

Metodika anglického jazyka II

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Stručná anotace předmětu:

Cílem výuky v předmětu je naučit studenta, jak připravit a realizovat ranou výuku anglického jazyka v mateřské školce. V předmětu, který navazuje na předmět *Metodika anglického jazyka pro MŠ I*, 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:

Communicative competence of very young learners

Teaching vocabulary

Teaching pronunciation

Developing listening

TPR activities

Crafts in English classrooms

Developing speaking

Controlled, guided and free speaking activities

Reading: using literary texts in English classrooms

Storytelling

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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 theoretical aspects of developing foreign language communicative competence of very young learners (age 3-6 years). The second and third chapters explain the ways how two linguistic systems of English – vocabulary and pronunciation - can be taught and fix in EFL pre-primary education. The chapters 4 – 6 introduce examples of good practice in developing three communicative skills of very young learners (listening, speaking, reading). Please, note that due to the age of learners, the chapter on developing reading does not debate reading of written texts by children theselves. Rather instead, it discusses ways how to use picture books and ahow to read written texts with and for children. Developing writing is not included in the textbook at all.

The 7th chapter discusses developing children's communicative competence in English through using various literary texts.

The last two chapters pay attention to selected integrated approaches: storytelling, project work).

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 inservice teacher) should know 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.

Appendices

Bibliographical note: The publication includes parts of the textbooks *Modern teacher of English* (Pokrivčáková, 2012) and *Teaching techniques for modern teachers of English* (Pokrivčáková, 2013) which were up-dated and adapted regarding the needs of pre-primary teachers in the Czech Republic.



1 COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE OF VERY YOUNG LEARNERS

In the first chapter, the basic terminology related to developing of a foreign language communicative competence is introduced. The terms are explained individually and in mutual relationships.

1.1 Communicative competence and its components

The general and ultimate 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

Key terms

- Communicative competence
- linguistic competence
- language systems,
- discourse competence
- · communicative skills
- pragmatic (socio-linguistic) competence,
- strategic competence,

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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.

The **educational aims** of initial introducing English as a foreign language to very young learners at nursery schools are related to developing selected aspects of both linguistic and discourse competences, namely:

- building both active and passive vocabulary,
- learning and practicing comprehensible pronunciation,
- developing selected listening skills,
- developing speaking skills,
- and developing pre-reading skills.



2 BUILDING EFL VOCULARY

The chaper summarizes objectives, content and recommended teaching techniques ntended to develop listening communicative skills of very young learners at pre-primary level of education.

2.1 Theoretical aspects of building English-as-aforeign-language vocabulary

The term vocabulary has two meanings:

- a) it can be as a set of words, word expressions and idioms which constitutes a national language;
- b) it can be also a sum of words, expressions and idiom that one person can use in various communicative situations. Personal vocabulary can be both active and passive and it grows and evolves with age; it is not something that can ever be fully mastered.

Vocabulary is acquired mostly incidentally through indirect exposure to a foreign language (listening and reading). Intentional learning of vocabulary is organized through a variety of teaching techniques and by taking in a range of word-learning strategies.

Vocabulary is, equally, a fundamental tool for communication in a foreign language. Extension and depth of vocabulary knowledge directly influences the learner's success in comprehending and producing a foreign language. Current research has shown that for communication in English (as a mother tongue) it is necessary to master at least 8000 - 9000 word families for reading, and perhaps as many as 5000 - 7000 families for oral performance (Schmitt, 2008). A vocabulary size which is necessary to communicate in English as a foreign language on an appropriate proficiency level is traditionally defined as follows:

Key terms

- Vocabulary
- Personal vocabulary
- Active vocabulary
- Passive vocabulary
- Listening vocabulary
- Speaking vocabulary
- Reading vocabulary
- Visual context
- Lexical context
- Syntactical context
- CEFR



CEFR level	Vocabulary size
A1	<1500
A2	1500 – 2500
B1	2750 - 3250
B2	3250 – 3750
C1	3750 – 4500
C2	4500 – 5000

The teacher of languages must be prepared to distinguish various types of vocabulary:

- **active vocabulary** are the lemmas that learners are able to use fluently, accurately, and appropriately in immediate production of a foreign language (e.g. in speaking);
- passive vocabulary are the lemmas that are familiar to learners; they are able to comprehend their meaning in listening and reading, but they are unable to use them effectively while producing language in speaking and writing;
- listening vocabulary includes all the lemmas the learner can recognize when listening to speech;
- speaking vocabulary are the lemmas the learner can employ in speech. These words
 are often misused, which the learner may compensate by non-verbal communicative
 means (gestures, mimics, tone of voice, etc.);
- reading vocabulary are the lemmas the learner can recognize in a written form while reading;
- writing vocabulary are the lemmas the learner can use in free writing.

level	Description	
A1	Has a basic vocabulary repertoire of isolated words and phrases related to particula	
	situations.	



2.2 BASIC PRINCIPLES OF TEACHING VOCABULARY

1 Too many is too bad

It has been proved by research that the average learner is able to learn approximately 8 words per a day.

2 Most frequent words go first

The general assumption here is that learners will need for their practical life words that appear in communication more frequently and in more discourses.

3 Active repetition is the key

Some research showed that the learner remembers a new word only if he/she has a chance to repeat it at least 20 times. Repetition is the basis for a range of personalized memorization methods. Although memorization does not imply complex cognitive processing and the length of its impact is rather questionable, it still cannot be rejected. It is typically combined with other (contextual) methods with a longer recall (see the section on Vocabulary teaching techniques).

4 Multiple exposures in multiple contexts

Recognizing the word's meaning in different and multiple contexts is more effective than the entire memorization drill. Perceiving vocabulary in various contexts rather than in isolated lists of words gets students actively engaged in thinking about word meanings and in creating links among words.

2.3 TEACHING TECHNIQUES TO INTRODUCE FOREIGN LANGUAGE VOCABULARY

Vocabulary of a foreign language is usually introduced in four basic ways:

- 1) introducing words and expressions in visual context
- 2) introducing words and expressions in semantic contexts
- 3) introducing words in utterances and texts
- 4) introducing words through a mother tongue

2.3.1 Words and expressions in visual context

Any vocabulary newly taught in a classroom should be presented in context. In the simplest case, the meanings of words are linked to their visual manifestations. Techniques based on



this type of context are suitable for learners of any age and any level of proficiency, being the basic means of teaching to young learners.

Demonstrating visuals and objects: Bringing real objects to a classroom creates the opportunity to include all learners' senses into learning, which is always an extremely effective way of introducing new knowledge. At the same time, real objects create a bridge between school and real life. If it is impracticable to bring real objects to the classroom, visuals (pictures, photographs, drawings, and flashcards) – by combining verbal and visual learning styles – will have a very good impact as well.

Labelling pictures or objects

Learners prepare labels with new words and stick them to a corresponding object or pictures.

Using picture dictionaries

Learners can use published picture dictionaries for a particular proficiency level, or they can create their own picture dictionaries.

Acting out and pantomiming

In the classes with kinaesthetic learners or younger learners, it is usually very effective to involve physical activities. Acting and pantomiming (e.g. while presenting verbs) is then an ideal choice.

2.3.2 Words and expressions in semantic contexts

The techniques in this group help learners remember new vocabulary by relating them into pairs or groups according to their meaning relationships, e.g. similarity, opposition, similar sounding, similar spelling, etc.

Introducing the meaning of a new word through synonyms

Learners learn new vocabulary by means of already known words with the same or similar meaning, e.g. huge = very large.

Introducing the meaning of a new word through opposites

Learners learn new vocabulary by explaining through already known words with the opposite meaning, e.g. slim means not fat.



Introducing the meaning of a new word through homonyms and homophones: In any language there are specific groups of words which are not related by their meaning but by their spoken (homophones) or written forms (homonyms).

2.3.3 Words in utterances and texts

Giving definitions of new words

The teacher may explain new words' meanings through oral or written explanations, or more frequently by help of monolingual dictionaries.

Explaining through famous words or phrases

Some foreign words become familiar even among non-speakers of a particular language, e.g. football (foot + ball), to compute (a computer), etc.

Guessing a word's meaning from a text

Trying to discover the meaning of unknown words from listened to or read texts is a technique very close to the natural method of foreign language acquisition.

2.3.4 Using a mother tongue

Translating

Translating new vocabulary to a mother tongue is still rather frequent, but a not very effective technique. It should be replaced by less mechanical and more creative activities.

2.4 TEACHING TECHNIQUES TO FIX LEARNERS' VOCABULARY

Once the learners were introduced to new vocabulary, the teacher needs them to repeat words frequently to remebre them and fix them in their active vocabulary. The teacher may choose from various teaching techniques:

Matching words with pictures

One of the variations of this activity is that the teacher says words aloud and children choose from pictures. However, there are many other forms of this very popular activity.



sun, rain, cloud

Matching or pairing synonyms



The teacher says the word and learners are asked to say words (and pick up pictures) with the same or a very similar meanings.

Matching opposites

It is organised in the same way as the previous activity, only learners now say words (and pick up pictures) with opposite meaning

Using picture dictionaries

Picture dictionaries are dictionaries where the meaning of foreign language words is explained through visual means. Learners may use either published picture dictionaries (there is a wide range of dictionaries available in the bookstores for all age groups) or they can be asked to create their own picture dictionaries (individual, group or class picture dictionaries).

Creating picture dictionaries

Anytime learners learn new "important" vocabulary, they are asked "to draw a word" or to paste the picture from a magazine on a sheet of plain white paper (paper should hold up to drawing, picture pasting and other forms of media, A4 size is the best). To make it easier, only one picture and one word should appear per page. Sheets of paper are eventually bond together in a form of a book or scrapebook.

Creating categories

Learners are asked to name words that go under one category, e.g. animals, plants, people, sports, etc.

buildings: a house, a shop, a mall, a doghouse, ...

Completing sentences

I love to eat: apples, pears, bread, chicken, ...

Vocabulary games

As good examples Pairs, Charades, Snowballs, Dog and Cat Chase, I spy..., Timebomb, Word basketball can be named. A rather extensive catalogue of vocabulary games suitable for very young learners (complete with simple instructions) can be found here: *ESL KidStuff* (online).



Using online sources

The teacher may find countless valuable and highly entertaining online sources and programmes for both introducing and fixing vocabulary in the internet. Here are some examples (to open the link, click on the logo):





















Key terms

- EFL pronunciation
- Input
- Output
- Feedback
- Modelling
- Foreign accents
- Computer assisted pronunciation learning

3 TEACHING PRONUNCIATION

This chapter introduces the theoretical basis, recommended procedures and teaching techniques intended to teach and fix comprehensible English pronunciation of very young learners.

3.1 Teaching foreign language pronunciation

For a long time, a correct (= accentless) pronunciation has been considered a sign of higher social positions, good manners and quality education. Poor pronunciation, on the other side, used to point to the lack of all the previous qualities and could lead to negative evaluation and social discrimination. Apart from the sociological aspects, poor pronunciation can negatively affect comprehensibility of communication and distract listeners. Consequently, the knowledge of correct pronunciation was understood as an essential component of communicative competence (Celce-Murcia, Brinton & Goodwin, 2004; Fraser, 1999; Kelly, 2000; Kenworthy, 1992; Kráľová & Metruk, 2012; Morley, 1994; and others).

However, the opinions of contemporary teachers and academics on the need of teaching/learning correct pronunciation differ. While one group of them still believes that correct pronunciation is a basic condition of developed communicative competence (Morley, 1994; Celce-Murcia, Brinton & Goodwin, 2004; Kelly, 2000; and others), the other group, starting with Scovel (1988) claims that teaching accent-free pronunciation is a utopic, unrealistic goal (Derwing, 2010; Neri, Cucchiarini, Strik, & Boves, 2002; Pennington, 1999) since there is no agreement on what exactly a "correct English pronunciation". Instead of nativeness and accentedness, modern pronunciation training should aim at other aspects of pronunciation, such as understandability and intelligibility (Celce-Murcia, Brinton & Goodwin, 2004; Derwing & Munro, 2005; Kráľová & Metruk, 2012; Morley, 1994 and others).



Another serious problem related with teaching pronunciation comes from the non-native ELT teachers' attitudes. Many of them do not feel confident enough about their own pronunciation and thus they implicitly try to avoid pronunciation-based activities in their classes.

Some research studies point to the fact that many teacher-training courses for foreign language teachers do not cover the area of teaching pronunciation appropriately (Kráľová & Metruk, 2012; Morley, 1994; MacDonald, 2002 and others). Moreover, only a limited number of pronunciation exercises appear in the majority of textbooks (with the exeption of starters) and they are usually based on "listen and repeat" approach (Jones, 1997).

The result of the combination of all the above-mentioned problems (complexity of the pronunciation phenomena, EFL teachers' attitudes, insufficient teacher-training and lack of materials in textbooks) is that if compared to teaching vocabulary or grammar, teaching pronunciation seems to be a somehow neglected linguistic system in the context of foreign language education (Kolesnikova, 2012; Kráľová & Metruk, 2012).

In this situation, using pronunciation-training computer programmes and digital materials seems to be the simple, helpful and effective "medicine" (see the list of some free programmes at the end of the chapter).

3.2 Recommended procedure

When teaching pronunciation, the teacher should follow the basic three-item teaching procedure: "input – output – feedback" (I-O-F):



A. Input = listening to models

Very young learners should be exposed to an abundant amount of input (i.e. model materials) in a foreign language. Learners need to have access to:

- sufficient quantities of various types of model texts/discourses (e.g. everyday conversations, movies, radio programmes, friendly chatting, etc.);
- materials presented by **various native speakers** so they will learn to recognize individual characteristics of speakers and to induce general phonetic rules;

B. Output = producing language

Many examples from real life, such as immigrants who have lived in a host country for decades and who have still retained a strong accent, prove that mere exposure to the for-



eign language, anyhow intense, might not be a sufficient condition for effective pronunciation training. Learner's **output** is as important as input, since to speak fluently and accurately, learners need to practise speaking. Only in that way, through active production, learners can compare their own output with the input models and consequently improve their own performance.

C. Feedback = checking output quality and evaluation

Finally, learners should be continually provided with immediate, individually tailored and comprehensible **feedback**. With the help of such feedback, learners are able to recognize their individual problems and to proceed to their self-improvement. The motivating feedback should not be limited to statements as "correct" or "wrong", but learners need to see what exactly is wrong and what should be done to avoid the mistakes. Usually, the basic source of such feedback is the teacher herself/himself, but some digital systems, especially those intended for young learners, include more entertaining ways of feedback, e.g. learners use their voice pitch, volume or duration to control the computer game (they can affect the route and speed of racing car, colours and size of objects, or to move a train through the mountains (see Fig. 1).



Fig. 1:
Screenshot of
the "Train"
activity from the
section
Fun&Games at
Video Voice
Speech Training System
webpage
www.videovoice.com

Various digital materials to train correct Englsih pronunciation (not only for very young learners):

English Accent Coach at www.englishaccentcoach.com

EyeSpeak at www.eyespeakenglish.com



Fonetics at www.fonetiks.org

My English Tutor (MyET) at www.myet.com/en/

NativeAccent ™ at www.carnegiespeech.com

Pronunciation Patterns (American English) at www.pronunciationpatterns.com **Pronunciation Power** at www.englishlearning.com/products/pronunciation-power-

Pronunciation Software at www.eltlearn.com

Streaming Speech/ Speech in Action at www.speechinaction.org

Talk to me at www.talk-to-me.software.informer.com

Tell Me More ® Premium at www.tellmemore.com

Video Voice Speech Training System at www.videovoice.com

Visi-Pitch at http://kayelemetrics.com

Examples of accent reduction softwares

Accent Improvement Software at www.englishtalkshop.com,

Voice and Accent at www.letstalkpodcast.com,

Master the American Accent at www.loseaccent.com.

Examples of on-line pronunciation activities and games

BBC Learning English - Pronunciation Tips at www.bbc.co.uk/worldser-vice/learningenglish/multimedia/pron

Cambridge English Online – Phonetics Focus at www.cambridgeeng-lishonline.com/Phonetics_Focus/

English Online at http://www.english-online.org.uk/pronounce/pronounce.htm

Guide To English Phonetic Symbols at www.oupchina.com.hk/dict/phonetic/home.html

Many Things at www.manythings.org/pp/

Phonics - WordBuilder at http://www.iknowthat.com/com/L3?Area=WordBuilder

Perfect Pronunciation at www.learnersdictionary.com/pronex/pronex.htm **Ship or Sheep** at www.shiporsheep.com

Examples of off-line materials for CAPT

Connected Speech Australian English. CD-ROM. Hurstbridge, VIC: Protea Textware Pty, Ltd., 2006.

Connected Speech British English. CD-ROM. Hurstbridge, VIC: Protea Textware Pty, Ltd., 2006.

Easy English: See It, Hear It, SAY IT!. CD-ROM. Cupertino, CA: Courseware Publishing Int., 2013.

Pro-nunciation. The English Communication Toolkit. (Australian English). CD-ROM. Wyong, NSW: Pronunciation Pty, Ltd., 2013.

Streaming Speech: Listening and Pronunciation for Advanced Learners of English. CD-ROM. Harborne, Birmingham: speechinaction, n.d.

TEAM: Technology Enhanced Accent Modification. CD-ROM and Manual. London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associated, 1999.

Appendices



Key terms

- Listening as a receptive communicative skill
- Aural input
- Real life listening
- Classroom listening
- Authentic materials for listening
- Adapted materials for listening
- TPR
- Teaching techniques

DEVELOPING LISTENING

This chapter discusses how listening as one of the communicative skills could and should be developed in pre-primary education. It introduces the theoretical basis, recommended procedures, and a battery of possible teaching techniques.

3.3 Theoretical bases

Listening is a receptive communicative skill. It provides the aural input as the basis for development for all remaining language skills. By developing their ability to listen well, learners become more independent, as by hearing accurately they are much more likely to be able to interact in a foreign language effectively.

Listening is a complex communicative process during which the learner should be able

- to understand the verbal message;
- to understand the situation;
- to identify the speaker's meaning, emotions, and opinions;
- to identify relationships between speakers;
- to identify the context (Underwood, 1989).

As Gough (1993, in Hrehovčík & Uberman, 2003) has it, classroom listening is significantly different from real listening in everyday life (see Tab. 1).

Learners of English as a foreign language may consider listening in English rather difficult for several reasons (Hrehovčík & Uberman, 2003, pp. 150-151):

- trouble with some English sounds that are not present in their mother language;
- trying to understand each word, which is not necessary;

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- lack of vocabulary, possibly leading to lower comprehension;
- speed of natural speech, which is usually too fast;
- difficulty with "picking out what is essential and allowing themselves to ignore the rest" (Ur, 1996, p. 112);
- learners getting tired more quickly.

What can the teacher do to make classroom listening easier?

- select topics familiar to learners or familiarize them with the new topic;
- listen to just one topic at a time;
- provide learners with enough information;
- make information clearer by using visuals or other supporting material;
- divide a listening text into several shorter fragments;
- focus learners' attention on only important facts;
- give learners more information about the context, etc.

Real world/life:	Classroom:
- most listening is interactive; it involves	- a lot of "passive" listening to tapes,
both listening and speaking,	
- listener can give feedback,	- no feedback,
- shared context,	- no real context,
- visual clues (context, gestures, etc.) help	- there may be no visual clues,
understanding,	
- unpredictable,	- context known in advance (at least by the
	teacher),
- no record kept,	- typescript usually available,
- no set task,	- task provided by teacher; usually involves
	taking notes, etc.,
- only one hearing,	- can be played more than once,
- listener has purpose – to establish rela-	- listening purpose created by task, may be
tionship, to be entertained, to be polite,	purely pedagogical,
or to get information,	
- no evaluation of success or no failure.	- teacher may evaluate students' success in
	doing the task.

Tab. 1: Differences between classroom listening and real listening in everyday life (source: Gough, 1993, cit. in Hrehovčík & Uberman, 2003).

level	Description	
A1	No descriptor available	



3.4 Listening materials

To develop learners' listening skills, the teacher may use various materials. Roughly, they can be divided into two basic groups:

Authentic materials are materials originally intended for native speakers and for original purposes (informing, entertaining, persuading, etc.). Some examples are radio and television programmes. They provide contact with a living culture and real language. On the other hand, using authentic materials may make listening too difficult and thus rather de-motivating, especially for beginners.

Adapted materials are materials created for learning purposes, so they respect a particular level of communicative competences and learning needs of learners (e.g. recordings in the textbook). They are very comfortable to use in the classroom for both teachers and learners; however, their language is radically altered and reduced from language used by native speakers. If learners are exposed only to adapted listening materials, they may claim that speaking practice in the classroom does not prepare them for the real world.

Listening to very young learners should be as natural as possible!

3.5 Teaching techniques to develop listening in a foreign language

- listening with visuals;
- listening to draw or complete a picture;
- picture dictations;
- listening to match pictures with a description;
- listening to follow a route on a map;
- listening for instruction = "Listen and do" activities
- listening to mime a story;
- listening and repeating activities
- listening to rhymes and songs to learn them by heart, etc.
- imitating (e.g. pronunciation drills),
- dramatization,
- retelling the story.



4 DEVELOPING SPEAKING

This chapter is intended to inform students about recommended procedures and teaching techniques for developing speaking communicative skills of very young learners in English as a foreign language.

4.1 Speaking as a productive skill

Many language learners and teachers regard speaking ability as the measure of knowing a language. They regard speaking as the most important skill to acquire, and they assess learners' progress in terms of their performance in spoken communication.

Speaking as a productive communicative skill and as a part of learners' output in a foreign language includes the following competences:

- to plan a message and organize its spoken form;
- to create phonemes (sound-units) of a foreign language correctly;
- to pronounce foreign language words accurately with correct word stress;
- to create fluent utterances with correct vocabulary in correct word order and appropriate grammar,
- to use appropriate prosody (rhythm, sentence stress, and intonation) because the wrong sentence stress causes more communication problems than any grammatical error;
- to use correctly techniques of linkage and speech simplification (vowel reduction, strong and weak forms, assimilation, elision, etc.).

The goal of teaching speaking skills is not to train learners in conversation on the level comparable to native speakers, but to help learners be understandable enough to avoid serious confusion in the message transfer due to their faulty pronunciation, grammar, or vocabulary.

Key terms

- Speaking as a productive skill
- Oral production
- Oral proficienc
- Imitating
- performing songs, poems and nursery rhymes (learning by heart);
- playful drills and games;
- practicing tonguetwisters, rhymes and songs;
- comparing pictures;
- storytelling;
- role plays;
- dramatizations.



level	Description
A1	Can produce simple mainly isolated phrases about people and phrases.

4.2 Selected teaching techniques to develop speaking of very young learners

- chorused or individual imitations;
- performing memorised expressions and statements (learning by heart);
- playful drills and games;
- · practicing tongue-twisters, rhymes and songs;
- · comparing pictures;
- · storytelling;
- role plays;
- dramatizations.

Chorused or individual imitations

Imitating is the traditional and for very young learners the most natural way of developing learner's speaking skills, especially accurate pronunciation.

Performing songs, poems and nursery rhymes (learning by heart)

Very young learners favour learning songs, poems, nursery rhymes and other short texts by heart. It is a very effective way to develop their speaking.

Playful drills and games

Drills are based on repeated responses elicited from learners. For instance, the teacher asks the already known set of questions and learners give the same set of answers. Many children's plays are based on the same principle.

Practicing tongue-twisters, rhymes, and songs

Practicing these short literary forms brings laughter and enjoyment into the classroom. It loosens the stress and possible shame of learners. They may be used as pronunciation drill activities, a basis for discussion work, or as an introduction to specific grammar structures. Look at the following example of a tongue-twister short story "The Chap with Caps" and imagine how funny the learners' efforts may be to pronounce it quickly and correctly:



"There once was a chap that sold caps. After walking all day, the chap with caps was ready to collapse, so he had a nap. But when he awoke, the chap with caps was taken aback... His caps were gone! All that was left was the cap on his head. He looked up to discover... chattering monkeys had snatched his caps!

'Rats!' the chap thought, 'I need my caps! Perhaps if I set a trap, I'll get them back.' The chap set a trap, but, alas, he did not get his caps back. So he hatched a plan: he offered to trade them the caps for a cape with a map on the back. But the chap still did not get his caps back." (source: pbskids.org, online)

Comparing pictures

Learners are given similar pictures (each either with different missing details or with similar items which differ in appearance). Partners are asking and answering questions to find out differences.

Storytelling

Learners can retell the story they have just listened to (e.g. a fairy tail), or they can tell what happened to them or they may make up their own fantastic stories.

Role plays

Role plays resemble real communication in real settings. In these activities, learners are appointed the roles of different character which they play (usually in the form of a dialogue).

Dramatisation

Although the key aim of dramatisation is to develop oral skills, other skills are developed as well. Scripting drama helps develop writing skills, and listening skills are intensively trained during both rehearsal and performance. Development of aesthetic and emotional aspects of learners' personalities must not be forgotten, too.



EXAMPLES OF GOOD PRACTICE

(from Pokrivčáková, 2013, pp. 90-91)

Songs

All three types of songs (traditional songs, art songs and popular songs) may be used, depending on an educational purpose. Young learners love **action songs** which require dancing, movements, or mimes to be performed while singing. To practice pronunciation, the teacher may choose **repetitive songs** where that structure is repeated over and over again. Intercultural competence of students may be developed through learning some **special occasion songs** which are sung only on certain holidays or festivals (e.g. Christmas songs and carols).

Short rhymes

Short rhymes are ideal for use in the foreign language classroom due to their musical quality (vivid intonation), regular rhythm as a determining aspect, humorous play with sounds (alliteration, onomatopoeia, and other sound patterns) and meaning of words (homonymy, puns, etc.). They are great means for practising correct pronunciation, rhythm and stress in English (for more details see Pokrivčáková, 2008b). Suitable rhymes on various topics with teaching tips can be found at many websites for teachers and parents, e.g. mywordwizard.com, bestteenpoems.com, etc.

The effective follow-up after listening and their performing is to ask the students to create their own short rhymes.

Tongue-twisters

Tongue-twisters represent a special form of word game and are often included in English language textbooks. They usually appear in the form of phrases, sentences or short rhymes that are very difficult to articulate properly. Probably the largest collection of English tongue-twisters is available Uebersetzung (online).

Performing tongue-twisters in the classroom may be for students both enjoying and stressful. Therefore, the teacher should stop any traces of unhealthy competition or mockery if some students are not successful enough in their performance. It is better to change the activity immediately and focus on creating tongue twisters.



CREATING TONGUE TWISTERS

- 1. Decide what sound or sounds are to be practiced, e.g. [b].
- 2. Model an example of a tongue twister which contains the selected sounds.

A big black bug bit a big black dog on his big black nose!

3. Write up some words that contain the sound to be practiced.

big, black, ball, bit, but, bat...

- 4. Ask the students to add as many words with the same sound as they can think of.
- Ask the students to create a sentence using as many words from the board as possible. They may use other words, too, to make sentences grammatically correct.

A black bat bought a big ball.

6. To make the activity more interesting, you may ask students to look at the words on the board again and group rhyming words. Then they should create a simple rhyming tongue twister.



5 READING: USING LITERARY TEXTS IN DEVELOPING COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE OF VERY YOUNG LEARNERS

Literature has been always part of education of children. In the case of pre-school learners, children's literature plays its irreplacible role in developing not only children's communicative competence, but also their ethical and esthetical awareness. The chapter discusses benefits and risks of using children's literature in foreign language education and introduces some recommended teaching techniques.

5.1 Children's literature in education

Children's literature is a notion used for a set of literary texts (fiction,drama, poetry, and some non-fiction) written especially for children between the ages of one and sixteen. It should not be confused with literature about children or literature written by children, although there is a large overlap between these three categories.

Children's literature includes three basic sub-categories (Po-krivčáková, 2014):

- · children's folklore:
- non-intentional literature for children and young adults (literary texts that passed from adults' literature to children's literature);
- intentional literature for children and young adults (literary texts written primarily for young readers).

The relationship between adults' and children's literature is quite complicated. In the very early times literature for children was neglected by adults (both authors and parents) and was taken only as a secondary branch of "the big literature".

Key terms

- Literary texts
- Children's literature
- Communicative competence development
- Ethical awareness
- Aesthetical awareness



Children used to listen to stories meant only for adults, or read books of their parents (non-intentional literature). Later on, some of such stories and books have become an inseparable part of children's bookshelves (e.g. Robinson Crusoe, The Last of the Mohicans and a majority of folk tales). Some of them are read in original form, others have been adapted for children's readers by modern poets, novelists or educators.

Nowadays children's literature is understood as an authentic part of literature, "literature in literature" (Stanislavová & Žemberová, 2000), with specific literary characteristics. Moreover, it creatively influences adults' literature by its playful poetics and ideological clearness.

5.2 Characteristics of children's literature

- 1) Children's point of view (children's aspect) the authors compose their works with regard to the psychology of children. They usually write on topics interesting for children, use language elements typical for children, and write in a way that can attract and keep children's attention, curiosity, and interest.
- 2) Children prefer short dynamic stories and reject long descriptions and explanations. The most typical question for them to ask is: "What will happen next?"
- 3) Children are sensitive for a clear moral determination of characters they need to know who is good and who is bad; what is true and what is false; what is nice and what is awful.
- 4) It seems that children like literary characters in children's age (remember the Harry Potter's case). They do not need adults and their guidance; they need partners. Moreover, personified animals and toys are extremely popular as well.
- 5) Children perceive the world mostly through pictures, noises, smells and touches, not through mere words. Therefore they want these sensual elements to be present in the texts as well. They like books full of concrete imagination, they like picture books and texts with funny graphics (palindromes, letters of various sizes and colours, words substituted by small pictures, etc.). As for sound, frequent and popular are expressive rhythms, rhymes, alliteration, paronomasia, onomatopoeia, anagram, acrostics, telestics, calambur, etc.).
- 6) Language of children's books is based on real children's speech. Simplified syntax and sensually-rich concrete diction are typical for children's literary texts.
- 7) The most natural and important activity for children is a play. As children's plays are based on fantasy and imagination, they expect them also in books they are to read: children like books with nonsense, fantasy, and imagination.



6 STORYTELLING

The chapter explains the meaning of storytelling for initial teaching English as a foreign language and introduces selected teaching techniques.

6.1 Stories in education

Stories are a central part of the work of all pre-primary teachers due to several reasons:

- they increase learners'motivation;
- they explain the meaning of life in an interesting and concise way;
- they help develop both listening and speaking fluency;
- they help to develop language awareness;
- they are good source for further discussions in the classroom (for more see Pokrivčáková, 2008b, 2014).

Wright in his book *Storytelling with Children* (2015) gives the following long list of abilities which can be improved by the stories and associated activities:

- learners' awareness of humanity and its ways,
- better understanding of the subject matter of the story,
- reflecting of the story and its meaning,
- predicting what might come next in the story,
- listening for a particular detail in the story,
- listening to get the gist (a general idea) of the story,
- guessing what is meant but not said,
- visualizing the place, people, or objects involved in the story,
- imagining various alternatives of the story (what would happen if...),
- better understanding of other people's emotions,
- responding creatively through drawing or dramatization,
- remembering the story (memorization),

Key terms

- Storytelling
- Stories in education
- Choosing a story



narrating the story (retelling).

6.2 Choosing and preparing stories

For storytelling, various genres of stories can be used:

- folk tales,
- fairy tales,
- legends,
- myths,
- · picture books,
- · comics,
- jokes, etc.

Tasks:

- 1. What are the differences between the texts in the subchapter 8.2? Find their definitions.
- **2.** Search the internet. Create a list of reliable sources (both in print and online) for storytelling at nursery schools.

title	bibliographic data	pluses/minuses

3. Simplifying the language of a story.

Choose a story and simplify its language and structure so that it is suitable for A1.1 learners. Record the adapted story (in your voice) and add the recording to the portfolio.



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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

Appendices

TOEFL Test of English as a Foreign Language

TPR Total Physical Response

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Záložka není definována.4	
Speech Training System webpage www.videovoice.com	Chyba!
Fig. 1: Screenshot of the "Train" activity from the section Fun&Games at Video	Voice

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APPENDIX 1: GLOSSARY

accuracy: quality of learner's output which is correct and without mistakes

achievement test: a test which tests the progress students have done during a course

action research: research carried out by teachers, most often in their own classrooms. The research aims are specific to their own needs and teaching environments

active listening: a teaching technique in which students listen and show their comprehension by their (immediate) responses

activity: any classroom doing or action that requires students to be active and use their language competences practically, in this book used synonymously with the term "an exercise"

adapted material: teaching material produced by arranging authentic material so it was suitable for language students of a particular proficiency level

additive bilingualism: learning a second/foreign language without weakening or losing the mother tongue

aim: what the learner is expected to achieve

appropriacy: quality of students output which is suitable for a particular situation, e.g. choosing appropriate vocabulary and style for writing a formal letter

assessment: in this book dividing students into categories according their success in learning a foreign language and appointing them with marks (1, 2, 3, 4, 5 or A, B, C, D, E, Fx)

audio-lingual: related to the audio-lingual method (ALM) which is a teaching approach based on behaviouristic theory of learning. The approach sees learning a foreign language as creating habits through repetition, drills, practice and memorization of sentence patterns in isolation from meaningful contexts

authentic material: samples of unabridged language which was originally intended for native speakers (magazine articles, internet blogs, literary texts, etc.)

behaviourism: a psychological theory of learning that believes that language learning takes place through forming habits: if learners hear and repeat the language frequently enough, they learn it automatically through reinforcement of correct response

bilingual education: education in which students receive information in two languages (e.g. Slovak as a mother language and English as a foreign language)

bilingualism: the ability to communicate in more than one language



chant: a simple repetitious rhyme

checking question: a question used to see if learners understand

choral repetition: the imitation of a language model by an entire class

chunk: a longer unit of language that is often perceived as a single unit, e.g. as a matter of fact, going home

closed question: a question that limits the number of possible correct answers

cloze test: an objective test in which students restore the words that were systematically omitted

cluster: the sequence of language elements of the same quality, e.g. consonant cluster (first, split)

code: a system of signs used for communication, e.g. language

code-switching: the ability to change codes (languages) while communicating. For example, students can create utterances using elements of two or more languages, e.g. *Dnes som raňajkoval bread and butter, and an apple.*

cognate: a word in one language that resembles the word in another language and has the same meaning, e.g. police (EN) - polícia (SK); cassette (EN) – kazeta (SK); semen (EN) – semeno (SK); banana (EN) – banán (SK)

cognitive: related to processes of thinking, e.g. remembering, understanding, classifying, etc.

collocation: the co-occurrence of language elements in a language system, e.g. *make mistake* (not do a mistake)

communicative competence: the ability to recognize and produce a (mother, second or foreign) language appropriately, accurately and fluently in various setting and situations

communicative language teaching (Communicative Approach): teaching a foreign language through communication and for communication

competence: the ability to use a particular language element (e.g. linguistic competence, pragmatic competence); acc. to Chomsky knowledge of language

comprehensible input: language that a learner is exposed to and can understand

content-based teaching (CBT): foreign language education programmes in which lessons are organized around subject matter rather than language points

context: communicative background

cross-curricular: linking two school subjects, e.g. English and math

cue (prompt): what a teacher says to elicit a response from a learner. It may be verbal, visual, mimed, numerical, etc.

decode: in this book it means getting and comprehending a message from a text written/spoken in a particular language system

deduction: the cognitive (learning) process in which a rule is formulated first and then followed by examples

diagnostic test: a test that identifies student' strengths and weaknesses

dialogue: a communicative exchange between two speakers

dictation: an activity in which a text is read out aloud and the learners try to write it down as accurately as possible

Direct Method: a method where learners are exposed exclusively to a foreign language, both through a native-speaking teachers and authentic materials

distractor: the option with an incorrect answer in a multiple choice task

drill: a controlled speaking activity based on repetition of a model

eliciting: getting responses and answers from students

encode: in this book it means putting ideas into a particular language system

error: imperfect learner's output caused by lack of knowledge, overgeneralization of the first language interference

ESP: English for specific purposes, English which focuses on a specific field of knowledge, e. g. English for social workers, English or ICT workers, etc.

evaluation: obtaining information about students' strengths and weaknesses in a foreign language communicative competence (through testing, examining, observing, etc.).

examination: a method of evaluation

exercise: any classroom action that requires students to be active and use their language competences practically, in this book used synonymously with the term "an activity"

false cognate: a word in one language that resembles the word in another language but has a different meaning, e.g gate (EN), gate (SK)

feedback: giving students information about their progress, an evaluative response

finely-tuned input: input precisely adapted to the level of learners

first language: mother tongue, native language

first language interference: the effect of student's mother language on his/her foreign language production, frequent cause or errors in student's output

fluency: quality of a learner's output which is spoken without unnecessary pauses, repetitions, false starts, etc.

foreign language: a language different from a mother tongue that is not used as an official language in the environment, country where a student lives, e.g. English for Slovaks who live in Slovakia (in this book a synonym of a target language)

formula: an established sequence of words or sentences students use automatically without understanding each word, e.g. greetings

gist: a general or main idea of a text

global test: test of a student's general knowledge of a language, e.g. dictation, if used as a test, tests student's listening skills, his/her knowledge of spelling, syntax, word formation, etc.

grading: organizing vocabulary, language structures and forms from the simplest to the more complex

Grammar Translation Method (GTM): foreign language teaching approach which emphasizes deductive teaching grammar rules and their use in translation exercises

group work: independent work of students organized in groups

immersion: replacing a mother language by a foreign language in its everyday using

information gap: the activity where one person has information that another person seeks

input: language that a learner is exposed to

interaction: two-way communication between people by gestures, signals, listening, speaking, reading, writing, etc.

L1: mother language, native language

L2: (in this book) a foreign/target language

language acquisition: a mental process, unconscious, "natural" learning a language (acc. to Krashen)

language learning: conscious, usually formal and organized learning a language

learning style: a preferred way of learning, e.g. visual, audial, kinaesthetic, etc.

meaningful drill: a drill which cannot be performed correctly without understanding of the meaning of what is said

mechanical drill: a drill in which understanding is not necessary, e.g. pronunciation drills

mind map: a diagram that shows how a topic can be organized

minimal pair: a pair of words that differ only in one phoneme, e.g. bed/bad

mistake: a slip of tongue in a learner's output caused by lack of concentration, etc.

mixed-ability group/class: a group containing a mixture of students with different skills, some of them with learning difficulties and disorder

multiple choice task: a task where students are offered several options of answers (a,b,c, d...) from which several are distracters and usually one (or more) is a correct option

native speaker: a person who has learned a language from an early age and who has full mastery of that language

open question: a question with unlimited number of correct answers

output: language produced by a student

overgeneralization error: an error caused by using a rule in a context where it does not belong, e.g. *She *haved* two books

overlearning: continuing in practicing something after required proficiency has been achieved so as to reinforce the skill or knowledge

pair work: independent work of students organized in pairs

performance: using a foreign language in listening, speaking, reading and writing

personalized activity: practice of a foreign language production when students incorporate their personal feelings, opinions, ideas, beliefs, etc.

portfolio: a collection of learner's work and products, usually used to evaluate the students' progresses

progress test: a test given during a course to see how learner's competences have developed

prompt (cue, hint): what a teacher says to elicit a response from a learner

reader: a book with simplified language for a language learners

roughly-tuned input: input on a slightly higher level than a level of learners

scaffolding: providing a carefully selected and structured support for learning

scanning: a technique of rapid reading when a reader seeks only particular details, e.g. names, numbers, or facts

second language: in this book, a language different from a mother tongue that is used as an official language in the environment, country where a learner lives, e. g. English in India or English for Slovaks who live permanently in Great Britain)

skimming: a technique of rapid reading when a reader tries to find a gist (main idea) as fast as possible

target language: a language learners are aiming to learn (in this book synonym of a foreign language)

task: a learning goal to be achieved by a particular activity or exercise, e.g. to practice new vocabulary, to solve a problem or produce a product

teaching approach: is a way of teaching committed and related to a particular theory about language or learning (e.g. Oral approach, Communicative approach, Natural approach, etc.)

teaching method: an organized set of teaching techniques and activities, e. g. Audio-lingual method, Suggestopaedia, The Silent Way, etc.

teaching technique: is a specific procedure carried out in the classroom to reach an educational objective

Total Physical Response (TPR): additional language teaching method combining listening to a language and responding with appropriate physical action to spoken instructions



V textu jsou využity následující piktogramy. Mají ulehčit orientaci v něm.



CĺL



UKÁZKA



ŘEŠENÍ



ZORIENTUJE SE



OBJASNĚTE



NAJDĚTE NA INTERNETU



OTÁZKY, DISKUSE



SHRNUTÍ





