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DIPLOMOVÁ PRÁCE

Používání češtiny v hodinách angličtiny

Use of Czech in English lessons

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Declaration

I hereby declare that this diploma thesis is an original report of my research, has been written by me and has not been submitted for any previous degree. Except where stated otherwise by reference or acknowledgment, the work presented is entirely my own.

Prague, April 6, 2024

Josefina Hahnová

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ABSTRAKT

Tato diplomová práce se zabývá užíváním mateřského jazyka v hodinách jazyka cizího. Teoretická část nahlíží do rozdílů mezi mateřským jazykem a druhým jazykem a jejich osvojováním, do využití mateřštiny ve vybraných přístupech a metodách výuky anglického jazyka, a do výhod a nevýhod používání mateřštiny v hodinách angličtiny. Praktická část zkoumá, do jaké míry a za jakým účelem učitelé angličtiny používají český jazyk ve svých hodinách.

KLÍČOVÁ SLOVA

Mateřský jazyk, druhý jazyk, výuka anglického jazyka, angličtina jako druhý jazyk, osvojování mateřského jazyka, osvojování druhého jazyka

ABSTRACT

This diploma thesis deals with the use of L1 (the first language) in L2 (the second language) lessons. The theoretical part provides insight into the differences between L1 and L2 and their acquisition, into the use of L1 in some of the selected ELT methods and approaches, and into the advantages and disadvantages of the use of L1 in L2 lessons. The practical part examines to what extent and for what purpose teachers of English use Czech in their English lessons.

KEY WORDS

First language, second language, mother tongue, ESL, ELT, FLA, SLA

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INTRODUCTION

It is believed that one of the unique characteristics of language teaching is that language is "both the goal of the lesson and the means by which this goal is achieved" (Lockhart, Richards 182). Nevertheless, what should not be disregarded is that language learners already possess knowledge of their mother tongue. The issue of whether to use it or to avoid it completely has been a subject of controversy, with many scientists arguing for and against its use, until nowadays. The aim of this diploma thesis is to delve into this topic from various perspectives and to examine the state of affairs at some Czech lower-secondary schools.

The theoretical part provides insight into numerous matters concerning first and second language acquisition. Firstly, since there are differences in acquiring L1 and L2, a considerable amount of theory is devoted to the description of these two processes. Secondly, what is not neglected either is language interference, with special emphasis on the so-called "Czenglish", i.e. the Czech variant of English. The third part touches upon the use of L1 in an English classroom. First of all, selected English language teaching (ELT) methods and approaches are presented with respect to their origins, aims, and, most importantly, their attitudes towards the use of the mother tongue. The last part introduces the opponents and advocates of the use of L1, including suggestions of some of the renowned English methodologists.

The practical part attempts to answer two research questions concerning the use of L1 in English lessons. In order to answer these questions, the author of this thesis visited several Czech lower-secondary schools where she observed English teachers during their English lessons. The collected data were used for both qualitative and quantitative research. As to the former, each teacher is scrutinised in great detail, with respect to his/her attitude towards the use of Czech and to the amount of Czech which he/she used in the observed lessons. As to the latter, the frequency of the use of Czech is analysed with respect to the grade and the purpose of its use.

THEORETICAL PART

1. First language (L1) vs. Second language (L2) definition

As this thesis deals with the first language (L1) and the second language (L2), the author of this thesis would like to make a distinction between them at the very beginning of this work. As to L1, dictionaries offer definitions that do not show a lot of differences. Cambridge Dictionary proposes the following one: "the language that someone learns to speak first" ("First Language"), Macmillan Dictionary: "the first language that you learn to speak" ("First Language" 519), LDOCE: "the language that you first learn as a child" ("First Language"), while Oxford Learner's Dictionaries: "the language that you learn to speak first as a child; the language that you speak best" ("First Language").

Regarding L2, the dictionaries provide definitions that are much more varied. Cambridge Dictionary defines it as "a language that a person can speak that is not the first language they learned naturally as a child" ("Second Language"), Macmillan Dictionary: "a language that you can speak but which is not your main language" ("Second Language" 1259), LDOCE: "a language that you speak in addition to the language you learned as a child" ("Second Language"), while Oxford Learner's Dictionaries can offer a more specific definition: "a language that somebody learns to speak well and that they use for work or at school, but that is not the language they learned first" ("Second Language"). Despite the differences among the individual L2 definitions, it can still be concluded that L2:

1. is not the learner's mother tongue
2. is an additional language that the learner learns to speak
3. is a language that the learner speaks well
4. is a language that the learner uses for work, at school or in everyday life

2. Language acquisition

As it has been explained above, L1 and L2 are not identical. The aim of the following passage is to provide insight into the manner in which both L1 and L2 are acquired. First, the distinction between the terms acquisition and learning are made. Then, a brief overview of theories of second language acquisition is offered, and lastly, and most importantly, the processes of first language acquisition (FLA) and second language

acquisition (SLA) are delved into. Nevertheless, since L2 is more relevant to this work, second language acquisition (SLA) is devoted special care.

2.1. Second language acquisition vs. second language learning

To start with, it is essential to clarify and distinguish between the terms *acquisition* and *learning*. According to Krashen and his Second Language Acquisition Theory, there are two ways to develop competence in a second language: acquisition and learning. The term *acquisition*, also called *implicit learning*, denotes a process comparable to the way children acquire their mother tongue. Consequently, it is a subconscious process, the result of which is a subconscious competence. As to *learning*, also called *explicit learning*, it refers to conscious knowledge of a second language, knowledge and awareness of the rules and the ability to talk about them. In other words, learning is "knowing about" a language (Krashen 10).

However, other authors do not make this distinction and use these two terms interchangeably, regardless of the presence of conscious or subconscious processes (Ellis 6). Therefore, these two terms will be used interchangeably even in this diploma thesis, unless they are italicised.

2.2. Selected theories of language acquisition

Since the 1950s, there have been three main theories of learning, namely behaviourism, nativism and interactionism (Lightbown and Spada 15). The following passage examines their explanations of language acquisition.

2.2.1. Behaviourism

Behaviourism was the first significant theory of learning, which developed in the 1920s-1950s and was represented by B. F. Skinner or Ch. E. Osgood. It influenced second language teaching, especially in the USA, from the 1940s to 1970s. The most prominent proponents were Nelson Brooks and Robert Lado (Lightbown, Spada 103).

As to the behaviourist point of view of language learning, learners are regarded as a "language producing machine" (Ellis 128). In fact, behaviourists consider any kind of learning as a formation of habits. These habits are developed by means of practice, such as repetition, memorisation and imitation, and repeated reinforcement. More precisely, from their perspective, learners are exposed to various stimuli in their environment and

respond to it. If they respond correctly, their response is reinforced, while if they make an error, their response is corrected (Bloomfield 1933, Skinner 1957, Thorndike 1932, Watson 1924, as cited in Mitchell, Myles and Mardsen 29).

According to this theory, learning L1 is not as challenging as learning L2. When children learn their mother tongue, all they have to do is to learn a set of new habits by means of responding to stimuli in their environment. However, when learners learn a second language, they encounter various difficulties, which can be ascribed to the knowledge of their mother tongue. Consequently, the major obstacle to surmount is to replace the set of habits of L1 by the set of habits of L2 (Mitchell, Myles and Mardsen 29). Naturally, the habits from L1 interfere with the new ones needed for L2. Thus, the errors made in L2 are attributed to L1 interference. For this reason, behaviourism is associated with the Contrastive Analysis (Lightbown, Spada 103-104).

2.2.2. Nativism / innatism

Another prominent language learning theory is nativism, which emerged in the 1950s-1960s and has been developed until nowadays (Mitchell, Myles and Mardsen 30). The most significant scientist associated with this theory is the American linguist Noam Chomsky, who, unlike behaviourists, argues that each individual is equipped with an innate device, the so-called "Language Acquisition Device" (LAD), which enables the learner to acquire language (Brown 28-29). More precisely, LAD provides the learner with the ability to discover the underlying rules of a language system by means of him/her being exposed to the language (Lightbown, Spada 20). In the 1980s, Chomsky evolved LAD into the theory of Universal Grammar (Cook 215). According to this theory, the understanding of grammar in the mind comprises two elements: "principles" and "parameters". As to the former, this component is language-universal, i.e. present in all languages. While parameters are language-specific and therefore accountable for variation between languages (Cook 33).

Principles do not have to be learnt since the mind of the learner naturally applies them to any language that he/she encounters. However, what has to be learnt is the parameters of the language and their setting. For example, it is essential to learn that English sentences require an explicit subject as it is a non-pro-drop language. In order to

establish the values for parameters, the learner has to be exposed to the input, so that he/she can encounter a few instances of the language (Cook 251).

However, what Chomsky himself intended to explain by means of the Universal Grammar theory was the first language acquisition (Lightbown, Spada 104). His innatist perspective is also often associated with the Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH), which asserts that children have to acquire their mother tongue until a specific time in life (Lighbown, Spada 22).

With regard to the importance of UG theory for SLA, the opinions vary greatly. Bley-Vroman (1990) and Schachter (1990) argue that although UG is relevant to the explanation of first language acquisition, it does not provide an appropriate framework for the interpretation of second language acquisition, particularly if the learners have exceeded their critical period. They thus suggest that there is a need to propose some other theory by which SLA could be explained (Lightbown, Spada 105).

Nevertheless, some other linguists, such as Lydia White (2003), argued that Chomsky's Universal Grammar theory could be applied to second language acquisition as well. According to Cook, the knowledge of UG is possessed both by the first language and second language learners, since, in his perspective, it is not plausible that L2 learners' knowledge of L2 could be ascribed only to the input they are exposed to (Lightbown, Spada 105).

The most famous model affected by Chomsky's theory of first language acquisition is Krashen's Monitor Model, first proposed in the early 1970s, when there was an increasing discontent with language teaching methods founded on the behaviourist theory. His theory of second language acquisition is based on five hypotheses: the acquisition-learning hypothesis, the monitor hypothesis, the natural order hypothesis, the comprehensible input hypothesis and the affective filter hypothesis (Lightbown, Spada 106). This theory is discussed in detail in one of the following chapters.

2.2.3. Interactionism

The last selected theory, interactionism, has been influenced by developmental and cognitive psychology. These psychological theories give prominence to the interaction between the inherent capability of children and the environment in which they grow up (Lightbown, Spada 24). Unlike innatism, cognitivism maintains that language

learning can be explained by general theories of learning. Consequently, these theories do not share the belief that learners are equipped with a language acquisition device (Lightbown, Spada 108). Another aspect that distinguishes them is that, while innatism, which focuses on the "final product", i.e. the competence of adult native speakers, the interactionist theory emphasises the developmental angle of language acquisition (Lightbown, Spada 24).

With regard to the interaction approach to second language acquisition, it asserts that people learn a language by talking to other people (Long, 1981 as cited in Cook 225). This belief is explained by the so-called negotiation of meaning, i.e. "a process in which, in an effort to communicate, learners and competent speakers provide and interpret signals of their own and their interlocutor's perceived comprehension" (Long, 1996: 418 as cited in Cook 225) In other words, the speaker might encounter difficulties in comprehension when communicating with the other person. In order to resolve them, both speakers can use various strategies, such as "repetitions, confirmations, reformulations, comprehension checks, clarification requests etc" (ibid.).

2.3. First language acquisition

As both second language research and second language teaching have been affected by the way children learn their mother tongue, the importance of first language acquisition should not be neglected when examining SLL, SLA or SLT.

To start with, it is essential to realise that the early stage of development of FLA is similar all over the world (Lightbown, Spada 6). More specifically, FLA can be characterised by three properties irrespective of the language being acquired. The first criterion to be mentioned is the "ultimate success" (Meisel 22), which denotes the fact that each individual gains full knowledge of his/her native language. Another characteristic of FLA is "rate of acquisition" (Meisel 22) which is regarded as relatively fast. In fact, it is by the age of four that children have acquired a considerable part of their syntactic knowledge. The last property is "uniformity" (Meisel 22), by which the author refers to the fact that children acquire their mother tongue in a similar way. More precisely, "L1 development proceeds universally through an ordered sequence" (Meisel 23) regardless of the language being acquired.

By the end of the first year, most babies comprehend such words that they hear repeatedly around them and can react to them physically (waving, clapping, etc.) At the age of 1 babies start uttering a word or two in a comprehensive way. By the age of 2 babies can produce around 50 words. In addition, they start producing so-called "telegraphic" sentences in which they omit function words, such as articles, prepositions or auxiliary verbs, e.g. "Mommy juice" (Lightbown, Spada 6-7).

Language stage	Beginning age[2]
Crying	Birth
Cooing	6 weeks
Babbling	6 months
Intonation patterns	8 months
One-word utterances	1 year
Two-word utterances	18 months
Word inflections	2 years
Questions, negatives	2 years 3 months
Rare or complex constructions	5 years
Mature speech	10 years

Figure 1. Stages of first language acquisition. (Aitchison 2008, as cited in Mitchell, Myles and Mardsen 31)

Many features of the language emerge and develop in a predictable order, which is called developmental sequences or "stages". These sequences are to a large extent influenced by the children's cognitive development. For example, children are not able to use temporal adverbs such as „yesterday" until they are capable of understanding the notion of time (Lightbown, Spada 7).

Although human language involves more than grammatical competence, researchers base their findings upon a theory of grammar. In fact, it is the mental grammar that is human-specific and that distinguishes us from other species (Meisel 13). Regarding grammatical morphemes, children acquire them in a certain sequence, which is language-specific.

2.4. Second language acquisition

Second language acquisition (SLA) can be defined as "the study of how learners learn an additional language after they acquired their mother tongue" (Ellis 5). It is a complex phenomenon which is formed by the interplay of various factors. Consequently, ways in which different learners in different situations learn and acquire L2 differ. Nonetheless, there are certain aspects that are relatively stable, and these aspects are what SLA research deals with (Ellis 4).

At first sight it might seem that L2 learners acquire the second language in the same manner as their mother tongue. In fact, some of the ELT methods, such as the audio-lingual method, were based on this belief (Cook 12). However, what differentiates SLA from FLA is that L2 learners already possess the knowledge of their mother tongue. Consequently, L2 learning is independent of L1 acquisition, which means that the theory of how children acquire their first language cannot be transferred automatically to the way they learn and acquire an additional language (L2) (Cook 13). One of the most essential reasons is that learning a first language is "learning how to mean" (Halliday, 1975 as cited in Cook 13). In other words, L1 speakers are capable of "using that language for relating to other people and for communicating ideas" (Cook 13).

2.4.1. Interlanguage

Until the 1960s, second language learners' speech was regarded as an incorrect version of the target language. This view was affected by the behaviourist theory and the contrastive analysis hypothesis (CAH), which attributed L2 learners' errors to the transfer from their L1. Nevertheless, when analysing these errors, it was shown that not all of them could be ascribed to the influence of L1 (Lightbown, Spada 104). In fact, numerous studies revealed that many errors could be explained better with regard to learners' developing knowledge of the structure of L2 rather than to the influence of L1 (Richards, 1974 as cited in Lightbown, Spada 42). In addition, some errors are comparable to those made by young learners acquiring their mother tongue (L1) (ibid.).

As it was mentioned above, many errors that L2 learners make can be explained in terms of their developing knowledge of the structure of L2. As learners acquire L2, they develop their own independent language system distinct both from L1 and L2 (Nemser 1971, as cited in Ellis 47). This language system, which is a language in its own right rather than a flawed version of the target language, is called "interlanguage" (Selinker, 1972 as cited in Cook 14) (see *Figure 1*), alternatively "approximative systems" (Nemser 1971, as cited in Ellis 47) or "idiosyncratic dialects" and "transitional competence" (Corder 1971, as cited ibid.) and is characteristic of being systematic, yet dynamic as it gradually evolves (Lightbown, Spada 43). L2 learners thus make errors in order to test their "hypotheses about the nature of the language they are learning", so

errors are not caused only by L1 interference, yet are regarded as "a strategy and evidence of learner-internal processing" (Corder 1971, as cited in Ellis 47).
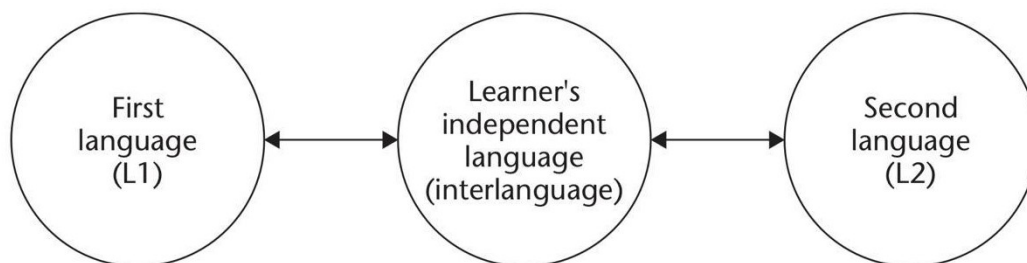

Figure 2. The learner's independent language (interlanguage) (Cook 14)

Nevertheless, L1 does play a crucial role even in the system of interlanguage since interlanguage is a complex phenomenon characteristic of five principal processes responsible for the internalisation of L2: language transfer, overgeneralization of target language rules, transfer of training, strategies of L2 learning and strategies of L2 communication (Selinker 1972, as cited in Ellis 48).

2.4.2. Sequences of SLA

Sequences in which L2 learners acquire L2 syntax and morphology are universal and identical irrespective of the learners' background or of the context of learning. This has been proved by many studies, e.g. by Meisel, Clahsen and Pienemann, who identified developmental sequences in the acquisition of German by speakers of several Romance languages who had little or no instruction (1981, as cited in Lightbown, Spada 45-46).

2.4.2.1. Acquisition of grammatical morphemes

Grammatical morphemes, i.e. structure words and grammatical inflections, are learnt in a particular sequence in L2 acquisition. The order in which L2 learners acquire them is independent of their L1. In addition, L2 learners acquire the same basic grammar irrespective of the language (L2) they are learning (Cook 27-28).

According to Dulay and Burt, whose research examined how English learners of Spanish origin acquire selected English grammatical morphemes, among the easiest English morphemes to acquire belong the plural "-*s*", the progressive "-*ing*", the copula "*be*", or the auxiliary forms of *"be"*. Next in difficulty come the definite and indefinite articles "the" and "a" and the irregular English past tenses. The most challenging endings to acquire are the third person "-s" used with the present simple and the possessive "s".

(1973, as cited in Cook 25-27) These results were a few years later confirmed by Krashen, who, in his "natural order hypothesis" argues that L2 learners acquire grammatical structures in a predictable order, which he calls a "natural order", and that some grammatical morphemes are acquired earlier while the others later. (Krashen 13) (see *Table 1.*)


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┌─────────────────────────┐
│ ING (progressive)       │
│ PLURAL                  │
│ COPULA ("to be")        │
└─────────────────────────┘
            ↓
┌───────────────────────────────────────────┐
│ AUXILIARY (progressive, as in "he is going")│
│ ARTICLE (a, the)                            │
└───────────────────────────────────────────┘
            ↓
┌─────────────────────────┐
│ IRREGULAR PAST          │
└─────────────────────────┘
            ↓
┌─────────────────────────┐
│ REGULAR PAST            │
│ III SINGULAR   -s       │
│ POSSESSIVE  -s          │
└─────────────────────────┘
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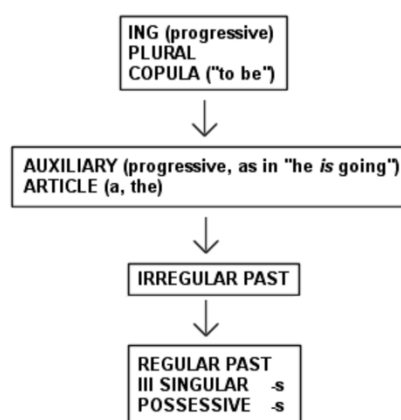
Table 1. "Average" order of acquisition of grammatical morphemes for English as SL. (Krashen 13)

2.4.2.2. The multidimensional/processability model

The *multidimensional model,* later the *processability model*, asserts that L2 learners acquire the structure of sentences from the most basic to the most complex ones. The complexity is ascribed to the movement of various parts of the sentence from one place to another. For example, the sentence "The flower is red" becomes the question "Is the flower red?" by moving the copular "be" to the beginning. According to this model, first, L2 learners learn sentences without movement and gradually, they manage to learn to move the parts and to produce more complex sentences (Cook 28-29).

In the initial stage (stage 1), the learner can produce only one word at a time or prefabricated formulas. This stage is characteristic of the knowledge of the content words and the ignorance of the function ones. In the following stage (stage 2), L2 learners acquire the typical word order (WO) SVO, i.e. the subject, the verb and the object. That is the only WO that they know, so, at this stage, they make a question by means of rising intonation (You love me?) and negation by adding the negative "no" to the front (No me like it.). It is not until the following stages that L2 learners are able to move elements to the beginning or towards the end of the sentence (Cook 29).

At stage 3, L2 learners can move elements to the beginning of the sentence. Typically, they move adverbials, e.g. "On Monday I went to school'; they are also able to use wh-words at the beginning, such as "Who lives in London?"; and lastly, they can move auxiliaries to make yes/no questions, e.g. "Will you go to school?" (ibid.).

Stage 4 is characteristic of the learners' ability to use preposition-stranding, i.e. the separation of a preposition from its phrase, e.g. "the building he looked at". At this stage the learners also begin to use the morpheme "ing", e.g., "I'm watching TV" (Cook 29-30).

At the following stage (stage 5), learners are able to move elements within the structure of the sentence, not just to move them to the beginning or to the end of the sentence. Consequently, they can make questions such as "Where are you going?"; add the third person grammatical morpheme "-s", e.g. "She lives."; and use the dative with "to", e.g. "I gave it to her." (ibid.).

Finally, the last stage (stage 6) is characteristic of the acquisition of the order of subordinate clauses, such as "He asked me if I would go there.". Furthermore, learners can also make sentences in which the indirect object precedes the direct object, e.g., "She gave me a present" (Cook 30).

As it was mentioned at the beginning of this subchapter, the *multidimensional model* has been later developed into the *processability model*. This model is based on *Processability Theory,* according to which there is a set of grammatical processing procedures which are ordered with respect to their sequence of acquisition. These procedures form a hierarchy, as it can be seen in *Table 2*, so the acquisition of "lower" procedures is required in order to acquire the "higher" procedures (Cook 29-30, Pienemann 7-8).

1. "**lemma access**": access to individual content words "see. car."
2. the "**category procedure**": access to grammatical structure words "see. the car."
3. the "**phrasal procedure**": content and grammatical words into phrases "he see. the car."

4. the "**S-procedure**": phrases put together within the sentence "he will see the car"
5. the "**subordinate clause procedure**": the ability to work with both main clauses and subordinate clauses "If he looks out of the window, he will see the car"

Table 2. Grammatical processing procedures. (Pienemann 8; Cook 30)

2.4.2.3. Acquisition sequence of negation in L2 English

The SLA of negative sentences (when L2 is English) resembles the manner in which children acquire negative sentences in their L1 (when L1 is English). Nevertheless, L2 learners from various first language backgrounds seem to be considerably affected by the formation of negative sentences in their L1. Consequently, the progress through a particular stage might be decelerated (Schumann 1979, as cited in Lightbown, Spada 48; Wode 1978, as cited ibid.).

The first stage includes the placement of the negative element "no" or "not" before the verb or the element being negated, e.g., "No bicycle", "I no like it.". During the following stage, learners start to use "don't" instead of "no" or "not". However, they place it anywhere, without regard to the person, number, tense or the presence of modals. As a result, sentences such as "He don't like it." or "I don't can swim." are produced. At the following stage learners start to use the negative element after verbs like "be" or "can", such as "You can not be here." or "He was not happy." However, they still cannot conjugate the verb "do", so sentences like "She don't like rice." are still made. Finally, in the last stage, learners are fully capable of conjugating the verb "do", so they are able to produce any negative sentence, e.g., "She doesn't live here." or "I didn't buy it." (Lightbown, Spada 48-49).

Acquisition sequence of negation in L2 English

I. Anaphoric negation	*no*
II. Non-anaphoric external negation	NEG+Adj/V(P)/N(P)
III. Internal negation	
IIIa. NEG preposed with main verbs	X+*no/not/don't*+V(P)
IIIb. NEG postposed with auxiliaries	X+copula/aux+*no*+Y
IV. Target-like negation	restructuring of unanalysed forms, *do* auxiliary

Figure 3. Acquisition sequence of negation in L2 English. (Meisel 81)

2.5. L1 transfer

Each language learner is naturally influenced by his/her mother tongue. However, since the middle of the 20th century, due to the emergence of various learning and language theories, the opinions on the influence of L1 on L2 learning have diverged. One of the first hypotheses, known as the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH), advocated by behaviourists, claims that those aspects of the mother tongue that differ from those of L2 are the principal hindrance to second language learning. More specifically, each language system operates differently, and these dissimilarities lead to potential mistakes produced by the language learner. Behaviourists thus compared various languages in order to predict the potential difficulties that a language learner will encounter (Brown 249). In other words, "in the comparison between native and foreign language lies the key to ease or difficulty in foreign language learning…Those elements that are similar to native language will be simple for him and those elements that are different will be difficult" (Lado 1966: 37, as cited in Brown 249).

In order to predict the difficulty of the language that is learnt, many hierarchies of difficulty have been offered. One of them was introduced by Clifford Prator (1967) and is applicable to grammatical and phonological aspects of language (see *Table* 3.).

The first level of difficulty (level 0) denotes such aspects of L2 that are transferable from L1. As there is no contrast between the two languages, the learner can transfer the feature from L1 into L2 automatically (Arakelyan 114; Brown 250). For example, the phoneme /m/ is identical in Czech and in English.

The second level (level 1) is characteristic of two L1 items being coalesced into one item in L2. Consequently, the learner has to learn to ignore the distinction (Arakelyan 114; Brown 250). For example, English learners of Czech have to learn that "I was doing it." and "I did it." have one single translation in Czech

Underdifferentiation (level 2) occurs when an item in L1 does not exist in L2. Therefore, the learner must not use them (Arakelyan 114; Brown 250). For example, the phoneme /ch/ does not exist in the English phonemic inventory, so Czech learners have to learn to pronounce the words containing the grapheme <ch> correctly.

During reinterpretation (or redefinition) (level 3) the item exists in both languages but is distributed differently (Arakelyan 114; Brown 250). For instance, the phoneme /r/

exists both in English and Czech. However, its place and manner of articulation differ. In English, /r/ is a post-alveolar approximant (Roach 2009: 49), while an alveolar vibrant in Czech (Dokulil et al. 1986: 52).

Items at the level of overdifferentiation (level 4) are those ones which are present in L2 yet absent in L1. The learner has to learn those aspects of L2 (Arakelyan 115; Brown 250), e.g. unlike English, Czech does not have articles. As a consequence, Czech learners of English must learn them.

The last level of the hierarchy (level 5), i.e. split, concerns such language items that exist as one item in L1 but becomes two or more in L2. Consequently, the learner has to learn to distinguish between them in L2 (Arakelyan 115; Brown 251). To illustrate this point, English tenses can be used. There are various manners of expressing the past, present and future in English. Since Czech does not offer so many options, Czech learners of English have to acquire the English ones.

Level 0 - Transfer	L1 → L2
Level 1 - Coalescence	L1' + L1 → L2
Level 2 - Underdifferentiation	L1 → 0
Level 3 - Reinterpretation	L1 → L2'
Level 4 - Overdifferentiation	0 → L2
Level 5 - Split	L1 → L2' + L2''

Table 3. Prator's hierarchy of difficulty (1967).

Nevertheless, in the following decades it was shown that predicting difficulty by means of the CAH had its drawbacks. The first one was its oversimplification since subtle phonetic, phonological and grammatical differences were not taken into consideration. Another shortcoming was problematic categorization of some language contrasts, i.e. it might be unclear to which level some language differences fit to. The last flaw of this hypothesis is to what extent it is verifiable (Brown 251-53).

In light of those disadvantages mentioned above, Wardhaugh (1970) called this hierarchy "the strong version" of the CAH, whose practicality and predictability he

doubted. However, he did not reject this theory completely. On the contrary, he modified this version and proposed the so-called "weak version" of the CAH. This version takes into account the interference across languages, its impact and the possible source of difficulties, yet, unlike the "strong version" of the CAH, it explains the difficulties the learners encounter *a-posteriori*, i.e. after it. In other words, the learners' errors which could be attributed to the influence of their L1 are not predicted in advance, but they are dealt with as the learners make them when learning the language (Brown, 251-52). Nowadays this weak version of the CAH is known under the term "cross-linguistic influence" (CLI) (Odlin, 2003; Kellerman, 1995; Kellerman & Sharwood-Smith, 1986 as cited in Brown 252).

2.6. Influence of Czech

With regard to the influence of the Czech language, the term "Czenglish", proposed by Don Sparling in his "English or Czenglish" (1989), is very often used. It denotes the Czech variety of English. This variety is comprehensible to Czech speakers, as they share their mother tongue; yet it might cause troubles to English native speakers, to whom it might be even unintelligible (Králová 13). The following subsections introduce the most salient areas of difficulty which occur at phonetical, grammatical and lexical levels. The major source for the section was the thesis *Czenglish: A Basic Outline of an EFL Variety* by Kateřina Králová (2010), which provides a comprehensive overview of Czenglish, in which she touches upon all linguistic disciplines.

2.6.1. Phonetics

As far as the phonetic level is concerned, the first issue to mention is the difference between the number and the quality of English and Czech vowels. Due to that, Czechs tend to pronounce English vowels in a similar manner they do in Czech. There are two English monophthongs that Czechs struggle with: the front open /æ/ and the mid-central /ə/. This struggle stems from the absence of these phonemes in Czech (Králová 18-21), i.e. their overdifferentiation. Czech speakers therefore substitute them with other vowels. /æ/ tends to be pronounced as Czech /e:/ (Skaličková 1982: 186, as cited in Králová 21), while /ə/ as /e ɒ/ or /i/, depending on the graphic representation (Králová 21).

Regarding English consonants, there are a few phonemes that pose problems to Czech speakers, e.g. /θ/, /ð/, /v/, /w/, /ŋ/ and /r/. Due to the absence of these phonemes in

Czech, the dental fricatives /θ/ and /ð/ are often pronounced erroneously as /t/, /s/ or /d/, /z/, respectively. The voiced labiodental fricative /v/ and the labiovelar approximant /w/ cause difficulties because Czech speakers tend to substitute /v/ with /w/, once they learn to produce /w/ (Králová 24-27). The velar nasal /ŋ/ exists in Czech as an allophone of /n/ before /k/ and /g/, while in English it is a phoneme. Thus, Czechs are often insensitive to the distinction between these two sounds, and they therefore pronounce <ng> in "thing" or "singer" as /ŋg/ or /ŋk/ (Skaličková 1982: 188 as cited in Králová 26). Another area of difficulty is the production of /r/. This sound is present in both languages; however, its manner of articulation differs: in Czech it is a vibrant, while in English an approximant. As a result, the Czech pronunciation of /r/ tends to resemble the Czech /r/ or oscillates between the Czech and the English r-sound (Králová 26).

The nature of the Czech language does not influence only the segmental level. On the contrary, suprasegmental features are affected as well. The most prominent is stress placement, which is stable in Czech, while variable in English. This is linked to another source of errors, which is the use of the Czech syllable-timed rhythm instead of the English stressed-timed (Králová 28). This is sometimes considered the most crucial feature differing English from Czech (Skaličková 1982: 190 as cited in Králová 28).

2.6.1. Morphology

Among the most frequent morphological mistakes of Czech speakers belong errors in articles. According to Klimšová's study, these mistakes represent 25% of all the errors found (1999: 45 as cited in Králová 32). These errors can be attributed to the absence of articles in the Czech language (Chamonikolasová, Stašková 54), i.e. their overdifferentiation. The indefinite or definite articles are either omitted, or used incorrectly or redundantly (Klimšová 1999:46 as cited in Králová 32).

Another morphological area of difficulty concerns the use of English tenses. This is caused by the absence of some of the English tenses in Czech, e.g. the perfect and the progressive. Another frequent mistake occurs when reporting speech or forming conditional clauses (Králová 36).

The third salient source of errors is represented by English prepositions (Klimšová 1999: 48 as cited in Králová 40-41). The reasons why they pose problems to Czech learners are numerous. The first issue is that some Czech prepositions, e.g. "v", are

expressed by various prepositions in English, e.g. "in", "at", "on". As a result, Czechs tend to confuse them. Secondly, many English expressions require the use of a preposition, while the Czech ones do not, e.g. "listen to music" and "poslouchat hudbu". Consequently, Czech speakers often omit the preposition. In addition, Czech does not possess any prepositions for expressing duration. However, English uses the preposition "for". For this reason, the preposition "for" is very often omitted. Lastly, some prepositions are, on the contrary, used redundantly. For example, Czechs tend to use the preposition "of" after gerunds (Králová 41-42).

2.6.2. Syntax

One of the most significant types of errors at the syntactic level concerns word order. These errors are attributed to different functions of word order in English and Czech. In English, word order is fixed and determines the grammatical function, i.e. syntactic roles of clause constituents. In an English declarative sentence, the order of clause constituents has to follow the pattern SVOMPT: subject, verb, object, adjunct of manner, adjunct of place, adjunct of time. However, in Czech, word order is not fixed, and the arrangement of clause constituents is determined by functional sentence perspective. As a result, Czech speakers tend to employ the Czech word order when making English sentences, which might lead to misinterpretation (Králová 43-44).

Another difficulty arises from the fact that Czech is a so-called "pro-drop language" (Cook 214), that is to say that the subject of a sentence does not have to be expressed. On the contrary, in English, the subject has to be always expressed as it is a "non-pro-drop language" (ibid.). Czech speakers therefore often omit the subject in English sentences. Where it occurs most often is in cases in which "empty it" or existential or locative "there" are to be used. (Králová 44)

It is also negation that often causes problems to Czech learners. According to Klimšová, errors in negation constitute 10% of the syntactic errors examined (1999, as cited in Králová 47). The reason why this occurs is that in a Czech sentence, more than one negator can be used. However, in English, only one negator is allowed (Králová 47).

The last significant area of syntactic errors to be mentioned is the word order in subordinate clauses introduced by wh-words. Since learners are taught to invert the subject and the verb in questions, they apply this rule to clauses which are not

interrogative, but which are introduced by a wh-word as well (Králová 49). Consequently, they make sentences such as "I want to know who is he" (Sparling 1989: 269).

2.6.3. Lexical level

Lexical errors cannot be neglected since they form 15% of errors (Klimšová 1999, as cited in Králová 49). The first category of errors is formed by pairs of words that tend to be confused, the so-called "confusibles" (McArthur 256). The words which belong into this category are written or pronounced similarly, e.g. "interesting"/"interested", "loose"/"lose", "affect"/"effect", "sensible"/"sensitive", "desert"/"dessert", "lay"/"lie", "precedent"/"preceding". Nevertheless, some other words tend to be confused irrespective of their graphic or phonic representation. What makes such words problematic is the similarity in their meaning. Typically, these words exist as two lexical items in English, while as one lexical item in Czech. For example, "make"/"do", "learn"/"teach", "come"/"go", "contemporary"/"current", "soon"/"early" or "next"/"another" (Králová 49-50). Occasionally, there are even more than two words that are mistaken. For example, the words "food", "dish" or "meal" (Sparling 95) or "way", "travel" and "journey" (Sparling 263) are often substituted for one another as they correspond to one Czech equivalent.

Another broad category of lexical errors is false friends (faux amis). It comprises such words that "have the same origin and general appearance as a word in another language, so that learners mistakenly assume that both have the same meanings and uses" (McArthur 400). To illustrate this issue, words such as "actual"/"aktuálně", "sympathy"/"sympatie", "brigade"/"brigáda" can be used (Králová 52).

The last prominent category comprises collocations. It denotes "a habitual association between particular words" (McArthur 231), i.e. a combination of words, e.g. "heavy smoker" or "rancid butter" (Klégr, Šaldová 168). The reason why learners struggle with them is that they tend to transfer the collocations existing in Czech into English. Nevertheless, as opposed to the other errors, this type of errors does not hinder comprehension, yet it sounds unnatural (Králová 54-55).

3. L1 in English classroom

3.1. L1 in selected ELT methods and approaches

Each era of the history of English language teaching was characteristic of a different way of teaching, i.e. a method. What influenced the teachers' choice of a method was their beliefs about how language and learning work, i.e. an approach (Scrivener 38). This has been valid until nowadays. However, teachers in the 21st century do not tend to follow one single method. On the contrary, they usually construct their own personal methodology by means of selecting what they regard as the most appropriate and efficient in their English lessons. This tendency is often referred to as "principled eclecticism". (Scrivener 40) [1]

The following section introduces some of the selected language teaching methods and approaches. Special emphasis is placed on the role of L1 in them. *Table 4.* contains their enumeration and the role (and potential use) of L1 in them.

Approach/method	Is L1 used?	When is it used?
The Grammar-Translation Method	yes	instruction, translation
The Direct Method	no	
The Audio-Lingual Method	no	
The Silent Way	yes	instruction, pronunciation, feedback sessions
Suggestopedia	yes	making meaning, translation
Community Language Learning	yes	making meaning, directions, sessions

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[1] In the Czech educational system, this was valid during the research period. Nevertheless, since January 1, 2024, due to an amendment to the law (Education Act § 22a), it has been the headmaster who has been responsible for the teaching methods used at that school (Puškinová 12, translated by the author of this thesis).

Total Physical Response	yes	TPR introduction

Table 4. The role of L1 in selected language teaching methods and approaches.

3.1.1. The Grammar-Translation Method

Origins & aims

The origins of the Grammar-Translation Method (GTM) can be traced back to the study of classical Latin, by which it was influenced immensely. It represented the predominant foreign language teaching method from the 1840s until the 1940s (Patel, Jain 73). In the United States, it was known as the Prussian Method (Richards, Rodgers 5).

Generally speaking, the goal of the GTM was "to know everything about something rather than the thing itself" (W. H. D. Rouse 1925: 9.77: 2, quoted in Kelly 53). Consequently, learning a foreign language was perceived as an end in itself (Richards, Rodgers 5). Some of the principal characteristics of this method are:

- A foreign language is learnt in order to read its literature or to improve one's intellectual abilities.
- First the learners learn grammar rules, then they apply them to translation exercises. They translate both from L1 to L2 and L2 to L1.
- Regarding skills, reading and writing are emphasised, while speaking and listening are neglected.
- Bilingual wordlists, dictionary study and memorisation are used in order to learn vocabulary.
- The teacher teaches grammar deductively.
- Special emphasis is placed on accuracy. (Richards, Rodgers 5-6)

The role of L1

As the characteristics of the GTM suggest, the role of the learners' native language is of fundamental importance in this method. It is used throughout the whole lesson, as the teacher uses it as a medium of instruction and for explanation. At the same time, "the first language is maintained as the reference system in the acquisition of the second language" (Stern 1983:455, quoted in Richards, Rodgers 6), which means that it is used for comparison of the L1 and L2 (Richards, Rodgers 6).

3.1.2. The Direct Method

Origins & aims

The Direct Method (DM) was the first official method of foreign language teaching. Its emergence was influenced by the revitalisation of linguistics in the second part of the 19th century. The International Phonetic Association was established in 1886, and the International Phonetic Alphabet was created. Consequently, speech patterns became more important than grammar (Richards, Rodgers 9).

As opposed to the Grammar-Translation Method, which perceived language as written, the Direct Method considered language as spoken, thus its main objective was to teach learners to think in the target language so that they are able to communicate. Some of the major principles of the DM are:

- The teacher gives classroom instructions exclusively in the target language.
- Learners learn everyday vocabulary and sentences.
- The teacher teaches grammar inductively (Richards, Rodgers 12).
- Meaning of concrete vocabulary is made through demonstration, objects, pictures, which enables the learners to associate meaning with the target language directly (Freeman, Anderson 30)
- Meaning of abstract vocabulary is made through association of ideas.
- Oral communication is emphasised as well as pronunciation (Richards, Rodgers 12).

The role of L1

The proponents of the Direct Method believe that the native language should be avoided completely in the classroom. In fact, the basic rule of the DM says: "No translation is allowed." (Freeman, Anderson 25). Instead of making meaning through translation or the use of the learners' native language, it is conveyed through demonstration, action, and visual aids (Freeman, Anderson 30).

3.1.3. The Audiolingual Method

Origins & aims

The Audiolingual method originated in the 1950s in the United States. It was affected by the army programmes developed during WWII and the Aural-Oral Approach.

What must be also highlighted is the influence of structural linguistic theory and behaviourist psychology. In fact, the Audiolingual Method perceived foreign language learning as a process of habit formation (Richards, Rodgers 50-53).

Some of the most prominent principles of the ALM are:

- The aim is to gain oral proficiency.
- Language is verbal behaviour - the automatic production and comprehension of utterances.
- Dialogue memorisation and performing pattern drills are the most typical techniques.
- Learners should gain accuracy before fluency.
- Pronunciation and grammar are emphasised (Richards, Rodgers 58-64).

The role of L1

The learners' native language should not be used in the classroom since it is believed that it could lead to interference with the learners' attempts to master the target language (Freeman, Anderson 46).

3.1.4. The Silent Way

Origins & aims

As opposed to the three teaching methods discussed above, which are classified as traditional, The Silent Way represents one of the alternative methods (Voicu 215). It was developed in the 1970s by Caleb Gattegno. What distinguishes this method from the traditional ones is that the learners are encouraged to discover or to create rather than to remember and repeat what is to be learned. It is also believed that physical objects as well as problem solving facilitate learning (Richards, Rodgers 81). This method should enable the learners to self-express, i.e. to express what they think, perceive, and feel. In order to be capable of that, they have to become autonomous and to develop their own inner criteria for correctness (Freeman, Anderson 61-62).

Some of the principles that the Silent Way is based on are:

- The learners learn the sounds of the target language from the very beginning by means of sound-colour charts.
- Teaching vocabulary is restricted at first.

- The teacher very often uses rods, which trigger meaning (Freeman, Anderson 62-63).

The role of L1

In the Silent Way, meaning is conveyed through focusing the learners' perception, not through translation (Freeman, Anderson 64). Nonetheless, the teacher might use the learners' native language to give instructions or to improve the learners' pronunciation. During the feedback session, the L1 might be also used (Voicu 216).

What is of fundamental importance is that the learners' knowledge of their native language should be exploited. For example, when introducing the sound system of the target language, the teacher can make use of the learners' knowledge of the sound system of the native language supposing that some of the sounds are similar (Freeman, Anderson 64).

3.1.5. Suggestopedia

Origins & aims

Suggestopedia, also referred to as Desuggestopedia, represents another type of the alternative methods. It was developed by the Bulgarian psychiatrist-educator Georgi Lozanov in the 1970s. He believes that each learner sets up psychological barriers to learning, e.g. the fear of failure, which prevents him or her from using their full mental capacity. The aim of Suggestopedia is to overcome these barriers to learning, which is achieved by means of the integration of fine arts, namely music, art, and drama (Freeman, Anderson 71).

Some of the characteristics of Suggestopedia are:
- The objective is to gain conversational proficiency quickly.
- The lesson takes place in a bright and cheerful environment, which facilitates learning.
- The learners are given new target language names and identities.
- The teacher must be an authority.
- Communication takes place on two planes: the conscious and the unconscious ones.
- As to language systems, vocabulary is emphasised.

- Regarding skills, speaking is emphasised. However, the other skills are not neglected either. (Freeman, Anderson 75-80)

The use of L1

The learners' native language is not omitted completely. On the contrary, it is very often used for native language translation. In addition, the teacher might use the native language in the classroom when necessary. Nevertheless, there is a tendency that the more advanced the learners are the less frequent the use of the L1 is (Voicu 216).

3.1.6. Community Language Learning

Origins & aims

The Community Language Learning (CLL) was developed by the psychologist Charles A. Curran in the 1970s. He applied psychological counselling techniques to learning, which is known as Counselling-Learning. Community Language Learning redefines the roles of the teacher and the learner: the teacher is perceived as a counsellor, while the learner as a client. Thus, the relationship between them resembles that of a counsellor-client relationship (Richards, Rodgers 90).

Since the CLL was affected by humanistic techniques, it "engages the whole person, including the emotions and feelings (the affective realm) as well as linguistic knowledge and behavioural skills" (Richards, Rodgers 90). Therefore, the teacher perceives the learners as "whole persons" (Freeman, Anderson 85).

Some of the features that characterise the CLL are:
- The aim is to use the target language communicatively, to make the learners learn about their own learning and to become responsible for their own learning (Freeman, Anderson 94).
- Learning a new language is comparable to being reborn and developing a new persona.
- The relationship between the teacher and his/her learners changes in accordance with their development. Initially, the learner is dependent on the teacher. However, the more secure and proficient the learner is, the more autonomous and independent of the teacher he/she becomes.

- Learners are members of a community, which enables them to interact and learn the language (Richards, Rodgers 94-95).

The role of L1

The use of the learners' native language in the CLL is not avoided at all. On the contrary, initially, the role of the L1 in CLL is to enhance the learners' security and to "provide a bridge from the familiar to the unfamiliar" (Freeman, Anderson 97). L1 is also used during feedback sessions, in which the learners express their feelings and impressions. However, as the learners become more proficient, it is the target language that is used most (Freeman, Anderson 97).

3.1.7. Total Physical Response

Origins & aims

Total Physical Response (TPR) was developed by the psychologist James Asher in the 1970s. This method is based on the coordination of speech and action. In other words, Asher claims that language can be taught through physical (motor) activity (Richards, Rodgers 73).

TPR was influenced by developmental and humanistic psychology. As to the former, Asher believes that the process of learning a second language is comparable to first language acquisition, during which children initially respond to commands. Their response is physical (non-verbal) as long as they are not prepared to respond verbally. Regarding the latter, what Asher takes into consideration is the role of affective factors in language teaching. As a result, he asserts that it is essential to attempt to reduce learners' level of anxiety, which is achieved by means of games and establishing a positive atmosphere (Richard, Rodgers 73-75).

Some of the other characteristics of TPR are:
- The aim is to gain oral proficiency.
- Learners are not forced to speak as long as they are not ready since receptive skills precede productive skills.
- Vocabulary and grammar are emphasised, both of which are embedded in the imperatives (Freeman, Anderson 109-110).

The role of L1

In TPR the teacher usually introduces the method in the learners' native language. However, after the introduction, it is the target language that is used. Meaning is conveyed through body movements (Freeman, Anderson 110).

3.2. Advocates and opponents of using L1 in the classroom

In general, it can be said that, in terms of the use of L1 in L2 lessons, there are two "camps" of scientists in the field of Second Language Teaching. The former believes that the use of the first language is beneficial in SLT, while the latter opposes this view, i.e. this group of authors suggests a complete avoidance of L1 in English lessons. The following part presents the ideas of both.

3.2.1. Opponents of the use of L1 in L2 classes

The advocates of the monolingual approach support the exclusive use of the target language in the classroom. This view stems from their belief that acquisition of foreign languages does not differ from the acquisition of the mother tongue. Consequently, according to them, the use of L1 in L2 classes should be minimised (Voicu 213).

The opponents of the use of L1 believe that:

1. When using L1, learners and teachers might get accustomed to translation each time a problem occurs.
2. Languages are not identical, so the use of L1 in L2 classroom might lead to confusion. Thus, they should be distinguished and separated.
3. The use of L1 can contribute to errors caused by L1 transfer.
4. The use of L1 prevents comprehensible input, which is essential for language acquisition (Voicu 213).

One of the most significant authors that influenced this area of study was Stephen Krashen. He is the co-founder of the Natural Approach and the author of *Theory of Second Language Acquisition*. His theory is based on five hypotheses:

1. The acquisition/learning hypothesis
2. The monitor hypothesis
3. The natural order hypothesis
4. The input hypothesis
5. The affective filter hypothesis (Richards, Rodgers 181-183)

What is relevant to this field of study is the "Input hypothesis". It examines the relationship between the input (exposure) and language acquisition. Krashen believes that comprehensible input leads to acquisition (not to learning). This input must be slightly above the learners' level of competence (I+1) (Richards, Rodgers 182-183). Thus, the teacher should be the primary source of comprehensible input in L2 by means of speaking the target language to the greatest extent possible. It follows that the use of L1 is not encouraged, since learners should be exposed to the target language so that its acquisition can take place.

3.2.2. Advocates of L1 in L2 classroom

One of the most significant proponents of the use of L1 in L2 lessons is the British linguist Vivian Cook. He claims that, in general, the approaches and methods that emerged in the course of the 20th century tended to avoid L1. Still, this trend underwent certain changes during that century. The first phase can be considered as the most "radical" one. In fact, at the very beginning L1 was perceived as unfavourable, thus it was omitted completely (Cook 180). Later, this belief was slightly shifted: the use of L2 was rather encouraged, which means that L1 was not necessarily excluded from the English classroom (Willis 130). Another change emerged in the 1990s when the UK National Curriculum proposed that "the natural use of the target language for virtually all communication is a sure sign of a good modern language course." (DES 58).

Cook suggests that L1 can be used in three ways in the classroom (see *Table 5.)* In the first one the teacher uses L1 to convey either the meaning of words and sentences or of grammar. The former is used particularly in the Bilingual Method, in which the teacher reads a sentence in the target language and conveys its meaning in L1. This is explained by the fact that in the learners' minds, L1 and L2 are connected by meaning. However, giving the meaning in L1 is not called "translating" in this case. The author proposes the term "interpreting" (Cook 184).

As to the latter, the teacher can use L1 to explain grammar. This is useful especially when the grammar of the target language differs considerably from the one of the mother tongue. For example, Japanese does not have plural forms, so Japanese learners of English would struggle without translation (Cook 184).

L1 can also be of great use in organising the class. The teacher might use L1 for classroom management or for testing. In addition, the use of L1 for instruction-giving is not discouraged either, since some tasks can be challenging for the learners. Consequently, the learners' understanding of the instructions might play a key role in a successful completion of the task (Cook 184).

Furthermore, Cook also suggests that learners can use L1 within the classroom too: either as a part of the main learning activity or incidentally within classroom activities. In fact, he believes that code switching is natural in everyday bilingual life. Thus, the learners should not be prevented from using it in the classroom (Cook 184).

Teacher conveying meaning	• teacher using L1 for conveying and checking meaning of words or sentences • teacher using L1 for explaining grammar
Teacher organising the class	• teacher using L1 for organising tasks • teacher maintaining discipline through L1 • teacher getting contact with individual students through L1 • teacher using L1 for testing
Students using L1 within the classroom	• students using L1 as part of the main learning activity • students using L1 within classroom activities

Table 5. Ways of using the L1 in the classroom according to Cook (185).

Apart from that, L1 can be used to translate and check comprehension, to provide individual comments to the learners or to give feedback to the learners (Macaro 1997, as cited in Cook 182). Nevertheless, according to Franklin, L1 is used most frequently either to explain grammar or to discuss objectives. As to tests and written work correction, it is used only sometimes; and with respect to classroom management and activities organisation, it is used rather rarely (Franklin 20).

Other supporters of the use of L1 maintain that the level of the learners is a decisive factor. It is said that beginners might benefit from the use of their mother tongue (Voicu 214-15). Another advantage of L1 is that it can save a considerable amount of

time. For example, when the teacher wants to explain a new word or a new grammar point in the target language, it is much more time-consuming and possibly less efficient than providing a translation. In addition, comparing English and the mother tongue is recommended. Actually, it can be beneficial for the learners since it might lead to language acquisition. Learners can compare either vocabulary, e.g. by means of scrutinising the lexical nuances in both languages or by drawing bilingual semantic maps, or grammar, by which negative transfer might be avoided, or on the contrary, if L1 and L2 are similar, it will lead to the internalisation of L2 grammar (Voicu 214-15).

Furthermore, if the mother tongue is banned completely, it can lead to its negative perception. Consequently, L1 culture can be regarded as inferior. It is thus recommended to teach about cultural similarities and differences, but not to separate the learners from their own culture. A wide variety of enjoyable activities can be used for that, for example translating proverbs, idioms, lyrics of songs, or jokes (Voicu 241-15).

3.3. Recommendations of ELT methodologists

The following section delves into recommendations which are offered by some of the most prominent ELT methodologists. Special emphasis is placed on L1 in teaching language systems, i.e. grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation; language skills and instruction-giving.

3.3.1. L1 in teaching language systems

As it has been suggested above, switching to L1 can be beneficial when teaching new grammar. This opinion is held not only by Cook, but many other methodologists, for example Harmer (*Teaching and Learning Grammar* 27), Scrivener (309), Ur (*Penny Ur's 100 Teaching Tips* 33) or Edge (83), recommend using the learners' mother tongue to present new grammar too. They favour its use because grammatical explanations sometimes tend to be complicated, thus, especially with less proficient pupils, an English-only explanation might be time-consuming and confusing. Some also believe that it is beneficial to ask the learners to think of an L1 equivalent of particular sentences (Scrivener 309; Gill, Lenochová 48).

Another method the teacher can opt for is the so-called "successive translation", during which the teacher attempts to explain it in the target language first and switches to L1 later. This method is alleged to be beneficial since it enables each learner to

comprehend the teacher's explanation: more advanced pupils can listen to the explanation in L2, while the less advanced can count upon their mother tongue (Hughes 8).

The use of L1, specifically the translation from L2 into L1, is also recommended when presenting vocabulary, to be more exact when teaching the meaning of a new word. Although there are numerous ways of explaining the meaning, such as explanation, enumeration, pictures, miming, action, gestures, contrast (Harmer *The Practice Of English Language Teaching* 162), vocabulary translation is regarded as the most efficient techniques for various reasons: "it is quicker than the English explanation, it is much more easily understood, it usually gives an accurate idea of the meaning of the item." (Ur, Thornbury *Penny Ur's 100 Teaching Tips* 110). The time that is saved by explaining the meaning by translation can be thus devoted to eliciting definitions, examples or working with the new word in context (Ur, Thornbury *Vocabulary Activities* 15). Additionally, it is said to be more learner-friendly as many pupils favour an L1 explanation, and feel "safer" if they can relate a newly learnt item to its meaning in the language they already know (Ur, Thornbury *Penny Ur's 77 Tips for Teaching Vocabulary* 30).

Another recommendation is to use L1 when teaching pronunciation. More specifically, it is beneficial when the L2 and L1 sounds are compared to each other (Ur, Thornbury *Penny Ur's 100 Teaching Tips* 76). The teacher should draw the learners' attention to these contrasts and ask them to characterise important distinctions (Scrivener 309).

3.3.2. L1 in teaching language skills

Regarding teaching receptive skills, i.e. listening and reading, L1 can also find its employment here. It is recommended especially in the after-reading or after-listening phases of the lesson. In both cases, the mother tongue can be used to summarise the content of the text or the recording (Gill, Lenochová 36; Ur, Thornbury *Penny Ur's 100 Teaching Tips* 84; Scrivener 309). It can enable the teacher to find out to what extent the pupils understood or misunderstood it (Scrivener 309).

On the contrary, when developing the learners' productive skills, i.e. speaking and writing, naturally, the use of the mother tongue should be minimised. Still, it can be employed for instruction-giving (Gill, Lenochová 69), or for comparison of layout and

style between English and L1 conventions, e.g. for letters, when teaching writing (Scrivener 309).

3.3.3. L1 for instruction-giving

The reason for the use of L1 that is mentioned most frequently is for instruction-giving. Unlike the previous uses of L1, this belongs to the "framework" goals, i.e. a goal unrelated to the subject matter (Macaro 2001 as cited in Hall, Cook 286). It is advisable particularly with less proficient learners (Ur, Thornbury *Penny Ur's 100 teaching tips* 42). According to Scrivener, it can contribute to clarification of such facts that would otherwise stay concealed (309). Alternatively, the teacher can appoint a "class interpreter" who can translate anything that is unclear. This is believed to be practical and enjoyable at the same time (Hughes 8, Harmer *How to Teach English 4*).

Conclusion of theoretical part

To conclude, the theoretical part attempted to prepare the ground for the upcoming practical part. It was shown that the process of second language acquisition proceeds in a predictable order and that the influence of the first language must not be neglected. Actually, L1 interference is observable at all linguistic levels. However, this thesis discussed the phonetical, grammatical and lexical errors.

The role of the mother tongue in the English classroom has been a controversial topic since the beginning of ELT. Some language teaching methods and approaches, such as the Grammar Translation Method, advocate it; while some others, such as the Direct Method, oppose it. Nevertheless, nowadays, since teachers do not tend to adhere to one single ELT method or approach, they have the liberty to select what they favour in accordance with their personal beliefs about language teaching.

Regarding the opinions of contemporary ELT methodologists, some of the most prominent ones have acknowledged considerable benefits that an occasional use of L1 can provide. According to them, it has the potential to conserve time and to display contrasts between L2 and L1 as well as to clarify the meaning of newly learnt items. Consequently, switching to L1 is recommended mainly for instruction-giving and introducing new grammar or vocabulary.

The second part of this thesis will thus examine the situation in the Czech Republic. To be more exact, it will attempt to reveal how English teachers at selected Czech lower-secondary schools perceive the use of Czech in English classes and how much and why they employ Czech in their lessons.

PRACTICAL PART

The aim of the practical part of this thesis is to answer two research questions that were formulated:

1. How much do English lower-secondary teachers speak Czech in their lessons?
2. For what purpose do English lower-secondary teachers use Czech?

In order to answer these research questions, the author of this thesis visited 8 lower-secondary schools located in Prague, where she observed 35 English lessons of 12 various English teachers. The research data were collected from September to December 2023.

4. Method

The research was conducted in three steps. After having contacted lower-secondary school teachers and having agreed on the date of the visit, the author of this thesis visited them and observed their lessons. After each lesson, the author interviewed the teachers in order to verify her explanations of the use of Czech. Lastly, an online questionnaire was sent to the teachers, which they completed after the observations.

4.1. Observations

The aim of the observations was to observe the teachers' talk and to record[2] and count all Czech words or sentences that they uttered. Secondly, the observer also wrote down her explanation of the use of Czech, which she verified after the lesson by asking the teachers what their reason for the use of Czech was.

A special observation sheet was designed so that the aspects mentioned above could be recorded during the lessons. After having piloted this sheet during three English lessons at lower-secondary school, it was shown that the observation sheet had its drawbacks. In fact, it was unsystematic, therefore the use of Czech could not be measured. Consequently, it was redesigned (see *Appendix 1*). A special system for recording the use of Czech was invented so that it could be measurable: the symbol "W" was used for Czech words, "S" for one to three Czech sentences uttered in succession, "T" (as "text") for more than three Czech sentences that were uttered in succession.

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[2] The observer recorded it by writing it down, not by storing it on a tape.

The final version of the sheet comprised the following:

- date, school, class, teacher, learner's age, learner's level
- timing, phase of the lesson, interaction pattern, use of Czech, reason of the use of Czech, characteristics of an ELT method /approach

4.2. Questionnaire

The online questionnaire was devised in Google Forms and was sent to the teachers after the observations. It comprised two sets of questions. The former examined the teachers' age, nationality and experience with English language teaching. The latter scrutinised their attitude towards the use of Czech in English lessons. The full version of the questionnaire is to be found in *Appendix 4*.

4.3. Schools

The research was conducted at eight lower-secondary public schools in Prague (see *Table 6.*). The capacity of these schools varies as it ranges from 380 to 700 pupils. The smallest one, ZŠ Pod Žvahovem, is attended by 380 pupils, while the largest one, FZŠ Mezi Školami, is attended by 700 pupils. Most of the other schools have a capacity of approximately 600 pupils.

As to the hour allocation for English at these schools, it ranges from 22 to 30 hours throughout the 9 grades. This is heavily impacted by the grade at which pupils commence learning English. Pupils of ZŠ Břečťanová and ZŠ Londýnská start to learn it in the third grade, while the pupils of the other schools in the first grade. Another factor is that at some schools, the hour allocation for English is reinforced in certain grades. For example, with regard to the lower-secondary school, at ZŠ Weberova, ZŠ Pod Žvahovem or ZŠ Františky Plamínkové, there are 4 English lessons a week in the sixth and seventh grades, at ZŠ Břečťanová 4 hours a week in the sixth grade, at ZŠ Vodičkova in the seventh grade, and at ZŠ Londýnská in the ninth grade.[3]

Another aspect that has to be examined is whether the English groups of lower-secondary pupils are heterogenous or homogenous with respect to the pupils' proficiency. At ZŠ Weberova, ZŠ Londýnská, and ZŠ Františky Plamínkové the groups are

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[3] The hour allocation for English at the elementary school is to be found in *Table* 5. It is deliberately not discussed in this passage as this thesis examines lower-secondary schools.

homogeneous, i.e. at the beginning of the sixth grade, pupils do a placement test, on the result of which they are divided into less advanced and more advanced groups. On the contrary, at ZŠ Pod Žvahovem, ZŠ Břečťanová, ZŠ Vodičkova, FZŠ Mezi Školami, and ZŠ Mládí, the groups are heterogenous, i.e. they comprise pupils of various language levels.

The last factor, perhaps less relevant when compared to the previous ones, is the coursebook the teachers and pupils work with. A vast majority of the schools employ the textbook and workbook *Project*. ZŠ Pod Žvahovem uses *Project Explore*, ZŠ Frantižky Plamínkové *English File,* FZŠ Mezi Školami *Your Space* and ZŠ Mládí *English Plus*.

school	capacity	hour allocation for English	level division	coursebook
ZŠ Weberova	660	1-1-3-3-3-**4-4-3-3**	yes	Project
ZŠ Pod Žvahovem	380	1-1-4-4-4-**4-4-3-3**	no	Project Explore
ZŠ Břečťanová	608	0-0-3-3-3-**4-3-3-3**	no	Project
ZŠ Londýnská	560	0-0-3-3+1-3+1-**3-3-3-4**	yes	Project
ZŠ Vodičkova		2-2-3-3-3-**3-4-3-3**	no	Project
ZŠ Frantižky Plamínkové	500	2-2-4-4-4-**4-4-3-3**	yes	English File
FZŠ Mezi Školami	700	1-1-3-3-3-**3-3-3-3**	no	Your Space
ZŠ Mládí	570	1-2-3-3-3-**3-3-3-3**	no	English Plus

Table 6. Teaching English at the visited schools.[4]

4.4. Pupils

The age of the pupils present in the observed lesson ranged from 11 to 15, their English level from A1+ to B1. The level varied with respect to the visited school and its School Education Programme. Furthermore, as stated above, some schools divide the

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[4] The highlighted numbers refer to the hour allocation for English in the grades of the lower-secondary school.

pupils into groups with respect to their proficiency, so some observed groups were more advanced, while some others less advanced. What is also crucial is that not all learners were Czech native speakers. Many Czech schools are attended by foreigners, for example by Ukrainians. This is essential to realise since the mother tongue (L1) of these pupils is not Czech, but a different language. Consequently, Czech is very often the second or the third language that they learn, and English does not necessarily have to be their second language.

4.5. Teachers

The observations took place in the lessons of 12 lower-secondary teachers: 9 women and 3 men, see *Table 7*. Eight of them come from the Czech Republic, two from the USA and two from Slovakia. Despite their various nationalities, all of them are fluent in Czech.

In terms of their age, it spans from the age of 29 to the age of 66. Nevertheless, the majority of the teachers are between 40 and 60 years old. As to their ELT experience, it varies from 4 to 35 years of teaching: two of them have been teaching English for less than 10 years, five of them for 10 - 20 years, four of them for 21- 30 years and one of them for more than 30 years.

teacher	school	gender	nationality	age	ELT experience
T1	ZŠ Weberova	woman	Czech	53	27 years
T2	ZŠ Pod Žvahovem	woman	Czech	51	26 years
T3	ZŠ Pod Žvahovem	woman	Czech	49	20 years
T4	ZŠ Břečťanová	man	Czech	43	15 years
T5	ZŠ Londýnská	woman	Czech	58	24 years
T6	ZŠ Londýnská	woman	Czech	29	5 years
T7	ZŠ Vodičkova	woman	Czech	65	30 years
T8	ZŠ Františky Plamínkové	man	American	45	15 years
T9	ZŠ Františky Plamínkové	man	American	60	13 years
T10	FZŠ Mezi Školami	woman	Slovak	29	4 years

T11	FZŠ Mezi Školami	woman	Slovak	32	5 years
T12	ZŠ Mládí	woman	Czech	66	35 years

Table 7. Description of the teachers whose lessons were observed.

5. Results

The following section is divided into two parts. The first part is based on qualitative research examining each teacher whose lessons were observed. More precisely, each teacher and his/her attitude towards the use of Czech is presented and his/her lessons are scrutinised in detail from the point of view of the use of Czech. As to the second part, it displays quantitative data and reveals the tendencies which stem from them.

5.1. The use of Czech in the lessons of the observed teachers

As stated above, this part focuses on the teachers whose lessons were observed and presents them one by one. In the presentation of each teacher, there are two tables (*Tables 9 – 32)*. The first table (*Tables 9, 11, 13, 15, 17, 19, 21, 23, 25, 27, 29, 31*) derives from the data collected in the online questionnaire and displays the teacher's attitude towards the use of Czech. The second table (*Tables 10, 12, 14, 16, 18, 20, 22, 24, 26, 28, 30, 32*) is grounded in the data from the observation sheets completed during the observations. It demonstrates the characteristics of the pupils and the frequency of the use of Czech with respect to the length of utterance. "W" stands for a Czech word, "S" for a Czech sentence (up to three sentences uttered in succession) and "T" for text (more than three Czech sentences uttered in succession). What it also considers is the purpose for which Czech was used. To make the tables brief and systematic, a system of abbreviations was devised. Their list is to be found in *Table 8.*

abbreviation	purpose
I = instructions	to give instructions
GP = grammar presentation	to present grammar
GPr = grammar practice	to practise grammar
VP = vocabulary presentation	to clarify the meaning of lexical items
VPr = vocabulary practice	to practise lexical items
F = providing feedback	to provide feedback
M = management	to manage the classroom (related to the subject matter)
LE = lesson ending	to end the lesson
Pr = pronunciation	to present/practise pronunciation

Sp = speaking	to develop speaking skills
LO = lesson opening	to open the lesson
EC = error correction	to correct errors
D = discipline	to solve disciplinary issues
O = organisation	to solve issues unrelated to the subject matter
GT = grammatical terminology	to provide Czech equivalents of grammatical terminology
LS = learning strategies	to talk about learning strategies
L = listening	to develop listening skills

Table 8. List of abbreviations used in data analysis.

5.1.1. Teacher 1 (ZŠ Weberova)

Attitude towards the use of Czech

Teacher 1 teaches at ZŠ Weberova. She is Czech and has been teaching English for 27 years both at primary and lower secondary schools. She is a strong opponent of the use of Czech in English lessons. She believes that only English should be spoken in the lessons, both by the teacher and the pupils, irrespective of the pupils' English level. In her opinion, each pupil is able to get accustomed to using only English and avoiding Czech completely.

On the other hand, she also acknowledges that Czech might be useful in certain cases, e.g. if it is the shortest and quickest way to help understanding. Occasionally, she uses both English and Czech for presenting new grammar, so that the pupils can compare the differences between these two languages. She also uses Czech for testing English vocabulary or for solving disciplinary issues.

lesson openings: English	grammar presentation: English, occasionally Czech for comparison
stating the lesson aims: English	grammar practice: English
giving instructions: English	vocabulary presentation: English
checking the instructions: English	vocabulary practice: English
giving feedback: English	developing skills: English
error correction: English	discipline, organisation: English, Czech in case of serious behavioural problems

testing: English, Czech for vocabulary testing	

Table 9. Teacher's 1 attitude to the use of Czech.

Observations

The teacher's attitude to the use of Czech was observable in all her lessons since not only her, but all her pupils spoke only English. The only exception was the use of one Czech word when presenting new vocabulary. However, the teacher did not say the Czech translation, but she wrote it on the whiteboard and drew the pupils' attention to it. The reason for providing the Czech translation was to make sure that the pupils understood the meaning of the word.

class	Ss level	level division	lesson aim	L1 words	L1 sentence	L1 text
6th	A1+	yes - stronger	VP + VPr	0	0	0
7th	A1-A2	yes - stronger	GPr + VP + VPr	**1 VP**	0	0
8th	A2	yes - stronger	L, R, Sp	0	0	0
8th	A2	yes - stronger	L, R, Sp	0	0	0
8th	A2	yes - stronger	L, R, Sp	0	0	0
9th	A2+	yes - stronger	VP, VPr	0	0	0

Table 10. Use of Czech during the lessons of T1.

5.1.2. Teacher 2 (ZŠ Pod Žvahovem)

Attitude towards the use of Czech

Teacher 2 teaches at ZŠ Pod Žvahovem. She is Czech and has been teaching English for 26 years both at primary and lower-secondary schools. She does not believe that only English should be spoken in English lessons. In her opinion, Czech can be used for giving instructions in case they are too complicated, for presenting new grammar, or for correcting errors.

lesson openings: English	grammar presentation: English + Czech
stating the lesson aims: English	grammar practice: English
giving instructions: English	vocabulary presentation: English
checking the instructions: English, sometimes Czech	vocabulary practice: English

giving feedback: mostly English	developing skills: English
error correction: English, Czech when necessary	discipline, organisation: English, sometimes Czech
testing: English	

Table 11. Teacher's 2 attitude to the use of Czech.

Observations

To start with, it is essential to mention that in each of the lessons there were a few pupils with SEND. Due to this, a teaching assistant was present and supported them. Nevertheless, the teacher used Czech only occasionally. She spoke English as much as possible and resorted to Czech only in case the pupils were helpless and did not follow her directions. As to Czech words, they were used mainly for giving instructions, clarifying grammatical terminology or presenting new vocabulary. Czech sentences were used also for instruction-giving, as well as for presenting new vocabulary or providing feedback at the end of the lesson. The teacher used it so that everyone understood her and followed her instructions.

class	Ss level	level division	lesson aim	L1 words	L1 sentence	L1 text
6th	A1+	no	VPr	**1 I, 1 GT**	**2 I**	0
6th	A1+	no	VPr	**1 I, 2 VP**	**4 I, 1 VP, 1 F**	0

Table 12. Use of Czech during the lessons of T2.

5.1.3. Teacher 3 (ZŠ Pod Žvahovem)

Attitude towards the use of Czech

Teacher 3 is Czech and teaches at ZŠ Pod Žvahovem. She has been teaching adults for 20 years and lower-secondary pupils for 5 years. She claims that there is no need to avoid the Czech language in English lessons. In her view, Czech can be used in each phase of the lesson, if necessary. However, she believes that what has to be taken into consideration is the learners' age and their proficiency level. From her perspective, with lower levels, the frequency of the use of Czech might be considerably higher than with more advanced learners.

lesson openings: English, Czech	grammar presentation: English, Czech

stating the lesson aims: English, Czech	grammar practice: English, Czech
giving instructions: English, Czech	vocabulary presentation: English, Czech
checking the instructions: English, Czech	vocabulary practice: English, Czech
giving feedback: English, Czech	developing skills: English, Czech
error correction: English, Czech	discipline, organisation: English, Czech
testing: English, Czech	

Table 13. Teacher's 3 attitude to the use of Czech.

Observations

The teacher's beliefs were observable in her lessons. Although both observations took place in the seventh grade, the amount of the use of Czech differed. There were various reasons that led the teacher to the use of the pupils' mother tongue. Firstly, the first group of the seventh graders comprised only boys, while the second one only girls. This factor was reflected in the behaviour of the pupils: the boys tended to misbehave, while in the girls' group there were not any disciplinary issues. Secondly, the learners varied in their proficiency level: the boys' group was weaker as opposed to the girls' group, which was more advanced. Lastly, in the first group there were a few pupils with SEND (specific learning difficulties and ADHD) as well as a few Ukrainian children. Due to this, there was a teaching assistant who provided assistance when necessary.

In the first group the teacher uttered Czech sentences mainly for giving the instructions. She also used Czech for classroom management and for clarifying the differences between Czech and English pronunciation. As to the second group, in which Czech was used less frequently, the teacher used it for lesson opening, practising new grammar and clarifying the meaning of an English word. A longer passage of Czech speech was used for the instructions. The reasons why the teacher used L1 were to ensure that all the learners understand her, to save time and to demonstrate the distinction between English and Czech.

class	Ss level	level division	lesson aim	L1 words	L1 sentence	L1 text
7th	A1+	no	GPr, Sp	**1 I**	**17 I, 2 M, 2 Pr**	0

7th	A1-A2	no	GPr, Sp	**1VP**	**1 LO, 1 GPr,**	**1 I**

Table 14. Use of Czech during the lessons of T3.

5.1.4. Teacher 4 (ZŠ Břečťanová)

Attitude towards the use of Czech

Teacher 4 teaches at ZŠ Břečťanová. He is Czech and has been teaching English at lower-secondary school for 15 years. He is neither an advocate nor an opponent of the use of Czech in English lessons. He believes that the teacher should feel free to resort to Czech any time he/she deems it necessary. In his opinion, sometimes it might be even beneficial to use Czech, for example when giving the instructions, correcting errors, presenting new grammar and vocabulary, or for classroom management.

lesson openings: English	grammar presentation: English + Czech
stating the lesson aims: English	grammar practice: English
giving instructions: English, Czech	vocabulary presentation: English + Czech
checking the instructions: English	vocabulary practice: English
giving feedback: English	developing skills: English
error correction: English, Czech	discipline, organisation: English + Czech
testing: English	

Table 15. Teacher's 4 attitude to the use of Czech.

Observations

In the observed lessons, the teacher did not make extensive use of the Czech language. Nevertheless, he employed Czech sentences on several occasions. Firstly, as the aim of both lessons was to practise new grammar, he used Czech to clarify the differences between English and Czech grammar. He believes that the learners might benefit from demonstrating such distinctions. Then, he also used Czech to open the lesson, give instructions, talk about organisation and correct errors. What prompted him to do so was to ensure that everyone understands and to save time.

class	Ss level	level division	lesson aim	L1 words	L1 sentence	L1 text

8th	A2	no	GPr	**1 O**	**3 I, 4 GP, 1 LO**	0
8th	A2	no	GPr	**0**	**3 I, 1 O, 2 EC, 1 GP**	0

Table 16. Use of Czech during the lessons of T4.

5.1.5. Teacher 5 (ZŠ Londýnská)

Attitude towards the use of Czech

Teacher 5 teaches at ZŠ Londýnská. She has been teaching English for 24 years both at primary and lower-secondary schools. She is not an advocate of using only English throughout the English lesson. Actually, she believes that Czech might be useful, for example for checking the learners' understanding of the instructions, presenting new grammar, practising vocabulary or solving disciplinary issues.

lesson openings: English	grammar presentation: English + Czech
stating the lesson aims: English	grammar practice: mostly English
giving instructions: English	vocabulary presentation: English
checking the instructions: English, sometimes Czech	vocabulary practice: English + Czech
giving feedback: mostly English	developing skills: English
error correction: mostly English	discipline, organisation: English + Czech
testing: mostly English	

Table 17. Teacher's 5 attitude to the use of Czech.

Observations

What was a decisive factor in her lessons from the point of view of the use of Czech, was the pupils' level and discipline. With the sixth graders, Czech words, sentences or longer passages were used mainly for vocabulary presentation, since the aim of the lesson was to learn some of the irregular verbs. As the pupils did not know the meaning of some of the verbs, the teacher decided to translate them. Czech sentences were also used for giving the instructions, grammar presentation and classroom management.

With the seventh graders, Czech was used more frequently. This might have been caused by several reasons. Firstly, due to the absence of the other teacher, the class was not divided as usual. Secondly, this class was considerably weaker with respect to the level of English. Lastly, the pupils were dynamic, which sometimes even led to misbehaviour.

L1 words were used for vocabulary practice, more precisely for vocabulary translation, since at the beginning of the lesson there was a translation game to revise vocabulary. Czech sentences and longer passages of speech were used for giving the instructions, error correction or solving disciplinary problems. What led the teacher to the use of Czech in these cases was the pupils' lower level as well as lack of time.

On the contrary, where Czech was used rarely was during the lesson with the eighth graders. This group was more advanced and disciplined. The teacher used only one Czech word when clarifying the meaning of an English word, and one longer passage of speech when explaining new grammar. In the teacher's view, she used Czech so that the pupils understood it quickly.

class	Ss level	level division	lesson aim	L1 words	L1 sentence	L1 text
6th	A1+	yes - stronger	GP, GPr	**5 VP**	**1 I, 4 VP, 1 GP, 1 M**	**1 I, 1 VP**
7th	A1-A2	yes - weaker	VPr, GPr	**13 VPr**	**3 I, 4 EC, 1 D**	**1 I, 2 D**
8th	A2	mixed	VPr, GPr	**1 VP**	0	**1 GP**

Table 18. Use of Czech during the lessons of T5.

5.1.6. Teacher 6 (ZŠ Londýnská)

Attitude towards the use of Czech

Teacher 6 teaches at ZŠ Londýnská. She has been teaching adults for 5 years and children for 2 years, both at primary and lower-secondary schools. As to her English lessons with lower-secondary pupils, she tries to use English exclusively as soon as possible since she believes that the teacher should speak English to the greatest extent possible. However, what has to be taken into consideration is the learners' age and level as well as the goals of the lesson. From her point of view, when the learners do not understand the teacher at all, it might demotivate them. Furthermore, it can also be time-consuming for the teacher.

According to her perspective, what Czech can be used for with lower-levels, i.e. with primary schoolers, is explaining the aim of the lesson, giving the instructions, providing feedback, correcting errors, testing, presenting and practising new grammar, practising vocabulary or solving behavioural problems.

lesson openings: English (lower levels: repeated in Czech)	grammar presentation: English (Czech with lower levels)
stating the lesson aims: English (lower levels: repeated in Czech)	grammar practice: English (Czech with lower levels)
giving instructions: English	vocabulary presentation: English
checking the instructions: English	vocabulary practice: English (Czech with lower levels)
giving feedback: English (Czech with lower levels)	developing skills: English
error correction: English (Czech with lower levels)	discipline, organisation: English (Czech with lower levels)
testing: English (Czech with lower levels)	

Table 19. Teacher's 6 attitude to the use of Czech.

Observations

The observation took place in the ninth grade. The teacher did not use English at all. This can be ascribed to the level and the age of the learners as well as to the lesson aim, which was to develop receptive and productive skills, more specifically reading and speaking respectively.

class	Ss level	level division	lesson aim	L1 words	L1 sentence	L1 text
9th	A2-B1	yes - stronger	R, Sp	0	0	0

Table 20. Use of Czech during the lessons of T6.

5.1.7. Teacher 7 (ZŠ Vodičkova)

Attitude towards the use of Czech

Teacher 7 teaches at ZŠ Vodičkova. She is an experienced Czech teacher who has had 30 years of teaching experience at lower-secondary school. She argues that not only English should be used in English lessons because an occasional use of Czech could prove advantageous. More specifically, she favours the use of Czech for giving the instructions, correcting errors, presenting and practising grammar as well as vocabulary or managing the classroom. What she also considers is the level and age of the learners.

lesson openings: English	grammar presentation: English + Czech
stating the lesson aims: English	grammar practice: English + Czech
giving instructions: English, Czech	vocabulary presentation: English + Czech
checking the instructions: English	vocabulary practice: English + Czech
giving feedback: English	developing skills: English
error correction: English, Czech	discipline, organization: English + Czech
testing: English	

Table 21. Teacher's 7 attitude to the use of Czech.

Observations

The frequency of Czech in the observed lessons was greatly influenced by the level and age of the learners. Where Czech was used most was during the lesson with the seventh graders. The teacher used Czech words, sentences as well as longer passages of speech to give instructions, correct errors, clarify the meaning of English lexical items, solve misbehaviour as well as for class management. The teacher attributes the higher frequency to the lower level of the pupils and to the presence of a few pupils with SEND. She opted for Czech so that the lesson ran smoothly and so that she saved time.

In the eighth grade, the quantity of Czech words and sentences was considerably lower. The teacher employed Czech words or sentences when opening the lesson, providing directions and practising new grammar. A longer passage of Czech was used when giving instructions that were slightly complicated and to talk about the organisation

of a school trip to England. The reasons why the teacher used it were various: to save time, to ensure comprehension by all and to illustrate the distinctions between English and Czech.

As to the ninth grade, Czech was seldom utilised. To be more exact, one Czech sentence was used when introducing new grammar and a longer passage of Czech speech to open the lesson.

class	Ss level	level division	lesson aim	L1 words	L1 sentence	L1 text
7th	A1+	no	GPr	**3 VPr, 1 EC**	**7 I, 4 EC, 1 VPr, 1 M, 1 D**	**1 EC**
8th	A2	no	GPr	0	**1 LO, 2 I, 5 GPr**	0
8th	A2	no	GPr	0	**2 I, 1 O**	**2 O**
8th	A2	no	GPr, VP	**5 GPr**	**1 I, 2 Sp**	
9th	A2+	no	GPr	0	**1 GP**	**1 LO**

Table 22. Use of Czech during the lessons of T7.

5.1.8. Teacher 8 (ZŠ Františky Plamínkové)

Attitude towards the use of Czech

Teacher 8 teaches at ZŠ Františky Plamínkové. He is an American who moved to the Czech Republic 15 years ago. He has been teaching English at lower-secondary school for 15 years. He believes that the teacher should use mostly English. However, he acknowledges that he usually says about 50 words in Czech. He explains this by his belief that sometimes, the use of Czech can be useful. He states that he uses Czech mainly for any kind of clarification or solving misbehaviour. In his opinion, Czech can be used also for presenting and practising new vocabulary or grammar. What he considers exceptionally effective is grammar practice based on translation.

lesson openings: English	grammar presentation: English + Czech
stating the lesson aims: English	grammar practice: English + Czech
giving instructions: English	vocabulary presentation: English + Czech
checking the instructions: English	vocabulary practice: English + Czech

giving feedback: English	developing skills: English
error correction: English	discipline, organisation: English + Czech
testing: English	

Table 23. Teacher's 7 attitude to the use of Czech.

Observations

The teacher's attitude was reflected in the observed lessons. Naturally, he spoke predominantly English. Czech words and sentences were used for instruction-giving, organisation, clarifying the meaning of vocabulary items, correcting errors, solving misbehaviour and, most importantly, for grammatical terminology as the aim of both lessons was to learn new grammar. The reasons for using the pupils' mother tongue were to save time and to clarify the subject matter. Additionally, the teacher also wanted to illustrate the contrast between English and Czech grammar.

class	Ss level	level division	lesson aim	L1 words	L1 sentence	L1 text
8th	A2+	yes - stronger	GP, GPr	**3 I, 2 GT**	**1 I, 1 D, 1 EC**	0
9th	B1	yes - stronger	GPr	**1 O, 5 GT, 2 VP**	**1 GP**	0

Table 24. Use of Czech during the lessons of T8.

5.1.9. Teacher 9 (ZŠ Františky Plamínkové)

Attitude towards the use of Czech

Teacher 9 is American and teaches English at ZŠ Františky Plamínkové. He has been teaching English at lower-secondary school for 13 years. He is an ardent supporter of "English-only" lessons, which is affected by his belief that the use of Czech in English lessons hinders learning. Nonetheless, he states that what he takes into account is the age and level of the learners. From the seventh grade on he uses only English, but in the sixth grade he speaks English but also some Czech, when necessary, e.g. for checking the instructions, providing feedback or presenting new grammar. Apart from that, what is also worth mentioning is that he tries to push his pupils out of their comfort level as much as possible, e.g. by encouraging them to communicate in English to the greatest extent possible.

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lesson openings: English	grammar presentation: at first English, then Czech
stating the lesson aims: English	grammar practice: English
giving instructions: English	vocabulary presentation: English
checking the instructions: English (Czech follow-up when necessary)	vocabulary practice: English
giving feedback: English (Czech follow-up when necessary)	developing skills: English
error correction: English	discipline, organisation: English
testing: English	

Table 25. Teacher's 9 attitude to the use of Czech.

Observations

The teacher's beliefs were noticeable in the observed lessons. With younger and less advanced pupils he did use some Czech words, while with the ninth graders, who were more advanced, he did not have to use the pupils' native language at all.

As for the lesson with the seventh graders, the teacher used 4 Czech words in total. The aims of the use of them were to clarify the meaning of vocabulary items, to translate grammatical terms and to solve disciplinary issues.

class	Ss level	level division	lesson aim	L1 words	L1 sentence	L1 text
7th	A2	yes - stronger	GPr	**2 VP, 1 GT, 1 D**	0	0
9th	B1	yes - stronger	Sp	0	0	0

Table 26. Use of Czech during the lessons of T9.

5.1.10. Teacher 10 (FZŠ Mezi Školami)

Attitude towards the use of Czech

Teacher 10 is Slovak and teaches at FZŠ Mezi Školami. She has been teaching lower-secondary schoolers for 4 years. She believes that it is beneficial if the teacher speaks only English since it contributes to learning English. It is not only in her lessons

that she speaks English, but she also uses it for chatting with her pupils before the lesson or when meeting them in the hallway.

However, she also claims that there should be someone in the classroom who understands and can translate to others if needed. Typically, when she notices that some of the learners do not understand her, she elicits the Czech translation from someone who does, for example when stating the lesson aims, giving and checking the instructions, presenting new vocabulary or developing learners' skills. In her opinion, this teaches patience and leads to the improvement of pupils' listening and speaking skills.

Still, she is aware that sometimes, Czech might be of great use, e.g. for comparing English and Czech grammar during grammar presentation or for giving feedback to weaker pupils. When it comes to solving issues unrelated to the subject matter, such as discipline or organisation, she considers the use of Czech more effective.

lesson openings: English + "pre-lesson" chatting in English	grammar presentation: English, occasionally Czech for comparison between English and Czech
stating the lesson aims: English, elicitation of Czech translation when necessary	grammar practice: English
giving instructions: English, Czech translation or its elicitation when necessary	vocabulary presentation: English, translation of difficult words elicited
checking the instructions: English, Czech with weaker pupils	vocabulary practice: English
giving feedback: English, written feedback to weaker pupils in Czech	developing skills: English, occasional elicitation of sentences or words with translation
error correction: English (self-correction, peer-correction)	discipline, organization: it depends (Czech might be more effective)
testing: English	

Table 27. Teacher's 10 attitude to the use of Czech.

Observations

The teacher's approach was perceptible in her lessons. Overall, she used Czech only rarely. Czech words and sentences were used for error correction, vocabulary presentation and practice, giving the instructions and solving some organisational issues.

What led the teacher to the use was to clarify the meaning and the difference between selected English and Czech words and to save time.

class	Ss level	level division	lesson aim	L1 words	L1 sentence	L1 text
8th	A2+	no	GPr, VPr	**1 EC, 3 VPr**	**1 EC**	0
8th	A2+	no	GPr	**1 VP, 1 EC**	**1 I, 2 EC**	0
8th	A2+	no	GPr	**3 VP, 1 EC**	**1 O**	0

Table 28. Use of Czech during the lessons of T10.

5.1.11. Teacher 11 (FZŠ Mezi Školami)

Attitude towards the use of Czech

Teacher 11 is Slovak and teaches at FZŠ Mezi Školami. She has been teaching English at lower-secondary school for 5 years. She is not a supporter of avoiding Czech in English lessons. On the contrary, she uses it quite frequently, e.g. for lesson openings, correcting errors, presenting grammar and vocabulary, practising grammar, developing the learners' skills or solving issues unrelated to subject matter. She believes that the occurrence of Czech in English lessons is natural, saves time and reduces the level of pupils' anxiety.

lesson openings: English + Czech	grammar presentation: English + Czech
stating the lesson aims: English	grammar practice: English + Czech
giving instructions: English	vocabulary presentation: English + Czech
checking the instructions: English	vocabulary practice: English
giving feedback: English	developing skills: English + Czech
error correction: English + Czech	discipline, organisation: English + Czech
testing: English	

Table 29. Teacher's 11 attitude to the use of Czech.

Observations

The amount of the use of Czech was influenced by the level of the learners and the aim of the lesson. The lesson in the seventh grade was an English conversation, whose aims were to present and practise new vocabulary related to the new topic and to develop the learners' speaking skills. Since the level of the pupils was low, the teacher used Czech

frequently, so that everyone understood her, and the aims could be met. The teacher used Czech words when presenting new vocabulary items and for giving instructions. Czech sentences were used for lesson opening, instruction-giving, error correction, for checking the learners' comprehension during a speaking activity and for organisation. Longer passages of speech were used for giving instructions and for closing the lesson.

As to the lessons in the ninth grade, the frequency of the use of Czech was influenced particularly by the aim of the lesson. In the first group, one of the aims was to present and practise new vocabulary. Accordingly, the teacher provided the learners with the Czech translation of the words. Apart from that, Czech sentences were used for giving instructions and solving misbehaviour, longer passages of speech for lesson opening and ending.

In the second group of the ninth graders, Czech language did not occur so often, since the learners were more advanced. In addition, the aim was to practise grammar. Czech was thus used only for giving instructions.

class	Ss level	level division	lesson aim	L1 words	L1 sentence	L1 text
7th	A1+	yes - weaker	VP, VPr, Sp	**1 I, 20 VP**	**1 LO, 5 I, 2 EC, 2 Sp, 1 O**	**1 I, 1 LC**
9th	A2+	no	GPr, VP, VPr	**9 VP**	**3 I, 1 D**	**1 LO, 1 LC**
9th	B1	no	GPr	0	**3 I**	**1 I**

Table 30. Use of Czech during the lessons of T11.

5.1.12. Teacher 12 (ZŠ Mládí)

Attitude towards the use of Czech

Teacher 12 is an experienced Czech teacher who has been teaching English at lower-secondary school for 35 years. She is not a proponent of "English-only" lessons since she believes that an occasional use of Czech can be beneficial. Nevertheless, she tries to speak English most of the time, more specifically, she uses it for lesson openings, stating the aim(s) of the lesson, providing feedback, testing, practising grammar and vocabulary and in the phases of the lesson aimed at developing the learners' speaking skills. What she sometimes uses Czech for is to give instructions to weaker pupils, to present new grammar and vocabulary or to solve misbehaviour. In addition, she believes

that it is also suitable for correcting errors and mistakes so that she can show the pupils differences between English and Czech in case the mistake relates to the so-called "Czenglish".

lesson openings: English	grammar presentation: English, Czech if necessary
stating the lesson aims: English	grammar practice: English
giving instructions: English, Czech if necessary	vocabulary presentation: English, Czech occasionally to show the difference between the languages
checking the instructions: English	vocabulary practice: English
giving feedback: English	developing skills: English
error correction: English, Czech if necessary	discipline, organisation: English, Czech if necessary
testing: English	

Table 31. Teacher's 12 attitude to the use of Czech.

Observations

The amount of the use of Czech was influenced by the level of the learners. In the sixth grade, Czech was most used. Czech words and sentences were used for clarifying grammatical terminology and vocabulary items, or for giving instructions. Longer passages of speech were used when presenting and practising new grammar and for lesson ending. The reasons for the use were to compare English and Czech grammar, to save time and to make sure that everyone understands.

In the seventh and ninth grades, Czech was used rarely. More precisely, with the seventh graders, Czech sentences were used for comparing English and Czech grammar and pronunciation. Longer passages of speech were used only for error correction and when discussing learning strategies. With the ninth graders, the teacher spoke mainly English and used longer passages of speech only for giving instructions or presenting new grammar. The second lesson in the ninth grade was an English conversation taught in tandem. There was thus no need to use Czech, except for one Czech translation of an English word.

class	Ss level	level division	lesson aim	L1 words	L1 sentence	L1 text

6th	A1+	no	GP, GPr	**1 GT**	**1 I, 1 VP**	**2 GP, 1 GPr, 1 LE**
7th	A2	no	GP, GPr	0	**1 GPr, 1 Pr**	**1 LS, 1 EC**
9th	A2-B1	no	GPr	0	0	**1 I, 1 GP**
9th	B1	no	skills (Sp)	**1 VP**	0	0

Table 32. Use of Czech during the lessons of T12.

5. 2. Comparison of teachers with regard to the degree of using Czech in their classes

The following passage compares the observed teachers with respect to the frequency of the use of Czech in the observed lessons. Firstly, the average amount of the use of Czech is examined. Secondly, Czech words, sentences and longer passages of speech[5] employed by the teachers are analysed. Nevertheless, what this analysis does not take into consideration is the purpose of the use of Czech.

As it can be seen in *Figure 4.*, the average amount of Czech utterances used by the teachers during an English lesson ranged from 0 to 17 Czech utterances. More specifically, the teachers with the highest average amount of Czech employed in their lessons are the teachers 11, 5 and 4, who used Czech almost 17, 14, 13 times on average, respectively. On the contrary, the teacher with the lowest frequency of Czech is T6 as she did not utter any Czech word. Apart from that, T1, T9 and T12, T10 did not employ Czech very often either, since they used it once, twice, four and five times, respectively. The last third of the teachers (T2, T4, T7, T8) used Czech from 7 to 9 times.

The teachers' nationality, age and years of teaching practice did not seem to be decisive factors since the frequency of the use of Czech in their lessons was heterogeneous irrespective of these aspects.

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[5] The term "longer passages of speech" refers to more than three sentences that were uttered in succession.
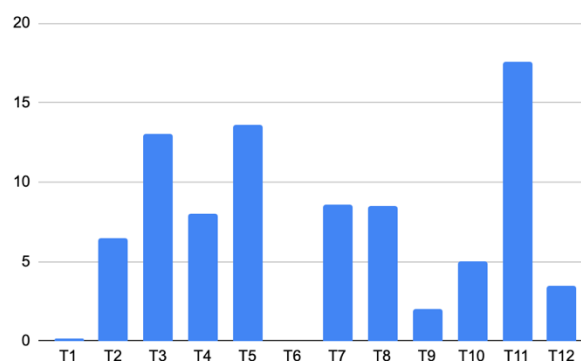
Figure 4. Average amount of Czech used by Ts.

When examining *Figure 5.*, it is evident that in what the teachers with a high frequency of Czech (T3, T5, T11) differ is the proportion of the use of Czech words, sentences and longer passages of speech. Teacher 11, who used Czech most, used 10 Czech words, 6 sentences and 2 longer passages of speech on average. Similarly, teacher 5 used 7 Czech words, 5 sentences and 2 longer passages of speech on average. On the contrary, teacher 3 used mainly Czech sentences (12 times), when compared to Czech words or longer passages of speech.

It is also worth mentioning that a vast majority of the teachers (T1, T2, T4, T8, T9, T10) did not utter more than three Czech sentences in succession, i.e. "longer passages of speech". However, teacher 12, whose overall frequency of Czech was low, uttered more than three Czech sentences in succession more frequently than individual Czech words or sentences.

To conclude, those teachers who used Czech more frequently, tended to employ Czech words as well as Czech sentences and longer passages of speech. On the contrary, those teachers whose frequency of the use of Czech was low, tended to use either Czech words or up to three Czech sentences in succession.
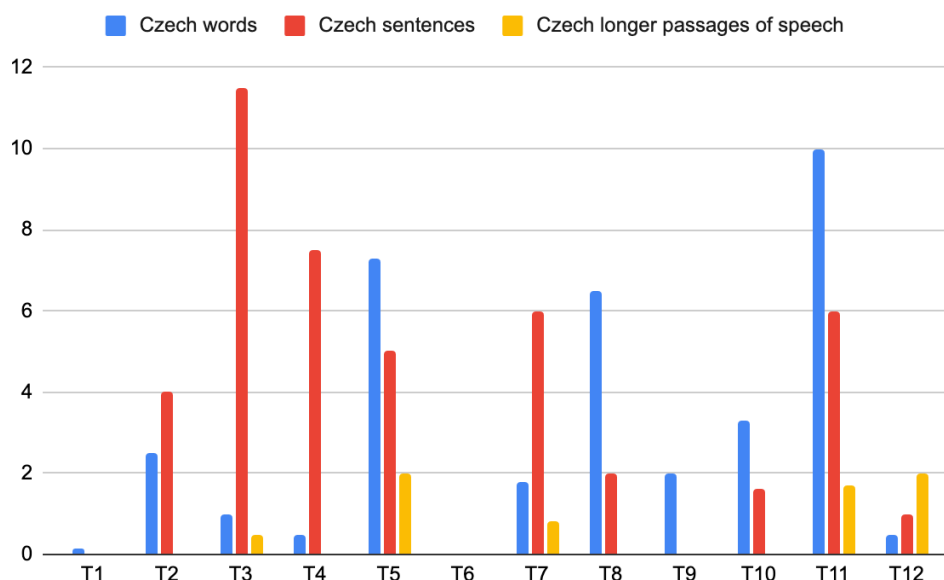
Figure 5. Average amount of Czech words, sentences or longer passages of speech used by Ts.

5. 3. Frequency of the use of Czech across lower-secondary grades

The following section analyses the frequency of the use of Czech across lower-secondary grades. First, a general overview of all lower-secondary grades is presented. Then, each grade is scrutinised in great detail. What is devoted special care is the purpose for which Czech was used.

As it is shown in *Figure 6.*, the grade in which Czech occurred most was the seventh grade. To be more exact, it was used 14 times on average, as opposed to the other grades, namely the sixth, eighth and ninth grades, in which it was employed seven times, five times and four times, respectively.

This result can be attributed to numerous factors. Firstly, some of the groups in the seventh grade were weaker. Furthermore, in some groups there were SEND pupils who had to have a teaching assistant to help them. Secondly, some of the observed lessons in this grade were taught by teachers who were proponents of the use of Czech in English classes. Lastly, some of the activities used by the teachers in the observed lessons were based on translating words from English to Czech (or vice versa), which increased the overall amount of the use of Czech.
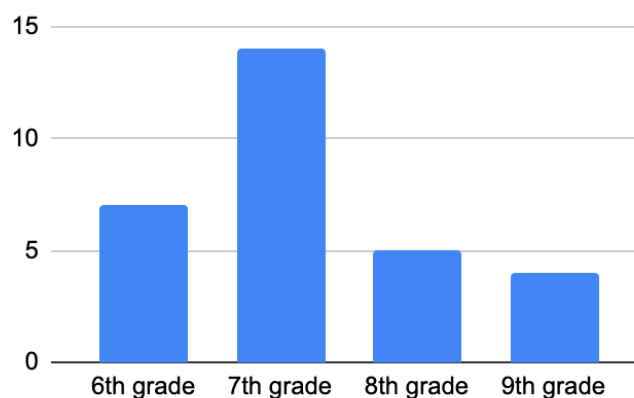
Figure 6. Use of Czech across lower-secondary grades.

With regard to the proportion of the frequency of Czech words, sentences and longer passages of speech across the lower-secondary grades, it was shown (see *Figure 7.*) that what was most used was Czech sentences, which were used 120 times, when compared to Czech words, which were employed 97 times, or more than three sentences uttered in succession, which occurred only 25 times on average.
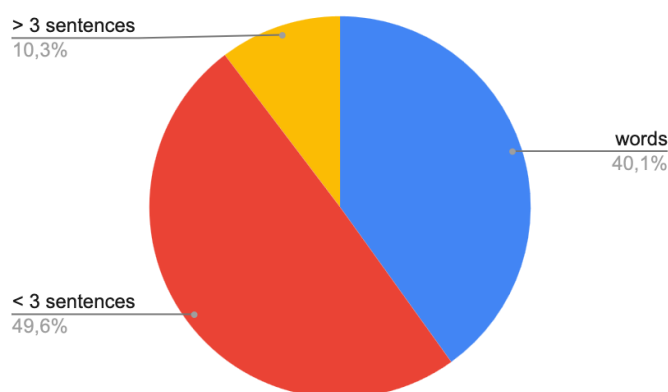

Figure 7. Use of Czech words, sentences and longer passages of speech across the lower-secondary school.

5. 4. Occurrence of Czech with respect to the purpose of its use

As it is illustrated in *Figure 8.*, the purpose of the use of Czech which was repeated most frequently across all the lower-secondary grades was to give instructions. More specifically, for this purpose, Czech was used 72 times: in 59 Czech sentences, 7 words and 6 longer passages of speech. Another purpose of its use was to present vocabulary, i.e. when the teacher presented or clarified the meaning of a new English word by means of translating it into Czech. In such cases, Czech was used 55 times: 48 Czech words, 6 sentences and 1 longer passage of speech. Czech words were also employed to practise English vocabulary (19 times), to provide the learners with Czech grammatical

terminology (10 times), to practise grammar (5 times), to correct errors (4 times), or to solve organisational or disciplinary issues.

Czech sentences were also employed for error correction (16 times), for grammar presentation and practice (7 and 8 times), or for vocabulary presentation (6 times). Apart from that, it was used four times for organisation, maintaining discipline, lesson opening, classroom management or during speaking activities. Some teachers also employed it when practising pronunciation or when providing feedback at the end of the lesson. More than three Czech sentences uttered in succession were used for grammar presentation (5 times), opening and closing the lesson (2 and 3 times) or for error correction (2 times), grammar practice (once), organisation (2 times), maintaining discipline (2 times) or for talking about learning strategies (once).
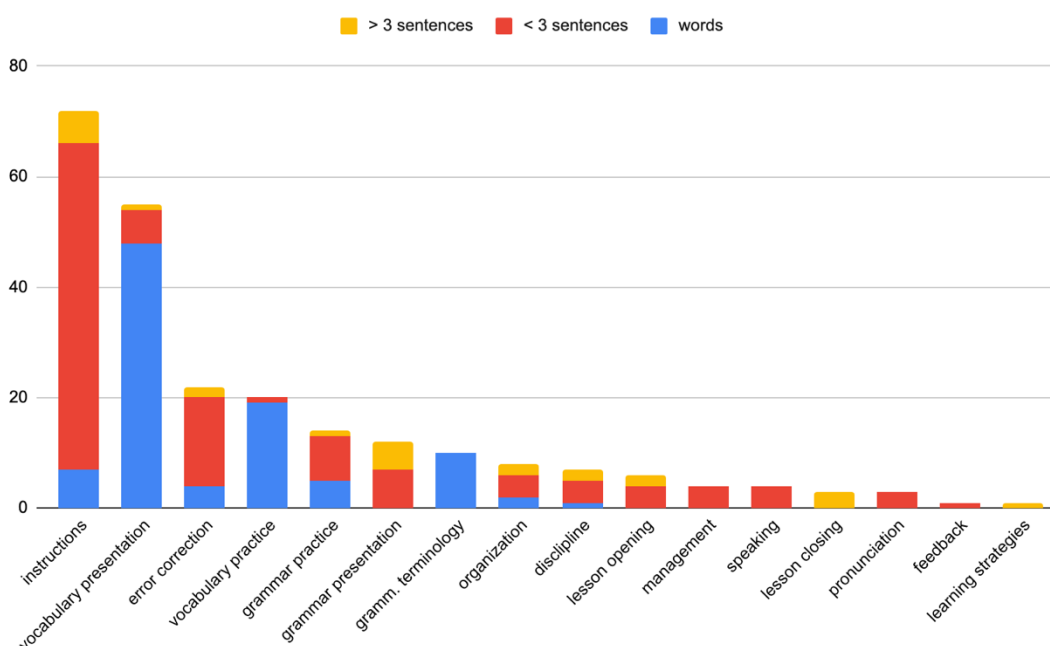

Figure 8. Purposes of the use of Czech (irrespective of the grade).

5. 5. Use of Czech in the sixth grade

As it has been already mentioned in 5.3., the average amount of the use of Czech in the sixth grade was 7 Czech items during an English lesson. *Figure 9.* demonstrates that half of the Czech expressions were sentences, one third Czech words and 18% longer passages of text.
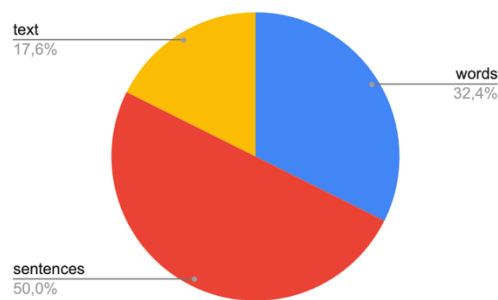
Figure 9. Proportion of the use of Czech words, sentences and text in the sixth grade.

The main purposes of the use of Czech were to present vocabulary and to give instructions. As to the former, Czech occurred 14 times: 7 words, 6 sentences and 1 longer passage of speech. As to the latter, Czech was employed 11 times: 8 sentences, 2 words and 1 longer passage of speech. In addition, Czech words were also used when providing grammatical terminology, Czech sentences when presenting grammar, managing the classroom or providing feedback; and longer passages of Czech speech when presenting and practising grammar or at the end of the lesson.
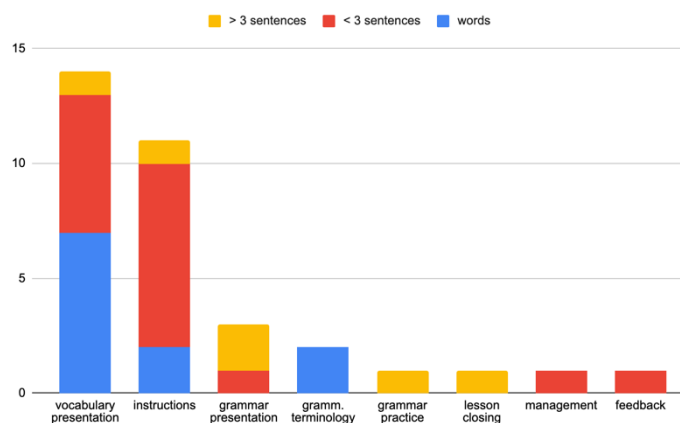

Figure 10. Purposes of the use of Czech (6th grade).

5. 6. Use of Czech in the seventh grade

The observed lessons in the seventh grade are characteristic of the highest frequency of the use of Czech as it was used 14 times on average. Nevertheless, the percentage of the use of Czech words, sentences and longer passages of speech resembles the percentage of the sixth grade since half of the Czech expressions are sentences as well. Nevertheless, what differs is the percentage of the use of Czech words (40%) and of longer passages of speech (9%). Thus, more Czech words were used in the seventh grade than in the sixth grade, as opposed to longer passages of speech (text), which were used more frequently in the sixth grade.
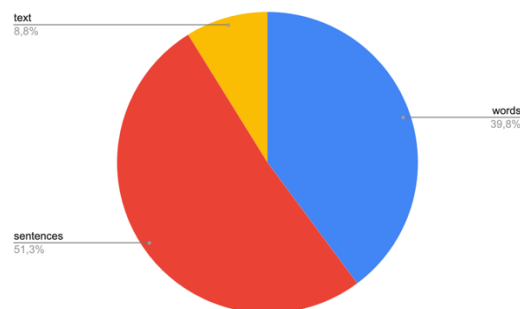
Figure 11. Proportion of the use of Czech words, sentences and text in the seventh grade.

As depicted in *Figure 12.*, Czech was used mostly for instruction-giving (32 sentences, 3 longer passages of speech and 2 words), for vocabulary presentation and practice (24 words and 16 words + 1 sentence) as well as for error correction (10 sentences, 2 longer passages of speech, 1 word). Additionally, Czech sentences were employed to practise pronunciation, open and manage the lesson, solve misbehaviour, practise grammar, and during speaking practice activities. More than three sentences were utilised when presenting new grammar, teaching learning strategies and at the end of the lesson.
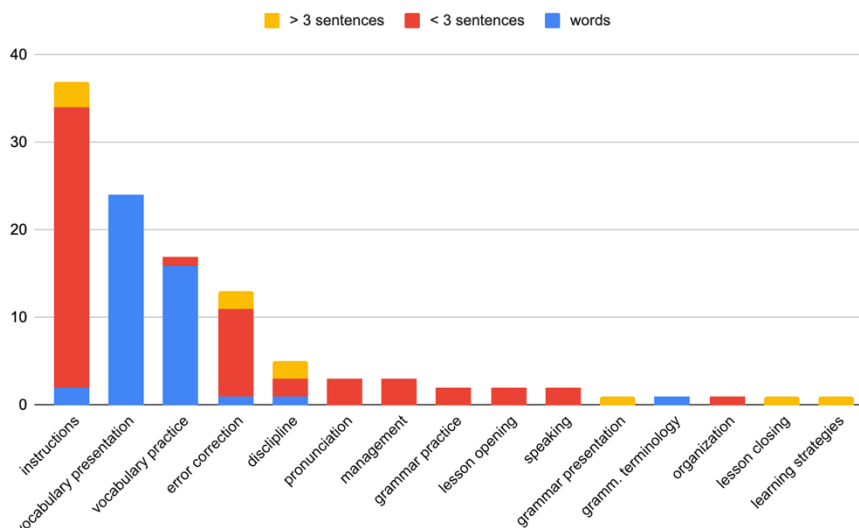

Figure 12. Purposes of the use of Czech (7th grade).

5. 7. Use of Czech in the eighth grade

The frequency of the use of Czech in the eighth grade was low since it occurred five times on average. The most common occurrence of Czech was in the form of sentences (60%) or words (36%). On the contrary, what was used rarely was more than three Czech sentences in succession (5%).
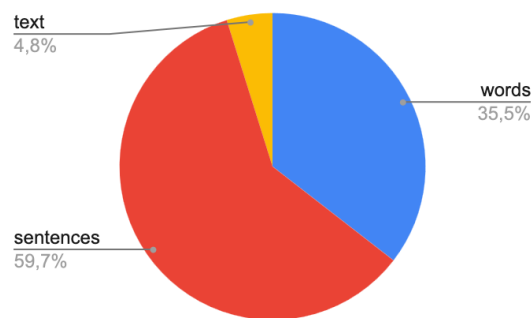
Figure 13. Proportion of the use of Czech words, sentences and text in the eighth grade.

The predominant use of Czech was for giving instructions (13 sentences, 3 words), for practising grammar (5 words and sentences) or for error correction (6 sentences and 3 words). Czech words were also sometimes used for presenting and practising vocabulary, for grammatical terminology or organisation; while Czech sentences were occasionally employed to present grammar, to open the lesson, to solve disciplinary or organisational issues or during speaking activities. More than three sentences were uttered a few times during grammar presentation or organisation.
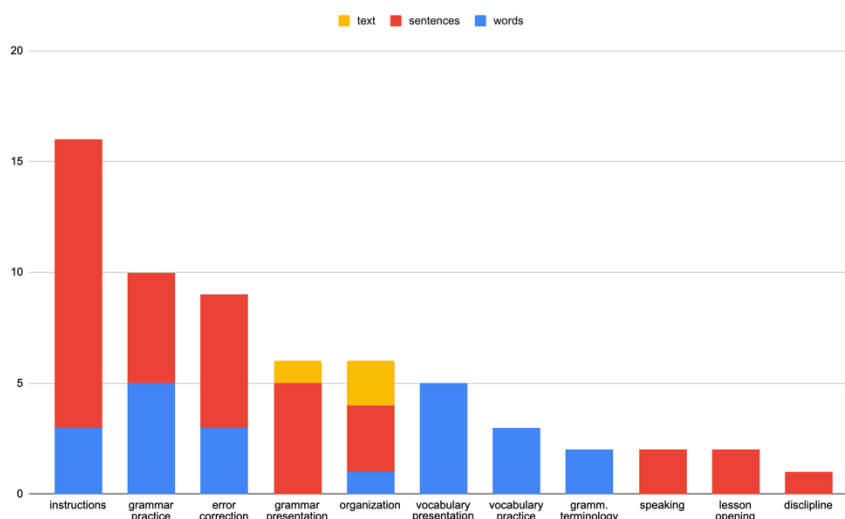

Figure 14. Purposes of the use of Czech (8th grade).

5. 8. Use of Czech in the ninth grade

The frequency of the use of Czech was the lowest in the ninth grade. It was used 4 times on average. 55% of Czech occurred in the form of words, 27% in the form of sentences and 18% in the form of more than three sentences uttered in succession.
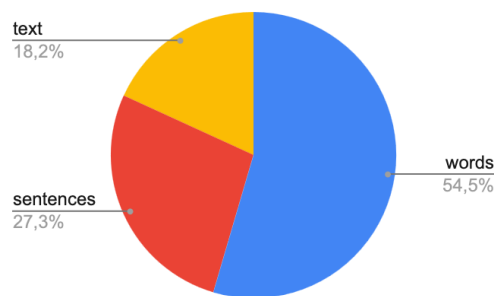
Figure 15. Proportion of the use of Czech words, sentences and text in the ninth grade.

The primary utilisation of Czech was for presenting new vocabulary (12 words), for giving instructions (6 sentences, 2 longer passages of speech) and for providing grammatical terminology (5 words). Another instance of its usage occurred at the beginning of the lesson (2 longer passages of speech) or when presenting new grammar (1 sentence and 1 longer passage of speech). Apart from that, it was employed once for grammar practice (sentence), organisation (word), solving misbehaviour (sentence) and lesson ending (longer passage of speech).
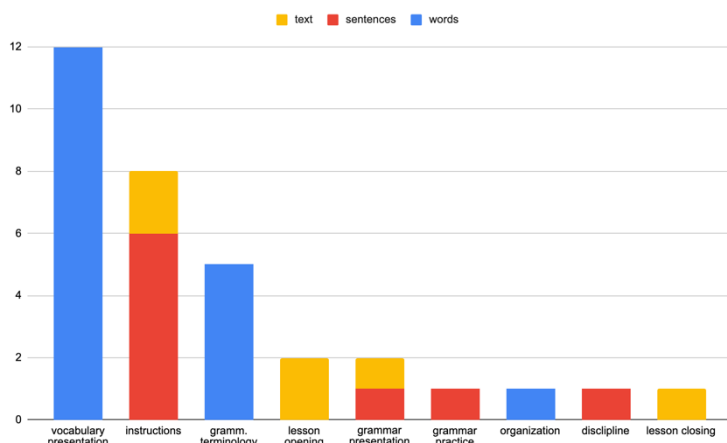

Figure 16. Purposes of the use of Czech (9th grade).

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6. Discussion

The aim of the practical part was to examine how much and for what purpose lower-secondary teachers of English speak Czech in their lessons. As to the frequency of the use of Czech, when all the data are taken into consideration, it is obvious that it varies. In general, it was revealed that the average amount of Czech utterances used by the teachers during one English lesson ranged from 0 to 17. 25% of the observed teachers employed Czech from 13 to 17 times, 33% from 7 to 9 times, 25% from two to five times and 17% either not at all or only once.

When analysing the length of Czech utterances the teachers used, it was shown that 50% of the teachers employed either Czech words or up to three Czech sentences, i.e. they avoided longer passages of speech. Interestingly, these teachers were those ones whose overall frequency of the use of Czech was low. On the contrary, two thirds of the teachers who spoke Czech more frequently used Czech words, sentences as well as longer passages of speech. Consequently, there is a correlation between the frequency of the use of Czech and the length of Czech utterances.

It was also revealed that the frequency of the use of Czech was influenced by numerous factors. Firstly, the occurrence of Czech varied with respect to the grade where the lesson took place. In the sixth and seventh grades it occurred more frequently than in the eighth and ninth. Naturally, this factor is interrelated with the level of the learners. In stronger groups, there was no need to use Czech so often, as opposed to the weaker ones.

Another factor is the teaching technique that the teacher opted for. To be more exact, some of the teaching techniques, such as translation, increase the overall frequency of Czech. This was observable in the sixth and seventh grades, where the teachers opted for translation in order to clarify the meaning of English words and to practise vocabulary.

The last aspect to be mentioned is the teachers' principles for teaching English, particularly their attitude towards the use of Czech. The teachers whose lessons were observed held differing opinions, which were reflected in the lessons. 42% of the teachers were neither advocates nor opponents of the use of Czech. They believe that Czech might be beneficial, yet it must not be overused. 33% teachers support the idea of the use of L1. The last category of teachers consists of ardent opponents of the use of the mother tongue,

who tend to avoid Czech completely irrespective of the grade and the pupils' level. Thus, in their lessons, Czech was used sparingly, or not at all.

With regard to the second research question, i.e. the purpose of the use of Czech, the data indicated that the highest usage of Czech occurred during instruction-giving, vocabulary presentation, error correction, and grammar and vocabulary practice. To a lesser degree, it was also utilised for presenting grammar, clarifying grammatical terminology, organisation, solving disciplinary issues, opening and ending the lesson, classroom management, practising speaking and pronunciation, providing feedback, or teaching learning strategies.

The length of Czech utterances used by the teachers varied depending on the purpose of its use. When giving the instructions or correcting the pupils' errors, the teachers usually uttered Czech sentences. This finding is logical since in both cases the teacher conveys the message in sentences, not in isolated words. On the contrary, during vocabulary presentation and practice, they usually used only Czech words. This discovery is to be expected since one-word translation is very often used when explaining the meaning of new vocabulary as well as for its practice.

What is also noteworthy is that the highest extent of Czech longer passages of speech (more than three sentences in succession) was most observable in the ninth grade, where it was used especially for instruction-giving, grammar presentation, lesson opening and ending. This might be ascribed to numerous aspects. Firstly, in the phase of grammar presentation, the teachers wanted to contrast the grammar systems of English and Czech. Secondly, the majority of the classes were taught by those teachers who were not strong opponents of Czech. Consequently, they found it natural to use longer passages of Czech speech at the beginning and at the end of the lesson, or for instruction-giving.

With respect to the reasons why the teachers decided to use Czech in their lessons, there are various reasons that the teachers stated. Firstly, and most importantly, most of the teachers decided to use Czech when they wanted to save time and to ensure that all pupils comprehend. This occurred especially during instruction-giving, vocabulary presentation, error correction, solving misbehaviour, lesson opening or lesson ending. Another reason for its use was to demonstrate the differences between English and Czech. This related particularly to presenting and practising grammar, occasionally, also to

vocabulary presentation, error correction and pronunciation practice. The teachers believe that, in these cases, the use of Czech is worthwhile since it makes the pupils aware of the contrasts. Furthermore, in their view, drawing the pupils' attention to the dissimilarities between the languages might prevent L1 interference.

CONCLUSION

This thesis aimed to examine the role of the mother tongue in English lessons. What the theoretical part showed was that second language learning is a complex process affected by the interplay of numerous factors. The influence of the knowledge of the mother tongue has been a widely discussed issue. Despite differing opinions in this field, what is generally agreed on is that L1 does affect L2 learning and that it might be a possible source of errors. Czech interference can be observed at different linguistic levels. This thesis discussed the most prominent errors at phonetic, grammatical and lexical levels.

As far as the use of the mother tongue in English lessons is concerned, this work illustrates that throughout the history of ELT its use has been perceived in different ways. Some language teaching approaches and methods, such as the Grammar Translation Method, the Silent Way, Suggestopedia or Community Language Learning, advocate the use of L1 due to various reasons. On the other hand, some other approaches and methods, e.g. the Direct Method or the Audio-Lingual Method, oppose its use and propose its complete avoidance. Nevertheless, nowadays, teachers do not tend to follow one single teaching approach or method. On the contrary, they are usually free to choose what best conforms to their personal principles for teaching English.

Contemporary ELT methodologists are also aware of the advantages of the use of L1. They propose its use for various purposes, for example to clarify the meaning of vocabulary, to explain new grammar, or to give instructions. Their arguments for its use are that it is less time-consuming for the teacher and that it ensures that each learner comprehends. Moreover, comparing L1 to L2 can prevent L1 interference, e.g. during grammar or vocabulary presentation.

The practical part of this thesis analysed the situation at some Czech state lower-secondary schools in Prague. Conducting this research by means of visiting the schools and observing the teachers was a rewarding and enriching experience since each teacher was unique, which was reflected in his/her teaching style. Not only did they differ in their age, origin, years of teaching practice, but, most importantly, they held differing opinions on the use of L1 in English lessons. Actually, their principles for teaching English were one of the decisive factors affecting the frequency of L1 in their lessons.

Most of the teachers were advocates of bilingual lessons, i.e. lessons in which L1 can occur. The reason why they believe it is that they are aware of the benefits that L1 can provide. Firstly, in their view, switching to L1 can save a considerable amount of time and ensure that each learner comprehends. Secondly, demonstrating the contrast between English and Czech can be beneficial as it raises the learners' awareness of the uniqueness of each language. Additionally, making a comparison between the languages can prevent L1 interference.

Not only did the teachers state it in the questionnaires, but their attitude was observable in their lessons too. In addition, since Czech was used most frequently for instruction-giving, vocabulary presentation, error correction and grammar presentation, it can be concluded that some of the observed lessons displayed elements of the Grammar Translation Method. Nevertheless, what cannot be disregarded is that a few of the teachers were ardent supporters of monolingual, i.e. English-only lessons. It can be even stated that the lessons of these teachers exhibited characteristics of the Direct Method, as they avoided the mother tongue and conveyed the meaning by means of demonstration, miming or action.

However, it was shown that there were also other factors that influenced to what extent the teachers used L1. The first of them was the level of the learners. In general, the more advanced the learners were, the less the teachers opted for the use of their mother tongue. Consequently, the highest frequency of the use of L1 was detectable in the sixth and seventh grades, as opposed to the eighth and ninth grades, where the frequency was considerably lower. The second factor that affected the results was the nature of the activities the teachers decided to use with respect to the lesson aim. Typically, translation-based activities, for example for vocabulary or grammar teaching, would not be feasible without the use of L1.

To conclude, it is evident that the issue of the use of L1 in L2 classes has been controversial until nowadays. Most of the observed teachers acknowledge the benefits that L1 can bring and employ L1 with respect to the level of their students as well as to the subject matter being taught. Nevertheless, each teacher is shaped by his/her teaching philosophy, which influences the extent to which he/she speaks Czech in the lesson.

Although the theme of this diploma thesis has been widely examined, the author of this work still proposes some suggestions for further study. Firstly, since this thesis was teacher-oriented, it could be enriching to examine this issue from students' perspective, i.e. to analyse the extent to which Czech learners of English speak Czech in English lessons as well as how teachers react to it. Secondly, it could be worthwhile to focus on Czech pupils' or students' attitude towards the use of Czech in English lessons. This could be examined from two perspectives - their attitude towards their own use of Czech and towards the teacher's use of Czech in English lessons. Thirdly, it could be also investigated how the use of Czech in English lessons impacts the overall results of learners. Last but not least, observing the use of Czech at eight-year grammar schools or secondary schools might also provide interesting insights.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Observation sheet (template)

OBSERVATION SHEET – Use of Czech in English classes

Date: School: Class: Teacher: Learners' age: Learners' level:

Timing	Activity/ Phase of the lesson	Interaction pattern	Use of Czech (W, S, T)*	Reason of the use of Czech – my explanation	Teacher's explanation	ESL method /approach

*W stands for "words"; S stands for "sentence(s)" – up to three sentences, T stands for "text" – > more than three sentences

Appendix 2: Examples of completed observation sheets (6th and 7th grades)

Sheet 1 (handwritten annotation top right): 6th graders – Project Explore 1

OBSERVATION SHEET – Use of Czech in English classes
Date: 3/10 School: Zš Pod Žvahovem Class: 6.B Teacher: [redacted] Learners' age: 11-12 Learners' level: A2 (Assistant)
8⁰⁰ – 8⁴⁵ (9x) SENDs Ss

Timing	Activity/ Phase of the lesson	Interaction pattern	Use of Czech (W, S, T)*	Reason of the use of Czech – my explanation	Teacher's explanation	ESL method /approach
8⁰⁰–8⁰¹	Lesson opening	T–Ss	—	—	—	
8⁰²–8¹⁰	Test –instructions + writing	S	—	—	—	
8¹¹–8¹²	Instructions - vocabulary	T–Ss	S – 'check in your mind to understand.' Ss did not understand before		✓	
8¹³–8²⁰	Vocabulary practice	T–Ss	W – 'človík'	to make sure that everyone understands	✓	no electricity that lesson
			W – sborovna/kabinet	to make sure that everyone understands	✓	
8²¹–8³⁵	Game – run, read, explain to your team	Ss–Ss (6w)	S – 'Subjekt je vždni předmět'	to clarify the meaning	✓	
8³⁵	Story with the words	Ss–Ss	W – krátučký příběh	to clarify the instructions	✓	
		instructions	S – něco v minulosti se stalo	to clarify the instructions	✓	
			S – budete potřebovat i jiná slova	to clarify the instructions	✓	
			S – nezapomeňte, že je do v minulosti	to clarify the instruction	✓	
	Feedback		S – Nepadárno se Vám spolupracovat	to make them understand it so that they can improve their cooperation	✓	

*W stands for "words"; S stands for "sentence(s)" – up to three sentences, T stands for "text" – > more than three sentences

Cz used 9x: W = 3x ⟨ 1x instructions, 2x vocabulary meaning ⟩   S = 7x ⟨ 1x vocabulary meaning, 4x instruction ⟩   1 x feedback

Sheet 2 (handwritten annotation top right): weaker group   Project 2

OBSERVATION SHEET – Use of Czech in English classes
Date: 24/10 School: Zš Londýnská Class: 7ᵗʰ grade Teacher: [redacted] Learners' age: 12-13 Learners' level: A2+
18 x

Timing	Activity/ Phase of the lesson	Interaction pattern	Use of Czech (W, S, T)*	Reason of the use of Czech – my explanation	Teacher's explanation	ESL method /approach
0–1	Introduction	T–S	—	—		
2 –	Vocab revision –ping pong		S – instructions		✓	
			S – instructions			
			W – translation	to test their knowledge	✓	features of GTM
			W – translation	–//–		
			W – translation	–//–		
			S – correction	to make it clear	✓	
			T – instructions + discipline			
			T – discipline issues	to make them quiet	✓	
			W – translation	to test their knowledge		
			W – translation	to test their knowledge		
			W – translation	to test their knowledge		
	Miming game to revise vocabulary		S – correct errors	to make it clear	✓	
			T – discipline issues	to make them stop speaking		
			S – correct errors	to make it clear		
			S – discipline issues			
	Ss practise in their workbooks	I	S – error correction	to make it clear quietly	while monitoring to make it clear	
			S – instructions	to make it clear		
			T – gr. explanation/ correction	to make it clear		

*W stands for "words"; S stands for "sentence(s)" – up to three sentences, T stands for "text" – > more than three sentences

Lesson closure
  ↳ revise the adverbs by translating
W – tr W – tr W – tr
W – tr W – tr
W – tr W – tr

Appendix 3: Examples of completed observation sheets (8th and 9th grades)

PRACTICE PREP.

OBSERVATION SHEET – Use of Czech in English classes

Date: 14/11 School: FZŠ Mezi Školami Class: 8.A Teacher: ▮ Learners' age: 13-14 Learners' level:
8⁵⁵-9⁴⁰

Timing	Activity/ Phase of the lesson	Interaction pattern	Use of Czech (W, S, T)*	Reason of the use of Czech – my explanation	Teacher's explanation	ESL method /approach
8⁵⁵- 8⁵⁹	Lesson opening	T-Ss				
9⁰⁰- 9⁰²	Running dictation checking	T-Ss				
9⁰³- 9²⁰	Practice prepositions	Ss-Ss	W,W – translation	to know the Czech equivalent	✓	GTM
		T-Ss	W of English prepositions			
		T-S	W – error correction	checking to know the Czech word	✓	GTM
9²¹- 9⁴⁰	Name 3 things	S-S (PW)	S-organization	to save time	✓	GTM

*W stands for "words"; S stands for "sentence(s)" – up to three sentences, T stands for "text" –> more than three sentences

T let the Ss translate (but does not translate herself)

Project 5

OBSERVATION SHEET – Use of Czech in English classes

Date: 31/10 School: ZŠ Vodičkova Class: 9.B Teacher ▮ Learners' age: 14-15 Learners' level: B1+
8⁰⁰-8⁴⁵
7 8

Timing	Activity/ Phase of the lesson	Interaction pattern	Use of Czech (W, S, T)*	Reason of the use of Czech – my explanation	Teacher's explanation	ESL method /approach
8⁰⁰-8⁰²	Greeting	T-Ss	T	habit	✓	GTM
8⁰³-8¹⁰	HW checking -WB	T-Ss	—	—	—	
8¹¹-8¹⁷	WB	T-Ss	—	—	—	
8¹⁸-8²⁶	SB – listening	T-Ss	—	—	—	
8²⁷-8³²	SB-future tenses	T-Ss	S-gram. expl.	to make it clear	✓	GTM
8³³-8³⁶	SB-listening	T-S				
8³⁷-8⁴¹	Speaking -talking about ambition	S-S	—	—	—	
8⁴²-8⁴⁵	T checks –	T-S, T-Ss	—	—	—	

*W stands for "words"; S stands for "sentence(s)" – up to three sentences, T stands for "text" –> more than three sentences

Appendix 4: Questionnaire for English teachers

The original questionnaire was devised in Google Forms and sent to the observed teachers. The questions were rewritten in the chart below.

Questionnaire for English teachers: Use of Czech in English classes

General questions:

- Are you a woman or a man?

- How old are you?

- What is your nationality?

- How long have you been teaching English?

- What is your specialisation?

- Where do you teach?

In the following section you will find 15 statements. I would like you to briefly comment on each of them.

1) I believe that only English should be spoken in English lessons.

2) I believe that the use of Czech in English lessons hinders learning.

3) I use English for lesson openings.

4) I state the lesson aims in English.

5) I give the instructions in English.

6) I check the learners' understanding of the instructions in English.

7) I provide feedback in English.

8) I correct errors or mistakes in English.

9) I use English for testing (either oral or written).

10) I present new grammar only in English.

11) I use only English for grammar practice.

12) I present new vocabulary only in English.

13) I use only English for vocabulary practice.

14) I use only English in activities developing the learners' skills (reading, writing, listening, speaking)

15) I use only English for extra commentary unrelated to the subject matter (behavioural problems, organisation…)

16) Other comments: