

Metodika anglického jazyka pro MŠ I

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Zlín 2018

POPIS PŘEDMĚTU ve vazbě na studijní oporu

Bakalářský studijní program: Učitelství pro mateřské školy

Předmět: Metodika anglického jazyka pro MŠ I

Forma studia: kombinovaná

Rozsah distanční výuky: 5 hodin

Zařazení výuky: 3. ročník, zimní semestr

Forma výuky: cvičení

Ukončení: zápočet

Vyučující: prof. PaedDr. Silvia Pokrivčáková, PhD.

Stručná anotace předmětu:

Cílem výuky v předmětu je naučit studenta, jak připravit a realizovat ranou výuku anglického jazyka v mateřské školce. V předmětu si studenti osvojí především praktické didaktického postupy vyučování angličtiny jako cizího jazyka u nejmladších žáků. Po jeho absolvování by student měl být schopen aplikovat různé didaktické strategie cizojazyčného vzdělávání v praxi předškolních zařízení.

Struktura výukových témat předmětu v rámci jednoho semestru je následující:

Foreign language education in general and English language education in particular

Early beginnings of English language learning at nursery schools

English language acquisition vs. English language learning

Pre-primary English teachers, their roles

Non-native teachers of English

Teaching approaches, methods, techniques and materials

Very young learners of English (3-6 years)

Age factor in foreign language education

Critical age hypothesis and Language acquisition hypothesis

Pre-primary English classroom management

Classroom language, code-switching and code-mixing

Classroom design

Giving feedback to very young learners

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INTRODUCTION

The publication is intended to be comprehensible learner-oriented study materials for future or in-service teachers of English as a foreign language (FLE) at nursery schools and other pre-school institutions. Its content and objectives respect two national documents: *Národní plán výuky cizích jazyků* (MŠMT ČR, 2005) and *Rámcový vzdělávací program pro předškolní vzdělávání* (MŠMT ČR, 2018).

The first chapter discusses the basic frameworks of English language education, i.e. its nature, objectives, content and contemporary forms of its organisation. It also contains basic information on FLE research with special focus on action research as one of the means leading to bridging the gap between FLE research and practice. The second chapter briefly explains a complex issue of an early beginning of foreign language education. It also introduces two crucial hypotheses (critical age hypothesis and language acquisition hypothesis) which have shaped the research in foreign language education of very young learners for decades. The third and fourth chapters concentrate on the roles and characteristics of two crucial subjects involved in EFL pre-primary education: pre-primary teachers and very young learners (in this case 3-6 years old learners). The fifth chapter reflects on both the verified examples of good practice and latest developments in the management and organisation of TEFL at nursery schools. Finally, the publication includes also a brief glossary of TEFL methodology terminology and updated lists of sources.

The study material is based on the needs of a contemporary teaching practice. Therefore, it introduces many tips, suggestions and examples of good teaching practice related to fundamental principles. It also reflects on the latest research results in language pedagogy. However, any user (either a university student or in-service teacher) should be aware of the fact that there is no single “best way” how to teach. The author of this textbook assumes that good and successful English language teachers are professionals, i.e. thinking, creative and practical persons who can make decisions on their own and draw on what is best for them and for their learners. The author hopes the book will help them to find such effective and well-informed decisions.

Bibliographical note: The publication includes parts of the textbook *Modern teacher of English* (Pokrivčáková, 2012) which were updated and adapted with regard to the needs of pre-primary teachers in the Czech Republic.



1 FOREIGN LANGUAGE COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE OF VERY YOUNG LEARNERS

In the first chapter, the basic terminology of foreign language education and pedagogy is introduced. The terms are explained individually and in mutual relationships. .

1.1 Foreign language education and its pedagogy

Language is perhaps the most powerful instrument in the hands of humankind. That is why people have paid attention to its study and teaching/learning for millenia. It has also become general knowledge that the more languages the person can communicate in, the better chances he/she has in politics, career, trade and even in love.

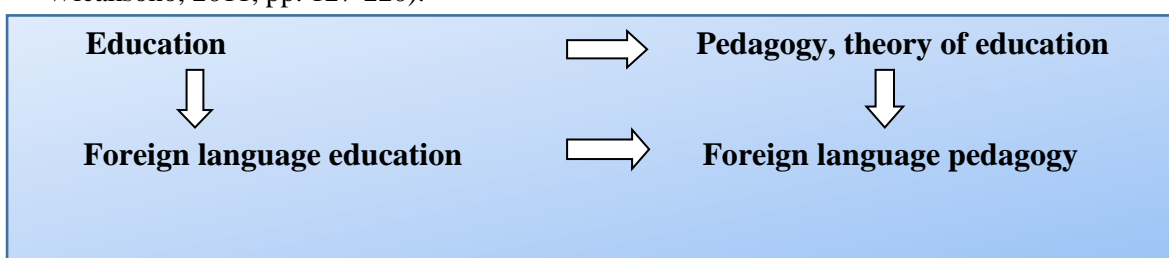
Over the centuries, people have continually looked for the best ways to learn (and later to teach) languages of other tribes or nations. The scale of such ways has continually grown, starting with simply copying native speakers, memorising foreign texts and, for the time being, ending with the most complicated procedures requiring the support of computers and latest technology.

Foreign language education (FLE) is a field of education revolving around the processes related to acquiring, learning and teaching foreign languages. It is studied by the discipline named foreign language pedagogy.

Foreign language pedagogy (FLP) is an interdisciplinary branch of pedagogy focusing on foreign language education. It integrates knowledge of pedagogy, linguistics and other disciplines (social studies, anthropology, psychology, cultural studies, literary studies, cognitive sciences etc.). At the same time, foreign language pedagogy may be considered a relatively independent field of applied linguistics (cf. Hall, Smith & Wicaksono, 2011, pp. 127-220).

Key terms

- foreign language education
- foreign language pedagogy
- English language education
- mother language
- second language
- foreign language
- communicative competence
- linguistic competence (language systems),
- discourse competence (communicative skills),
- pragmatic (socio-linguistic) competence,
 - strategic competence,
 - research in English language education





▪ People learn foreign languages for many reasons. There are some who learn one or more foreign languages for the clear joy and excitement from being able to communicate. Some learn foreign languages to communicate with the members of a family or community who are of another nationality. The latest psycholinguistic research has proved that people who have learned a foreign language had denser cerebral grey matter. Moreover, foreign language learning helps develop divergent thinking strategies. Probably the most popular opinion says that skills to communicate in foreign languages improve learners' chances at work and open new possibilities in work markets. The latter opinion, underlining the connection between foreign language skills and professional/economic success, has been reflected in European policy.

European contexts

In 1995, the European Commission published *The White Paper: Teaching and Learning – Towards the Learning Society*, where it stated “upon completing initial training, everyone should be proficient in two Community foreign languages”. Since then, one of the EU's guiding principles has been that every European citizen should be able to speak two foreign languages in addition to his/her mother tongue (M+2), because **plurilingual citizens** “are better equipped to take advantage of the educational opportunities created by an integrated Europe”.

To emphasise the importance of language education, the EU member states established the *European Day of Languages* on 26 September and started awarding the *European language label* to individuals or institutions that encourage new initiatives in the field of teaching and learning languages.

According to the official site of the European Commission for language education (European Commission: Language Teaching, online), “knowledge of languages is at the heart of a successful Europe”. The European legislation in the field of language education is governed by a conviction that “by encouraging students to learn other languages from an early age, language teachers are helping young Europeans to become:

- more open to other cultures,
- more able to move and work freely across borders,
- more able to compete effectively in the global economy”.

1.2 English language education and pedagogy/methodology

Within the general context of foreign language education, English language education has a prominent position. The reasons are obvious. Although English with its more than 500 million speakers is not the most used mother-language worldwide (such title goes to Chinese Mandarin with more than 1 billion users), it is the official language of more countries than any other language, including not only the traditionally English-speaking countries, such as the U.K., the U.S.A, Canada,



Australia, New Zealand, etc., but also India, the Caribbean, Hong Kong and many African countries. Moreover, English is the official language of most international institutions, summits and other events. Therefore, proficiency in English is necessary for international communication, as well as a business and personal success. This all fuels the need for a quality English-as-a-foreign-language education in the countries where English is not an official language.

The situation in the EU member states is not different, as English is the most taught language in all European countries. Each European country has its own organisational structure of English language education, differing in many aspects including objectives, content, extent, teaching methods used and testing requirements. What the members of the EU have in common is the united system of language proficiency evaluation and certification named *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (CEFR, 2000) which is automatically applied for English language education as well, and the latest tendency to shift the beginning of English language acquisition to the very early stages of education (ISCED 0).



Discussion:

*Read the text *Výuka cizího jazyka v raném věku* by Hanušová & Najvar (2007, p. 42–52). Based on its conclusions, as well as your own observations and experiences, discuss in groups what the benefits and possible risks of very early start of English language acquisition are.*

English language education is subject to English language pedagogy (ELP). Since English language education appears in various contexts which involve many different processes and lead to different expected outcomes, three lines of ELP have emerged:

- acquiring/learning English as a mother language;
- acquiring /learning English as a second language;
- acquiring /learning English as a foreign language.

English is taught as a mother language (a mother tongue, the first language, L1) to learners for whom English is their native language (basically it was the first language they learned at home from their parents). Learners with English as a mother language are called native learners. The majority of learners in English speaking countries (the U.K., the U.S.A, Australia, Canada, New Zealand, etc.) are native learners.

English as a second language (L2) is taught to learners whose mother language is different from English, but is used as an official language in the country they live in. English is a second language



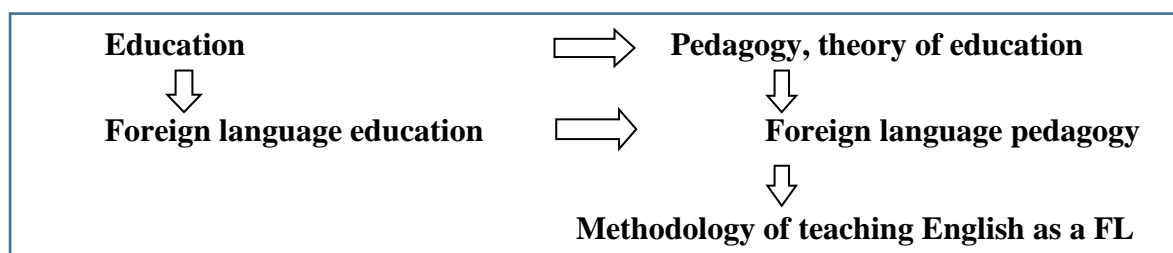
for learners coming from various minority groups living in the U.K. (e.g. Welsh, or Pakistani), Latinos in the U.S.A., or for inhabitants of India.

English is also taught (as a mandatory or optional subject) at schools in the countries where it is not an official language and learners speak in a different mother tongue (in Mexico, Egypt, Japan, and majority of European countries including Germany, France, Poland, the Czech Republic and Slovakia). Learners in these countries learn **English as a foreign language**. (This textbook concentrates on the last mentioned line of ELP.)

1.3 Methodology of teaching English as a foreign language

The methodology of TEFL is a specific branch of foreign language pedagogy. It is a set of methods and principles used to teach English as a foreign language. It deals with the questions of:

- organising and managing** EFL teaching and learning (objectives and curriculum),
- subjects** involved (teachers and learners) and teachers,
- designing processes** in the classrooms (planning, choice of effective methods and materials, assessment, etc.).



Think about and discuss in pairs what you need to know and what knowledge and skills the person needs to have to be able to communicate in English effectively.

Tab. 1: Comparison of English and Czech terminologies

education	výchova, vyučování
pedagogy, theory of education	pedagogika
foreign language education	vyučování cizích jazyků
language pedagogy	teorie vyučování jazyků, lingvodidaktika
methodology of teaching	didaktika
method	metodika
teaching technique	metoda vyučování



The general goal of foreign language education is to gain a **communicative competence** in a foreign language. Communicative competence is the ability to communicate efficiently, which includes the individual's ability to share information, express in a foreign language what he/she wishes to express and to understand information which he/she receives.

The communicative competence consists of several **components** (c.f. Canale, 1983):

- a. *linguistic competence (language systems),*
- b. *discourse competence (communicative skills),*
- c. *pragmatic (socio-linguistic) competence,*
- d. *strategic competence.*

Linguistic competence includes the knowledge of *phonological, lexical, and grammatical* systems (i.e. language systems: pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar) and its main focus is on accuracy. In the past, this competence focusing on language accuracy (correctness, preciseness) was the emphasised (and sometimes the only) part of foreign language education (e.g. in classes which applied the grammar-translation method).

Discourse competence presents the ability to understand texts (through effective *listening and reading*) and to produce them (through *speaking and writing skills*). This competence includes the learners' skills to use their language knowledge and combine all for communicative skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing) automatically, without the need to think about it intentionally. The result is the fluent communication without disturbing pauses and breakdowns.

Pragmatic (socio-linguistic) competence links to the knowledge what "type" of language is needed to be used in various social situations, i.e. what to say and how to react in these situations. This competence is for instance reflected in different ways speakers talk to their family members at home, to friend at work and to strangers in the street.

Strategic competence is the ability to cope with sudden problems or breakdowns in communication. It includes the knowledge how to use both verbal (definitions, explanations) and non-verbal (body language, gestures, facial expressions) means of communication. Although this competence is extremely necessary for all speakers, its development is usually neglected at schools.

1.4 Latest trends in FLE

Janíková (2011, p. 9-10) summarised the latest trends in contemporary foreign language education as follows:

- Foreign language education has become a learner-centred.
- Teaching techniques are closely related to the latest research outcomes.
- Foreign language education is considered to be a life-long process.
- The concept of plurilinguism has been promoted.



- The concept of autonomous learning of foreign languages has moved into the centre.
- Borders between direct learning and individual acquisition of a foreign language are gradually disappearing.
- Intercultural aspect of foreign language education has acquired a new quality.



Personal Language Learning Biography (PLLB)

The PLLB is a chronological overview of somebody's language learning experience. Along with providing information to anyone interested (language teachers, employers, etc.), it promotes learner's self-reflection and may help him/her to become more aware of some behaviour patterns, repeated mistakes or best practices.

The suggested outline: 1. Language I grew up with.

1. Language areas I lived in.
2. Languages I have learnt at school.
3. Languages I use for my practical life (at work, while traveling)
4. Learning experiences, learning progress
5. Learning plans

1.5 Research in English language education

As in any other area of human activity, people involved in foreign language education have to continually look for new and better ways of teaching/learning foreign languages and for solution of the problems that appear in the field. Any new way or improvement should be verified by research.

Higgins (1996, p. 1) states, that **research** is the act which “entails a person (the researcher) searching for, enquiring about, investigating, exploring, repetitively, carefully, closely, some specified matter (the topic, the subject of the research). This matter may be an event, a fact, a cause, a relation, an elucidation, a demystification, a pattern, a meaning. So in any research: a person searches for a clue”.

Accordingly, research in English language education deals with a wide range of events and facts. It should provide all subjects involved in the educational practice (school policy makers, school managers, teacher trainers, teachers, students, etc.) with information necessary for better decision-making in everyday pedagogical situations.

Research in English language education is mostly institutionalised at universities and specialised research centres. The products of their excellence are published either in monographs, conference proceedings or in journals in both applied linguistics and educational research.

Some of the refereed and most prestigious peer reviewed international journals (both printed and on-line), publishing results of FLE research are (in alphabetical order, no meaning of priority



is implied): *Educational Research*, *Education Review*, *European Journal of Education*, *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, *Journal of Language and Learning: An International Journal for Language and Education Studies*, *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, *Journal of Second Language Teaching & Research*, *Language Learning: A Journal of Research in Language Studies*, *Language Teaching Research*, *Reading in a Foreign Language*, *Second Language Research*, *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *The Language Learning Journal*. Their editorial boards consist of internationally acknowledged experts.

Key terms

- pre-primary education
- very early start
- benefits and risks
- myth related to the early start
- situation in the Czech Republic

A special type of research, **the academic research**, is required as part of qualification theses (capstone projects, diploma theses, rigorous theses, and doctoral theses, dissertations). It is usually

conducted by authors (mostly students) under the guidance of experienced researchers. The objectives of the academic research are both to find new solutions of educational problems and to introduce the author/student to the practice of research methodology.



2 VERY EARLY START OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION

The chapter discusses theoretical principles, expected benefits and possible risks of the early start of foreign language education. It also briefly maps the existing situation in the Czech Republic.

2.1 The early start

Although the first arguments (both pedagogical and psychological) for an early start in language learning had occurred as early as the 1960s, it was only in 1990s when first complex and systematic initiatives and conceptions of introduction of foreign language learning in primary schools were proposed. These days, led mostly by the myth (Scovel, 1999) widely accepted in public that “the younger you start the better you will get”, teaching foreign languages in European countries has been continually spreading into the classrooms with increasingly younger learners. The trend has been effectively promoted and, in some cases, even provoked by the official language education policy of the EU which underlines the need of “teaching at least two foreign languages from a very early age” (European Commission, 2002, p. 44).

The very early age start policy recommendations and guidelines were summarized in the paper named *European Strategic Framework for Education and Training (ET 2020): Language learning at pre-primary school level: Making it efficient and sustainable: A policy handbook* (European Commission, 2011). Later, the European Commission published a paper named *Examples of good practices* (EC, n.d.-a), as well as paper called *Countries summaries* (EC, n.d.-b; the chapter in the Czech Republic is in pp. 27-35). More recent summaries, first-hand experiences and examples of good practice can be found in numerous publications (e.g. Edelenbos, Johnstone, Kubanek, 2006; Garton, Copland, & Burns, 2011; Mourão & Lourenço; 2015; Murphy & Evangelou, 2016; and others).

Nowadays, the number of pre-primary institutions providing organized foreign language education has been growing with English remaining the most popular foreign language taught in Europe. Pre-primary institutions are here understood in accordance with the definition of ISCED 0 as institutions providing “the initial stage of organised instruction“ which are “designed primarily to introduce very young children to a school-type environment, i.e. to provide a bridge between the home and a school-based atmosphere. Upon completion of these programmes, children continue their education at level 1 (primary education). Pre-primary education is school-based or centre-based and is designed for children aged at least 3 years” (Eurydice Report, 2017, p. 144).

British Council Survey (Rixon, 2013) indicated that English (as a foreign language) is rapidly spreading into the pre-primary level of education (ISCED 0). However, the conclusion was not proved to be so obvious by the most recent Eurydice report (2017) which showed that only four countries



(Cyprus, Belgium - partially, Poland, and Malta) officially implement teaching a second or foreign language before the start of primary education (see Appendix 1).

2.2 Directions in contemporary research

Internationally, very early and early start of foreign language education at nursery and elementary schools has been a rather widely discussed topic in contemporary pedagogical research, bringing a wide range of findings, conclusions and theories. In this regard, Lojová (2006, p. 44) named three significant perspectives in contemporary research on the topic:

1) **“the sooner the better”**: represented by researchers who believe that a child should start learning the foreign language/foreign languages as early as possible (in alliance with the proponents of the Critical Period Hypothesis). They also claim that a natural potential of children is wasted if the start of foreign language learning is moved to later years (e.g. Birdsong, 2001; de Bot, 2014; Johnstone, 2002; Nikolov & Djigunovic, 2006; Nikolov, 2009; Singleton & Lengyel, 1995; Sun, Steinkrauss, & de Bot, 2014). They aim to prove that the inclusion of a foreign language into preschool education has numerous advantages, e.g. increased performance in logical thinking, verbal communication, development of cultural awareness and positive attitude to other languages.

2) **“later is enough”**: gather experts whose studies did not prove the Critical Period Hypothesis and the importance of an early start. Instead, some of them claim that children can learn a foreign language faster, better and more effectively if they start later, once they have sufficiently developed language communicative competences in their mother language (Blondin et al., 1998; Hanušová & Najvar, 2005, 2006, 2007; Singleton & Ryan, 2004; Muñoz, 2006 and others).

1) **“it depends”**: this group of experts follows a belief that the age of a child cannot be considered the only decisive variable (Calabrese & Dawes, 2008; Enever & Lindgren, 2017; Unsworth et al., 2014; van Ginkel, 2017). Instead, “they emphasise the importance of other variables, namely inner predispositions, the social environment, and educational conditions” (Lojová, 2006, p. 44).

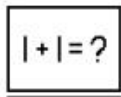
2.3 The situation in the Czech Republic

The first thing to be noted when discussing pre-school foreign language education and its early start in the Czech Republic is that by “pre-school” are meant children at the age of three to six, and that it is English which is a dominantly taught foreign language. Although several works have been published on the issue of pre-primary foreign language education (Černá, 2015; Dvořáková, 2006; Faklová, 2000; Fenclová, M. 2004.; Hanušová & Najvar, 2005; Hanušová & Najvar, 2007; Ježková, 2006; Jílková, 2005; Kovařovicová, Miňovská, & Smolíková, 1994; Minaříková, Cardová, & Švandová, 1987; Najvar, 2008; Opravilová, 2006; Smolíková, n. d.; Šára, n. d.; Šulová & Bartanusz, 2003; Šulová & Zaouche-Gaudron, 2003; Šulová, n. d.; Těthalová, 2010, 2012; Vojtková,



2006; Zapletalová, 2006; Zbranková, 2005 and others), no reliable and valid data on the national situation in foreign language education offered by pre-primary institutions in the Czech Republic have been provided yet (e.g. number and types of pre-school institutions providing foreign language education, methodologies used, number of qualified/unqualified teachers, number of learners, measurements of learning outcomes, etc.).

The document entitled *Countries summaries* (EC, n.d.-b; p. 27) characterizes the status quo in the Czech Republic as follows: “Although language learning is not a compulsory part of the Framework education programme, on the basis of interest, and very often under pressure of parents, the number of pre-primary school establishments (usually for children between 3-6 years of age) offering teaching of foreign languages has increased dramatically. Nowadays, more than 50 % of all pre-primary schools offer a type of introduction into foreign language learning, some in a very intensive way. (...) About 60% of these schools ask for extra charges for introducing foreign language into the education programme. (...) There is no recommended methodological approach which would define what is considered a regular foreign language course at that level (pre-primary). The type, level and intensity of teaching languages in these schools vary”. To change and, more importantly, improve the situation described above, the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport of the Czech Republic issued in 2005 the document called *National Plan for the Teaching of Foreign Languages (Národní plán výuky cizích jazyků, MŠMT, 2005)* with the *Action plan for the period 2005-2008*.



Search the internet and find one research study advocating and one paper opposing the language acquisition theory. Some tips for papers to look for:

Birdsong D. (Ed.) (2001). Second Language Acquisition and the Critical Period Hypothesis. Mahwah, NJ, Lawrence Erlbaum.

Burstal, C. (1975). Factors Affecting Foreign-Language Learning: A Consideration of Some Recent Research Findings. Language Teaching, 8(1), pp. 5-25. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444800002585>.

de Bot, K. (2014). The effectiveness of early foreign language learning in the Netherlands. Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching, 4 (3). 409-418. doi: 10.14746/ssllt.2014.4.3.2. Available at: <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1134812.pdf>

Enever, J. & Lindgren, E. (Eds.). (2017). Early Language Learning: Complexity and Mixed Methods. Bristol: Multilingual Matters. DOI: 10.21832/ENEVER8316.

Johnstone, R. (2002). Addressing 'The Age Factor': Some implications for languages policy: Guide for the development of Language Education Policies in Europe. From Linguistic Diversity to Plurilingual Education. (Reference Study). Strasbourg: Council of Europe. Available at: <https://www.coe.int/t/dg4/linguistic/Source/JohnstoneEN.pdf>



3 English Language Teacher

The second chapter discusses the general roles and functions of the teacher who teaches English as a foreign language to very young learners. It pays a special attention to the circumstances of non-native teachers. Finally, the chapter introduces a basic toolkit of the pre-primary teachers of English and teaching materials they can choose from.

Key terms

- pre-primary teacher
- English teacher
- teacher as a language professional
- teacher's roles
- teacher's toolkit
- teaching approaches
- teaching methods
- teaching techniques
- teaching materials

3.1 The teacher of English as a professional

The teacher is a person who is legally acknowledged to teach other people within various educational institutions. The old saying says that to be a teacher is not a job, but a mission. In general, teachers play crucial role in any society. They – together with parents – try to develop the human potential of all learners and shape future generations positively. While teaching children, teenagers, or adults, they do their best to provide learners with very modern knowledge, personal fulfilment, more diverse social and emotional skills, and better employment opportunities. The teacher's profession is becoming more complex and challenging, and demands placed upon teachers are increasing. That is why the European Union views teachers and their professional development as key players for the future.

Drawing on the importance of teachers for a contemporary, so-called knowledge-based society, the European Commission (Directorate-General for Education and Culture) provided a list of *Common European Principles for Teacher Competences and Qualifications* (2005) as a package of recommendations to its member states. The principles are as follows:

- **a well-qualified profession:** all teachers are graduates from higher education institutions (in Slovakia universities) and their education is multidisciplinary, i.e. they have extensive subject/subjects knowledge, have (or possess) strong knowledge in pedagogy and psychology, understand social and cultural dimensions of education, and have the practical skills and competencies necessary to support and guide learners;
- **a profession based on life-long learning:** it is obvious that in the knowledge-based society teachers must continue their professional development after graduation throughout their careers. They must be able to adapt and evolve their teaching to changing knowledge and new technologies;
- **a mobile profession:** European teachers are continually encouraged to participate in many international projects (Comenius, Erasmus, Lingua, Leonardo da Vinci, Lifelong Learning



- Programme) to study or to work for some time in other countries for professional development purposes. This principle is crucial for language teachers to keep their communication competencies in foreign languages fresh and accurate;
- **a profession based on partnership:** teachers should cooperate with many people: school authorities, members of local communities, parents and students. Moreover, teachers should cooperate with other teachers to reflect on their own and others' practice and thus improve teaching methods and techniques.

3.2 Native vs. non-native teachers

Statistically, the majority of teachers of English are non-native speakers. Similarly, the vast majority of Czech teachers of English are non-native speakers who studied English almost exclusively in formal academic settings, although a growing number of teachers have also the experience of living in an English-speaking country for a longer time and then starting teaching English after coming back to their mother country.

Is it necessary to distinguish between native and non-native English teachers? Do they teach differently? Do they have different skills, attitudes and needs which affect their professionalism?

Some scholars believe that the differences are important and they should be studied. The other group of authors believe that such distinction will lead to professional discrimination of non-native teachers (Maum, 2002; Pokrivčáková, 2017b). The fact is that, despite the above-mentioned concerns, non-native teachers are often underestimated by their students, parent and other non-professionals. What is more, it was documented in many studies that native English speakers without any teaching qualifications or experience are more likely to be hired as English teachers than qualified and experienced non-native teachers of English (e.g. Amin, 2000; Braine, 1999; Canagarajah, 1999; Rampton, 1996). But many authors also claim that full teaching qualification and professionalism should be valued much more than the teacher's native language (Canagarajah, 1999; Kamhi-Stein, Lee, & Lee, 1999; Kamhi-Stein, 2002; Llurda, 2005; Nayar, 1994; Phillipson, 1996). In their opinions, non-native teachers have some extra qualities and skills which might put them at an advantage in teaching English, e.g.:

- non-native teachers have the first-hand experience in acquiring/learning English as a foreign language and thus know how to help their learners (Phillipson, 1996);
- they are aware of differences between English and a mother language, so they are better in anticipating and understanding the reasons of their students' linguistic problems;
- they can be more sensitive to their students' needs and were better able to develop an effective curriculum and pedagogy (Auerbach, Barahona, Midy, Vaquerano, Zambrano, & Arnaud; 1996);



- while native teachers can be good language models, non-native teachers can be good learner models (Medgyes, 1996).

As for their weaknesses, non-native teachers most frequently face the criticism due to their accent and lower English language proficiency. They are believed to be not able to teach English successfully if their pronunciation is affected by the foreign accent and if their English language proficiency is not as high as that of native speakers. However, research studies proved that teacher's lower language proficiency does need to be an obstacle to being a good teacher. Even the teachers with lower proficiency may be very effective and help their learners to achieve excellent learning outcomes. If such non-native teachers are able to capture learners' attention, to enhance their motivation, and to provide them with a lot of quality-language input (listening materials, speaking models and texts for reading), they may be even more effective than native teachers without appropriate training.

However, the ideal solution is if native and non-native teachers cooperate and share their experiences, insights, and cultural backgrounds for their learners' sake (Matsuda & Matsuda, 2001).

3.3 Qualification requirements for non-native pre-primary teachers of English

The previous observations lead to a fundamental question: What characteristics and attributes are crucial for a qualified and effective teacher of English at nursery schools and other pre-primary institutions?

As in other countries, qualification requirements for pre-primary teachers of English in the Czech Republic remain unspecified (c.f. Černá, 2015, p. 174; Portiková, 2012, 2015). To substitute for them, the descriptive models by various experts may prove a helpful guidance.

According to Nikolov and Mihaljević Djigunović (2011), teachers of young learners need: a) to be proficient in both the children's first language and the foreign language; b) to know the content and curriculum well; c) to be qualified in teaching young learners; and d) to be trained in teaching languages.

Vos (2008) offers the following quite lengthy list: knowledge of the foreign language; knowledge of how to analyse and interpret language; knowledge of principles of foreign languages learning; pedagogical capacities for teaching foreign languages; ability to create possibilities for all students/children; knowledge of suitable methodologies for all age groups; understanding language diversity; skills to coordinate research and available resources, skills to plan pedagogical processes.

Vojtková (2006, p. 93-95) discusses a much shorter and more practical list of required teacher's abilities, skills and competences:

- a) the teacher's own command of the language (B2 or C1 according to CEFR),



- b) the teacher's teaching competence,
- c) the teacher's attitude to the language.

3.4 Pre-primary English teacher's roles

A foreign language teacher must play a number of managerial roles in the classroom. The teacher's teaching style is significantly influenced by which roles he/she understands as primarily important and which as less emergent. Harmer (2004, p. 235) names the following roles of teachers:

- **an organiser** – the teacher organises all aspects of the teaching process (management, planning, etc.);
- **a prompter** – the teacher encourages learners to be active in learning a foreign language, raises their awareness of the benefits of acquiring/learning foreign languages;
- **a controller** – the teacher must control both teaching and learning processes within the foreign language classroom and even outside it (e. g. trips, exhibitions, performances, etc.);
- **an assessor** – the teacher continually assesses both his and learners' actions and work, incorporating two types of assessment, including correction and organising feedback;
- **a participant** – the teacher is able to combine the positions of a teaching authority and an equal partner, according to the current classroom situation and teaching objectives;
- **a facilitator** – the teacher ensures that the appropriate learning environment and conditions are in place by taking account of specific learning needs and styles, helping learners to identify both their strengths and weaknesses, etc;
- **a resource** – the teacher might be an ideal easy-to-ask source of information for learners, parents, and colleagues;
- **a tutor** – the teacher is prepared to give advice and guidelines to his learners and their parents;
- **an investigator** – the teacher should be a person of a continual research and self-development.

3.5 Teacher's toolkit

To fulfil their roles and responsibilities, teachers of English – as any professionals - need to have a set of verified working procedures, processes and instruments. The English teacher's imaginary toolkit is organised in 4 levels (the teaching hierarchy):

- a) teaching approaches
- b) teaching methods
- c) teaching techniques
- d) teaching materials.

**a) A teaching approach in language education**

A teaching approach is the teacher's "philosophy" of teaching. It integrates the teacher's beliefs about learning (i. e. whether the teacher inclines to behaviourism, cognitivism, or constructivism), his philosophy of education (e. g. educational idealism or pragmatism), and teaching principles

the teacher tends to apply (traditional or progressive principles, for more see. Tab 2). In English language education, **the behaviouristic approach, natural approach, or communicative approach** may serve as examples.

b) A teaching method

A teacher's personal philosophy of education affects not only his/her approach to teaching, but also the selection of a dominant teaching method and related techniques. **A teaching method** is a systematic way of teaching a language (= tactics of teaching). It reflects a particular approach to teaching languages and integrates several teaching techniques, activities, and procedures. Foreign language education disposes of a wide range of specific teaching methods, such as the Audio-Lingual Method, the Direct Method, the Grammar Translation Method, Total Physical Response, the Silent Way, the Communicative Method, etc. For their brief overview see Tab. 2.

c) A teaching technique

A teaching technique is a specific procedure for carrying out a teaching activity. Some of the most frequently used teaching techniques in foreign language education are explanation, demonstration, drill, dictation, lecture, performing dialogues, role play, quiz, questionnaire, etc.

Tab. 2: Teaching methods in English language education

Grammar Translation Method	Originally used to teach Greek and Latin for millennia, it is the starting point of all other approaches. Students start from reading the text, learning the vocabulary (organised usually in lists of isolated words with translations to learners' L1 but without meaningful context). The main objective is to learn FL grammar rules and to be able to translate (literary) texts from FL to L1. FL is basically taught in L1. The dominant teaching technique is a drill (substitution, chain, and transformation drills). Real communication in FL is very rare (if any).
Audio-Lingual method	Sometimes called the Army Method or nowadays known as the Callan Method. It is based on strict behaviourism and the combination of various drill activities (repetition drills). Students mostly memorise FL patterns (usually in the form of dialogues) without creating their own language or expressing their own ideas. Errors are seen as failures in learning and must be corrected immediately.
Total Physical Response	The method is based on the belief that learners learn better if they respond to FL by their whole bodies. Typically, learners listen to various commands and they are expected to fulfil them by some physical activity. The most frequently used teaching techniques are: "listen and do" tasks, picture dictations, and action games. Learners start talking in FL later, after they feel ready to talk.



Direct method	Also known as the Berlitz Method. It copies the natural ways of learning L1 with a lot of exposure to a target language (FL) which is the only allowed and used language of instruction (L1 is neglected completely). Comprehensible input is emphasised. New vocabulary is introduced only in L1 through real objects, demonstrations, explanations, miming, visual aids, etc. Grammar is taught inductively. A lot of attention is paid to developing native-like pronunciation.
Communicative Language Teaching	The method that teaches FL in “communication for communication”. Learners are encouraged to communicate and express their opinions in FL (through all four communicative skills) from the very beginning of learning. Fluency is valued over immediate accuracy. Teachers are expected to introduce a lot of authentic materials.

Community Language Learning	The basic idea of this method is that FL learners create a community (an organised group with the common aim) and they organise their learning. The teacher is the facilitator who just helps them if asked to.
Silent Way	It is the method where the teacher remains “silent” so that his/her learners have more space and time to talk. The method emphasises learner’s autonomy, independence, and individual responsibility. Learning is put above teaching, e.g. the errors are pointed to and corrected not by the teacher but by learners (self-correcting or correcting by the peers).
Suggestopaedia	Also known as the Lozanov Method. It is a rather extreme method based on psychological therapy procedures. The objective is to help learners overcome various mental barriers connected with learning FL and the fear of failure. Learners need to feel very comfortable and relaxed. The key is a specifically designed environment (living room setting, musical background, soft lights, etc.) and teaching materials.
Content Language Integrated Learning (CLIL)	CLIL is one of the methods typical for bilingual education. FL is used as a language of instruction to teach other non-language subjects (math, geography, biology, music, etc.). Projects and discovery techniques are the preferred activities. FL is taught in a close connection to the practical life out the school.
Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL)	CALL integrated language learning and using modern communication technologies. It follows the traditions of the programmed learning. The most valued benefits are: highly individualised learning, interactivity and immediate response provided by computer programmes.

The teaching techniques the teacher decides to use should not require more effort than necessary. Otherwise, it would lead to the loss of learners’ motivation (e.g. when introducing a word “house” it would be much more effective just to show students a picture of any house than using a verbal explanation or definition from a monolingual dictionary). On the other side, the teaching technique must be in accordance with teacher’s individuality and his/her skills. If the teacher is not good in delivering long speeches, he/she most probably would not be good in giving long lectures and presentations. In such cases teachers need to limit using those techniques until they improve their own skills.

CLASSIFICATIONS OF TEACHING TECHNIQUES IN LANGUAGE PEDAGOGY

Due to the huge number of teaching techniques which are available for the modern teachers of English, it may be useful to order them into some systems, classifications. The theory of foreign language education offers many classifications of teaching techniques. For the purposes of this course, the following classification will be used:



a) Controlled techniques (the teacher controls the student's language completely): controlled activities focus on language accuracy, practicing correct language (including pronunciation) without any mistakes. They are more frequently used in the initial stages of learning a foreign language (beginner classes) since they provide learners with the correct models of language. When practicing controlled activities, learners usually use only language "pre-scripted" by the teacher or a textbook. They have no chance to choose the language structures or vocabulary on their own. They do not express themselves and they do not need to be creative at all because "the teacher is putting the words into their mouths!" (Byrne, 1992, p. 4). The intention is to enable students to gain control over the vocabulary or structures they learn as quickly as possible (examples: pronunciation drills, learning a poem/song by heart, etc.).

b) Guided techniques: once the students gained some communicative competence in a foreign language, the controlled techniques should give way as soon as possible to more meaningful and real-like interaction. While using guided techniques, the teacher has got less control and students are allowed more freedom. They give students more opportunities to use their own words and expressions, to add something personal and to create something on their own. The students are allowed to complete an exercise in more than one way (but still within defined frame and guidelines). The amount and type of their input still remains considerably limited (examples: finishing sentences, retelling stories, etc.).

c) Free (communicative) techniques: focus on meaningful and spontaneous communication which is based on the free flow of language and ideas. These teaching techniques are the closest to real communication in real life. The teacher's control is very limited if not non-existent. To fulfil the task, students need to use their own creativity, fantasy, personal knowledge and various language competences. The teacher never knows what is going to be said in the class (examples: learners tell their own stories, learners describe a picture, etc.).

It is recommended to use controlled activities only at the beginning of learning a foreign language or immediately after a new aspect of language has been introduced. To educate an independent user of a foreign language, the teacher should involve learners in guided and free activities as often as possible.

3.6 Selecting and evaluating teaching/learning materials

Contemporary methodology prefers the idea that the teacher's main role is to help learners learn. Teachers have to follow the curriculum and provide, make, or choose materials. They may adapt, supplement, and elaborate on materials and also monitor the progress and needs of the students, and finally evaluate them. Teaching materials include textbooks, video and audio tapes, computer software, and various visual aids.



The textbook is still a key teaching aid. It may provide the basis for the content of the lessons, the balance of skills taught, and the kinds of language practice in which students take part. For learners, the textbook may be a major source of the foreign language apart from input provided by the teacher. For the teacher, the textbook may also serve as a teaching scenario (it provides ideas on how to plan and teach lessons). Ur (1996) has summarised **advantages of using textbooks** in a foreign language classroom as follows:

- a textbook is a framework which regulates and times the programs;
- in the eyes of learners, no textbook means no purpose;
- without a textbook, learners think their learning is not taken seriously;
- in many situations, a textbook can serve as a syllabus;
- a textbook provides ready-made teaching texts and learning tasks;
- a textbook is a cheap way of providing learning materials;
- a learner without a textbook is out of focus and teacher-dependent; and perhaps most important of all;
- for novice teachers a textbook means security, guidance, and support.

English textbooks should provide correct, natural, recent, and standard English. The topics and other content should be useful and meaningful. Methods used should be interesting and instructions clear even to weaker learners. As a general rule, materials should be slightly higher in their level of difficulty than the students' current level of English proficiency. Modern textbooks provide a wide range of supporting materials: vocabulary lists or dictionaries, exercise or work books, teacher books, visual aids, audio materials (CD and DVD recordings).

Generally, the teacher should not be “a slave” to any commercial textbook. Methods of **adapting textbooks** are an important part of a teacher's professional knowledge. The textbook adaptation may take a variety of forms:

- modifying content;
- adding or deleting content;
- reorganising content;
- addressing omissions;
- modifying tasks;
- extending tasks, etc.

As an alternative to textbooks teachers may use many other possible sources of materials: the Internet, real materials from English-speaking countries, TV and radio programmes, newspapers, magazines, advertisements, and other types of printed material, photos, video tapes, recorded audio tapes, or various cell phone applications (*m-learning*).



Over the last decades, computers and digital technologies have become an inseparable part of English language classroom. Integration of information and communication technologies into foreign language education led to the birth of the special teaching method: computer-assisted language learning (CALL, for more see Pokrivčáková et al., 2014).

The popularity of **digital and internet materials** has been growing for decades. However, similarly to using and evaluating textbooks, the teacher should be able to evaluate Internet sources as well, since they vary in quality even more than printed textbooks and other materials (Cimermanová, 2011). To evaluate teaching materials in general, the teacher may use the following “mnemotechnic” form (Tanner & Green, op. cit, p. 121):

- M** – **method** (Does the book’s method suit to your teaching method?)
- A** – **appearance** (Is the material’s design attractive and appealing?)
- T** – **teacher-friendly** (Is the material for the teacher easy to use?)
- E** – **extras** (Is the material accompanied by additional materials?)
- R** – **realistic** (Are the texts in the materials realistic, authentic?)
- I** – **interesting**
- A** – **affordable**
- L** – **level** (Is the level suitable for the level of your students’ proficiency?)
- S** – **skills** (Does the material cover all communicative skills?)



4 THE VERY YOUNG LEARNER OF ENGLISH

The third chapter introduces basic characteristics of very young learners which may determine their possible success in acquiring English as a foreign language.

4.1 Factors influencing language learning

Only the teacher who is well informed about his/her learners is able to motivate students, to build effective interactions with them, and to create challenging and enriching educational situations in the classrooms. To know learners means to be able to diagnose factors that influence learning processes in learners' minds.

In language pedagogy, the following factors influencing foreign language learning are discussed in detail (c.f. Pokrivčáková, 2012):

- a. **age,**
- b. **motivation and personal learning goals,**
- c. **personal characteristics,**
- d. **long-lasting and momentary health status,**
- e. **general linguistic proficiency,**
- f. **cognitive styles,**
- g. **learning strategies,**
- h. **learning styles,**
- i. **attitudes to learning a foreign language.**

Age is one of the most distinctive characteristics of a learner, closely tied to and determining other important variables of learning processes (intellectual and physiological development, social proficiency, level of inhibition, etc.). This is the reason why students in the majority of school systems are traditionally divided into classes according to their age (a class is traditionally formed by students born in the period of one year).

It is a characteristic which is much easier to define and measure than personality, aptitude, or motivation. Nevertheless, the relationship between a learner's age and his or her potential for success is not as clearly proved as it can appear. In particular, the very popular belief that starting foreign language learning at a younger age is always more effective than in later periods of human life (nowadays the parents may find language schools providing teaching foreign languages to toddlers from 3 months!) is the subject of strong objection of numerous research works (Hanušová & Najvar, 2008).

Key terms

- Learner
- A very young learner
- Age factor
- critical period hypothesis
- language acquisition theory



Accepting the criteria of developmental psychology, methodology of foreign language teaching usually distinguishes four fundamental age groups of learners:

- very young (children up to 6),
- young learners (pupils up to 10),
- teenagers and adolescents (learners of both lower and higher secondary levels),
- adult learners.

4.2 Very young learners (3 – 6 years)

Very young and young learners are more sensitive than rational. Therefore, they need to feel safe and secure in the classroom. All their senses should be involved in learning to help children internalise concrete or abstract concepts (Máčajová, 2011). It is important to note that their first language is still developing rapidly.

A foreign language should be presented and learned in context (in connection with pictures, real objects, as a part of a story, etc.). Activities in the classroom should be designed to catch learners' immediate interest since they are still not used to classroom conventions and school discipline. Physical activity should be part of any foreign language lesson (**miming, motion games, role plays, dramatisations, TPR activities**, etc.). These learners cannot analyse language, so they must be exposed to chunks of language (**nursery rhymes, poems, songs, stories**), not to individual words.

Teachers can build on children's curiosity (**involving riddles, funny questions, and problem-solving techniques**). **Repetition** (copying the language models provided by the teachers) is the main teaching technique; however, it must not be boring.

It is of no use to explain theoretical grammar to these learners. Learners up to 10 are not able to think about language in abstract terms. Instead, frequently repeated patterns and examples should be used to enhance imitation (Tóthová & Grofčíková, 2010). As much oral participation as possible should be elicited from learners to give them plenty of opportunities for experimenting with a foreign language without fear of mistakes and failure (Tóthová, 2010). The teacher should give them a lot of chances to work individually since very young and young learners are not mature enough to participate in pairs or groups.

The list of **recommended teaching techniques and activities** includes:

- multi-sensoric techniques (which combine listening, seeing and moving, and sometimes also touching and smelling objects or doing crafts),
- repetition,
- entertaining pronunciation drills,



- nursery rhymes and songs,
- tongue twisters and nonsense rhymes,
- word games,
- jazz chants,
- listening to and (re)telling stories,
- reading picture books,
- “show and tell” activities,
- “listen and do” activities (picture dictations, drawing pictures, etc.),
- “listen and make” activities (crafts),
- TPR activities,
- miming and action games,
- dramatisation techniques,
- selected computer games and activities.



To find more detailed characteristics of young learners of English as a foreign language see Scott & Ytreberg, 1994; Lojová & Straková, 2012; Hanušová & Najvar, 2005, 2006, 2007, and 2008; Enever & Lindgren, 2017.

4.3 The critical period hypothesis

In relation to the age characteristics of learners, **the critical period hypothesis** should be mentioned, as well. It suggests that there is a critical time in human development when the brain is predisposed for success in language learning. According to this theory, abilities and capacity for language learning change during a life time and foreign language learning which occurs after the end of the supposed critical period may not be as successful as before it, i.e. in early childhood. It is explained by the fact that before the critical period, foreign language learning is by its psychological mechanisms very close to mother language acquisition. Foreign language learning in this case is thus more natural and successful. Older learners, on the other hand, use more general learning abilities - the same ones as they use while learning mathematics, history, or social sciences. Puberty is most often supposed to be the edge of the critical period.

Nevertheless, there is other research suggesting that older learners (namely adolescents) may be more successful in foreign language learning than other age groups (Snow & Hoefnagel-Höhle, 1978). All the research and experience, however, have shown that native-like mastery of spoken (not written) language is more probable to be gained at a younger age and that older learners almost inevitably have a noticeable ‘foreign accent’. Thus, it is generally concluded that when the aim of foreign language learning is to gain native-like mastery of the target language, it is better for the learner to start learning the foreign language as early as possible, while being completely



surrounded by that language. When the objective of foreign language learning is to develop basic communicative ability for all students in a school setting, while learners' mother tongue will remain the primary language, it is better to begin second language teaching later.

4.4 Language acquisition theory

In recent years, the **language acquisition theory** has become extremely popular among English teachers around the world. It is based on the belief that whatever an individual knows and can do in his/her native language is transferred to the second or foreign language (c.f. *ibid.*). It means that teachers of foreign languages try to copy the conditions; processes and techniques by which their learners have learnt mother languages.

Foreign language acquisition is a long-lasting process, based on indirect learning. Teachers focus on creating meaningful communicative situations in the classroom, as close to mother language acquisition situations as possible, while learners are exposed to a variety of printed, auditory, and visual materials in a target language. Learners are given exclusively positive feedback since mistakes and errors are seen as natural parts of any learning process.

The theory, first introduced by Krashen and Terrell in their book *The Natural Approach* (1983), distinguishes 4 stages of extending learners' skills:

1. **Pre-Production Stage: The Silent Period**

- it lasts several months,
- development of listening skills dominates,
- learners show comprehension by using gestures,
- speech production should not be forced.

2. **Early Production Stage: Period of Limited Production**

- the learner has limited understanding,
- the learner can produce single words and simple expressions within a known context ("yes" and "no" responses; one word answers; name words in lists; short phrases; and simple sentences).

3. **Speech Emergence Stage: Period of Expanded Production**

- the learner is more willing to speak,
- the learner understands more but is still dependent on context (more complex and longer phrases; more extensive vocabulary; better accuracy and fluency).



5 ENGLISH CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

The chapter summarizes and systemizes the pre-primary English teacher's responsibilities when planning, organising, carrying out and evaluating both classroom activities and learning outcomes.

5.1 Classroom management components

Good classroom management makes teaching and learning easier. Being a manager is one of the basic roles of the teacher (compare with Chapter 2). Although the preferred approach nowadays is learner-centred teaching (where teaching is determined primarily by learners' needs and expectations), most frequently it is still the teacher who is responsible for preparing, organising, managing and controlling activities in the classroom.

Classroom management includes, among others, the following elements:

- a) *planning the course and individual lessons;*
- b) *designing the starting class;*
- c) *deciding about classroom design;*
- d) *selecting and evaluation teaching /learning materials;*
- e) *creating positive classroom atmosphere;*
- f) *selecting and organising class activities, using appropriate presentation techniques;*
- g) *grouping students for activities and games;*
- h) *selecting a working language;*
- i) *giving feedback;*
- j) *evaluating and assessing learners' progress;*
- k) *designing the close of the course.*

5.2 Deciding about English classroom design

Both for learners and teachers, the classroom environment is very important. The size of the classroom, type of furniture and its arrangement, colours of the walls, flooring, and the amount of light – all influence the learners' learning success.

Requirements for a classroom design (and the design of educational environment in general) have undergone continual changes. The modern classrooms design must respect the needs of learners, their dominant learning styles and strategies.

The school management and the teacher will meet these needs if they equip classrooms with:

Key terms

- Classroom management
- Classroom design
- Giving feedback
- Mistakes and errors



- a) stimulating visuals (posters, schemas, etc.) and work displays;
- b) circular desks and flexible (modular or mobile) furniture;
- c) areas for small group work;
- d) space for kinaesthetic activities;
- e) interactive equipment such as a white board;
- f) connection to the Internet/school network through a wireless network.



Fig. 1: The example of the “craft corner” of the classroom (photo: author)

5.3 Giving feedback

Giving learners appropriate feedback is one of the greatest challenges the English language teacher must face. Feedback is an important motivating element of teaching. Learners must feel that the teacher gives them as much individual attention as possible. Moreover, learners have right to know how well they are proceeding and what they should do differently.

Theoreticians have developed numerous definitions and classifications of feedback activities. Here are some of them:

- a) **Non-verbal feedback:** feedback expressed by gestures, facial expressions (smile, scowling, raised eyebrow), agreed signals and signs, etc.
- b) **Verbal feedback:** oral praise or rebuke, written comments, evaluation documents, protocols, etc.
- c) **Reflective feedback:** is given to inform learners about their progress, hidden reserves, etc.
- d) **Motivating feedback's** purpose is to arouse, keep and enhance learner's motivation.
- e) **Corrective feedback:** is given to point to learners' mistakes or errors and to correct them. The corrective feedback might be given to learners in various ways (Ferris, 2003; Donald, 2006):



- **recasts**: the teacher implicitly reformulates the learner's language (typically used for grammatical and phonological errors);
- **elicitation**: the teacher starts reformulating the learners' output and allows them to complete it;
- **metalinguistic clues**: the teacher provides learners with information and comments related to the learner's output;
- **clarification**: the teacher asks for learner's self-correction by sentences such as: "What did you mean?" or "I don't understand";
- **repetition**: the teacher repeats the error and points to it by emphasised intonation;
- **explicit correction**: the teacher directly indicates what was said or written wrongly. Explicit correction is not very effective since learners need not to think about it actively and typically they forget it quickly;
- **self-correction**: learners are asked to correct themselves after the teacher or other learners signal the occurrence of a mistake;
- **peer-correction**: the teacher asks other learners in the classroom to check and correct mistakes;
- **delayed correction**: during the learners' speaking or any other activity, the teacher notes down errors and after finishing the activity, he/she discusses them with learners.

Generally, on pre-primary level of education, the most natural way of correcting is desirable, which means **never pointing out to the mistake directly**, instead, just repeating the correct word/form/sentence as a model for a learner.

5.4 Mistakes and errors

To give an effective corrective feedback, the teacher must be able to recognise the difference between mistakes and errors. Although in colloquial language these words are used synonymously, within the methodology of TEFL they are used as terms with important differences in their meanings. **Mistakes** are subconscious slips in language production which are very frequent even in native speakers' utterances. **Errors**, on the other hand, signal the learners' lack of information or knowledge (e.g. I **haved* no time).

Modern approaches, insisting more on fluency and appropriateness of communication than on accuracy, consider mistakes and errors as natural parts of learning. Modern teachers are trained to distinguish not only between mistakes and errors, but also to decide whether it is effective or not to correct a particular error in a particular situation.

Bartram and Walton (1991) created an extensive guide to deciding whether to let an error go or not from which we have selected only several question/criteria items:



1. *Does the error affect communication?*
2. *Are we concentrating on accuracy at the moment?*
3. *Is it really wrong? Or is it my imagination?*
4. *Why did the learner make the error?*
5. *Is it the first time the learner has spoken for a long time?*
6. *Could the learner react badly to my correction?*
7. *Has he/she met this language point in the current lesson?*
8. *Is it something the learners have already met?*
9. *Is this an error that several learners are making?*
10. *Would the error irritate someone?*



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LIST OF SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS

1FL	the first foreign language, since 2011 it is compulsory English
2FL	the second foreign language
ALM	Audio Lingual Method
CALL	Computer assisted language learning
CEFR	Common European Framework of Reference for Languages
CELTA	Certificate in English Language Teaching to Adults
CELTYL	Certificate in English Language Teaching to Young Learners
CLIL	Content language integrated learning
CLL	Community Language Learning
CPE	Certificate of Proficiency in English
DELTA	Diploma in English Language Teaching to Adults
DM	Direct Method
EFLE	English as a foreign language education
FCE	The First Certificate in English
FL	foreign language
FLE	foreign language education
FLP	foreign language pedagogy
GS	grammar schools
GTM	Grammar Translation Method
ICT	information communication technologies
L1	mother, native language
L2	a foreign, a target language
TEFL	teaching English as a foreign language
TESL	teaching English as a second language



TOEFL Test of English as a Foreign Language

TPR Total Physical Response



LIST OF FIGURES

Fig. 1: The example of the “craft corner” of the classroom (photo: author)**Chyba! Záložka není definována.**⁴



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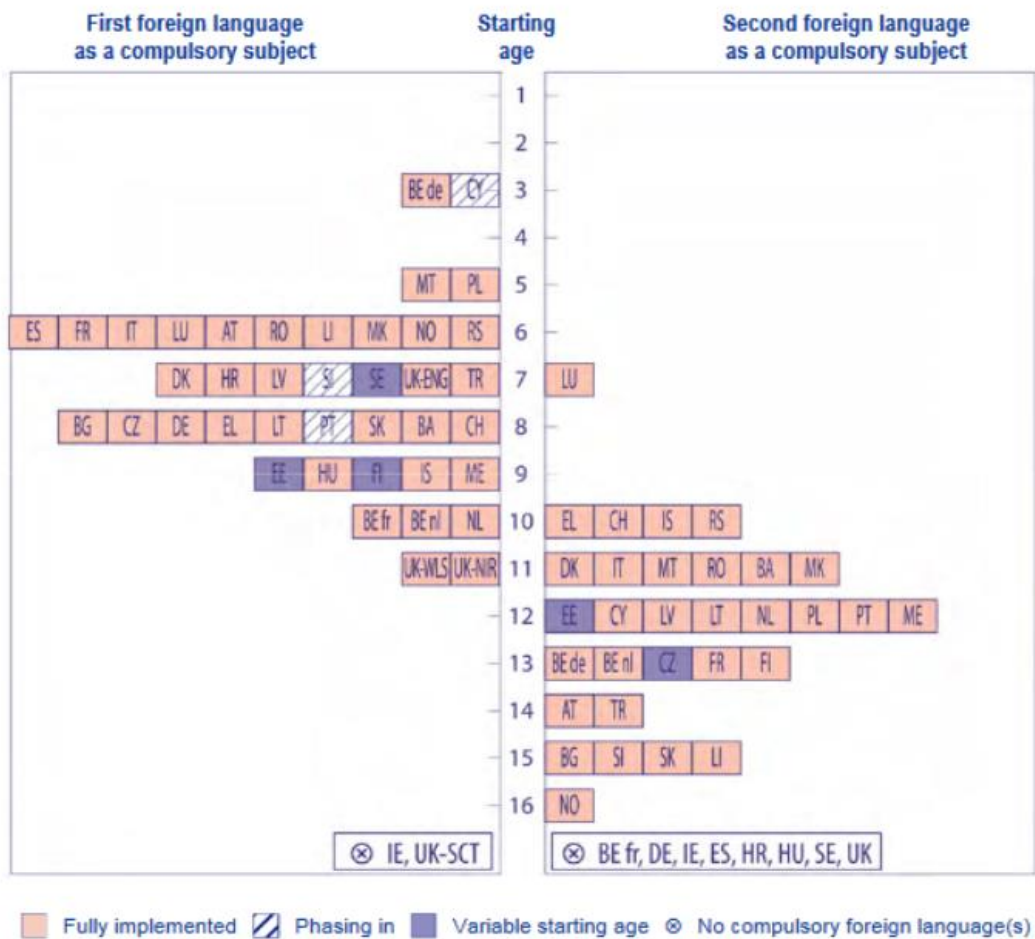
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Starting ages at which the first and second foreign languages are compulsory subjects for all students in pre-primary, primary and/or general secondary education, 2015/16



APPENDIX 1

Starting ages at which the first and second foreign languages are compulsory subjects for all students in pre-primary, primary and/or general secondary education, 2015/16 in the EU



Source: Eurydice, 2017, p. 31