an interview")

(2013, 42). The interview with both mentor teachers was carried out on 24th February 2025. First, it was conducted with teacher 1 and then, with teacher 2.

First, I informed the teachers about the purpose and nature of the interview and reassured them both that their answers would remain purely confidential. Once everything was clear, the process of asking and answering questions could begin. Throughout the interview, I tried to remain neutral and not evaluate their answers in any way. I only intervened in the interview when I needed to clarify some information with supplementary questions or clarify the meaning of specific questions. Finally, I offered both teachers the opportunity to add anything they considered important, but they had no further comments. I thanked her for their participation and we said goodbye.

Overall, both data collection methods that I presented in this chapter were designed to help find out whether and how student autonomy is developed in a given English language grammar school.

5.6 Data Analysis and Interpretation:

For the analysis of the data and for its interpretation, I chose both quantitative and qualitative analysis, but each of them was chosen for a different part of the aim of this thesis. I used quantitative analysis to answer the following questions:

Which autonomy feature is developed the most often in ELT lessons?

Which aspects of communicative competence are supported the most in these lessons?

With the help of qualitative analysis, I tried to answer the other two questions:

Which aspects of communicative competence are supported in this ELT autonomy development?

Which aspects of autonomy development do ELT teachers address in the lessons?

As for the analysis of the data itself, specifically for the case study, I needed to observe one or more teachers to get detailed data from their lessons (as stated in the sub-chapter “case study”). As I already mentioned, I ended up observing two teachers in all four years at the chosen grammar school.

Then, an observation sheet was created in order to collect the data, together with the list of autonomy features for later analysis. I needed to write down detailed descriptions of the activities in the lessons so that I would have enough material for the analysis later. As already mentioned above, the columns 5 and 6 remained unused during the lesson description and were used later, for the analysis. Because I had a detailed description of the activities, I could relatively easily determine what autonomy feature from the list was covered in the particular activity and also what aspect of communicative competence was covered in the autonomy development (if present).

This brings me to the point of why I needed to change the content of the 6th column – originally, I made a mistake in terminology and mixed communicative competence with skills in English, so I needed to understand the differences first and then I corrected it and followed the aim of this thesis, analysing the aspects of communicative competence. In order to find out which autonomy feature is developed the most and which aspects of communicative competence are supported the most in the lessons, I created a table, where I could easily write down the data and count it afterwards. The table was created for each of the teachers separately (see an example in the appendix). Because as Gavora says, tables or charts are usually used to sort the frequency of the data (2010, 120). The last step here was to describe in words what it was supposed to mean in the research because as Gavora points out, the data must be explained and described in order to make sense of it in the research (2010, 120).

As for the interview analysis, I needed to follow the division of autonomy development by Tassinari as I described it in the theoretical part. In cooperation with my supervisor, I created such questions that would cover and follow all of the nine points and answer them in detail. After conducting the interview, I labelled the questions and answers back with the names they previously had – e.g. the term “planning” was added to questions like “Jak moc se studenti podílejí na plánování obsahu nebo zaměření hodin?”, which is known as open coding, as Švaříček and Šedřová say (2007, 92). Thanks to this structure of the questions in the interview, it was much easier for me to analyse and label them later.

When the research was finished, it was much easier for me to analyse it thanks to the previous steps. Both the table and the observation sheets can be found in the appendix, together with the example transcript of the interview.

6 Findings and Discussion

6.1 Teacher 1

6.1.1 The Role of Motivation

In one of the activities, where students were to present the topic of sports and sports experiences in pairs, there was an opportunity for greater motivation that the teacher could have used better. Instead of specifying a specific topic (experiences with a given sport), the teacher could have given students more space to choose the topic themselves, which could have increased their motivation. For example, if students could choose a sport or a specific aspect of a sports experience that interests them personally, they would probably be more motivated to prepare and present the presentation. In this way, they would be more involved in the process, which would lead to a higher level of personal engagement and interest in the topic.

If the teacher had given students more freedom in choosing the topic or the structure of the presentation, this would probably have led to greater motivation for active participation and better performance. However, it was not possible to discern in the lesson whether each pair was assigned a topic or whether they had the opportunity to choose. It seemed that the opportunity to motivate students in this way in the lesson was present but not used (see interview analysis below).

6.1.2 Planning

In one of the classes, the learners listened to a lecture on the forms of future tenses in English and then, they did various exercises to practice this grammar. The same situation was with the narrative tenses then (past simple, continuous, and past perfect simple), the only difference was that the narrative tenses were about to be tested in the following lesson.

In both activities, the teacher could have taken the opportunity to advise learners to plan their learning, which would help them take greater responsibility for their own learning.

After explaining the future tense forms and practicing these tenses in the textbook, the teacher could have given learners the opportunity to plan how they will learn this grammar at home. For example, the teacher could have asked learners to set specific goals (e.g., to learn 2-3 forms before the next English lesson) and also plan activities/strategies that will help them achieve the goal (using grammar apps, writing sentences using future tenses,..).

6.1.3 Choosing Materials and Tools

For example, when students were working with texts in class, the teacher had the opportunity to give them more choice in what materials they would use to learn. Instead of limiting them to the texts in the textbook, the teacher could have offered them a variety of options, such as texts on different topics that would be of greater interest to the students. This would allow students to choose materials that were relevant and would motivate them, which would probably lead to better engagement and understanding of the texts. This approach would also help them develop the ability to choose materials that match their interests and language skills, which is an important aspect of autonomous learning. However, the teacher did not use this option in class, and therefore the learners were not given the space to choose materials according to their preferences.

6.1.4 Structuring Knowledge

When a new topic was about to be discussed in class, such as tenses (past, future,..) or a new type of writing (e.g. a story), the teacher had the opportunity to first engage the learners in a discussion of what they already knew about these topics. She could have invited them to brainstorm and share their prior knowledge before introducing the new topic. This approach would have probably allowed students to better organize and integrate new information with their existing knowledge, which would have supported their ability to better master the new topic. In addition, it would have allowed them to take more responsibility for their learning and structure their knowledge according to their own needs. The teacher did not take this opportunity, which means that the learners did not have the opportunity to actively process and connect their prior knowledge with the new information before the new topic was introduced.

6.1.5 Completing Tasks:

In this activity, the learners were asked to read a text in their textbook and find at least one form of past tenses (past simple, continuous, or past perfect simple). Each student then reported what they found in the text. The activity was conducted twice, once in class 1.A and then in class 1.B.

This activity focused mainly on grammatical competence, as students worked with different forms of the past tense. The goal was probably to recognize the forms of past tenses in the text and understand their use in specific contexts.

In the following activity, the learners read aloud an article from a textbook, then translated it, and then had to complete a task related to the article (on the topic of “The Sacred Land”). The task was to go through the article again and match sentences a-f to gaps 1-5 in the text, with one sentence being extra and therefore not needed.

This activity probably focused on orthoepic competence, because students first read the text aloud and sometimes had to deal with words they did not know how to read correctly. In addition, it also developed pragmatic competence, specifically discourse competence, because students worked with the text, analyzing its structure and the relationships between sentences. They had to complete the missing sentences so that the text made sense in the end.

In the next activity, the learners were asked to describe a picture, using bullet points that could help them logically describe the picture. This activity allowed them to focus on structured expressions of their thoughts and developed their ability to express themselves clearly and coherently.

This activity focused on lexical competence, as the learners had to use the right vocabulary to describe the picture (this was what the teacher focused on during feedback). It also supported semantic competence, as the students had to correctly create and formulate sentences. Last but not least, the activity also touched the pragmatic competence, specifically the discourse component, as the learners organised their description according to the logical structure to make their speech clear and understandable. All this led to better expression of ideas in spoken form.

In the following activity, the learners were tasked with completing an exercise on future tenses, in which they had to decide which tense was correct in the sentence given. The exercise was a gap-fill and they always chose from three options.

This activity focused on grammatical competence, specifically on recognising and correctly using different future tenses in English. The learners had to understand the context of the sentences and then choose the correct grammatical form of the verb. The activity supported their ability to correctly apply the rules regarding future tenses, which is an important aspect of grammar in English.

The next activity was similar to the previous one, where the learners completed the remaining task focused on past tenses, which served as preparation for the unit test. They

had to determine which verb form was correct for the sentence given (they were always given a verb and had to convert it to the correct past tense form in the given context of the sentence).

It may be suggested that this activity focused on grammatical competence, specifically the ability to correctly recognize and use different past tenses in sentences given. The learners had to carefully analyse the sentences and decide which verb form was appropriate for the particular context.

In the next lesson, the learners gradually worked through four grammar exercises focused on past tenses (narrative tenses – past simple, continuous, and past perfect simple) in their workbook. The tasks included: “Complete sentence B so that it has a similar meaning to sentence A. Use one of the words in brackets.”, “gap fill – choose from 3 words”, “gap fill – no word to help them”, and finally “matching”).

This activity focused on grammatical competence, as the students had to correctly use various forms of past tenses in the context of the given sentences. They worked with grammatical rules for the past tense three times when they had to apply appropriate verb forms in various types of tasks. Furthermore, the activity also supported semantic competence, as the learners had to correctly understand the meaning of the sentences and then match them in the way that they were logically and grammatically correct. Last but not least, the activity covered pragmatic competence as well, specifically the discourse component, as the learners organized their answers to maintain the correct logic and connections between the sentences - especially in the last type of exercise.

In another activity, the learners first completed a task focused on conjunctions in their textbook and then completed three exercises related to future tenses.

This activity developed lexical competence, as students worked with conjunctions and their meaning in the context of sentences. They had to understand how individual conjunctions affect the meaning of a statement and use them correctly. It also focused on grammatical competence, as students practiced different forms of future tenses again, their use, and the differences in meaning between them. This strengthened their knowledge of the rules regarding verb tenses and their application in specific situations.

The next two tasks to complete were two exercises on grammar in their book („Complete the text with past simple, continuous or past perfect simple with the words in brackets“ + „Complete the sentences. Use past simple, continuous or past perfect simple form of the verbs bellow“, then one exercise focused on vocabulary (Complete the collocations with verbs).

This activity developed grammatical competence, as students had to apply the rules for forming past tenses in different contexts and then use them correctly in continuous text and individual sentences. Lexical competence was supported by working with collocations, where students practiced correctly matching verbs with corresponding expressions, which helped them better understand the natural use of the language.

In the next task, learners were asked to write a short story using past tenses (past simple, continuous, past perfect simple) within 5-10 minutes.

This activity developed grammatical competence, as learners had to correctly apply the rules for using past tenses and understand their function in a narrative context. At the same time, pragmatic competence (discourse) was strengthened as well, as learners had to structure their text logically, ensuring its clarity and coherence.

In the following task, the learners filled in a table by classifying adjectives according to their meaning into positive and negative. The task was to assign the given words to the correct categories.

This activity developed grammatical competence, as the students worked with adjectives and their meaning, mainly based on their prefixes and suffixes. Lexical competence may have been touched in this task as well, as the learners also focused on the correct understanding of vocabulary and its categorization, which contributes to a better orientation in the grammatical and lexical structures of the language.

In the next task, the learners listened to a recording on negotiating and persuading (2 times), then completed phrases they heard into the sentences given (there were different accents in the recording).

This activity developed lexical competence, as the learners had to recognise and correctly assign words and phrases related to negotiating and persuading. It also supported pragmatic competence (discourse), as the learners had to orientate in the recording and complete

the phrases in the text in a logical sequence. In addition, sociolinguistic competence was developed as well, as the learners had the opportunity to hear different accents, which enriches them with awareness of linguistic differences and their influence on communication.

Then they had another listening exercise – They heard a conversation that they could see in the book (the transcript), but their task was to put the sentences into the correct order.

This activity mainly developed pragmatic competence (discourse), as the students had to understand the logic of the conversation so that they could structure the sentences logically, in the natural sequence. This task helped them to better understand how the conversation is organized and how to respond to different parts of the dialogue so that the overall meaning makes sense.

6.1.6 Cooperating

6.1.6.1 Pair Work

During one of the lessons, the students played a vocabulary game twice, in which their task was to come up with as many specific words and phrases as possible in a limited amount of time. The activity started as a brainstorming, so the students had to think quickly and recall the right words. The game helped them actively review the vocabulary and remember it better. Thanks to the game, the students practiced not only individual words but also how to combine them into meaningful phrases. By repeating and using familiar words in different contexts, they better consolidated them and at the same time expanded their vocabulary, which helps them express themselves more fluently. Based on the description, this activity was probably aimed at developing lexical competence, which, according to the CEFR, means the ability to use and understand vocabulary in the target language.

At the beginning of another lesson, the students were asked to present a short conversation in pairs on a certain topic, usually about their experiences with sports. The activity took the form of a short presentation, where one student asked questions and the other answered. This task appeared four times in the lessons I had the opportunity to see. In this way, students practiced not only their fluent conversation, but also the ability to structure the conversation, respond to questions, and use appropriate language resources in a given context.

Based on the information above, this activity probably developed pragmatic competence, specifically both the discourse and functional components. It could be a discourse competence

as it covers the ability to connect individual ideas into coherent speech, i.e. to conduct a meaningful conversation. Functional competence is related to the use of language to achieve a specific goal, for example, to describe experiences or share information. In addition, the activity focused on semantic and lexical competence as well - students had to use appropriate vocabulary and accurately express the meanings of words and sentences in order to make the conversation understandable and fluent.

In another activity, the students were asked to start planning their story as a piece of writing, which involved thinking about how to write the story, how to structure it, and how to organize their thoughts logically. The activity aimed to help students prepare the basis of the story with a clear and understandable development, which helped them organize their thoughts before writing.

This activity probably focused primarily on pragmatic competence, specifically on the discourse component, which is related to organizing and structuring a text so that it is coherent and flowing. Students tried to plan the story in a way that it would appropriately connect the individual parts of the story and they tried to avoid unnecessary or incomprehensible jumps between ideas. In addition, the activity also touched on sociolinguistic competence, especially in the area of register differences. Students had to consider what tone and style is appropriate for the given type of narrative (for example, how to write a story informally, which was their instruction).

The next activity was the so-called pre-listening activity, where learners discussed in pairs what the listening might be about, while also focusing on explaining the meaning of the phrases presented. The activity helped them prepare for the listening by focusing on relevant vocabulary and concepts that they could hear during the listening.

This activity primarily focused on lexical competence, as the students worked with specific words and phrases that are related to the topic of negotiating and persuading. During the discussion, the students tried to understand the meaning of these phrases and, if necessary, explain them to each other.

The last activity in pairs was that the students did a role play, using phrases related to negotiating and persuading. First, they read a dialogue from a textbook (as an example),

and then they had to create their own dialogue similarly. This task forced them not only to actively use the new phrases but also to apply them in a context of their own choice.

This activity developed lexical competence, as the students worked with specific expressions and phrases related to negotiating and persuading. In addition, it also focused on pragmatic competence, specifically the discourse and functional components. Discourse competence was reflected in how the students organized and structured their dialogues in order to be understandable and fluent. Functional competence was then related to how effectively they used language to achieve a specific goal - i.e. to negotiate or persuade. Thus, the students learned how to use appropriate words and phrases to achieve a logical flow of the conversation.

6.1.6.2 Group Work

In one of the lessons, the students played a vocabulary game in groups of 3–5 people. The teacher gave them a word (e.g. "marriage") and several questions related to that word. The learners' task was to answer as many questions as possible in a limited period of time. This activity was repeated three times during the lesson.

This activity focused primarily on lexical and semantic competence. Lexical competence was reflected in how well students understood and used vocabulary in the language. In this case, it was mainly about the specific expressions related to a given topic ("marriage"). Semantic competence then concerned understanding the meaning of these words and phrases and the ability to use them correctly in a specific context. Students had to not only recall the vocabulary but also understand the different meanings associated with the given word and effectively express and formulate them in their responses, usually in the form of complete sentences.

In the next activity, the students played Kahoot in groups of 3-5 people, focusing on future tenses in English. The task for the students was to identify the correct verb tense and assign it to a specific sentence. This activity was interactive and in the form of a competition, thanks to which the students were actively involved.

This activity developed grammatical competence the most, specifically the ability to correctly use different forms of future tenses in English. Students learned not only to recognize different verb tenses but also to correctly assign the correct form of the verb tense to the sentences in a given context. Therefore, it could be said that this activity helped them

to consolidate their knowledge of future tenses and improved their ability to apply them to sentences.

Learners discussed questions related to positive and negative adjectives in groups of 3-5 people. They were tasked with exploring the differences between these types of adjectives and the role of prefixes and suffixes. They also discussed how to use them correctly in different contexts.

This activity focused on grammatical competence as students focused on the correct use and form of adjectives, which is an important part of grammar. Discussing positive and negative adjectives helped them better understand how these words affect the meaning of sentences and how to use them in the context.

6.1.7 Monitoring

During lessons, where learners were to complete e.g. tasks focused on grammar, they could have taken short breaks to reflect on how they are doing. When working on grammar tasks, they could have stated which questions they have mastered without problems and where they felt unsure. For example, if they noticed that they were having problems in a certain area, they could have decided to focus on it and practice it more. In this way, the learners would actively monitor their performance and better understand what they need to work on. This approach would have supported them in taking responsibility for their own learning. But again, this opportunity remained unused in the lessons.

6.1.8 Evaluation, self-assessment, peer-assessment

When it comes to self-assessment, the learners could have written down how they felt about their skills in a given area, e.g. before a unit test. They could have evaluated which aspects of English they were good at and which they needed to practice more. This way of self-assessment would have allowed them to focus on specific areas that they should focus more on during their preparation. In this way, they would have monitored their progress and would probably prepare better for the test.

Regarding peer assessment - e.g. after completing difficult grammar exercises (or even listening exercises), the learners could give each other feedback, discuss their answers, and possibly explain to each other if something was unclear. This way of assessment would

perhaps have been more understandable for many, than when the answers were only reviewed with the teacher.

6.1.9 Dealing with Feelings

During the lessons, I have noticed that there sometimes was space for working with possible negative feelings and emotions of students. For example, during various language games, when some students were experiencing frustration (for example, some seemed to feel that they were not doing as well as others or that they felt slower). In such a case, the teacher could have actively intervened to help them cope with these negative feelings. He could have done this, for example, by trying to create a safe environment where learners would not be afraid to make mistakes (however, this is a longer-term job). A quicker way for the teacher to help would have been to encourage students to focus on progress and remind them that everyone learns at their own pace. Instead of comparing learners with others, she could have motivated them to focus on their own improvement and progress. She could have also offered individual support to those who felt less confident by providing them with examples of how to approach the given task. Furthermore, she could have emphasized the positive aspect of such activities – fun and the opportunity to improve through a game form, which could help students relieve their frustration and boost their self-confidence.

6.2 Interview Analysis

6.2.1 The Role of Motivation

Based on the interview, the teacher supports students' motivation by taking into account their individual needs and interests. She strives to create a positive and safe environment where every progress, even for less successful students, is recognized. This helps build their self-confidence and desire to learn. She also strengthens motivation through e.g. gamification, competitions, and connecting teaching with areas of interest to students, such as films, games, or sports. She also supports autonomy by allowing students to participate in creating instructions for tasks, which leads to greater commitment and more careful processing of those assignments.

None of the mentioned above could be recognised in the lessons explicitly, without the teacher's clear explanation of how she thinks when planning the lessons. One of the most important points was that she explained that when learners were to have their presentations

(the interviews on a certain topic), they could actually choose what they wanted to talk about, which must have supported their motivation.

6.2.2 Planning

In the area of lesson planning and goal setting, the teachers admit that learners have limited room to do that. Learning objectives are fixed in the students' book, which means that learners do not have many opportunities to adapt them to their individual needs. The possibility of changing the content of lessons is minimal, although in some cases, the teacher responds to their requests for additional practice or repeated explanations of the stuff. She is not sure whether learners set their own goals for their English learning, so it may be suggested that it could be useful to guide them more toward being aware of their own progress and long-term goals.

6.2.3 Choosing Materials and Tools

Learners do not have the opportunity to choose their learning materials because they all work with the same textbook. This limits their autonomy because they cannot adapt the resources to their individual needs or interests. However, the teacher supports the connection of new topics with the learners' prior knowledge through methods such as inferring grammatical rules from the text or brainstorming (inductive approach), in which students formulate what they already know. This approach helps them to better understand the context and actively engage in the learning process, even though their choice of materials remains limited.

6.2.4 Structuring Knowledge

It could be said that the teacher sometimes tries to structure the learners' knowledge, especially when introducing new grammar. The teacher uses the method of active engagement by asking learners what they already know about a new grammatical phenomenon before introducing it herself. This allows learners to reflect on their previous knowledge, share their findings with others, and discuss them. This approach also supports their cognitive engagement and helps them connect new information with what they already know, which facilitates understanding and long-term memory. In addition, such discussion strengthens learners' autonomy by giving them space for active thinking and constructive collaboration in discovering the rules of the language.

6.2.5 Completing Tasks

When completing tasks, learners have a certain degree of autonomy, especially when it comes to choosing methods for developing their language skills. The teacher recommends various resources to them, such as reading books, watching films and series in English, listening to podcasts, or using online learning platforms. Learners can thus choose what suits them best and what best motivates them. Although the curriculum is usually fixed, the teacher tries to meet the individual needs of her learners - if they show interest, they can change the focus of the teaching a little bit, for example, when requesting the inclusion of preparation for language exams (FCE). In the lessons, the greatest emphasis is placed on linguistic competences, as the teachers said, they form the basis of effective language knowledge, while pragmatic and socio-linguistic skills are left to the natural development of learners, usually outside of the lessons. The teacher perceives that these aspects are often shaped more through pop culture, social networks, or online games, where learners naturally encounter authentic English in various social contexts. The use of English is preferred during teaching so that students become accustomed to natural expression in the target language, but in case of difficulty, they can switch to Czech to ensure a better understanding of the stuff.

6.2.6 Cooperating

In the lessons, learner collaboration is mainly supported through pair activities or work in smaller groups, where learners have the opportunity to help each other, discuss, and share their ideas. Here, the teacher usually plays the role of a facilitator who monitors their work, helps to direct the activities, and provides feedback. Learners are also given space to collaborate independently, for example in preparing interviews or searching for information, but they also collaborate with the teacher in obtaining feedback on their group work. Activities where collaboration is key include conversations, expressing opinions, and preparing interviews. This collaboration is essential for the development of language skills, especially in the areas of speaking, feedback, and the overall development of communication, as it allows learners to actively use the language in real situations. In terms of competence development, collaboration contributes mainly to the development of linguistic competences such as lexical or semantic competence. However, although linguistic competence is most strongly supported, barriers such as time constraints or a focus on specific language skills may hinder the deeper integration of socio-linguistic and pragmatic competences into these interactions.

6.2.7 Monitoring

Monitoring learners' progress should include opportunities for self-reflection, but this is not sufficiently supported in this teaching due to lack of time. The teacher focuses mainly on assessment through exams but does not give students enough space to monitor their own progress. This process is particularly complicated by the lack of time during the lesson, as mentioned above, which prevents students from regularly assessing their strengths and weaknesses and monitoring their own progress. Although students should be able to self-reflect as their skills develop, this approach is not implemented in the lessons.

6.2.8 Evaluation, Self-Assessment, Peer-Assessment

Self-assessment and peer assessment are used only to a limited extent in the lessons. Learners do not work with self-assessment sheets and reflection on their progress is done individually to avoid the stress associated with assessment that is done in front of the whole class. The possibility of peer assessment only appears after oral presentations, usually, when classmates can provide feedback to each other. This approach allows them to get opinions from peers, which can contribute to the development of critical thinking and the ability to accept constructive criticism. Overall, however, the absence of broader opportunities for self-assessment and peer assessment can limit the development of learners' autonomy in the learning process.

6.2.9 Dealing with Feelings:

The teacher tries to pay close attention to learners' emotions and tries to create an environment in which they feel safe and supported. She respects the individual nature of the learners while being sensitive to those who do not feel comfortable e.g. in speaking in front of others. She tries to give less successful students positive feedback on their progress, thereby strengthening their self-confidence and reducing frustration. She also actively works with the atmosphere in the classroom and, in case of tension, deliberately relieves it if needed. In addition, she tries to prevent negative manifestations, such as mocking, and so help learners to better manage their emotions and focus on learning.

6.3 Teacher 2

6.3.1 The Role of Motivation

In such activities, that were focused on new grammatical phenomena, e.g. prepositions that are not followed by "will" or in a group discussion on phrases related to complaints,

the learners could have gained a better understanding of the meaning and correct use of these linguistic rules. However, the teacher did not take the opportunity to show how these linguistic structures could be useful in real-life situations – for example, in a work environment, when travelling, or in everyday communication with native speakers.

If the teacher had taken the time to explain to the learners why it is important to master these phrases and grammatical structures, the intrinsic motivation to learn could have been increased. Learners would have probably realised that they were not just learning the stuff to pass the tests, but that this knowledge would help them in practical situations, such as when writing formal emails or in situations where they needed to express themselves correctly and without grammatical errors. Not taking this opportunity meant that learners' motivation remained purely on their own interest, rather than being supported by the teacher.

6.3.2 Planning

There were similar situations in the lessons, where the teacher had a good opportunity to develop learners' ability to plan their own learning.

For example, when discussing indirect speech as a grammatical phenomenon or new vocabulary, it was quite clear that learners would need to prepare for the upcoming test at home. However, the teacher did not take the opportunity to guide them through this process – she could have encouraged them to create their own learning plan, set sub-goals, and decide how they would best learn the new stuff. For example, she could have asked students questions such as: Which parts of grammar or vocabulary are most difficult for you and how do you focus your attention on them? What strategies help you most in learning? How do you usually plan your learning when preparing for such tests?

Such a discussion would have helped learners to realize that learning is not just passively receiving information at school, but that they have the opportunity (and responsibility) to direct their own learning process. At the same time, the teacher could have offered them various effective planning strategies, such as dividing the stuff into smaller parts, repeating at regular intervals, or using mnemonics. This would not only support their better preparation for the test but also develop their ability to organize their own learning.

6.3.3 Choosing Materials and Tools

In this teacher's lessons, the choice of materials was again very limited – learners had to stick to the tasks in the student's book and had almost no freedom in choosing what they wanted to work with in the lessons.

This approach was evident, for example, in reading tasks again, when learners worked with a specific article from the book, instead of being able to choose another text on a similar topic that would be more interesting to them or correspond more to their language level. A similar situation occurred in listening activities – the teacher always used recordings from the book, although learners would probably work with more enthusiasm if they could choose e.g. a podcast, a video, or other authentic material according to their own interests.

In this way, the teacher did not take the opportunity to guide students to greater autonomy in making decisions about their learning. For example, she could have offered several different materials to choose from or let students find and bring their own listening or reading material that would be entertaining and correspond to the objectives of the lesson. Such an approach would not only increase their motivation but would also teach them to think critically about what resources are most effective for their learning.

6.3.4 Structuring Knowledge

In the lessons I had the opportunity to see, the teacher did not make full use of the chance to build on the learners' previous knowledge – instead of helping learners see the connections between new and already known knowledge, she seemed to have approached individual topics rather in isolation.

This could be seen, for example, when discussing new grammar, where it would be useful to first remind them of a similar grammatical phenomena or related structures so that the learners would better understand how the new concept fits into the wider language system. This approach was also quite evident in practicing writing a report – the teacher could have started with a short discussion of what style the report requires (formal), and asked learners what they already know about the formal style, e.g. what phrases or grammatical structures are commonly used in it, what tone they need to use, etc. Such a connection with prior knowledge would not only help learners better understand the new topic but would also support their ability to independently think about language structures and use them more effectively in practice.

6.3.5 Completing Tasks

In the first activity, the learners listened to a recording, during which they focused on specific phrases, which they had to correctly complete into the sentences given.

This activity developed pragmatic competence, specifically discourse competence, because the learners had to actively follow the structure and organization of the recording. They had to understand how the phrases fitted into the sentences, which required following the structure and logical arrangement of information. Lexical competence was also strengthened because the learners needed to know the meaning of individual phrases in order to be able to correctly complete them in the sentences, which required understanding their function in the given situation.

The learners did a listening exercise as part of their unit revision, focusing on listening to specific information – specifically, what ideas the speakers presented in the recording. The recording contained different accents, which allowed the learners to compare how language changes depending on regional and social factors.

This activity developed pragmatic competence, specifically discourse competence, as the learners had to follow the structure and organization of the spoken language in order to be able to distinguish the main ideas and answer specific questions. At the same time, sociolinguistic competence was developed as well, as the learners were exposed to different dialects and accents, which helped them understand how regional differences affect their understanding and how different accents can affect communication patterns and understanding in real-life situations.

The following task was a listening task again, focused on specific information, where the learners had to listen to a recording and then answer specific questions that were related to the details of the listening.

This activity developed mostly pragmatic competence, specifically discourse competence, as the learners had to understand the structure of the spoken language and identify key information in the given context. This required the ability to follow the logic and flow of the conversation in order to answer the questions correctly.

Next, the learners had to describe a picture, following specific points that helped them to organize their speech logically and clearly.

This activity developed pragmatic competence, specifically discourse competence, as students had to organize their speech in a way that was clearly structured and logical. They had to make sure that the individual parts of their description flowed smoothly and complemented each other naturally, which is key to effective communication. At the same time, semantic competence was strengthened as learners had to formulate the sentences that most accurately expressed the details in the picture, thus ensuring that their description was not only accurate but also understandable to the listener.

In the next lesson, the learners worked on a reading task as part of their preparation for the FCE exam and then answered questions related to the text.

This activity developed pragmatic competence, specifically discourse competence, as learners had to analyse the structure and content of the text to understand how the text was organised and what information was the most important. Answering the questions required that learners correctly assessed the meaning of individual parts of the text and made appropriate connections to specific questions.

The learners completed a listening task as preparation for the FCE exam, in which they were asked to complete the text with the missing words they heard in the recording.

This activity developed pragmatic competence, specifically discourse competence, as the students had to understand the structure and flow of the spoken language in order to correctly identify the missing words in the given context. Lexical competence was also strengthened, as the students had to have sufficient vocabulary and the ability to recognize appropriate words that fit the text based on what they heard. This skill is crucial for effective comprehension and interpretation of spoken language in real-life communicative situations.

The last FCE task focused on the use of English (UoE), specifically on gap-filling and sentence transformation.

This activity developed grammatical competence, as students had to correctly apply grammatical structures when filling in gaps and transforming the sentences. When filling in gaps, they practiced not only grammar but also lexical competence, as they had to choose appropriate words to fill in the gaps, depending on the context. When transforming sentences, students then applied grammatical rules to change the structure of sentences without losing their original meaning. In this way, they developed mainly grammatical competence.

6.3.6 Cooperating

6.3.6.1 Pair Work

The learners worked in pairs on a pre-listening activity, during which they discussed various phrases related to complaints and tried to understand their meanings. The activity focused on the development of lexical competence, as learners expanded their vocabulary with new expressions. The emphasis was on the accurate understanding of the meaning of individual words and phrases, which is in alignment with the focus on lexical competence.

In the next activity, the learners worked in pairs on an exercise from the textbook focused on prepositions that are not followed by “will”. The activity primarily developed lexical and grammatical competence. Lexical competence was strengthened by learners acquiring fixed rules with prepositions and learning to use them correctly in context. At the same time, they worked on recognizing these rules and prepositions in authentic sentences, which may have helped them remember them better. Grammatical competence was developed by learners’ understanding of the rule that “will” is not used after certain prepositions. Thus, they learned not only to mechanically complete the correct prepositions but also to understand their syntactic function and how they influence the grammatical structure of the sentences. Thanks to this, they acquired a more accurate linguistic sense and were better prepared to use these rules correctly in the future.

The learners first worked with a listening task focused on global understanding (listening for gist), i.e. capturing the main idea of the text without having to understand all the details. Then they discussed their answers in pairs, compared each other's understanding of the text, and tried to reach the most accurate conclusions together.

The activity primarily developed pragmatic competence (discourse), as the learners worked with authentic language input and had to navigate the context, infer the meaning, and decide which information was essential. Later, in their discussion in pairs, they still needed not only to follow the logical structure of the listening but also to formulate their thoughts in a clear and logical way so that they would get to as many correct answers as possible.

6.3.6.2 Group Work

The learners worked in groups and had to discuss phrases related to complaints and their meanings. This activity focused on developing lexical competence mostly, as the learners not only expanded their vocabulary with new phrases but also learned to understand their specific

meaning and the context in which they are commonly used. In this way, their understanding of the language and their ability to use appropriate expressions in specific communication situations were deepened. The activity took place in two lessons, each time with a different class.

In the next activity, the learners first worked on a reading assignment in the textbook and then discussed questions related to the text in groups. The activity also focused on new vocabulary contained in the text that they were supposed to learn during the lesson.

The activity developed pragmatic competence (discourse), as the learners had to understand the overall meaning of the text and respond correctly to the structured questions, which included understanding and the ability to organize information. The questions followed the logical structure of the text, so the learners did not need to “jump” from one part at the beginning to another part at the end of the text. In the discussion, the learners compared their answers and tried to discuss them in order to get as many correct answers as possible. Lexical competence was strengthened by learning new words and phrases from the text and applying them in the context of the discussion. Semantic competence was developed by having to formulate answers to the questions in complete sentences, which had to be syntactically correct.

The learners worked in groups, where they had to discuss their ideas on how to write a report and then they needed to start planning it. During the discussion, they focused on the structure and key elements of the report, which included deciding on the appropriate language and form for the report.

Pragmatic competence (discourse) was developed by having the students plan a precise structure for the report and logically formulate the content so that it was clear and coherent. Sociolinguistic competence was strengthened by choosing the appropriate register, as the students discussed what tone and level of formality would be most appropriate for the report, depending on the purpose and audience for which it was intended.

The learners were asked to watch a video about the differences between American and British Christmas and then answer a series of questions about the video, in groups. The video featured different accents, which allowed the students to focus on different varieties of English.

This activity developed sociolinguistic competence, specifically in the area of dialect and accent, as the students had the opportunity to listen to different accents and identify the differences between American and British English. Semantic competence was also strengthened, as the students had to answer the questions in complete sentences, which had to be written syntactically correctly so that the answers made sense.

6.3.7 Monitoring

As far as I am concerned, in the lessons I observed, the teacher did not make full use of the opportunity to let learners monitor their own progress.

This was particularly obvious in the preparation for the FCE exams, when learners worked on various types of exercises. After each exercise, the teacher could have taken a few minutes to allow learners to reflect on how well they had been doing so far – whether they felt confident, what they had struggled with, and what they should focus on in the future. She could have also asked them to note specific areas where they wanted to improve or offered them strategies for working on these weaknesses.

However, by not making this reflection a regular part of the lesson, the learners were missing out on the opportunity to actively monitor their progress and learn more effectively. It would have been enough to add some questions such as: “How did you feel about this exercise?”, “What did you do well and what did you do less well?”, or “What can you do to improve in this area?” It is such moments of self-reflection that would probably help learners become more aware of their strengths and weaknesses and support their ability to manage their own learning.

6.3.8 Evaluation, Self-Assessment, Peer-Assessment

I never had the opportunity to see how the teacher works with self or peer-assessment of the learners, although she had several opportunities to do so.

For example, before the tests, she could have had learners complete a self-assessment worksheet that is usually included in the student’s book. This step would probably have helped learners realize how well they have mastered certain stuff and what areas they still need to focus on. Self-assessment would provide them with valuable feedback and support their ability to plan their learning according to their own needs.

Similarly, peer assessment could have been incorporated, for example, after completing grammar or listening exercises. Instead of the teacher immediately revealing the correct answers, the teacher could have had the learners discuss the answers among themselves first. This would give them the opportunity to compare their answers, explain them to each other, and argue why they think their option is correct. This process would not only promote a deeper understanding of the tasks but also the development of critical thinking and the ability to collaborate effectively.

6.3.9 Dealing with Feelings

In the lessons I observed, the teacher did not address this area much, although she had the opportunity to do so.

For example, during the activity focused on describing a picture, it was noticeable that some learners seemed nervous and unsure. This type of task can be stressful for some learners, especially if they do not feel linguistically equipped or are afraid to speak in front of the class. The teacher could have helped in this situation by creating a supportive atmosphere – for example, by reassuring learners that the goal is not perfection, but the effort to express themselves is more valuable for that particular moment. She could have also offered simple phrases to help them get started or introduced a short brainstorming exercise where learners could prepare key expressions together in advance.

Another option would be to encourage learners to be aware of and reflect on their feelings – for example, by having a short discussion after the activity where they could share how they felt, what helped them, and what could be easier next time. Such an approach would help them not only manage nervousness but also develop the overall ability to work with their feelings in the learning process.

6.4 Interview Analysis

6.4.1 The Role of Motivation

The teacher mentioned that she tries to take into account the interests of the learners when planning the lessons, which directly affects their motivation. Topics such as sports, international sports competitions, or news from the online world are attractive to most of the learners and the teacher uses them to increase their interest in the subject. This is

something that I could not see directly in the lessons as I did not know if the learners were given a certain topic by the teacher or if they could choose it on their own.

In addition, she allows the learners to choose the topics for their presentations, which supports their motivation, because they can focus on topics that really interest them. For some learners, it is obvious that this freedom in choosing the topics motivates them to be more enthusiastic and perform better. On the other hand, for learners who are not interested in English, even the choice of topics does not help to increase their motivation.

6.4.2 Planning

The teacher states that she occasionally helps learners set goals through a self-assessment guide, which is part of the book they use in the lessons. She also focuses on an individual approach, setting the direction of development for each student, according to their specific goals, such as the school leaving exam, a certificate, or practical use of the language. Although learners have the opportunity to adjust their goals, the teacher does not directly encourage them to do so, and it is not part of the normal course of the lessons. As for the participation of learners in planning the content of the lessons, this is rather limited as well. The teacher states that learners participate in planning the content in about 20% of the lessons, which mainly involve revision and preparation for the certificate if the learners ask for that. Some learners care about their individual progress and are happy to come for advice, but most do not deal with this at all. The teacher also shares materials on MS Teams and supports learners in preparing for the FCE exam, but there is usually no specific discussion with learners about how to set goals or what learning methods to choose.

6.4.3 Choosing Materials and Tools

The teacher reports that during the lessons, most of the time is spent working with the student's book, which can limit the choice of materials and thus the learners' autonomy. However, when preparing presentations or some projects, the learners are allowed to choose the materials they want to work with. This freedom in choosing materials can have a positive impact on their autonomy, as they are allowed to decide which resources to use for their task, which supports their responsibility for their own learning. This approach gives learners a chance to individualize their learning and can motivate them if they are able to choose materials that they enjoy or that better suit their learning style.

On the other hand, this freedom can also be a challenge. Some learners may have difficulty navigating the wide range of available materials, especially if they are not used to actively searching for them and evaluating different sources. This aspect of choosing materials can also be challenging for them if they do not have a clear idea of what materials are most suitable for them. The teacher could try to eliminate this problem by providing learners with some guidance or recommendations on which resources are appropriate for a given topic, or by showing them how to effectively search for and select quality materials. In this way, she could support learners in developing their abilities to learn independently and work effectively with a variety of materials. However, as the teacher herself said, there is little room for doing this in the lessons.

6.4.4 Structuring Knowledge

The teacher says that sometimes, the new content is linked to the learners' prior knowledge, if possible. She occasionally uses various ways that help learners actively engage in the lesson and build a solid foundation for understanding the new stuff but does not do it every time. These ways include brainstorming, which allows learners to express their ideas and opinions on the topic given, while also giving them space to make associations with already known information. Mind maps help visualize the connections between new and older knowledge, which makes it easier for learners to work with the new content and supports their ability to create complex knowledge. Thematic videos supplemented with a worksheet then provide learners with specific examples and a context in which they can use their prior knowledge as well. This combination of methods not only increases student engagement but also supports their ability to effectively connect new information with what they already know, which is key to their deeper understanding and long-term memorization of the content. However, as with the previous aspects, I did not have the opportunity to see these in the lessons I observed.

6.4.5 Completing Tasks

The completion of tasks in English teaching is significantly reflected in the development of learners' linguistic competences, as the teacher mentioned. She stated that most learners focus on improving their language, which includes working on grammar, or vocabulary mainly. Thanks to the regular completion of tasks and active participation in the teaching,

learners develop their language knowledge, which is necessary to reach the B2 level and successfully pass the “maturita” exam.

As for the development of pragmatic and socio-linguistic competences, the teacher admitted that she devotes less attention to these aspects, due to time and content constraints. Although learners lack intensive opportunities to develop these competences within the lessons, she stated that they often acquire them outside of school through activities such as online communication, sports competitions or travel. Possible obstacles to this development lie in the lack of time that could be devoted to these aspects, especially when learners already have limited time even for language preparation, which focuses mainly on linguistic competences (not enough time to do homework because of demanding sports trainings).

6.4.6 Cooperating

The teacher supports cooperation between learners by allowing them to complete some types of tasks in pairs or groups, which gives them the opportunity to help each other. She occasionally changes the group/pair composition and encourages learners to cooperate and communicate. Although the learners have the opportunity to form their own groups, they often do not move around much. Cooperation between learners is crucial, especially when practicing conversational situations, like e.g. projects/role play, but also when preparing written assignments, such as reports (as I could see in one of the lessons).

The teacher states that cooperation most supports the development of oral communication, understanding others, and the ability to respond in a given situation, which is inevitable for conducting an interview. Although cooperation primarily supports linguistic competences, the teacher admits that due to time constraints and the need to prepare learners for the school-leaving exam (maturita), they cannot focus more on the development of socio-linguistic and pragmatic competences. The lack of time, caused by the limited number of English lessons per week and the low time for homework, is therefore the main obstacle to the wider integration of these aspects of cooperation into the lessons.

6.4.7 Monitoring

The teacher provides learners with opportunities to self-assess and reflect on their progress through self-assessment in the textbook or individual interviews if needed. But although this option is available, it is rarely used in class and often remains unused by learners. Even though learners do have the opportunity to reflect on their strengths and weaknesses

in the learning process, most of them do not show interest in this activity and do not engage in it in depth. This approach suggests that learners do not consider reflection on progress to be a key part of their learning, which may be due to the lack of regular focus on this area in the classroom.

6.4.8 Evaluation, Self-Assessment, Peer-Assessment

The teacher allows learners to engage in self-assessment through the self-assessment guide in the textbook or individual interviews, as mentioned above. There is the same issue as described above because although learners know this option exists, it is not actively used in the classroom. Self-assessment sheets or peer assessment are not usually part of the lessons. Even though learners have the opportunity to assess their strengths and weaknesses in the learning process, few actually engage with this option, which indicates a low interest in regular reflection on their progress. This approach may be a result of insufficient motivation of learners to engage in deeper self-reflection and assessment, or insufficient integration of these activities into everyday teaching.

6.4.9 Dealing with Feelings

In the interview, the teacher mentioned a few points in how she works with the learners' emotions during teaching and how she supports their self-confidence. In the case of negative emotions, such as disappointment or frustration, she tries to offer help, repetition of the topic given, or correction if needed to help them understand it better. She also reminds the learners of their strengths, which helps them overcome difficulties and improve their sense of success. Conversely, when learners feel positive emotions, such as joy or excitement of being successful, the teacher praises them and focuses on their further development, which supports their motivation and determination to continue studying. This strategy shows how the teacher pays attention to the learners' emotional state in order to motivate and support them in their learning.

6.5 Conclusion of the Practical Part

The research aimed to find out whether and how learner autonomy is developed at the selected four-year grammar school. The questions that were introduced at the beginning of the research were as follows:

Questions to be explored:

1. Which aspects of autonomy development do ELT teachers address in the lessons?
2. Which autonomy feature is developed the most often in ELT lessons?
3. Which aspects of communicative competence are supported in this ELT autonomy development?
4. Which aspects of communicative competence are supported the most in these lessons?

The aspects of autonomy development, based on the Tassinari model of autonomy, were the main focus of this research. After the data analysis, it was possible to get the following findings. The two teachers, selected for the case study, did help learners with autonomy development, but only in some parts of the learning and teaching process. As for the quantitative analysis, the aspect of autonomy that teacher 1 helped develop the most was in completing tasks together with cooperation, and mostly linguistic competences were developed here (specifically 36x during the autonomy development). The pragmatic and sociolinguistic competences were developed as well, but the number of occurrences was significantly lower. Concerning the fact which linguistic competence was developed the most, it was grammatical competence. In comparison, teacher 2 did help develop the same aspects of autonomy – completing tasks together with cooperation, similarly, linguistic competences were developed the most in this process, but the number was lower this time (specifically 18x during the autonomy development). And similarly, aspects of pragmatic and sociolinguistic competences were developed as well in this teacher's lessons, but again, much less than linguistic competences. Specifically, in this case, lexical competence was the one that was developed the most during the process.

To sum it up, I found out that both teachers did help develop autonomy in their learners, specifically in the area of completing tasks and cooperation. At the same time, I learned that they developed mainly linguistic competences during this process. However, probably the biggest drawback of the research was the fact that neither of the teachers stated the aims

of lessons, so I only could assume what aspects of communicative competence they developed from the detailed description of activities in my observation sheet.

Conclusion of the Thesis

This diploma thesis dealt with the concept of autonomy development at a selected four-year grammar school and the aim was to investigate whether and how the learner autonomy is developed at the selected school. It was divided into two parts – the theoretical and practical part.

In the first chapter of the theoretical part, current approaches to education were discussed, both generally speaking or in the concept of language teaching. Later in the chapter, the educational approaches were connected to the concept of learner-centredness, and individualisation and differentiation and it was explained there how they are related. In addition to that, the next chapter dealt with the concept of autonomy and its definition, followed by the explanation of conditions in classes for this autonomy development. In relation to the more general first two chapters, chapters 3 and 4 were focused more on language teaching. Chapter 3 defined communicative competences and critically compared two models of them – The CEFR and a model by Murcia. In the fourth chapter, the ways of autonomy development in ELT classes, based on the Tassinari model, were discussed and defined. Based on this chapter, a list of autonomy features was created for the purpose of the practical part and the research.

The practical part then represented the conception of a case study, and it also described the data collection tools together with the procedure of data collection and analysis. The purpose of the research was to find out whether and how learner's autonomy can be developed in English language teaching at a four-year grammar school, then there were four specific questions for the research. The first two questions, concerning learner autonomy development, could be answered positively, even though the first one only partly. The answer to the first question “Which aspects of autonomy development do ELT teachers address in the lessons?” was that only two aspects out of nine (based on the Tassinari model) were supported in the lessons and it was true in the cases of both teachers. The answer to the second question “Which autonomy feature is developed the most often in ELT lessons?” could be specifically answered that it was completing tasks and cooperation, again in the lessons of both teachers. The third question “Which aspects of communicative competence are supported in this ELT autonomy development?” may be answered in the way that all of the aspects of communicative competences were supported in the ELT classes

with both teachers, but following the fourth question “Which aspects of communicative competence are supported the most in these lessons?”, it could be specified here that primarily aspects of linguistic competences were supported the most during those lessons, followed by aspects of sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences as well, but with a significantly lower number of occurrences. And as it was specified by both of the teachers later in the interview, this was mainly due to the limited amount of time they have in the lessons and also the need to prepare their learners for the school leaving exam where, according to them both, mainly linguistic competences are needed.

Probably the main contribution of the theoretical part of this thesis was the comprehensive basis of the observable phenomena needed in the research, specifically, the fourth chapter as the specific ways of autonomy development in ELT classes was described there. As for the practical part, it may be said that it provides some interesting findings of whether and how autonomy is developed at the selected grammar school, answering the questions for the research. Personally, for me, this thesis helped me realise what areas of autonomy development need to be worked on and what specifically I can do in my own practice.

Resumé

Rozvoj autonomie lze zařadit do kategorie témat, která mají v posledních letech ve vzdělávání stále větší důležitost. Co se poté týče výuky cizích jazyků, v tomto případě pak zejména výuky anglického jazyka, i zde hraje autonomie stále důležitější roli. Toto vše zejména kvůli postupu času a měnícím se trendům ve vzdělávání. Tato diplomová práce se zabývá právě rozvojem autonomie u studentů čtyřletého gymnázia a je rozdělena do dvou hlavních částí – teoretické a praktické. Cílem teoretické části bylo poskytnout teoretický základ pro porozumění danému tématu a také vytvořit seznam znaků rozvoje autonomie v hodinách anglického jazyka, ze kterého poté vychází praktická část. Cílem praktické části potom bylo na základě těchto teoretických poznatků zjistit, zda a jak je autonomie rozvíjena u studentů vybraného gymnázia v hodinách anglického jazyka.

První kapitola teoretické části se věnuje definici pojmu „přístup“, detailněji pak popisuje současné přístupy ke vzdělávání, a to i tomu jazykovému, a porovnává je mezi sebou. Dále se pak zabývá pojmy „individualizace a diferenciace“ a také tím, když je výuka více zaměřena na žáka a definuje, z jakých přístupů toto pojetí výuky vychází a jak s nimi souvisí. Druhá kapitola poté koncept autonomie nejprve zasazuje do kontextu historie a posléze jej popisuje v rámci současného pojetí. K tomuto popisu je v kapitole použit rámcový vzdělávací plán pro gymnázia a také Tassinari model autonomie. Tyto dva dokumenty zde byly použity nejen za účelem ukázky, jak každý z dokumentů s tímto pojmem pracuje, ale také pro ukázku toho, v čem se tyto dva dokumenty prolínají a vzájemně shodují. Další podkapitola se věnuje podmínkám pro rozvoj autonomie, které jsou ve třídě potřeba, jako např. role motivace, role učitele při výuce anglického jazyka, a diskutuje také přínos individualizace a diferenciace pro rozvoj autonomie.

Třetí kapitola se již zaměřuje více na jazykovou stránku věci a věnuje se konceptu komunikační kompetence. Kapitola začíná uvedením krátké definice komunikační kompetence a posléze se přesouvá ke kritickému porovnání dvou vybraných modelů, konkrétně CEFR (Společný Evropský Referenční Rámec pro Výuku Jazyků) a model od autorky Murcia. Poté kapitola stejným způsobem porovnává dané aspekty komunikační kompetence (lingvistickou, socio-lingvistickou a pragmatickou) a kriticky hodnotí, v čem se tyto dva modely odlišují. Nakonec byl pro účely této diplomové práce zvolen model CEFR,

důvody pro tuto volbu jsou popsány v další části této kapitoly, stejně jako to, proč byl zvolen model z roku 2001 a nikoliv ten z roku 2022.

Čtvrtá a zároveň poslední kapitola se poté již věnuje přímo způsobům rozvoje autonomie v hodinách anglického jazyka. Jako výchozí model pro tuto kapitolu, stejně tak jako pro výzkum, byl zvolen Tassinari model, jelikož, jak vyplývá z druhé kapitoly po porovnání Tassinari modelu a RVP G, právě tento model se jevil být vhodným a aktuálním vzhledem k nynějším přístupům a trendům ve vzdělávání, a to i v tom jazykovém. Tato kapitola tedy popisuje jednotlivé komponenty vybraného modelu a poskytuje teoretická východiska, která později podpořila porozumění a uchopení těchto bodů ve výzkumné části.

Praktická část obsahuje vlastní výzkum, který byl rozdělen na dvě kapitoly, celkově pátou a šestou. Výzkum byl proveden na Sportovním gymnáziu v Pardubicích. Pátá kapitola tedy poměrně podrobně popisuje samotný výzkum, jeho metodologii a analýzu dat. Výzkum byl proveden za pomoci případové studie (na případu dvou vyučujících). Data byla sesbírána za pomoci observačních archů a seznamu znaků autonomie, který k němu byl vytvořen a také za pomoci rozhovoru s danými vyučujícími. Daný observačních arch byl jednoho typu, pro všechny hodiny stejný, stejně tak i seznam znaků autonomie. Arch byl rozdělen do sloupců pro snadnější záznam dat. Nejvíce jsem se soustředila na co nejpodrobnější zápisky z hodin, aby se mi poté snadněji tato data analyzovala a interpretovala. Jako další z nástrojů byl již zmíněný rozhovor, který byl realizován koncem února s oběma vyučujícími, s každou však zvlášť. Následná analýza dat z rozhovorů byla provedena za pomoci tzv. otevřeného kódování. V následné analýze dat šlo pak primárně o zjištění toho, zda a jak je v hodinách anglického jazyka na daném gymnáziu u studentů rozvíjena autonomie. Toto vše je popsáno v následné interpretaci dat a diskusi.

V šesté kapitole tedy následuje vyhodnocení četnosti daných aspektů autonomie, která se v hodinách objevily a také toho, do jakých komunikačních kompetencí tento rozvoj cílil. U první z vyučujících bylo zjištěno, že v hodinách podporovala pouze dva aspekty autonomie z devíti dle vybraného modelu, a to konkrétně spolupráci a plnění úkolů. Nejvíce poté podporovala lingvistickou kompetenci, konkrétně lexikální v rámci spolupráce a gramatickou v rámci plnění úkolů. Druhá z vyučujících pak měla velmi podobné výsledky, jen četnosti byly nižší. Jinak ale ve svých hodinách při rozvoji autonomie taktéž nejvíce podporovala kooperaci a plnění úkolů a taktéž lingvistickou kompetenci. Konkrétně pak lexikální, a to jak

v rámci rozvoje kooperace, tak plnění úkolů. U obou vyučujících byl pak zjištěn poměrně výrazně nižší rozvoj pragmatických a sociolingvistických kompetencí.

V závěru praktické části se pak věnuji shrnutí daných zjištění a mimo jiné je zde okomentován také fakt, že přesto, že u obou vyučujících se potvrdil rozvoj autonomie studentů, i když jen v omezeném počtu, ani u jednoho z vyučujících se nikdy v rámci hodiny neobjevilo stanovení jejího cíle ani daných aktivit. Toto tedy může být považováno za jednu z největších překážek pro správné určení, do jakých komunikačních kompetencí rozvoj autonomie cílí. Toto bylo analyzováno pouze na základě podrobných zápisků z hodin.

Ve finálním závěru celé práce shrnuji a komentuji danou problematiku a také hlavní myšlenku celé práce. Uvažuji v něm především nad tím, co výzkum přinesl z hlediska rozvoje autonomie na vybraném gymnáziu a jaké oblasti tohoto rozvoje je třeba zlepšit. Jak již bylo řečeno, zjištění ukázala, že učitelé se zaměřují především na spolupráci a plnění úkolů, přičemž se nejvíce rozvíjejí jazykové kompetence, zatímco sociolingvistické a pragmatické kompetence byly podporovány v menší míře. Tato zjištění pro mě znamenají, že i v případě, že jsou některé aspekty autonomie rozvíjeny, je třeba více pozornosti věnovat širšímu spektru těchto aspektů, stejně tak jako rozvoji komunikačních kompetencí, a zajistit rovnováhu mezi nimi. V osobním rámci mě tato práce přivedla k zamyšlení nad tím, jakým způsobem mohu v praxi lépe podporovat autonomii svých studentů, a také jaké přístupy použít, aby bylo dosaženo komplexního rozvoje.

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Statement

During the preparation of this thesis, I used CHAT GPT both in theoretical and practical part in order to look for the sources first, then to make the text sound more academic and to structure and formulate the ideas in a more logical way. After using this tool, I reviewed and edited the content as needed and I take full responsibility for the content of the thesis.

Appendixes

Appendix A: The Observation Sheet

*

Date: 18.11.2024 Class: 2-A Time: 45 min 7:30 - 8:15

Teacher: Mgr. Věra Vlachová, Ph.D. Topic: Complainments Aim: —

Number of Activity:	Time:	Interaction Patterns:	Activity Description			Autonomy Feature (1-13)	Aspect of English that the autonomy is aimed at (Reading, vocab, grammar, pronunciation, listening)	Comments:
			objective	What the teacher does	What the learner(s) does/ do			
1.		T → S		gives the phrases and asks for the S to say them	Repeat / try to remember the phrases and say it	Complaining	L	
2.		T → S S → S		tells to S to discuss it in the book	discuss in pairs sit in the book how to make a complain	negotiation working with the book	L	
3.		T → S S → T		T asks the students to tell her what they've discussed	Sharing their answers with the T	Sharing answers with T		
4.		T → S T → S S → T		gives instructions how to discuss and tells the S to work in pairs and	listen and complete the task (exercise) listen to the instructions then start working in pairs	listening report to complete the phrases	L, Prag.	
5.		T → S S → S		write a dialogue when you want to complain about sth)	working a dialogue about complaining	social ? (když si někomu stěžuješ)	L, S, Prag.	

Other Comments:

Appendix B:

The List of Autonomy Features 1-9:

1. The Role of Motivation
2. Planning
3. Choosing Materials and Tools
4. Structuring Knowledge
5. Completing Tasks
6. Cooperating
7. Monitoring
8. Evaluation, Self-Assessment, Peer-Assessment
9. Dealing with Feelings

Appendix C:
Data Analysis

Teacher 1:

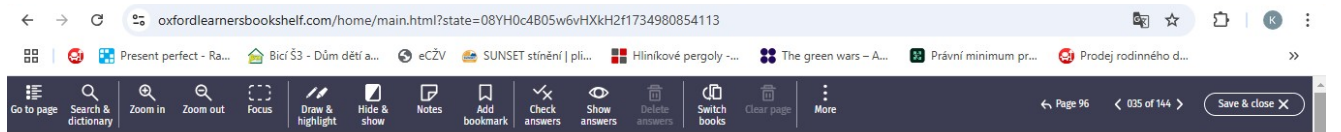
Autonomy Feature	Aspect of Communicative Competence	Which aspect of CC is supported the most
Cooperating 9x	Lexical: 9x P – Discourse: 6x P – Functional: 4x Grammatical: 2x Semantic: 5x Socio-Linguistic – Register Differences: 1x Socio-Linguistic – Dialect and Accent	Lexical (Linguistic) 9x
Completing a Task 12x	Grammatical: 13x Lexical: 4x Semantic: 2x P – Discourse: 6x Orthoepic: 1x	Grammatical (Linguistic) 13x

Teacher 2:

Autonomy Feature	Aspect of Communicative Competence	Which aspect of CC is supported the most
Cooperating 7x	Lexical: 6x Grammatical: 1x P – Discourse: 3x Semantic: 2x Socio-Linguistic – Register Differences: 1x Socio-Linguistic – Dialect and Accent: 1x	Lexical: 6x (Linguistic)
Completing a Task 7x	Grammatical: 2x Lexical: 7x Semantic: 1x P – Discourse: 6x Socio-Linguistic – Dialect and accent: 1x	Lexical: 7x (Linguistic)

Appendix D:

Sample Tasks from the Students' Book



LEARNING OBJECTIVES

Use the past simple and present perfect to talk about experiences

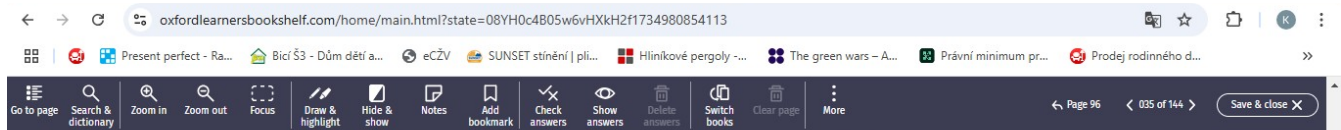
Use the past simple and present perfect with different adverbs and time words

3B

6 Work in pairs. Study the pairs of sentences. Why are different tenses used in sentences a and b?

1 a I finished my workout before school.	b I haven't finished my daily workout yet.
2 a Have you seen Charlie this morning?	b Did you see Charlie this morning?
3 a I was a gym instructor for three years.	b I've been a gym instructor for three years.
4 a I've never played handball.	b I didn't play handball last night.
5 a I didn't speak to Olivia at the party last Friday.	b I haven't spoken to Olivia for ages.
6 a Have you ever used an exercise ball in class?	b Did you use an exercise ball in class yesterday?

7 **3.2** Complete the dialogue with the present perfect or past simple form of the verbs in brackets. Then listen and check.



Jack Hey, Sophie. Wait for me! I (not see) you for ages.

Sophie Jack, hi! You sound a bit out of breath. Are you OK?

Jack Yes, I'm fine. You look really well. How's it going?

Sophie Good, thanks. I (start) doing more exercise a few weeks ago.

Jack (you / join) that new gym?

Sophie No, I haven't. I (feel) my own fitness routine. So, this morning I (do) some stretches before getting out of bed. After school yesterday, I (walk) 2 km because I (not get) the bus home. I (chat) to my sister on the phone all the way home instead.

Jack So you (exercise) your mouth muscles, too.

Sophie Ha, ha. Very funny! What (you / be) up to?

Jack Not much. I (watch) a couple of episodes of *Money Heist* last night.

Sophie You (miss) an opportunity there. (you / ever / try) doing exercise while you're watching TV?

Jack No.

Sophie I think you should start your own fitness routine. I (already / feel) the benefits of mine. I (sleep) really well and I (concentrate) better in class, so hopefully, it'll help with my revision.

Jack Yeah, maybe.

8 TASK Make questions in the past simple or present perfect. Use the prompts and the verbs below. Then work in pairs and ask and answer the questions. Ask follow-up questions to find out more information.

do ■ download ■ ever / run ■ ever / invent ■ learn ■ play ■ start ■ walk

1 how much exercise / you / last week?	5 you / a 5K or a 10K race?
2 you / any fitness apps this month?	6 what / you / about exercise in this lesson?
3 you / your own recipe?	7 you / revision for the exams / yet?
4 you / to and from school yesterday?	8 you / any sport last weekend?

Assess your progress Workbook page 27

35

oxfordlearnersbookshelf.com/home/main.html?state=08YH0c4B05w6vHXkH2f1734980854113

Present perfect - Ra... Bici Š3 - Dům dětí a... eCZV SUNSET stínění | pl... Hliníkové pergoly ~... The green wars - A... Právní minimum pr... Prodej rodinného d...

Go to page Search & dictionary Zoom in Zoom out Focus Draw & highlight Hide & show Notes Add bookmark Check answers Show answers Delete answers Switch books Clear page More Page 35 103 of 144 Save & close X

Bycatch is a huge problem, but it isn't the only threat to these awe-inspiring animals. sharks are also hunted for their meat, their liver oil and even their skin. Seafood products such as fish fingers, crab sticks and fish-flavoured pet food depend on shark meat, and their ingredients are often unlabelled, so it's difficult to check. Shark liver oil, known as squalene, is used in cosmetics and health supplements such as Omega-3 pills, and expensive shoes and handbags are made from shark skin. All these products are big business, with a market worth over \$1 billion a year, and it's a business which kills millions of sharks.

There are also cultural traditions to consider. shark fin is the main ingredient in China's most prized dish, shark fin soup. The soup has been a status symbol in China for hundreds of years, and was often served at wedding banquets. However, since 2011, there has been an 80% drop in demand in China thanks to a nationwide conservation campaign. But shark fin soup is a tradition that older generations find difficult to give up, and many feel that to ban it would be an attack on their culture.

Shark finning is a brutal trade. after having their fins removed, many sharks are thrown back into the sea, where they die a distressing death. Still, most fishermen and market stall owners aren't concerned about ethics – they need to sell shark fins to support their families. As a result, thousands of fins are still sold in street markets in Asia – and what you see at these

markets is only a fraction of the number of animals actually killed.

Every year, over 100 million sharks die as a result of bycatch and hunting. 60% of the world's 500 species are threatened with extinction, and some species have almost been wiped out. Numbers of hammerhead and oceanic white sharks have decreased by an incredible 90%. On average, three sharks are killed every second, and it's proving difficult for them to recover their numbers. Some species have only two or three pups at a time, and these pups can take between 10 and 14 years to mature.

It's a critical situation and bad news for the environment. for 400 million years, sharks have helped to maintain healthy marine ecosystems. They feed on weaker, sicker prey and stop any single species from increasing in numbers. In one study based on shark numbers in coral reefs, reefs where sharks were overfished became unhealthy and overrun by algae.

Losing sharks can create an imbalance in the food chain, which can result in a significant rise in the number of smaller predators like stingrays. This means there are fewer smaller fish, and also fewer shellfish, which keep the seas and oceans clean. It could ultimately lead to the collapse of the underwater ecosystem, with countless consequences for us all. As one marine biologist said, 'When sharks die, the oceans die'. Killing sharks is putting the environment – and ultimately, humans – at risk.

Appendix E:

The Interview:

A) Spolupráce a interakce

1. Jak podporujete spolupráci studentů ve výuce angličtiny?
2. Jakou roli hraje učitel při spolupráci studentů?
3. V jakých situacích studenti spolupracují spíše mezi sebou a kdy spíše s učitelem?
4. Můžete uvést příklady aktivit, kde je spolupráce klíčová?
5. Jaké jazykové aspekty se podle vás při spolupráci nejvíce rozvíjejí? Proč?
6. Podle mých zjištění při spolupráci studentů rozvíjíte více lingvistické kompetence než socio-lingvistické a pragmatické. Co je podle Vás důvodem tohoto zaměření? Jaké překážky mohou bránit integrování spolupráce do rozvoje těchto komunikačních kompetencí?

B) Plánování a stanovování cílů

7. Jak pomáháte studentům stanovovat si vlastní učební cíle? Mají možnost je průběžně upravovat?
8. Jak moc se studenti podílejí na plánování obsahu nebo zaměření hodin?
9. Jaké strategie používají studenti při nastavování svých cílů pro učení angličtiny? Podporujete je v tom?

C) Hodnocení a reflexe

10. Jak zapojujete studenty do sebehodnocení a reflexe jejich pokroku?
11. Používáte konkrétní metody, jako jsou sebehodnotící listy nebo vrstevnické hodnocení? Pokud ano, jak fungují?
12. Mají studenti možnost hodnotit své silné a slabé stránky v procesu učení? Jak na to reagují?

D) Výběr materiálů a strategií učení

13. Do jaké míry si studenti mohou vybírat materiály, se kterými pracují? Pokud ano, jaký vliv to má na jejich autonomii?
14. Jak pomáháte studentům propojit nové učivo s jejich předchozími znalostmi? (např. scaffolding)

E) Jak autonomie ovlivňuje osvojování angličtiny?

15. Jaké konkrétní strategie rozvoje autonomie podporujete u studentů při rozvoji jednotlivých aspektů komunikační kompetence (lingvistické, socio-lingvistické, pragmatické)?
16. Dáváte studentům prostor, aby si sami volili metody učení slovní zásoby/gramatiky? Pokud ano, jaké strategie volí?
17. Jak podporujete studenty v plánování svého jazykového rozvoje? Mohou si sami určovat, na jaké oblasti se chtějí zaměřit?

F) Jak výuka angličtiny ovlivňuje autonomii?

18. Podle mých zjištění se ve výuce angličtiny zaměřujete více na rozvoj lingvistických kompetencí než na kompetenci pragmatickou a socio-lingvistickou. Co je podle Vás důvodem tohoto zaměření? Jaké překážky mohou bránit intenzivnějšímu rozvoji těchto aspektů komunikační kompetence?
19. Mohou si studenti sami volit, kdy a jak použijí angličtinu a češtinu?

G) Emoce a motivace

20. Jakým způsobem pracujete s emocemi studentů během výuky? Máte strategie pro podporu jejich sebevědomí?
21. Jak zohledňujete zájmy studentů při plánování výuky? Můžete uvést konkrétní příklady?
22. Jak se autonomie studentů odráží v jejich motivaci učit se angličtinu?

Appendix F:

Example of Open Coding:

Jak podporujete spolupráci studentů ve výuce angličtiny?

Většinu úkolů mohou plnit ve dvojicích nebo ve skupinkách (cooperation), navzájem si pomáhají.

Jak moc se studenti podílejí na plánování obsahu nebo zaměření hodin?

Spíše méně, cca z 20% hodin (potřeba opakovat, příprava na certifikát, ...)

Opakování – spíše dle studentů, co chtějí dělat (helping to plan the lessons)

Jak zapojujete studenty do sebehodnocení a reflexe jejich pokroku?

V rámci self-assessment v učebnici (self-assessment), dále individuálně – formou rozhovoru

V učebnici se ale i tak s tím moc nepracuje

Mají studenti možnost hodnotit své silné a slabé stránky v procesu učení (monitoring)? Jak na to reagují?

Možnost mají, ale málokdo se tím chce zabývat

Do jaké míry si studenti mohou vybírat materiály, se kterými pracují? Pokud ano, jaký vliv to má na jejich autonomii?

Pracujeme se sadou učebnic po většinu času, ale v přípravě svých prezentací / nahrávek mohou používat co chtějí (choosing materials and tools) – nejsou limitováni žádnými zdroji. Pro některé je to výhoda, pro jiné to přináší problémy (neumějí se vždy správně orientovat ve zdrojích)

Jakým způsobem pracujete s emocemi studentů během výuky? Máte strategie pro podporu jejich sebevědomí?

V případě negativních (zklamání, frustrace) – nabídnu možnost pomoci, opakování, opravu, připomenu jim jejich silné stránky (dealing with feelings)

Pozitivní emoce (radost z výsledku...) - pochvala, zaměření na další rozvoj (dealing with feelings)