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DIPLOMA THESIS

Raising Phonetic Awareness at Primary Level

Zvyšování fonetického povědomí žáků ZŠ

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Declaration

I hereby declare that the present diploma thesis, titled *Raising Phonetic Awareness at Primary Level*, is a result of my own work and that I listed all the sources used on the works cited page. I further declare that the thesis has not been used to obtain any other degree.

Prague, July 2017

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Abstract

The theoretical part of the thesis scrutinizes the principles of awareness raising and noticing in language teaching. Furthermore, it focuses on their implementation in pronunciation teaching and examines the possible limitations to these approaches imposed by learners' age and level of cognitive development. The practical part presents a research which consists of designing a battery of pronunciation activities promoting noticing and awareness raising, followed by their pilotage in five different groups of elementary school pupils. The aim of the research is to determine whether the piloted activities result in young learners noticing the target pronunciation features. The results of the research suggest positive impact of the noticing and awareness raising activities even among the pupils at lower stage of cognitive development.

Key words: young learners, teaching pronunciation, consciousness raising, noticing, cognitive development, learners involvement

Abstrakt

Teoretická část diplomové práce se zaměřuje na dva přístupy ve výuce a sice všímání si a zvyšování povědomí žáků. Dále se pak soustřeďuje na jejich implementaci ve výuce výslovnosti a zkoumá, zda-li věk spolu se stadiem kognitivního vývoje žáka mohou představovat překážku v použití těchto postupů. Praktická část práce prezentuje výzkum, který je tvořen sestavením plánu aktivit podporujících všímání si a zvyšování povědomí a jeho následnou pilotáží v pěti různých skupinách žáků základní školy. Cílem výzkumu je určit, zda navržené aktivity žáky podporují ke všímání si výslovnostních jevů. Výsledky výzkumu naznačují pozitivní dopad aktivit zaměřených na všímání si a zvyšování povědomí i u žáků nacházejících se v nižším stadiu kognitivního vývoje.

Klíčová slova: žáci ZŠ, učení výslovnosti, zvyšování povědomí, všímání se, kognitivní vývoj, aktivní zapojení žáků

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1 INTRODUCTION

During my short teaching carrier I have had the opportunity to experience teaching students of all age groups. I encountered students with different approaches to pronunciation learning, ranging from complete rejection to being extremely positive, including indifferent students in between. I observed the positivity mainly among kindergarten children, who could easily imitate most of the sounds they were exposed to, as if they had not known any boundaries. Moreover, the pre-school learners genuinely enjoyed overacting and exaggerating the pronunciation. Similar excitement was expressed by elementary school children, even though some of them were apparently becoming shier with increasing age. High school students seemed to associate certain prestige with native-like pronunciation. The more-native like pronunciation, the more admired the students were among others. Most of the adult learners, on the other hand, have given up on learning pronunciation. Either because they did not see any purpose in it or because they were convinced that “at their age, there is nothing much that can be done about it”.

I believe that the power to influence the attitude of learners towards learning lies in the teacher’s hands. We should aim to change it to the most desirable one, which in turn will result in learners’ increased motivation and interest. I also believe that age does not represent an obstacle to learning pronunciation, meaning that both young and adult learners can benefit from pronunciation instruction, provided that it is age- and level-appropriate.

Some of these assumptions were put to test in my bachelor thesis, which focused on teaching pronunciation to young learners. The findings have suggested that inductive approach to pronunciation teaching hand in hand with playfulness and a variety of activities highly contribute to young learners’ involvement in the lessons. As a result, the learning process is more enjoyable and the target pronunciation features are acquired with greater retention. These positive findings further boosted my interest in pronunciation teaching to young learners and prepared the ground for the next research which is presented in this diploma thesis.

Following the previously verified principles for pronunciation teaching and maintaining young learners as a target group, the present diploma theses aims to examine whether the pronunciation instruction can be designed specifically to encourage the young learners to notice the language features and thus equip them with raised language

awareness. Even though these principles are usually associated with teaching adult students, the thesis attempts to challenge this assumption and advocates that by employing appropriate pronunciation activities, adapted to the cognitive level of the learners, noticing and raising awareness can be provoked even at the earlier stage of learners' cognitive development.

The theoretical part first scrutinizes the principles of awareness raising and noticing in language teaching in general and then it shifts the focus to their implementation in pronunciation teaching. The theories discussed are supported by the presentation of various studies conducted in the field. Furthermore, examples of specific awareness raising and noticing activities are offered. Additionally, the theoretical part of the thesis examines whether age can be a limiting factor when implementing the awareness raising and noticing activities in teaching. The age factor is further explored in relation to cognitive development of the learners and its implications in teaching.

The practical part describes the research conducted by the author which consists of designing the pronunciation activities promoting noticing and awareness raising, followed by their pilotage in three different age groups of elementary school children. Whether the devised pronunciation programme proved effective in provoking noticing and consequently raising phonetic awareness is assessed by means of analysis of the videos taken throughout the teaching experiment. The description of the procedure, respondents and detailed account of the data analysis and the results compose the practical part of the present thesis.

2 THEORETICAL PART

2.1 CURRENT APPROACHES TO PRONUNCIATION TEACHING

Since the pronunciation instruction has finally gained its deserved attention in the language teaching and has been recognized as a necessary part of the curriculum, the number of authors dealing with this subject matter is increasing. Despite the confidence in its importance, pronunciation still tends to be dealt with randomly, in response to learners' errors. The underlying reason for this classroom reality is often very simple: teachers are unsure how to teach pronunciation systematically.

There have been multiple discussions regarding what the ideal approach to planned pronunciation is in teaching. This chapter presents one of the debated concepts in methodology, *raising awareness*, and a closely related notion of *noticing*. Furthermore, it focuses on the implementation of these principles in pronunciation teaching and aims to define and distinguish terms such as phonological, phonemic and phonetic awareness. The discussion is then turned towards the age of learners and whether it can be a limitation in teaching through awareness raising. The chapter concludes with suggestions of tasks and activities promoting noticing and raising awareness.

Throughout the history of foreign language teaching, pronunciation has played different roles, from being completely neglected on one end to being overemphasized on the other end, with different approaches to teaching it in between. As suggested by Celce-Murcia et al., there are two general approaches to pronunciation teaching that have been adopted: an intuitive-imitative approach and an analytic-linguistic approach (2).

When using the intuitive-imitative approach, the teacher directs the learners to listen to and imitate the sounds and rhythms of the target language. Learners are expected to develop their pronunciation without the teacher providing any explicit information about the phonetic system of the language. Essential is not only the learners' ability to perceive and produce the sounds but also availability of a good pronunciation model which can be the teacher himself or herself or various recordings (Celce-Murcia et al. 2).

The analytic-linguistic approach does not oppose the intuitive-imitative approach but rather complements it. Apart from listening, imitation and production the pronunciation teaching is accompanied by articulatory descriptions and contrastive information, and

supported by assorted teaching aids such as phonemic charts. The analytic-linguistic approach “explicitly informs the learner of and focuses attention on the sounds and rhythms of the target language” (Celce-Murcia et al. 2).

The prevailing model in today’s foreign language instruction represents the Communicative Approach. Even though the linguists in favour of the Communicative Approach recognized the importance of pronunciation learning and teaching, the main focus remained on fluency rather than accuracy and communicatively adequate pronunciation was considered to be a by-product of appropriate practice over a sufficient period of time (Celce-Murcia et al. 327). Also Elliott suggests that “while it may appear that researchers have examined almost every facet of language acquisition in relation to the Communicative Approach, the acquisition of pronunciation has fallen to the wayside and has suffered from serious neglect in the communicative classroom.” (95). The same opinion is expressed by Judy Breitzkreutz et al. in their study *Pronunciation Teaching Practices in Canada*, where the decline of pronunciation instruction is assigned to “an increasing emphasis on input-based instruction and to the perception that pronunciation issues were related more to accuracy than to communication” (52). Breitzkreutz et al. come to the conclusion that some aspects of English can simply not be taught by a mere exposure to input (52). This conclusion is also supported by Schmidt’s theory of the role of awareness in learning process. Schmidt argues that in order to learn a specific language feature learners must first become aware of it. It is therefore not enough to include the language intended for learning in the input, teacher needs to bring learners’ attention to it, so they *notice* it and as a result, become *aware* of it (Schmidt 129).

The processes we have just outlined are called *raising awareness* and *noticing*. Even though they constitute relatively new concepts to English language teaching, they have gained increasing attention over the past decades. On the next pages, we shall explore the process of awareness raising and its theoretical background. Our attention will then turn back to pronunciation and we will discuss whether raising awareness can be applied even in pronunciation teaching. The notion of *noticing*, despite being closely linked to *awareness raising*, will be - for ease of reference - discussed in greater detail later, in a separate subchapter.

2.1.1 Awareness raisings

In the relevant literature, the term *awareness raising* is used interchangeably with the term *consciousness raising*. One explicit example can be *An A-Z of ELT* guide by Thornbury, in which the entry of *awareness raising* directs the reader to *consciousness raising*. Thornbury defines it as “the way that learners become aware, or are made aware, of features of the language they are learning” (48). For the input to become intake, the minimum requirement for learners is to notice the feature of the target language. The process of consciousness raising is then viewed as a form of presentation. However, the term presentation connotes the learners’ passive attitude towards the subject matter and therefore the term consciousness raising (or awareness raising) is preferred in this context. In summary, learners need to be active in the learning process. This can be achieved by enhancing the input so certain items become more salient or by asking the learners to infer rules from given examples (Thornbury 48).

We believe that at this point it is essential to outline the different views on the role of consciousness in second language acquisition. There have been multiple debates about the processes underlying second language acquisition over the past decades. One of the most influential theories is the acquisition-learning distinction hypothesis by Krashen. He argues that adults develop competence in second language in two independent ways. Language acquisition is according to him a subconscious process (also called implicit learning), while language learning is a conscious process of “knowing the rules” and “learning about language” (also called explicit learning). However, these two processes are independent, hence conscious knowledge can never shift to unconscious (Krashen 10). Contrary to this theory stands Bialystok who advocates the role of consciousness as a necessary condition for foreign language learning. Learning is seen as a process of developing analysed (explicit) knowledge which, unlike in Krashen’s hypothesis, interacts with the implicit knowledge (qtd. in Wrembel, "Metaphonetic" 170). Bialystok thus defines explicit knowledge as “conscious analytic awareness of the formal properties of the target language whereas implicit knowledge means an intuitive feeling for what is correct and acceptable” (qtd. In Smith 159).

Having shed some light on the theories of consciousness and explicit and implicit knowledge in second language learning, we can now continue exploring our main focus of

awareness raising. As most of the sources researched refer to the concept rather as consciousness raising, we decided to follow the same terminology from this point onwards.

The majority of researches regarding the notion of consciousness raising and its effectiveness in learning were conducted on the acquisition of grammatical structures. Smith and Rutherford examined the relation of consciousness raising and universal grammar and defined consciousness raising as “the deliberate attempt to draw the learner’s attention specifically to the formal properties of the target language” (Rutherford & Smith 274). Smith in his study *Consciousness-raising and the Second Language Learner* suggests that “it is a basic problem in teaching to know how much one has to tell a learner about the language and what to do with the language” (159). He draws the readers’ attention to the fact that the use of explicit knowledge has been downplayed after the end of the grammar-translation method era and puts across several arguments in favour of its return to teaching practice. According to Smith, consciousness-raising should not be assumed to consist of “pedantic giving and testing of rules and lists of vocabulary items, that is, a complete and unrelenting focus on the formal structure of the TL” (160). Instead, the relevant information of language can be presented in various ways, with different degrees of elaboration and explicitness. Whether the regularities in target language are discovered consciously or intuitively, they are always discovered by the learners themselves. Smith therefore concentrates on the question “to what extent is that discovery guided by the teacher” (161) and presents a model of four basic types of manifestation which can be used to raise learners’ consciousness of the target language features. The four types are described as Type A, B, C and D, with Type D being the most traditional one, typical for standard school grammar. Type C is characterized by greater learners’ involvement by giving them brief and indirect clues, so there is space for self-discovery. However, this type might be useful only for relatively simple regularities of the target language. Type B offers elaborated and explicit guidance whereas Type A relies on more covert and less explicit explanations (Smith 161-162).

Even though Smith lists disadvantages of purely implicit teaching methods, such as being highly time-consuming and actually having no guaranteed results, it is not Smith’s aim to completely discourage the teachers from implementing implicit knowledge in their teaching. Instead, it is recommended to find balance and to remind the community of

teachers that to rely strictly on one of the methods will not result in a beneficial learning environment (Smith 159-160).

A similar view of consciousness raising is propounded by Rod Ellis. He also relates the concept to grammar teaching, comparing the roles that practice and consciousness raising play in learning new grammatical structures. According to his definition, consciousness raising “involves an attempt to equip the learner with an understanding of a specific grammatical feature” (Ellis 168). Moreover, he claims that although consciousness raising serves primarily to gain explicit knowledge, it also indirectly affects the implicit one, which is gained primarily by practice. The acquisition of implicit knowledge consists of three processes and thus noticing (when learners become aware of a certain linguistic feature), comparing (learners compare the new feature with their mental grammar and notice the ‘gap’) and integrating (learners integrate the new knowledge in their mental grammar). Consciousness raising contributes to the first two processes – noticing and comparing – and therefore it indirectly results in implicit knowledge. It needs to be mentioned that consciousness raising does not result in immediate acquisition but it has a “delayed effect” (Ellis 171-172).

Furthermore, learners may understand the grammatical structure without any grammatical terminology, through everyday language only. However, use of metalanguage may facilitate the development of explicit knowledge. Also, learners are not required to actively produce the structures learned: “...it is perfectly possible to teach grammar in the sense of helping learners to understand and explain grammatical phenomena without having them engage in activities that require repeated production of the structures concerned” (Ellis 169). Consciousness raising thus can occur without practice, whereas practice work cannot take place without a certain degree of consciousness. Unlike Smith, Ellis adopts more progressive view, proposing that consciousness raising can be an independent grammar teaching method, an alternative to practice (173).

2.1.2 Teaching pronunciation through consciousness raising

The previous subchapter gives an account of arguments in favour of using consciousness raising for teaching grammar. The positive influence of explicit teaching found in this field can lead us to another question: If consciousness raising is effective in teaching grammar, wouldn't it also be effective in teaching pronunciation? To the author's

knowledge, there is only a small number of studies dealing with the method of consciousness raising in pronunciation teaching. We will present some of their findings in this chapter. Firstly, it is essential to note that the authors refer to the concept of consciousness raising in different ways. They may speak about explicit instruction, metacognitive strategies or developing phonological metacompetence. Although addressed differently, the idea behind them remains the same.

When researching the literature dealing with the topics of language awareness and pronunciation teaching, we may encounter various terms such as phonological, phonemic and phonetic awareness. These are often treated synonymously, however, certain distinction is possible. Nicholson describes phonological awareness as a metalinguistic skill, “the ability to reflect on and manipulate the sound component of spoken words”, while phonemic awareness according to him “refers to a focus on the phoneme” (53). García Leccumberri gives a definition of phonetic awareness: “(Meta-)phonetic awareness can be described as the ability to reflect on and manipulate the sounds and sound system of a language independently of function and meaning [. . .].” (qtd. in Piske 155). As described, the definitions of phonological and phonetic awareness are very similar. García Lecumberri proposes a clearer differentiation by further defining phonological awareness as “awareness of the contrastive units of a sound system including consonants and vowels as well as suprasegmentals such as syllables, stress and intonation” and phonetic awareness as “awareness of more specific properties of sounds including awareness of their articulatory, acoustic and perceptual characteristics as well as awareness of the different realizations of phonological units in speech” (qtd. in Piske 156). Piske adds, that most of the authors do not, however, pay such close attention to distinguishing these two terms and so readers may come across the term phonetic awareness used in a much broader sense, referring to both phonological and phonetic characteristics of sounds. (Piske 156).

The question whether explicit instruction may be beneficial to pronunciation acquisition is discussed by Graeme Couper, in his study *The value of an explicit pronunciation syllabus in ESOL teaching*. As he states, the study is based on “Sharwood Smith’s (1981) arguments that consciousness and awareness raising are important in second language acquisition, rather than with Krashen’s (1982) position that pronunciation is acquired naturally“ (Couper 53-54).

Couper first focused on raising each individual learner's awareness of their specific pronunciation difficulties. This step also included letting students recognize the importance of accuracy in pronunciation. Learners were then systematically and explicitly instructed in the problematic features and encouraged to self-monitor their development. This was done by combination of various techniques. Students listened to and analyzed native speaker speech, which was used as their model. They recorded their own utterances and compared them with the model recordings. By practising listen and repeat exercises students developed their auditory memories (ability to retain and imitate sounds). Emphasis was laid also on developing motor skills, which was facilitated by explanations of physical articulations of certain sounds and subsequent practice. Last but not least, students were supported throughout the research by positive reinforcement, which helped them gain confidence in producing the sounds. The study aimed to investigate not only the effectiveness of the teaching methodology, by assessing the students' improvement in speech production, but also the students' beliefs and attitudes towards explicit pronunciation teaching, by asking for their feedback on the course syllabus. Considering the results, there was a clear improvement in students' pronunciation. Students' opinions on the methodology used varied, however, the overall outcome was positive. These less clear-cut results of the survey regarding students' feedback imply that explicit instruction might not be suitable for some types of learners (Couper 55-66).

Another author dealing with new methods in pronunciation teaching, such as consciousness raising, is Magdalena Wrembel. In her work she refers to the conscious knowledge of language, which is assumed to facilitate acquisition of a language feature, as *metacompetence* ("Empirical" 985). Wrembel lists metacognitive reinforcement among innovative trends in pronunciation pedagogy: "This type of reinforcement involves the application of metacognitive strategies such as self-monitoring and self-evaluation of one's L2 speech performance as well as selective or guided listening exposure" ("Innovative" 106). However, for metacognitive strategies to result effective, learners need to have a certain degree of phonological metacompetence and language awareness at their disposal. This includes "explicit knowledge of selected aspects of L2 phonetics and phonology, analytic awareness of the formal properties of the target language as contrasted with the learners' L1 as well as a considerable level of processing control, i.e. intentional focus on

phonetic forms and articulatory gestures during speech performance” (Wrembel, "Innovative" 106-107).

Let us now focus on one of her studies which tests the above mentioned assumption that “the learners who are subject to theoretical training in phonetics and phonology will outperform those who did not receive such input” (Wrembel, "Empirical" 986). The study was conducted in the form of a twelve week training programme for first year students of English at the Teacher Training College in Poznan, Poland. The course was design to train both perceptive and productive skills and covered segmental and suprasegmental features. The students were divided into two groups, both of them subjected to the same pronunciation training. The experimental group of students, unlike the control group, “received additional theoretical instruction in English phonetics and phonology involving articulatory descriptions, classification of consonant and vowel systems, elements of contrastive analysis and other exercises aimed at raising students’ meta-awareness” (Wrembel, "Empirical" 986). The students attended the pronunciation lessons, which were conducted in isolation from other language skills, for four hours a week, in total of fifty teaching hours. The progress of both groups was assessed by four pre-tests and post-tests, one in perception and three in production (reading a list of words and short phrases, reading a dialogue and free speech). The results show significant improvement of both groups in both production and perception. However, the main hypothesis of the study was confirmed only in part. The experimental group managed to outperform the control group in the form-focused tasks, proving that learners equipped with metalinguistic knowledge were able to perform better in more controlled tasks. In the perception task and free speech task, the results did not show advantages for any of the two groups. Wrembel identifies the possible reason may be that the newly learnt feature has not been automatised yet. Nevertheless, the study succeeded in demonstrating that the overall phonetic accuracy of participants improved due to intense explicit pronunciation training (Wrembel, "Empirical" 986-988).

2.1.3 Age: Limitation or not?

All the studies presented in the previous chapters, concerning both grammar and pronunciation teaching, share one certain aspect: the participants are in all cases adult learners. Some of the authors even mention that the proposed methodology of

consciousness raising is intended for adults only or that young learners might not benefit from this method.

For instance, Ellis claims that the consciousness raising approach may not be suitable for young learners but he does not elaborate further on the reasons which motivate his statement. Instead, he lists other possible limitations to this approach, such as language barrier and learners' preferred learning strategies (173). Smith assigns the lack of "explanations about the structural properties of the target language directed towards young learners" to lower intellectual maturity of the learners (160). In another paper, he actually questions the standard Piagetian thinking which implies that the conscious type of learning is not available to pre-adolescent children. He claims that even children are possibly engaged in metalinguistic activities when learning their first language and create some sort of simple language rules for themselves (Rutherford & Smith 274).

Schmidt in his study on consciousness reveals that all his research is based on adult learning (139). Children are actually mentioned only as a potential exception to his argument that language learning is a conscious process: "Because children have less control over the spotlight of attention, they may not be able to avoid noticing these communicatively less important grammatical features, and in that sense may acquire grammar unconsciously" (Schmidt 145).

On fully developed cognitive capacities relies also Wrembel in her presentation of metacompetence-oriented model of phonological acquisition. This condition determines the model solely for adult learners of second language (Wrembel, "Metacompetence" 2). We shall discuss Wrembel's model in greater detail in chapter *2.1.5 Activities promoting consciousness raising and noticing*.

After summarizing the views of relevant authors, we may conclude that adults are the only suitable learners to understand and benefit from the awareness-oriented instruction. Most of the studies simply do not consider young learners, claiming that they are not able to grasp metalinguistic information because of their lower level of cognitive development. However, our thorough research yielded one study which attempts to challenge this assumption.

The paper overviews several studies carried out in Canadian schools with participants being young learners from two second language programs: early French immersion for English-speaking children and English immersion course lasting five months for French-

speaking children. The exact age of participants is not specified, only in the case of the latter program it is mentioned that the English course takes place at grades 5 or 6. The author advocates that certain level of awareness is necessary for second language learning and that the studies she examined show positive effect of classroom instruction appealing to young learner's awareness. The studies concern grammar and syntax teaching and are applied not only on instruction of simple rules but also on rules of more difficult kind (e.g. aspect). It was proved that "content-oriented instructional approach which provides substantial exposure to contextualized language use, and which emphasizes interesting, substantive subject matter themes, is sufficient to enable these young classroom learners to notice certain key aspects of the target French language system" (Harley).

This demonstrates that even young learners, without reaching the formal operational stage of cognitive development, are able to benefit from metalinguistic information. The teachers just have to keep in mind that the explicit information about the language need to be adjusted to be appropriate for the age intended. Due to lack of studies in this area, further research is necessary to fully understand the usefulness of consciousness raising in syllabus for young learners.

Thus far, we have discussed the potential of consciousness raising as a relatively new approach to second language acquisition and its implications in teaching pronunciation. We have also opened a debate on whether or not it can be applied to young learners of English as a second language. Before we present a selection of activities promoting consciousness raising, we still need to explain the concept of noticing. We mentioned earlier that noticing is closely related to awareness raising. Their relationship will be explored in the following chapter.

2.1.4 Noticing

We have already come across the term noticing earlier when we mentioned that it is closely related to awareness or consciousness raising. This chapter elaborates on the relationship of these two principles and scrutinizes the term noticing and the theory behind it.

The term *noticing* has gained an increasing attention over the past few decades. We can foresee the basic idea behind the notion of noticing and its implications in second language acquisition when we actually refer to the meaning of the verb *to notice* itself: *to see or to*

become conscious of something or someone or to direct our attention towards something, so we realize it exists.

Scott Thornbury describes noticing as follows: “If you notice the feature of the language that you are exposed to, it attracts your attention and you make a mental note of it” (143). He gives an example of a learner noticing the word *mind* several times throughout a period of a few days in different contexts such as *Mind the gap* on the platform, teacher requesting the class by asking them *Do you mind...?* or overhearing *I don't mind*. Thornbury adds that “each successive ‘noticing’ both primes the learner to notice new occurrences of mind, and at the same time contributes to a growing understanding of the use and meaning of *mind*” (143).

The first author to introduce the notion of noticing was Richard Schmidt with his Noticing Hypothesis. The hypothesis stems from the research he has conducted on his own language learning experience. Schmidt spent five months in Brazil where he took a course in Portuguese. He kept a journal and tape recorded some of his interactions with native speakers. Together with Sylvia Frota they analyzed all the collected materials and came to the conclusions on which the Noticing Hypothesis was based (Schmidt 140). “We found a remarkable correspondence between my reports of what I had noticed when Brazilians talked to me and the linguistic forms I used myself” (Schmidt 140). They discovered that the verb forms that Schmidt himself used in conversations with native speakers were those he had been frequently exposed to in conversations before. However, frequent exposure was not the only condition. The same verb forms he tended to use also appeared in his journal which signals he had been aware of hearing them. As Schmidt himself suggests: “A search of the diary notes indicated that the forms that I produced were those that I noticed people saying to me. They were found in my diary, minimally in the form of things said to me that I wrote down, and usually with more extensive comments” (Schmidt 140). To sum up, Schmidt claims that for input to become intake, learners need to *notice* the input first: “I conclude...that noticing is the necessary and sufficient condition for converting input to intake” (Schmidt 129).

Schmidt argues that even though the concept of intake is a cornerstone of second language learning theory, its definitions vary among different linguists. He puts across several examples, none of which he is fully satisfied with. Therefore Schmidt constructs his own definition of intake as “the part of the input that learner notices” (Schmidt 139).

At this point it is essential to stress that the process of noticing is according to Schmidt, a conscious one. We already elaborated on the role of consciousness in second language learning in the previous chapter. The Noticing Hypothesis is based on assumption that learners consciously attend to input. By stressing the importance of conscious process, Schmidt's view coincides with the one of Bialystok and opposes Krashen's hypothesis that language is acquired subconsciously.

In the study *The Role of Consciousness in Second Language Learning* Schmidt points out that the term consciousness can be understood in three different senses and thus consciousness as awareness, consciousness as intention and consciousness as knowledge (Schmidt 131-132).

Consciousness in the sense of awareness is discussed in greater depth as it is believed to further consist of various levels. Schmidt lists three levels, claiming them to be crucial for his research: level of perception, level of noticing and level of understanding. Perception does not always have to be conscious and therefore subliminal perception is possible as well. Noticing occurs when stimuli are subjectively experienced. Schmidt adds that such private experience can usually be reported verbally but at the same time absence or lack of verbal report does not imply that noticing did not occur. As Schmidt exemplifies, "we may notice that someone has a regional accent without being able to describe it phonetically, or notice a difference between two wines without being able to describe the difference" (132). Lastly, understanding represents the level of conscious analyzing and problem-solving, the processes we commonly describe as *thinking* (Schmidt 132).

We mentioned earlier that the notion of noticing stands in a very tight relation to awareness or consciousness raising. Now we can see that noticing builds a part of the awareness process and functions as a precondition for understanding. When discussing learners' consciousness raising, we will therefore inevitably refer to the notion of noticing as well, since these two notions are inseparable.

Schmidt recognizes several factors which influence noticing and thus expectations, frequency, perceptual salience, skill level and task demands. Expectations about language are in second language learning established by instruction. According to Schmidt, both instruction and frequency increase the likelihood of learner noticing features in input. Whether the learner notices the language form depends also on how prominent it is. This is called perceptual salience. Schmidt draws attention especially to difficulties in noticing

phonologically reduced forms such as bound, contracted or unstressed morphemes. Skill level determines the noticing ability of the learner, which in turn depends on automaticity of previously acquired structures. The learners are more likely to notice new forms when they have already automatized the previously noticed ones. Lastly, learners best notice some information when it is the information itself that is needed to carry out a task (Schmidt 143). Schmidt concludes that learners are to a certain extent restricted in noticing by factors listed above and therefore are not entirely “free to notice whatever they want and whenever they want” (144).

Schmidt and Frota defined also another kind of noticing which they believe to be one of the conditions for language acquisition: *noticing the gap* (310). In the previous paragraphs we explained noticing in the sense of consciously attending to input so it becomes intake. The principle of noticing the gap originates in Krashen’s theory of input. Krashen argues that acquisition of new structures may occur in a way that learners compare their current competence (which is referred to as *i*) with the new form or structure (referred to as *i + 1*). If learners notice the difference between *i* and *i + 1* and turn the new structure into input with some frequency, it can be considered acquired (qtd. in Schmidt and Frota 311). Schmidt and Frota believe this theory to be crucial for second language acquisition, however, they propose a major modification. Unlike Krashen who posits that both the process and product of acquisition are subconscious and that the comparison described above occurs subconsciously, they suggest the opposite. The learners need to consciously notice the gap between the non-target form they can produce and target form that appear in input. In other words, between what they know already and what is new to them (Schmidt and Frota 311).

Noticing the gap requires conscious process but at the same time does not require the learner to make any abstract generalization. Learners can thus notice the difference and become aware of the particular target feature but do not necessarily have to explicitly understand the whole rule. Furthermore, analyzing Schmidt’s diary of learning Portuguese, it was found that correction plays an important role in noticing the gap. The learner should again though, notice the corrective feedback. The learner needs to realize he is being corrected, otherwise the correction seems to have no effect. However, this is not the only way for learners to notice the gap. Schmidt and Frota add that repeated exposure to input may have the same result (312).

After having examined the principle of noticing the gap, we may conclude that it is not conscious noticing alone that is necessary for input to become intake. Another condition seems to be for the learners to notice the gap between their language and the observed target. We may thus consider noticing the gap to be a part of the process of conscious noticing which then leads to acquisition of target language features.

These findings, together with the positive influence of consciousness raising we have demonstrated previously in the main chapter, lead us to the conclusion that teachers should promote noticing in order to raise learners language awareness. By doing so, teachers can help the learners overcome difficulties they face on their way to the desired language level. The question how to do so will be answered in the next chapter, which presents various types of classroom exercises that put our theoretical findings into practice.

2.1.5 Activities promoting consciousness raising and noticing

Even though the number of studies concerning the positive influence of consciousness raising is growing, there are only a few authors introducing specific ways how to put the theory into practice. As previously mentioned, the notions of consciousness raising and noticing have been mostly studied in the context of grammar teaching. Therefore even the majority of awareness-oriented activities that authors suggest promote grammar learning. This chapter outlines activities which can be used to encourage the learners to notice the intended features of the target language and thus raise their language awareness.

Thornbury suggests two types of tasks with a great consciousness raising potential: reformulation and reconstruction tasks. Reformulation can be aimed at the development of writing or speaking skills. Regarding writing, teachers can use reformulation instead of simply correcting learners' compositions. Learners are then more likely to notice the features they themselves found problematic, by comparing their work with the teacher's model. The same technique may be applied to practising speaking skills. For reconstruction activities is the process reversed. Learners are first presented with text (either written or spoken) and then they are asked to reconstruct it with their own words. By matching their version with the original one, learners are encouraged to notice the gap between their language and that of the target. Reconstruction activities can be carried out as individual work, pair work, group work or their combination. Furthermore, Thornbury provides a list of ideas how to incorporate noticing and awareness raising into lessons, e.g. by introducing

the actual term noticing into classroom metalanguage, developing selective attention in listening tasks, developing text-scanning skills and encouraging learners to keep track of features they have noticed (Thornbury 327- 333).

Reformulation tasks promoting noticing are also suitable for pronunciation teaching. Smith and Beckmann introduce a step-by-step guide of a classroom task, called the Noticing-reformulation technique model. Teacher first sets the context by providing the learners with a short written text accompanied by stimulus in the form of an object, photo or video. Learners then read the text and record it on a tape. With the help of a worksheet they analyse their own pronunciation focusing on selected phonetic features. Analysis of a model recording follows, again supported by worksheet. By completing the model analysis, learners notice the gap between the target and their own pronunciation and focus on the difficulties encountered. The next step is practice of the problematic features and another recording of the text. Lastly, learners compare their first and second recordings and comment on any improvements or persisting errors. This technique can be used both as an assessment tool and as a teaching tool, as long as it is accompanied by theoretical explanation of the phonetic features (Smith and Beckmann 1-2).

Wrembel recommends a series of activities helping learners gain conscious control over the production process, e.g. “shadowing model speech, reciting memorised texts, acting out dialogues and plays, giving pre-prepared presentations and finally spontaneous speech” (Wrembel, "Innovative" 107). She also stresses the importance of self-rehearsal techniques (e.g. audio- and videotaping presentations) and self-monitoring and self-correction strategies which help learners monitor their errors and progress at the same time. To gain conscious control over the process of articulation itself Wrembel suggests “applying kinaesthetic reinforcement to pronunciation training through physical strengthening exercises” ("Innovative" 104). These include articulatory warm-up exercises such as rubbing the lips against each other, trying to touch the chin with the tongue tip with pulsing stretches or massaging face and jaw muscles (Wrembel, "Innovative" 104-105).

Cognitive aspect of pronunciation learning is emphasized also in the metacompetence-oriented model of phonological acquisition designed by Wrembel. As we mentioned earlier, this model relies on fully developed cognitive capacities and therefore is intended for adult learners. The model consists of four stages of phonological acquisition, with specific techniques for the development of phonological metacompetence recommended

for each stage. The suggested techniques are organized in a table, according to “different degrees of explicitness, on the one hand, and elaboration, on the other” (Wrembel, "Metacompetence" 2-3).

Elaboration	<p>B Articulatory control</p> <p>Articulatory warm-up exercises Drama voice techniques: Articulatory setting exercises: * voice quality * imitation and oral mimicry Mnemonic devices * anchoring sound patterns</p>	<p>D Multimedia learning aids</p> <p>Animated views of the articulators Video close-ups of the mouth Computerised displays of speech Palatograms Spectrograms Self-monitoring techniques</p>
	<p>A Basic awareness-raising</p> <p>Relaxation, breathing, visualisation Sensitisation: * perceptual tuning-in Awareness raising activities: * discussions * questionnaires * metaphonetic trivia * concern for pronunciation * pronunciation and identity</p>	<p>C Informed teaching techniques</p> <p>Theoretical foundations (rules) Contrastive information Articulatory descriptions Sound classification tables, vowel charts Charts of the vocal apparatus Snapshots of lips position Pitch-contour notation Guided ear-training - analytic listening Transcription practice Elaborate phonemic charts</p>

Explicitness (covert - overt)

Table 1. Metacompetence developing techniques

Table 1 (Wrembel, "Metacompetence" 3)

Section A represents the initial stages of conscious pronunciation learning with a main focus on various awareness raising activities such as “walking the rhythm, internalising intonation through recognising moods and acting out tales, exploring physical features of sounds as well as personalising sounds through movements, sound metaphors and similes” (Wrembel, "Metacompetence" 3). Learners are also taught how to improve their accuracy through conscious relaxation of articulatory muscles. Techniques listed in Section B concentrate solely on articulation and offer more elaborated ways how to develop more native-like pronunciation performance. An analytic-linguistic approach to pronunciation is adopted by Section C, which concentrates on a “more mainstream explicit teaching activities referred to as informed teaching techniques” (Wrembel, "Metacompetence" 3). Crucial to this stage of pronunciation acquisition are not only detailed articulatory descriptions and explicit knowledge of the phonetic system but also conscious training of perception skills. The highest level of explicitness comprises Section D. At this stage

learners watch videos or animated views of oral speech mechanisms, for example vocal folds in motion. Teachers can also video tape learners practising production of the target features, so they can analyze their articulation manner and compare it to the target-manner. This is also possible by means of advanced electronic pronunciation teaching-courses which provide “instant audio-visual feedback in the form of computerised displays of speech patterns allowing to record learners’ utterances and compare a visual display of intonation contours with pre-recorded native-speaker models ” (Wrembel, "Metacompetence" 4).

The native language of the learner plays also an important role in pronunciation teaching. Comparison of pronunciation manner of L1 and L2 can lead to learners’ greater sensitivity to the differences and thus raise their consciousness of correct target language pronunciation. Moreover, this approach often brings better results than error correction. Another principle which can be applied to pronunciation teaching and which can make explicit teaching more memorable is to present the rules inductively, through discovery activities. Learners are encouraged, with the help of cues, to find certain patterns in written or spoken texts. The discovery of rules by learners themselves makes them more memorable and also raises learners’ awareness of the language features (Jones 182-3).

The amount of techniques listed above demonstrate that there are numerous ways how to raise learners’ language awareness. Moreover, the suggested list is certainly not exhaustive. Teachers are therefore encouraged to use their own imagination and creativity to come up with more activities promoting consciousness raising and noticing. To successfully design activities which are appropriate to a certain group of learners, it is essential to assess “readiness” of the learners for intended tasks. This goes hand in hand with their cognitive development, which will be explored in the next chapter.

2.2 LEARNERS' COGNITIVE DEVELOPMENT

When we were describing the principles of consciousness raising and noticing and their implications in pronunciation teaching or language teaching in general, we were often highlighting one common limitation to these approaches. Most of the studies we reviewed claim that consciousness raising and noticing are suitable only for adult learners, or more precisely, for learners with fully developed cognitive capacities. In this chapter we will take a closer look on how children's mind develop and in which ways it affects learning and teaching.

One of the most influential psychologists in the field of cognitive development was by no means Jean Piaget. Piaget's theory of cognitive development is based on the assumption that children learn through experience and interactions with the world surrounding them, by solving problems they encounter. The child is thus taking active part in the learning process (Cameron 2). This view of active learning, building systems of meanings and understanding the reality through experience is referred to as constructivism (Slavin 34). According to Piaget, children develop by proceeding through four stages: sensorimotor, preoperational, concrete operational and formal operational. Their sequence is invariant and universal: "Each stage derives from the previous stage, incorporates and transforms that stage, and prepares for the next stage" (Miller 651). However, the pace of proceeding from one stage to another can vary with each child. At the same time, "the same individual may perform tasks associated with different stages...particularly at point of transition into a new stage" (Slavin 34).

For the purpose of this thesis, we will now concentrate on two stages which children undergo during the course of elementary education: the concrete operational and formal operational stage.

Children enter the concrete operational stage when they are approximately seven years old. This stage is marked by their improvement in the ability to think logically. The egocentric thinking characteristic for the previous stage is diminishing and children can now understand that others may have different perceptions than they do (Slavin 38-39). Children also learn the concept of reversibility, meaning they can understand that quantities remain the same after changing the shape or appearance (Miller 652). However, there are still differences from adult-like thinking. Children at this stage are still not able to

use abstract thinking. They can “form concepts, see relationships, and solve problems, but only as long as they involve objects and situations that are familiar” (Slavin 38).

Teaching children at the concrete operational stage should resemble their abilities. Since children learn mainly by experience, classroom instruction should be as concrete as possible and targeted at experiential learning, for example manipulating objects in science lessons or acting and role-playing in language classes (Slavin 88). Teachers can “think of the classroom and classroom activities as creating and offering opportunities to learners for learning” (Cameron 5).

Around the age of eleven, children are entering the last stage of cognitive development: the formal operational stage. Their mental operations are no longer dependent on concrete objects and they are able to use hypothetical deductive reasoning and systematic problem solving (Oakley 23). Their thinking has become purely abstract, logical and hypothetical (Miller 652).

Even though Piaget’s theory of cognitive development remains valued until today, it could not avoid criticism. Margaret Donaldson objects to the rigid division of stages and suggest that in Piaget’s view children are much underestimated. She argues that language and context used in Piaget’s experiments were confusing and misleading. Donaldson redesigned some of the experiments in a more child-friendly format and concluded that when using appropriate language and familiar tasks, children perform signs of logical thinking much earlier than in Piaget’s experiments (qtd. in Pinter 9). Doubts were expressed also about the final stage of cognitive development. Critics argue that reaching the stage of formal operations might be the result of formal schooling rather than natural maturation. On the other hand, it is also quite sensible to assume that the cognitive development does not end at adolescence but continues beyond the formal operational stage (Pinter 9).

Piaget is also criticized for having neglected the role of language and social dimension in his theory. These two aspects were considered by another influential developmental psychologist Lev Vygotsky (Cameron 4). For the emphasis he lays on the social environment, cultural context and interactions with other people, his theory was named social constructivism. Vygotsky examined the role of learning potential, in other words “what individual children were capable of achieving with the help and support of a more knowledgeable partner” (Pinter 10) and described this concept as *zone of proximal*

development. By working on the tasks within the zone of proximal development children are believed to be learning. However, children alone are not able to complete these tasks. They require assistance of a more competent peer or adult (e.g. teacher). The process of guidance and support towards successful completion of the task is described as *scaffolding* (Slavin 47-48). Scaffolding should be adjusted according to the needs of the individual, motivating and providing help when needed but also leaving space for the child's own initiative. Vygotsky also stressed the importance of language for the learning process. He viewed language as a tool children use for understanding and learning. Children learn by asking questions to clarify what is not clear and by formulating their thoughts to put an intended message across. All this happens through interactions with others, by means of language (Pinter 12).

Applying Vygotsky's theory to teaching practice results in promoting scaffolding by letting children gradually take responsibility for their own learning. Teacher can also set up "cooperative learning arrangements among groups of students with differing levels of ability" (Slavin 48) and let children learn with the help of their peers. Teacher should also bear in mind that their language serves as the main source of input for learners. Since children according to Vygotsky develop through social interactions, the lessons should be aimed at creating opportunities for learners to interact not only with the teacher but also among themselves (Pinter 12).

In conclusion, Piaget's and Vygotsky's constructivist theories were revolutionary in several aspects. Even though they have faced certain criticism, they are still considered cornerstones of developmental psychology and often serve as inspiration or starting point for newly emerging theories in the field. Their views of children being a centre of educational process, learning by being actively involved in the process and learning through language and experience remain valid and respected until today.

3 PRACTICAL PART

The research described in the practical part of the thesis is based on the theoretical background presented in both the previous and present work of the author. Let us now summarize the theoretical foundations of both works to prepare the grounds for the experiment presented.

In the bachelor thesis the author focused on the principles of teaching pronunciation to young learners and aimed to demonstrate that incorporating pronunciation instruction in the syllabus does not necessarily mean relying only on drilling exercises. It was validated that the combination of inductive approaches and the variety and playfulness of activities positively influences the effectiveness of the pronunciation instruction. This is achieved by involving the pupils already at the lead-in stage of the lesson, varying the classroom organization and balancing the training of productive and receptive skills. Furthermore, employment of chants, rhymes and songs is highly recommended. However, this does not imply teachers should completely neglect routines and drills. They certainly belong to effective teaching strategies, when balanced appropriately with the ones listed previously.

The present diploma thesis focuses on other principles of language teaching, closely related to the active involvement of the pupils in the learning process: noticing and awareness raising. As it was outlined in the theoretical part, the learners are believed to acquire the language feature only if they consciously notice it and thus become aware of it. The majority of the studies implement noticing and awareness raising in teaching adult students, claiming that the learners need to be cognitively fully developed to be able to consciously notice the target language. Nevertheless, the author advocates that implementation to teaching young learners is possible, when following certain teaching principles and tailoring the instruction appropriately to the learners' level of cognitive development.

In the practical part of the thesis the author introduces a set of pronunciation activities, organized into five lesson plans, which have been designed specifically to promote noticing among young learners and to consequently raise their phonetic awareness. This pronunciation programme is further tested in a real school environment. The aim of the research is to determine whether the intended noticing process occurred and to which extent the young learners benefit from the explicit pronunciation instruction.

The whole pronunciation programme was taught by the author and video recorded for the purpose of the thesis. When analysing the videos of the lessons, the author focused on measurable *noticing moments* which were recognized by obvious signs such as body language and the verbal reactions of the pupils.

In summary, the practical part of the thesis constitutes the set of detailed lesson plans, description of the research conditions, the results obtained by the analysis of the videos and their interpretation.

3.1 METHOD

3.1.1 Battery of pronunciation activities

According to the theoretical framework outlined in the introduction of the practical part, the author has designed battery of pronunciation activities organized into five lesson plans. Each lesson plan is dedicated to a specific set of pronunciation features. The features have been selected with regard to several aspects. Firstly, the author concentrates on the common pronunciation difficulties among Czech speakers of English. Secondly, the programme covers both segmental and suprasegmental levels of pronunciation. Lastly, the features have been chosen in order to demonstrate a contrast between a pronunciation aspect that the learners are familiar with from their native language and an aspect occurring only in English pronunciation. The demonstration of contrasting features aims to facilitate the process of noticing and raise the pupils' awareness of the difference between the Czech and English phonological systems.

All the lesson plans follow a specific pattern consisting of lead-in and practice. The lead-in stage is devised to emphasize the pupils' involvement in the lesson. The teacher, with the help of the pupils, presents a set of words or sentences containing the target pronunciation features. The pupils are then encouraged to notice the difference by combination of choral repetitions and the teacher's questions. The teacher lets the pupils pause and think about the matter, offering guidance and hints when needed. Consequently, it is the pupils who discover the pattern. Once the pattern is discovered, the pupils are asked to formulate the articulation manner of the target features in their own words. The whole discovery process relies on the specific presentation method of involving the pupils and on the well aimed questions raised by the teacher. Taking into consideration the

pupils' level of English, the questions may be translated into their native language, after being asked in English.

The objective of the practice stage does not consist in the perfect production of the target pronunciation features. The practice rather aims to further enhance the pupils' phonetic awareness. While the pupils fulfil the practice tasks, the teacher observes their ability to produce the target features. When not pronouncing correctly, the pupils are asked to pause and reflect on their pronunciation. If they are able to correct themselves and state the reason why they were incorrect, the teaching aim is considered fulfilled.

Three of the lesson plans were adopted from the author's previous work, the bachelor thesis titled *Teaching pronunciation to young learners*. They were found to be suitable for the purposes of the present diploma thesis and therefore the author decided to include them in the pronunciation programme. Few minor changes were performed, especially at the lead-in stages in order to maximize the potential for noticing. The lessons adopted are Lesson 1, 2 and 3. Descriptions of all five lesson plans follow.

Lesson 1: /v/ vs. /w/

Aim: The pupils will be able to distinguish between /v/ and /w/ sounds. They will become aware of their correct articulation.

Teaching Aids: flashcards/pictures of a boy and a girl, paper cards with words (whale, window, wardrobe, wood, worm, vase, violin, volcano, vine, vet)

Materials: worksheets with listening tasks *Listen and repeat*, *Listen and tick the sentence you hear* (see Appendix 1), worksheets with *Dialogues of William and Vanessa* (see Appendix 1)

Lead-in

First, the teacher (T) introduces two characters on flashcards, William and Vanessa, and places them on the board. The pupils (Ps) are given a set of cards with pictures of words beginning either with a /w/ or /v/ sound. The T elicits the words and encourages correct pronunciation when necessary. Choral repetition of all the words follows. The Ps now need to ask the T questions in order to find out whether the words belong to Vanessa or to William. An example sentence (e.g. *Has William got wardrobe?*) may be written on the board so the Ps are not distracted by formulating the question and concentrate on the pronunciation. The T answers the Ps' questions in full sentences (e.g. *Yes, William has got*

wardrobe.), exaggerating the articulation and thus encouraging the Ps to notice the pattern. If by the end of the exercise the Ps have not noticed the rule for division of the words, the T prompts them by repeating the words, or by letting the Ps repeat chorally. The T promotes noticing by asking questions such as: *What can you hear? Can you hear any difference? What is the sound?* If necessary, these questions may be asked in the native language. As soon as the correct answers are elicited, the T encourages the Ps to explain the manner of articulation of the target sounds (e.g. *How do we make these sounds?*)

Practice

The Ps practise pronouncing the words of William and Vanessa while acting as if they were *sending a kiss to somebody* for /w/-words or *biting their lips* for /v/-words.

Listen and repeat. Minimal pair activity focused on both perception and production. The Ps first repeat after the recording, then they read out the words without a model.

Listen and tick the sentence you hear.

Dialogues of William and Vanessa. The Ps read the dialogues and underline all /v/ and /w/ sounds. The dialogues also contain words with the /w/ sound represented by a different spelling pattern (squash, quarter).

What can you hear? /v/ or /w/? Alternative of the previous activity. The T says the target words from the dialogue, the Ps react adequately when hearing them, e.g. clap for /w/ sounds and stamp their foot for /v/ sounds.

Lesson 2: /æ/ vs. /ʌ/

Aim: Pupils will be able to distinguish between /æ/ and /ʌ/ sounds. They will become aware of their correct articulation.

Teaching aids: flashcards with apple, bag, cat, man, hands, sun, bus, hungry, drum, duck

Materials: worksheets with *Red or blue* (see Appendix 2), worksheets with *Sound maze* (see Appendix 2)

Lead-in

The T presents five flashcards to the Ps and elicits the words containing the /æ/ sound (apple, bag, cat, man, hands). The words are then repeated chorally. The same procedure follows for the words containing the /ʌ/ sound (sun, bus, hungry, drum, duck). The two sets of pictures are placed either on the board or wherever the Ps can see them. The T repeats

the words again and asks: *What can you hear? Is it the same? Is it different?* Once the Ps realize the sound patterns, their attention is drawn to the manner of articulation. The Ps themselves should try to verbalize how the sounds are produced. The T encourages them to practise the sound /æ/ by opening their mouth and producing a long /ʌ/ sound at first. Then on the signal given by the T the Ps switch to pronouncing /e/ with their mouth still open as if pronouncing /ʌ/. Lastly, the focus is turned to the spelling of the words and its correspondence to the pronunciation.

Practice

Red or blue? All the minimal pairs are read first by the T and then chorally, with focus on correct pronunciation. The T reads out one word of each pair and the Ps determine whether the word said belongs to the red or blue column. The same task is carried out in pairs.

Sound maze. The Ps trace the words with the /ʌ/ sound to find their way to the finish. This activity can be performed individually or in pairs. The Ps are encouraged to say the words out loud to confirm the correct path.

Lesson 3: Word stress

Aim: The Ps will be able to determine the stress patterns of the target words.

Teaching aids: cards with the target words (group 1: pizza, butter, candies, flowers, apples; group 2: balloon, guitar, giraffe, shampoo, champagne; group 3: bananas, umbrella, computer, spaghetti, tomatoes; group 4: lemonade, magazine, kangaroo, margarine, cigarette)

Materials: worksheets with *Odd one out* activity (see Appendix 3)

Lead-in

The lesson starts with the T writing four words on the blackboard, each of them representing one stress pattern : *pizza*, *balloon*, *umbrella* and *lemonade*. The T encourages the Ps to read the words and elicits how many syllables they contain and which ones are stressed by asking: *How many syllables/parts there are in? Which one is stronger?* The T marks the syllable boundaries with vertical lines, the stressed syllables with big circles and unstressed syllables with small circles. Being aware of the stress patterns, the Ps now read the words chorally. In the next part of the lead-in the Ps are asked to organize the *Shopping list* (twenty words including the ones previously presented) into four categories,

according to the four presented stress patterns. However, the T does not specify how the words should be organized and leaves the Ps to discover it for themselves, offering help and giving hints when needed. After the words are successfully divided, the Ps read out the words focusing on the correct pronunciation.

Practice

Clap it out! To emphasize the stress patterns, the Ps are asked to draw one word card each and clap out the stress (clapping their hands for stressed and patting their knees for unstressed syllables). The Ps are encouraged to observe each other and correct each other when necessary.

Odd one out. The Ps mark the stress patterns of the words given and circle the one which does not belong to the group.

Lesson 4: Aspiration

Aim: The Ps will become aware of the aspirated consonants /p/, /t/ and /k/ and their correct articulation.

Teaching aids: paper tissues, dictionaries

Materials: none

Lead-in

The lesson begins with asking the Ps to translate six Czech words which are written on the board in English (*pero, pardon, tuna, test, kočka, kopnout*). If the Ps do not know all the translations, they find them in the dictionary with the guidance of the T. The English equivalents are then written on the board next to the Czech words. The T reads all the words together, always contrasting the Czech and English version. The Ps are then asked whether they can hear any difference or have noticed anything regarding the way the words *sound*. If the Ps have not noticed anything even after repeating the words over again, the T reads the words with a tissue in front of his or her mouth. The Ps can consequently see that in the case of the Czech words beginning with /p/, /t/ and /k/ the tissue stays still meanwhile with their English equivalents it keeps moving due to the aspiration of the beginning phonemes.

Practice

The Ps are encouraged to think of more words beginning with aspirated /p/, /t/ and /k/ or find them in the dictionary. Then they work in pairs and check each other's pronunciation

according to the movement of the paper tissue. Afterwards, the Ps try aspirating the Czech words in order to experience the difference between the pronunciation of the target phonemes in Czech and in English.

Lesson 5: Intonation

Aim: The Ps will become aware of the two intonation patterns in English questions. They will be able to determine whether the questions have rising or falling tones.

Teaching aids: Cards with questions from the activity *Can you match the questions?*

Materials: Worksheets with the activity *Can you match the questions?* (see Appendix 4)

Lead-in

There are two sets of questions written on the board, one set with rising and one set with falling intonation (see the list below). The T lets the Ps read them chorally, then reads them again by herself. The Ps' attention is drawn to the pronunciation: *What can you hear? Can you hear any difference?* Once the Ps recognize the difference lies in the intonation, the T elicits the rule which determines whether the question has a rising or falling tone (e.g. *What do these questions have in common?*). After the Ps discover the rule, they practise reading the questions with appropriate intonation, emphasizing it by moving their arms up or down.

Practice

Find the matching question! In this mingle activity the Ps are given cards with questions similar in content but opposite in intonation. Their task is to find a matching question. This exercise aims to further raise the Ps' awareness of intonation, by demonstrating that seemingly similar questions may differ greatly in the way we say them. Once the Ps find their match they work in the newly merged pairs on matching all the remaining questions.

To check the task the T or the P reads a question and shows the falling or rising tone by moving their arm. The Ps respond by reading the matching question, using their arms to show falling or rising as well.

List of questions:

Are you ready?

What time is it?

Does he work?

Where does she live?

Can you play tennis?

Why are you talking?

Did you finish your homework?

When do you start?

3.1.2 Respondents

The designed activities were piloted by the author herself at an elementary school in Prague. The young learners who participated in the pronunciation programme were pupils of three consecutive grades: fourth, fifth and sixth. In total, there were five learning groups which underwent the experiment: one group of fourth grade pupils and two groups from both fifth and sixth grade. These three grades were not selected randomly. The young learners attending fourth and fifth grade are at the concrete operational stage of cognitive development, whilst the pupils of sixth grade find themselves just at the border between the stages of concrete and formal operations. In effect, these age groups are thus well suited for the purpose of the thesis, which aims to determine to which extent the young learners are able to consciously notice the language features before entering the formal operational stage.

The number of pupils in each group varied over the time of the pronunciation programme, due to other school duties or sickness. On average, nine pupils per group attended each lesson. The exact numbers of the pupils in each lesson are registered in the respective tables in the subchapter 3.2 *Results*. It is also worth mentioning that the pupils had never been taught by the author-teacher before. Therefore, both sides first met at the beginning of the pronunciation programme.

3.1.3 Procedure

The experiment was carried out in a natural school environment, during the English lessons of the five previously mentioned groups of pupils. In total the author-teacher taught twenty-five lessons. Each lesson plan was designed to last approximately twenty-five minutes. Due to the organizational reasons of the elementary school, the programme was taught during five consecutive English lessons, over the course of two weeks. Since most of the lessons of the same grades ran contemporaneously, the author-teacher taught two groups consecutively in one forty-five minute lesson. This time constraint often caused that

the lesson plans were not completed and had to be finished in the next lesson. Nevertheless, the whole programme was conducted within the five lessons.

For the purpose of the analysis, all the lessons were video recorded with the compact camera Sony DSC-WX1. This could not have been done without the official approval of the legal representatives of the pupils. The approval had been arranged before the experiment took place and stated the recordings to be used solely for the purpose of the thesis. In order to protect the privacy of the respondents, the video recordings are not attached to the diploma thesis. However, they are available on demand to those interested.

The next step of the research represents the analysis of collected data in form of the videos, which is described in detail in the next subchapter.

3.1.4 Data analysis

The acquired collection of twenty-five video recordings was subjected to a thorough analysis focusing on the occurrence of noticing moments (NM). Each noticing moment was inspected considering several criteria, which were determined on the basis of the repeated patterns observed in the first few viewings of the recordings. The monitored criteria constituted the following:

- Stage – the stage of the lesson, in which the NM occurred
- Cause – the stimuli which led the pupils to notice
- No. of Ps – the number of pupils observed to notice
- Reaction – the way the pupils reacted when they noticed
- BL – the body language accompanying the process of noticing

The noticing moments were numbered according to their sequence in the lesson (NM1, NM2, NM2 and so on) and for ease of reference the exact occurrence timing of each noticing moment was indicated.

Several thorough viewings of each video recording were performed by the author and the collected data were registered in twenty-five tables, each table representing a single lesson taught in one of the five groups. All the tables were labelled according to the topics of the lessons and the group of the pupils:

- T1 to T5 for Lesson 1 to Lesson 5
- 4, 5A, 5B, 6A, 6B for the groups of pupils from fourth, fifth and sixth grade

Each table is introduced by the video label, total duration of the video and total number of the pupils who participated in the lesson.

Some tables contain noticing moments from two videos, as the topic taught had to be extended over two lessons due to the time constraint. This is marked accordingly in the respective tables.

Additionally, a short written evaluation of each lesson was included. The evaluations focus on the detailed descriptions of the conditions in which the individual noticing moments emerged. The complete results, organized according to the pronunciation topics of the lessons, are presented in the next chapter.

3.2 Results

3.2.1 Lesson 1: /v/ vs. /w/

Video T1_4	Duration: 14:59	Number of Ps: 8
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VIDEO T1_4	Time	Stage	Cause	No. of Ps	Reaction	BL
NM1	5:14	Lead-in	T asks	1	P answers	P raises hand
NM2	6:14	Lead-in	T asks	1	P answers	Not observed
NM3	6:27	Lead-in	T asks	1	P answers	Not observed
NM4	6:43	Lead-in	T asks	4	Ps answer	Not observed
NM5	8:23	Practice	P reads worksheet	1	P says out loud	P practises pron. by herself
NM6	14:26	Practice	T asks	1	P says out loud	P stamps and claps

At times, the Ps confuse the /v/ and /w/ sounds when asking the questions, e.g. *Has /W/anessa got worm?* NM1 is observed when only two words remain to be divided and the T asks: *Who has got these?* The correct answer for both words is given by the same P. With the words divided, the T asks: *Can you hear the difference?* and the same P of NM1 calls out: *I can hear /v/ everywhere!* (NM2) The T reacts: *Is it really only /v/ everywhere?* and the P answers: *Words of Vanessa start with /v/ and those of William with double-u* (NM3). The T repeats some words and most of the Ps respond that they can hear /w/ (NM4). When worksheets with minimal pairs are given out, one P immediately notices that one sound changes the meaning (NM5). During practice the Ps show the ability to perceive and produce the sounds correctly. They are often observed practising the exaggerated articulation without being asked to, which suggests the Ps are involved in the lesson. NM6 is observed while carrying out the activity *Dialogues of William and Vanessa* (performed in its alternated version), when the Ps realize the word *twelve* contains both target sounds.

Video T1_5a	Duration:19:34	Number of Ps: 8
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VIDEO T1_5A	Time	Stage	Cause	No. of Ps	Reaction	BL
NM1	5:47	Lead-in	T asks	1	P answers	P raises hand
NM2	6:40	Lead-in	T asks	1	P answers	Not observed
NM3	6:44	Lead-in	T asks	4	P answers	Not observed
NM4	6:53	Lead-in	T asks	4	P answers	Not observed
NM5	7:28	Lead-in	T asks	1	P answers	Lip biting
NM6	7:38	Lead-in	T asks	1	P answers	Lip rounding

VIDEO T1_5A	Time	Stage	Cause	No. of Ps	Reaction	BL
NM7	14:33	Practice/perception	T says out loud	2	Ps react correctly	Ps stand up and raise hands
NM8	18:27	Practice/underline	Ps work individually	1	P underlines correct word	P raises hand

When first eliciting the words, the Ps often say them incorrectly, e.g. /w/iolin, /w/ase. The T does not correct them, instead she repeats the words with the correct pronunciation, e.g. *Yes, it is violin!* The Ps participate and are keen to ask the questions but the pronunciation errors persist. The Ps do not seem to discover the pattern until the end of the exercise. When the T asks: *What can you hear? Can you hear any difference?*, the first answers of the Ps concern spelling: *William's words start with double-u* (NM1). The T guides the Ps to focus on the sound and repeats the /w/ words again, exaggeratedly, until the P responds: *There is /v/* (NM2). *Do I really say /v/?* insists the T and finally almost all the Ps say, although hesitantly, *No, it is /w/* (NM3). Right after, the Ps reveal the /v/ sound belongs to Vanessa and her words (NM4). The T: *How do I make this /v/ sound?*. The P: *Sharply*. The T continues: *What do I do?* And the P: *Teeth on the lip* (NM5). The T: *What about with /w/?* The Ps: *Pucker the lips!* (NM6). At this point, most of them mime lip rounding. Listening exercises are performed confidently, the Ps are able to both perceive and produce the sounds without any mistakes. In the activity *What can you hear?* The Ps recognize the word *twelve* contains both target sounds (NM7). In the last activity, *Dialogues of William and Vanessa*, the Ps manage to underline all the words, including *quarter*, which has not appeared in the lesson before and has different spelling pattern (NM8).

Video T1_5B	Duration:17:46	Number of Ps: 11
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VIDEO T1_5B	Time	Stage	Cause	No. of Ps	Reaction	BL
NM1	3:13	Lead-in	Ps ask questions	1	P answers	P raises hand
NM2	5:13	Lead-in	T asks	1	P answers	Not observed
NM3	5:29	Lead-in	T asks	1	P answers	Not observed
NM4	5:34	Lead-in	T asks	1	P answers	Not observed
NM5	6:46	Lead-in	T asks	1	P answers	P imitates articulation
NM6	7:43	Lead-in	T asks	1	P answers	Not observed
NM7 Video T2_5B	2:13	Practice	T asks	1	P answers	P raises hand

Most of the Ps confuse the sounds and pronounce /v/ instead of /w/ and vice versa when asking the questions. Three Ps seem to notice the rule for division as they keep raising their hands to be called out and prompt the other Ps. When called out, the P asks confidently and nods her head after the T confirms she is correct (NM1). After dividing and repeating all the words, the T asks: *Can you hear any difference?* The P: */wi:!!* (NM2). The T reacts: *Where do we hear /w/?* The same P: *At the beginning.* The T, pointing at two piles of pictures: *Where exactly?* The P: *Everywhere* (meaning both Vanessa's and William's words). The T repeats some /v/-words: *Do we really hear /w/ everywhere?* The P: *For double-u!* (NM3). The T asks: *So what is the difference?* The Ps: *Vee and double-u* (NM4). The Ps insist on the spelling and do not consider the pronunciation but the T does not give up: *How do we hear it?* The P: *The same way.* The T persisted: *Really?* The P: *A bit different.* The T decides to give the Ps a hint and draws attention to her mouth. Some Ps

start to imitate lip rounding and finally there is a response regarding the pronunciation: *The ones with double-u you say kind of like /u:/, and the ones with vee like...*(NM5). The T describes the articulation and encourages the Ps to practise, which they do with great exaggeration. When the T asks if the Ps are familiar with the /v/ sound, they immediately reply: *Yes, from Czech!* (NM6). In the practice the Ps perform well at both perception and production. It seems that once they are aware of the articulation, they can pronounce the words with more confidence. Due to the prolonged lead-in stage, *Dialogues of William and Vanessa* are included in the next lesson (Video T2_5B). When checking the dialogues, the P notices the sound /w/ in *quarter* (NM7).

Video T1_6A	Duration: 17:36	Number of Ps: 10
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VIDEO T1_6A	Time	Stage	Cause	No. of Ps	Reaction	BL
NM1	2:04	Lead-in	T asks	1	P answers	Not observed
NM2	2:18	Lead-in	T asks	1	P answers	Not observed
NM3	2:21	Lead-in	T asks	1	P answers	P points
NM4	2:32	Lead-in	T asks	4	Ps answer	Lip rounding
NM5	15:40	Practice	T asks	1	P answers	P raises hand
NM6	16:00	Practice	P doubts	1	P answers	Not observed

When the T asks: *What can you hear?* after all the words are matched to Vanessa and William, the P replies: *They all start with /v/* (NM1). The T reacts: *Do we here /v/ everywhere? Where can we hear it?* The Ps start producing both /v/ and /w/ sounds. When the T asks which words (pointing at Vanessa's and William's pile of pictures) start with

/v/, the Ps say: *Both*. (NM2). The T expresses doubts: *Are you sure there is /v/ everywhere?* and the P realize: *No, only here!* pointing at Vanessa's words (NM3). The T turns their attention to the /w/-words: *What do we hear in William?* The P: *Double-u*. At the same time, some Ps start to imitate lip rounding for /w/ sound (NM4). The T clarifies the articulation of /w/ and when she asks the Ps to explain how to articulate /v/, instead of verbalizing the manner of articulation they imitate lip biting. The Ps are able to listen and repeat the isolated minimal pairs successfully but distinguishing the whole sentences causes them trouble. In *Dialogues of William and Vanessa*, the Ps manage to notice the word *quarter* (NM5). One of the Ps disagrees but the others suggest that he reads the word out loud and remark that the spelling does not correspond to double-u in this case (NM6).

Video T1_6B	Duration: 13:49	Number of Ps: 7
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VIDEO T1_6B	Time	Stage	Cause	No. of Ps	Reaction	BL
NM1	4:26	Lead-in	T asks	1	P answers	Not observed
NM2	05:12	Lead-in	T asks	1	P answers	P points
NM3	05:27	Lead-in	T asks	1	P answers	Not observed
NM4	05:40	Lead-in	T asks	1	P answers	P articulates
NM5 Video T2_6B	1:28	Practice	T asks	1	P answers	Not observed

The Ps are observed to ask: *Has William/Vanessa got.. ..?* mostly with correct pronunciation but the pattern does not seem to be revealed. For the question about difference between the words the P answers: *Double-u and vee* (NM1). The T draws the Ps' attention to sound and they reply: *Everything starts with /v/*. The T asks: *When do I say /v/?* The Ps: *With Vanessa's words* (NM2). In response to the T's question: *How do I make*

the /v/ sound? the P say: *Teeth against the lip* (NM3). The T continues: *What do I do when I say William, whale...* The P: *You round your lips* (NM4). By the end of the lesson the Ps are able to produce the sounds correctly. Activities aimed at perception cause them more difficulties, especially ticking the correct sentence. The exercise with dialogues is checked in the next lesson (Video T2_6B). The Ps first do not mention *squash* and *quarter* among the underlined words but when the T reminds them there are more words, the P manages to notice these as well (NM5).

3.2.2 Lesson 2: /æ/ vs. /ʌ/

Video T2_4	Duration: 12:03	Number of Ps: 9
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VIDEO T2_4	Time	Stage	Cause	No. of Ps	Reaction	BL
NM1	04:08	Lead-in	T asks	1	P answers	Not observed
NM2	04:18	Lead-in	T asks	1	P answers	Not observed
NM3	04:48	Lead-in	T asks	1	P answers	P raises hand
NM4	07:47	Practice	T asks	2	Ps answer	Not observed

After eliciting all the words from flashcards the T asks: *What is different? What can you hear?* and the P immediately replies: *In one we say /ʌ/ and in the other we say /e/* (NM1). The T keeps asking: *Do we really say ʌ and e?* but the Ps do not react. The T gives them a hint: *I agree we say /ʌ/ there...what about here?* and repeats the words. One P manages to notice: *Here it is mixed* (NM2). The T: *What is mixed?* The Ps: */ʌ/ and /e/*. The T writes the phonemic symbols on the blackboard and asks: *So how do we say mixed /ʌ/ and /e/?* The P raises hand: *I open mouth for /ʌ/ but say /e/* (NM3). During practice the T raises a question: *How do we know when we say /ʌ/ or /æ/?* The Ps first speculate among

themselves and then give the right answer regarding the spelling of the target words (NM4).

Video T2_5A	Duration: 18:13	Number of Ps: 10
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VIDEO T2_5A	Time	Stage	Cause	No. of Ps	Reaction	BL
NM1	3:23	Lead-in	T asks	1	P answers	P raises hand
NM2	3:47	Lead-in	T asks	1	P answers	P raises hand
NM3	3:56	Lead-in	T hints	1	P answers	P raises hand
NM4	4:09	Lead-in	T asks/ P's previous answer	1	P answers	P draws phonemic symbol in the air
NM5	4:32	Lead-in	T asks	1	P answers	P raises hand
NM6	17:42	Practice	T asks	10	Ps answer	Mixed, some Ps raise hand

When all the words are elicited the T asks: *Can you hear any difference?* The P reacts: *In one case we say /ʌ/ and in the other we say /e/* (NM1). The T turns the P's statement into a question for the entire class: *Do u agree we say /ʌ/ or /e/?* The Ps' replies are negative but they do not offer any alternative. The T goes on: *I agree with /ʌ/ in these words...* And reads the words, *But what about here?* repeating the words with /æ/ sound. The P gives an answer regarding the spelling: *We write A in all those words and we write U in the other ones* (NM2). The T insists on the sound and another P starts: *Regarding the pronunciation...we say /ʌ/ in bus for example...and then in the other we say...just...mmmm* (NM3) without finishing the sentence. Suddenly another P calls out: *It is that kind of A-E!* (NM 4), drawing the phonemic symbol in the air with her finger. The T elicits with the help of all the Ps: *So what does it mean? We say...something between... /ʌ/ and /e/.* The T

demands the articulation: *How do I do it?* The P: *We open mouth for /ʌ/ but we say /e/* (NM5). During the practice, the Ps manage to notice that not all the words we read with /ʌ/ are spelled with U (NM6). The Ps are observed to correct each other throughout the practice activities which signals they are well aware of the proper articulation of the target sounds.

Video T2_5B	Duration: 16:49	Number of Ps: 11
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VIDEO T2_5B	Time	Stage	Cause	No. of Ps	Reaction	BL
NM1	5:42	Lead-in	T asks	1	P answers	Not observed
NM2	5:54	Lead-in	T asks	1	P answers	Not observed
NM3	6:00	Lead-in	T asks	1	P answers	Not observed
NM4	6:02	Lead-in	P's previous answer	1	P answers	Not observed
NM5	6:54	Lead-in	T asks	1	P answers	Not observed
NM6	7:27	Lead-in	T asks	1	Ps answer	Not observed

With words placed on the board, the T asks: *Can you hear any difference?* The Ps give an answer regarding the spelling: *The difference is U and A* (NM1). The T: *What about the sound?* The P: *It is spelled with U but we read it as /ʌ/* (NM2). The T: *Right, so we hear /ʌ/. Where?* One P starts naming the words with /ʌ/ (NM3) Next P: *Everywhere*. Another P reacts: *No, not everywhere*. (NM4) The T, pointing to one column of /ʌ/ words and reading them: *Right, there is /ʌ/ here. What about here?* pointing to the words column. The Ps chorally: */e/!* The T reads the words and asks again: *Is it /e/?* and the Ps: *Yes!* The T disagrees and encourages the Ps to find out the target sound. After a moment The P says:

Something between /ʌ/ and /e/ (NM5). How do we make this sound? asks the T and repeats the target words again, with exaggerated articulation. The P: *We open mouth for /ʌ/ but we say /e/ (NM6).* The Ps practise the sound, some being a little reluctant. In the minimal pair activity the Ps get confused when hearing the words but then they are able to explain which word was meant according to the spelling pattern. Some Ps however do not manage to keep up with the pace of the exercise. When the Ps work in pairs, they seem to be engaged in the activity, as they are observed correcting each other and trying to catch each other's mistakes.

Video T2_6A	Duration: 25:28	Number of Ps: 9
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VIDEO T2_6A	Time	Stage	Cause	No. of Ps	Reaction	BL
NM1	5:25	Lead-in	T asks	1	P answers	P raises hand
NM2	6:09	Lead-in	T asks	1	P answers	P draws phonemic symbol in the air
NM3	6:29	Lead-in	P's previous answer	1	P answers	Not observed
NM4	6:53	Lead-in	T asks	1	P answers	Not observed

As most of the words are well known, the Ps can pronounce them correctly. When the T asks *What can you hear? What is different?* The Ps give random guesses until one replies: *In the second group we say /ʌ/ (NM1).* The T: *What about the first group?* Some Ps say: */e/* and some: *We say /ʌ/ as well!* The T first reads the words correctly and then again, replacing the sound /æ/ with /e/. The P realizes: *It is that kind of /ʌ/-/e/!* (NM2). Other Ps: *We hear both!* (NM3). The T writes the phonemic symbol on the board and asks: *How do we make the /æ/ sound?* The Ps try to make the sound themselves, one P answers: *With mouth more open!* (NM4). The Ps sometimes get confused in the minimal pair activity aimed at perception but they are always able to correct themselves and say the

contrasting word when asked to, which suggests they are aware of the difference. When working on the *Maze* the Ps seem to be involved as they all read the words out loud and discuss the correct path with their peers.

Video T2_6B	Duration: 7:44	Number of Ps: 11
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VIDEO T2_6B	Time	Stage	Cause	No. of Ps	Reaction	BL
NM1	4:20	Lead-in	T asks	3	Ps answer	Not observed
NM2	4:42	Lead-in	T asks	1	P answers	Not observed
NM3	5:19	Lead-in	T asks	1	P answers	Not observed

When words are presented, the T asks: *What can you hear? Can you hear any difference?* The P immediately raises his hand and gives an answer regarding the spelling. The T reminds the Ps to focus on what they can hear. Some Ps say: */e/ in this group and /ʌ/ in the other one* (NM1). The T doubts their answer: *Is it really /e/?* and reads the words replacing the */æ/* sound with */e/*. Suddenly, the P says: *It is that kind of /ʌ/ but saying /e/!* (NM2). The T asks the Ps to explain how to produce the sound */æ/*. The P: *We have to open the mouth and say /e/* (NM3). The Ps then read the words chorally again, exaggerating the articulation. While they are working in pairs and reading the minimal pairs to each other, they seem to be involved in the activity. They try to test each other and enjoy correcting one another. Even in the *Maze* activity (Video T3_6B) they are observed to say the words to each other and discuss what the next step is.

3.2.3 Lesson 3: Word stress

Video T3_4	Duration: 23:51	Number of Ps: 10
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VIDEO T3_4	Time	Stage	Cause	No. of Ps	Reaction	BL
NM1	3:12	Lead-in	T asks	3	Ps answers	Not observed
NM2	3:30	Lead-in	T asks	4	Ps answers	Not observed
NM3	6:55	Lead-in	P looks at the board	1	P states	P points at the board
NM4	10:05	Lead-in	T hints	1	P states	P looks at the board

The T asks: *How many parts there are in the word pizza?* and the Ps start spelling it. When the T asks: *How many syllables?* the Ps immediately react giving the correct answer (NM1). The T continues: *Which one is stronger?* The Ps say the second one, so the T repeats the word exaggerating the stress and the Ps change their answer (NM2). With other words the Ps directly call out the number of syllables. They also determine the stressed syllables correctly without even letting the T finish the questions. When dividing the words in four groups, the Ps show great level of involvement as they vividly discuss the possible rules for division. Some Ps first suggest to focus on content but soon they realize the groups correspond to the four categories of stress patterns written on the board (NM3). However, the Ps tend to concentrate only on the number of syllables. At some point, with a cue from the T, they realize they need to focus on the stress patterns (NM4). They are observed to pronounce the words for themselves but often place the stress on a different syllable which leads them to matching it incorrectly. The task is apparently not easy for them and the Ps require lot of hints from the T. When the Ps read the words without the T's help or clap them out, they often have difficulties with correct pronunciation. However, they are able to determine the stressed syllable when asked to, which signals they are aware of how the word should sound.

Video T3_5A	Duration: 19:01	Number of Ps: 11
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VIDEO T3_5A	Time	Stage	Cause	No. of Ps	Reaction	BL
NM1	2:35	Lead-in	T asks	4	Ps answer	P counts on fingers
NM2	2:49	Lead-in	T asks	3	Ps answer	Not observed
NM3	4:47	Lead-in	P looks at the board	1	P states	P points at the board
NM4	7:00	Lead-in	T hints	1	P states	P exhales with excitement
NM5	7:59	Lead-in	T hints	1	P states	P points at the board

The Ps react immediately to the question: *How many syllables?* (NM1). The question *Which part is stronger?* is replied correctly only after the first word is repeated (NM2), however, the rest of the words are determined correctly regarding both number of syllables and position of stress. When working in groups and dividing the words, one group manages to discover the rule for division straight away (NM3), while the other starts to organize the words according to their meaning. The T gives the second group a hint – to look at the blackboard, where the initial words are written. First, the group focuses only on the number of syllables (NM4) but when reminded of the target number of word groups, they realize they need to consider the stress pattern as well (NM5). Both groups require the assistance of the T, even when aware of the rule. At the same time, both groups are highly involved in the activity, counting the syllables and pronouncing the words to discover the stress pattern. During the clapping activity, the Ps get confused as they tend to mix up the signals for weak and strong syllables. Nevertheless, when they pause and think, they always find the correct way to clap the words out.

Video T3_5B	Duration: 14:08	Number of Ps: 11
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VIDEO T3_5B	Time	Stage	Cause	No. of Ps	Reaction	BL
NM1	3:01	Lead-in	T asks	2	Ps answer	Not observed
NM2	3:22	Lead-in	T asks	1	P answers	P raises hand
NM3	5:12	Lead-in	P looks at the board	1	P states	P points at the board
NM4	8:44	Lead-in	T hints	1	P states	P points at the board

When the T asks how many syllables there are in the first word (pizza) the Ps reply without hesitation (NM1). The T: *Which one is stronger?* Most of the Ps start saying: *The second one.* The T repeats the word pizza and waits until one P says: *The first one* (NM2). The rest of the words are assessed correctly in both respects. In the next task which requires the Ps to divide the words into four categories, the P from one group is observed to find out the rule immediately after the task is given: *We have this group with stress on the first syllable in two syllable word* (NM3). This group divides the list first according to the number of syllables and then they focus on the stress pattern. Their actions are usually initiated by the P who formulated the rules. The second group proceeds in the same order, however they need a hint from the T as they are unsure how to continue. The T suggests they look at the board. The P notices that the two groups can be further divided according to the stress pattern (NM4). The task is time consuming and a lot of Ps become restless. The Ps manage to divide most of the words but they need the help of the T who reads the words with exaggerated stress in order for them to match them appropriately. In the next lesson (Video T4_5B), the Ps mostly clap out the words correctly and if not, they are able to correct themselves. Most of the Ps, however, are not able to place the stress correctly in speech, even though they are aware of its correct placement.

Video T3_6A	Duration: 11:25	Number of Ps: 9
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VIDEO T3_6A	Time	Stage	Cause	No. of Ps	Reaction	BL
NM1	2:03	Lead-in	T asks	3	Ps answer	Not observed
NM2	2:09	Lead-in	T asks	2	Ps answer	Not observed
NM3	4:43	Lead-in	Ps associate the task with the previous	2	Ps divide the words into syllables	Ps clap out the syllables

The Ps correctly determine both the number of syllables (NM1) and the position of the *strong* syllable (NM2) in the first word (pizza) and subsequently also in the rest of the words. As soon as the groups are given the task to organize the shopping list into four categories, the Ps are observed clapping out the syllables and helping themselves by pronouncing the words (NM3). However, the Ps still need the T's help to be able to match the words correctly. In the clapping activity (Video T4_6A) the Ps usually clap the words correctly but their pronunciation does not correspond to what they clap. They are thus aware of the correct stress pattern. Another evidence of their awareness is demonstrated when the Ps correct each other's clapping patterns.

Video T3_6B	Duration: 16:39	Number of Ps: 11
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VIDEO T3_6B	Time	Stage	Cause	No. of Ps	Reaction	BL
NM1	8:26	Lead-in	T asks	2	Ps answer	P counts on fingers
NM2	8:33	Lead-in	T asks	3?	Ps answer	Not observed

VIDEO T3_6B	Time	Stage	Cause	No. of Ps	Reaction	BL
NM3	11:23	Lead-in	T hints	1	P states	P looks at the board

The Ps are confident at dividing the words into syllables (NM1). Hesitant answers are given for the question: *Which syllable is stronger?* Half of the Ps think it is the first one, the other half argues for the second one. After the T repeats the word exaggeratedly, they agree on the first syllable (NM2). For the rest of the words the Ps give correct answers. In the *Shopping list* task, the Ps first attempt to organize the words according to the meaning. The T prompts them not to focus on the meaning and to have a look on the board. The Ps realize they need to consider the pronunciation (NM3). The Ps show signs of effective teamwork, as they pronounce the words to each other and discuss where to put the stress. When asked to clap the words out the Ps do so correctly.

3.2.4 Lesson 4: Aspiration

Video T4_4	Duration: 18:17	Number of Ps: 6
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VIDEO T4_4	Time	Stage	Cause	No. of Ps	Reaction	BL
NM1	9:52	Lead-in	T asks	3	Ps answer	Ps shake heads
NM2	10:52	Lead-in	T asks	1	P answers	Not observed
NM3	11:28	Lead-in	T asks	1	P answers	Not observed

After all the words are translated and read aloud, the T asks: *Did you notice something in these words?* The Ps give various answers, none of which regards the pronunciation. Then they notice all the words begin with the same letters, so the T says: *Do we say them in the same way?* The Ps answer: *No, we don't* (NM1). The T asks: *So what is different?*

But receives no reaction apart from: *The pronunciation*. The words are read again, with exaggerated aspiration of the English equivalents. *What is the difference in how I say the words?* The T's question is followed by silence, which is hesitantly broken by one P: *When saying pen for example, there is /x/* (NM2). The T helps the Ps by putting a tissue in front of her mouth and showing the difference in movement of the tissue when pronouncing Czech words and when pronouncing English words. However, the Ps are still not able to verbalize the difference. Only when the T asks: *What is coming out of my mouth?* the Ps say: *Air* (NM3). The Ps become more involved during the practise with paper tissues, when they themselves try to aspirate the sounds and make the tissue move.

Video T4_5A	Duration: 16:24	Number of Ps: 9
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VIDEO T4_5A	Time	Stage	Cause	No. of Ps	Reaction	BL
NM1	8:43	Lead-in	T asks	1	P answers	P raises hand

The T lets the Ps read the Czech and English words and then re-reads them, exaggerating the aspiration and asks: *Did you notice anything about these words?* The P: *At the beginning of the English words we kind of breathe out* (NM1). The T demonstrates it with the moving paper tissue as she pronounces the English words. The new discovery seems to draw the Ps' attention and they seem to be excited about trying it out themselves. In addition, when performing the next task (looking for more words with aspirates p, t, k) the Ps are involved, pronouncing the words they found with exaggerated articulation. They also try aspirating Czech words which they find very entertaining.

Video T4_5B	Duration: 18:31	Number of Ps: 8
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VIDEO T4_5B	Time	Stage	Cause	No. of Ps	Reaction	BL
NM1	16:21	Lead-in	T asks	2	Ps answer	P raises hand

VIDEO T4_5B	Time	Stage	Cause	No. of Ps	Reaction	BL
NM2	17:19	Lead-in	T asks	1	P answers	P points at her throat

The T reads the words written on the board and asks: *Can you hear any difference?* Some Ps say they hear /x/ or /h/ in the English words (NM1). The T continues: So *what do I do when I pronounce them?* The P: *You breathe out air* (NM2). The practice was performed in the next lesson (Video T5_5B). The Ps enjoy the activity with the tissue but at the same time are unable to concentrate as some of them become restless and disruptive.

Video T4_6A	Duration: 25:13	Number of Ps: 9
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VIDEO T4_6A	Time	Stage	Cause	No. of Ps	Reaction	BL
NM1	14:03	Lead-in	T asks	1	P answers	Not observed
NM2	15:46	Lead-in	Ps try themselves	4	Ps answer	Not observed

The T reads the Czech and English words and asks: *Can you hear any difference?* The first answer is *No*, then the Ps start suggesting that the English words are different and more prominent at the beginning (NM1). The T keeps asking: *What do I do when pronouncing it? Do I do anything different?* The T reads the words again but the Ps are still unable to answer. The T encourages the Ps to read along, with the palms of their hands in front of their mouths. Then the T asks: *Did you feel any difference?* The Ps answer: *Yes, we blow more!* The T: *When do we blow out more? With the Czech or the English words?* The P: *With the Czech ones!* Other Ps react immediately: *No, with the English words!* (NM2). The Ps get involved especially at the later stage, when they practise pronouncing the words with the paper tissues in front of their mouths.

Video T4_6B	Duration: 12:27	Number of Ps: 10
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VIDEO T4_6B	Time	Stage	Cause	No. of Ps	Reaction	BL
NM1	7:29	Lead-in	T asks	2?	Ps answer	Not observed
NM2	7:38	Lead-in	T asks	1	P answers	Not observed
NM3	8:35	Lead-in	T asks	1	P answers	Not observed
NM4	8:40	Lead-in	T asks	2	Ps answer	Not observed

After reading the Czech and English words, the T asks the Ps: *Can you hear any difference?* The Ps produce exaggeratedly aspirated /k/ (NM1). The T elicits: *So what do I do in a different way?* The P: *We add /h/* (NM2). The T invites the Ps to join and read the words together, while holding the palms of their hands in front of their mouths. Then the T asks: *Did you feel anything on your palms?* The P answers: *Breath* (NM3). The T continues: *When did you feel it?* The Ps: *When saying the English words* (NM4). The T encourages the Ps to formulate the rule: *So what do we do when pronouncing these English words?* The Ps: *We breathe more.* The T elicits: *We breathe more...so we put more...* The Ps: *Air.* The Ps get involved especially when practising the aspiration with paper tissues. They compete with their classmates, who can make the tissue move more. The Ps find aspirating the Czech words the most entertaining part of the lesson.

3.2.5 Lesson 5: Intonation

Video T5_4	Duration: 24:08	Number of Ps: 9
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VIDEO T5_4	Time	Stage	Cause	No. of Ps	Reaction	BL
NM1	9:22	Lead-in	T asks	1	P answers	Not observed
NM2	9:32	Lead-in	T asks	1	P answers	P points at the board
NM3	9:45	Lead-in	T asks	2	Ps answer	P demonstrates the fall/rise
NM4	10:02	Lead-in	T asks	1	P answers	Not observed
NM5	10:37	Lead-in	T asks	3	Ps answer	Not observed

Having read the questions, the T asks: *What is different? Can you hear any difference?* The P: *Your voice is different* (NM1). Another P, pointing at the blackboard: *It is rising there and falling there* (NM2). The T reacts: *What is rising and what is falling?* The Ps: *The voice* (NM3). The T explains to the Ps that we call this characteristic of speech intonation and asks the Ps: *How do we know if the question has rising or falling intonation?* The P: *Because there is what, where, when..* (NM4). The T draws the Ps' attention to the questions rising in intonation: *What about here? These questions also have something in common...* The Ps keep guessing, focusing on the form of the questions. The T prompts them to focus on the way we answer the questions. The Ps immediately discover what the common feature is: *Yes or no!* (NM5). When checking the matching exercise, Ps are asked to show fall or rise with their arms. The Ps are confident with the rising questions but face difficulties to produce the falling tone. However, when asked whether the question has rising or falling intonation, they are able to respond correctly with confidence, which consequently signals that they are aware of the rule.

Video T5_5A	Duration: 14:19	Number of Ps: 7
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VIDEO T5_5A	Time	Stage	Cause	No. of Ps	Reaction	BL
NM1	2:41	Lead-in	T asks	1	P answers	P raises hand
NM2	3:41	Lead-in	T asks	1	P answers	P points up
NM3	3:46	Lead-in	T asks	3	Ps answer	Not observed
NM4	4:07	Lead-in	T asks	1	P answers	P raises hand
NM5	4:26	Lead-in	T asks	1	P answers	P raises hand
NM6	4:49	Lead-in	T asks	1	P answers	Not observed

Ps first read all the questions with rising intonation. Then the T reads the questions again and asks: *What can you hear?* The P: *In one group you always raise your voice at the end...you highlight the question mark* (NM1). The Ps notice the difference but they are not able to describe it with words: *You are kind of asking more in these questions, you raise the voice.* The T: *What does my voice do then? How does it sound?* The P: *It rises* (NM2). The attention is now turned to the other set of question: *What does it do here?* The Ps: *It falls* (NM3). The T asks the Ps how can they tell whether the question they read will have a rising or a falling intonation. The P: *The ones beginning with what, where, why...we fall...when there is WH-* (NM4) *and in the next group...they vary.* The T: *Do they vary?* The P: *They all start with a verb!* (NM5). The T further elicits: *What is the answer to these questions?* The Ps: *Yes or no!* (NM6). In the mingle activity the Ps are observed correcting each other's intonation. The Ps tend to perform better at producing the rising intonation. They usually help themselves by putting their arms up or down and this is observed to be

done correctly, so the Ps are aware of the correct intonation, even if not producing it correctly at all times.

Video T5_5B	Duration: 19:46	Number of Ps: 9
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VIDEO T5_5B	Time	Stage	Cause	No. of Ps	Reaction	BL
NM1	7:23	Lead-in	T asks	3	Ps answer	Not observed
NM2	8:42	Lead-in	T asks	1	P answers	Not observed
NM3	9:13	Lead-in	T asks	3	Ps answer	Ps put arms down
NM4	9:39	Lead-in	T asks	1	P answers	Not observed
NM5	10:25:	Lead-in	T asks	1	P answers	P raises hand

The Ps read all the questions on the board with rising intonation. When the T reads the questions, contrasting the rising and falling tone, the Ps manage to notice a difference but are unable to verbalize it. They put across various observations, focusing on the rising questions, e.g. *One set of questions sounds more...like questions.., The last word sounds more prominent, there is stress...You raise the voice* (NM1). The T tries to help them by asking: *What is my voice doing?* But the Ps keep repeating the same answers. The T asks: *Is it rising or falling?* The P firmly answers: *Rising!* (NM2). The T reacts: *In which questions is it rising?* The Ps answer correctly and the T continues: *What about these questions? What is my voice doing?* and the Ps: *It is going down* (NM3). The Ps are encouraged to read the questions chorally and demonstrate the intonation by raising their arms or putting them down. The T asks the Ps how do we know whether the question has rising or falling intonation without hearing it. The Ps: *In the rising ones there are verbs at the beginning* (NM4). The T: *So how do we answer these questions?* The P: *Oh, I know!*

We answer yes or no (NM5). The T appreciates the answer and formulates the rule. In the pair work activity the Ps are observed marking the intonation by moving their arms and also using it correctly.

Video T5_6A	Duration: 13:23	Number of Ps: 10
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VIDEO T5_6A	Time	Stage	Cause	No. of Ps	Reaction	BL
NM1	4:06	Lead-in	T asks	1	P answers	Not observed
NM2	4:15	Lead-in	T asks	4?	Ps answer	Not observed
NM3	4:20	Lead-in	T asks	2	Ps answer	Not observed
NM4	6:01	Lead-in	T asks	1	P answers	Not observed
NM5	6:27	Lead-in	T asks	1	P answers	Not observed

The Ps read all the questions with rising intonation. The T reads them and contrasts the rising and falling tone and asks: *What can you hear? What is different?* The Ps give answers regarding the content of the questions. The T repeats the questions, exaggerating the intonation and the P says: *You are raising your voice* (NM1). The T elicits: *Alright, what does my voice do then? It goes....* and the Ps complete the sentence: *Up* (NM2). The T points at the questions with falling intonation: *What about here?* The Ps: *It goes down* (NM3). The T turns the focus to the form of the questions: *How do I know which questions have rising tone and which ones have falling tone?* The Ps show doubt and guess randomly, mostly concentrating on the content again. The T asks what do the questions with the rising tone have in common. The P: *We ask with the verb* (NM4). The T: *So what is the answer to these questions?* The P: *Yes or no* (NM5). The Ps have difficulties

producing the falling tone but when asked if the question goes up or down, they know the answer. This suggests they have become aware of the rule.

Video T5_6B	Duration: 16:01	Number of Ps: 9
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VIDEO T5_6B	Time	Stage	Cause	No. of Ps	Reaction	BL
NM1	4:01	Lead-in	T asks	1	P answers	Not observed
NM2	5:18	Lead-in	T asks	1	P answers	P points up and down
NM3	5:26	Lead-in	T asks	3?	Ps answer	P points
NM4	6:07	Lead-in	T asks	1	P answers	Not observed
NM5	6:46	Lead-in	T asks	1	P answers	Not observed

At the beginning the Ps manage to read the questions mostly with the proper intonation. Nevertheless, the T reads them once again with exaggerated rising and falling tones and asks the class: *What is different? Can you hear?* The P: *The question is not that obvious here* (NM1). The T: *Why? What do I do with my voice?* The Ps express doubts so the T reads the questions again, this time not as two separate sets but contrasting the questions with rising and falling tones. The Ps give random answers concerning the individual words or meaning, so the T prompts them to consider the questions as a whole. At last the P says: *One is rising and one is falling* (NM2). The T adds: *Which ones are rising and which ones are falling?* More Ps join to answer correctly (NM3). The Ps read the questions together with the T, focusing on the proper tones. The T asks: *How can we tell, whether the question is rising or falling?* The P: *According to the beginning of the question* (NM4). The T formulates the rule with the help of the Ps: *The WH-questions are...* The Ps: *...falling.* The T: *What about the rising questions, what do they have in*

common? The Ps focus on the content again, so the T prompts to consider the answers to the questions and one P swiftly replies: *Yes/no!* (NM5). In the mingle activity the Ps often pronounce the questions with rising intonation, regardless of the proper tone. However, in the matching activity they are observed as having realized which questions are rising and which ones falling.

3.3 Discussion

In the 25 analysed videos, there was a total number of 112 NMs observed. The analysis of the collected data according to the criteria outlined in one of the previous chapters revealed several tendencies.

The vast majority (namely 91% cases) of the NMs were observed during the lead-in stage of the lessons. Only 10 out of 112 NMs occurred during the practice. This result suggests that the author's intention to design the lead-ins in order to encourage the pupils to notice the target pronunciation features was fulfilled. The NMs in the practice stage of the lessons were observed only in two specific cases. The first case was detected in Lesson 1 (/v/ vs. /w/) of all the groups, when the Ps managed to notice that the words *squash* and *quarter* contain the /w/ sound even if they are spelled differently. The second case was observed in two groups in Lesson 2 (/æ/ vs. /ʌ/), when the T raised a question regarding the spelling of the target words which was, however, raised in the lead-in stage in the remaining groups.

Regarding the cause of the NMs, the results are again more than obvious. 90,2% of the observed NMs were caused by the T asking questions or hinting. The T thus proved to play a crucial part in the process of noticing. The rest of the NMs followed either after the other Ps' remarks during the lesson or occurred without any noticeable preceding cause. It can be speculated that these NMs were just delayed and were originally caused by the T's questions or by the other Ps' remarks. At this point it is worth mentioning that the questions asked by the T were usually translated in the native language after first asking in English and that the Ps replied to them in Czech as well. Over the course of time, the Ps were observed to react even to the English questions, however, their answers remained in Czech. Considering the language level of the elementary pupils, this cannot cause any surprise.

The NMs were usually witnessed with individual Ps. This is most likely because once noticed and verbalized by one P, the rest of the Ps acknowledged the rule and were left with no space for noticing. Furthermore, some Ps might have noticed the target features and could have remained silent without giving any signs of noticing.

The most common reaction of the Ps when they noticed something was verbal, usually accompanied by raising their hands. Only three examples of nonverbal reaction were detected, when the Ps reacted by specific action. However, the verbal reactions were the easiest to be traced. There might have been more NMs with other invisible reactions which were not detected by the evaluator. Apart from raising their hands, only few other examples of body language were encountered. They usually included imitating the articulation of the target features, pointing, and in case of the /æ/ sound also drawing the phonemic symbol in the air.

The results show not only the overall performance of the Ps as a whole but also the performance of the individual groups which can be further compared between each other. The following table shows the summary of NMs for each group and each lesson:

	G_4	G_5A	G_5B	G_6A	G_6B
Lesson 1	6	8	7	6	5
Lesson 2	4	6	6	4	3
Lesson 3	4	5	4	3	3
Lesson 4	3	1	2	2	4
Lesson 5	5	6	5	5	5
Average of NMs	4,4	5,2	4,8	4	4

As we can see, even though the levels of cognitive development supposedly vary among the groups, the results show very similar figures. The number of NMs in each group within each lesson do not vary greatly. Moreover, the average numbers of NMs which each group performed throughout the pronunciation course differ only slightly. It is important to mention that the higher number of NMs does not correspond to better performance of the group. In fact, the lower the number of the NMs, the less time and less eliciting the Ps needed to be provided in order to notice the target feature. In this respect, we can conclude that in our case the fourth grade Ps outperformed both groups of fifth grade Ps, as they required fewer NMs and thus noticed the target features faster.

Nevertheless, the scope of the research is not broad enough to draw any conclusions considering the performance of individual age groups. The aim of the research was to find out whether the designed lesson plans promote noticing among the target age groups and this aim was fulfilled.

To the author's great surprise, noticing was provoked almost at all times when intended. In some groups, it took more steps, in others the pronunciation patterns were discovered swiftly within a few noticing moments. The overall performance of the pupils improved with time, as they became familiar with the lesson structure and therefore could anticipate the next steps of the teacher.

The pupils were observed to take active part in the lessons already at the lead-in stage and to discuss their discoveries with interest among each other. They were also able to describe verbally how to articulate the target pronunciation features. Furthermore, they were able to observe the errors of their fellow peers, as well as realize their own pronunciation mistakes. The observations described above prove that the pupils gained certain level phonetic awareness which they were able to reflect on in practice. Even though the sounds were not always produced confidently, the pupils became aware of their correct articulation which can only result positively in the long term.

4 CONCLUSION

In the theoretical part of the thesis we examined the closely related concepts of noticing and awareness raising. Several studies dealing with these concepts were overviewed, advocating the positive influence of the explicit instruction on the learners' acquisition of the target language features. The theoretical part then scrutinized the benefits of the explicit pronunciation instruction and offered specific examples of activities employing noticing and awareness raising. Further research presented proved that even in pronunciation teaching the concepts of noticing and awareness raising show positive results. However, all the studies, apart from one, shared one common feature: they were performed while teaching adult language learners. The focus was thus brought to the age of the learners' and whether it can be a limiting factor when implementing noticing and consciousness raising into the language teaching. Most of the authors agreed that the learners need to reach the final stage of cognitive development in order to benefit from explicit instruction. We therefore decided to examine the most influential theories of cognitive development and their implications for teaching in order to determine whether the concepts of noticing and awareness raising could be implemented even in teaching pronunciation to young learners.

This assumption served as a starting point for the research presented in the practical part of the thesis. We proposed that even young learners at the concrete operational stage of cognitive development may benefit from awareness raising and noticing activities if those are adjusted appropriately to their level. The first step of the research was to design a set of pronunciation activities which would encourage the young learners' to notice the target pronunciation features and thus promote raising their phonetic awareness. The experience regarding teaching pronunciation to young learners, which was gained in the author's bachelor thesis was crucial for this step. The findings of the previous thesis suggested that if the learners are involved already at the lead-in stage of the lesson, the target pronunciation features seemed to be acquired with greater retention. Combining the learners' active involvement in discovering the English sound system with playful activities proved to have positive results on pronunciation learning. These principles were maintained also in the present research and a set of appropriate pronunciation activities was designed.

The pronunciation plan was taught to five groups of pupils of fourth, fifth and sixth grade. The whole experiment took place in five consecutive English lessons of the target groups at an elementary school in Prague. The aim of the research was to find out whether the designed activities provoke noticing even among the pupils of these age groups and thus before entering the stage of formal operations. The research showed highly positive results concerning the number of noticing moments evoked by the instruction. The young learners proved to be able to consciously notice the target pronunciation features and become aware of the differences between the Czech and English phonetic systems. The analysis revealed that the crucial role in raising learners' awareness plays the teacher, since most of the noticing moments were caused by her well aimed questions and hints. However, the noticing would not occur without the pupils' ability to do so.

We are aware that there are some limitations of the research. The main one is by all means the absence of the objective evaluators, as the whole research analysis was performed by the author-teacher herself. The absence is caused mainly by the exhaustive nature of the analysis, which resulted to be very time-consuming and which would require the evaluator to have the theoretical background and to watch the videos repeatedly, while registering the data in the similar way to that presented in the thesis.

Another limitation can be seen in the learners' noticing process itself. The collected data suggest that most of the noticing moments were provoked in individual pupils. However, it is very likely that at the same time when the individual noticing moments occurred, many more occurred simultaneously in other pupils, without being observed by the evaluator. Some pupils may have noticed the features without being able to describe them verbally. Nevertheless, it would be considered a noticing moment, if detected. Furthermore, each pupil has his or her own pace of work and therefore some pupils may notice the language feature earlier than others, who are then deprived of the opportunity to discover the pronunciation pattern or irregularity by themselves.

The author of the thesis hopes that the research presented will inspire the community of teachers to experiment with the explicit pronunciation instruction even at lower grades of elementary schools. The lesson plans presented may serve as inspiration for the teachers' own pronunciation programmes or may be employed as a starting point of a long term pronunciation course implementing the principles of noticing and awareness raising.

The experiment also opens other possible areas for research. A similar study to the one presented, with a broader scope, could result in more precise data regarding the differences of the target age groups in noticing the language features. Another research could aim to examine whether the explicit pronunciation teaching of young learners result in long-term acquisition of the pronunciation features.

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6 Appendices

Appendix 1 - Lesson 1: /v/ vs. /w/

2  Listen to the words and repeat: when they are surprised

	SOUND 1	SOUND 2
	/v/ vet	/w/ wet
	vine	wine
	veil	whale
		
		
		

3  Look at the pairs of sentences. Listen and tick ✓ the sentences you hear.

EXAMPLE: a) He's a vet student. He's a wet student.

b) There's a little vine here. There's a little wine here.

c) That's a veil. That's a whale.

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Read the dialogues of William and Vanessa. Underline all the /w/-sounds green and /v/-sounds yellow.

- W: What time is it?

V: It's quarter past twelve.
- V: Have you got a vase for these flowers?

W: Yes, I have. It's in the wardrobe next to the window.
- W: Do you like swimming?

V: No. I can't swim very well. Let's play squash!

Created by the author.

Appendix 2 – Lesson 2: /æ/ vs. /ʌ/

Read aloud in pairs. Red or blue?

 cat	×	cut 
 bag	×	bug 
 cup	×	cap 
 ankle	×	uncle 
 fun	×	fan 
 hut	×	hat 
 bat	×	but

Created by the author.

Follow the /m/ sounds (bus) \leftrightarrow

Start \rightarrow

b <u>u</u> s	m <u>u</u> m	u <u>g</u> ly	b <u>o</u> ttle	n <u>u</u> mber	u <u>s</u>	c <u>o</u> usin	m <u>o</u> on
a <u>u</u> nt	r <u>u</u> ler	s <u>o</u> n	f <u>a</u> ther	s <u>o</u> me	d <u>o</u> or	u <u>p</u>	o <u>u</u> t
b <u>a</u> d	c <u>u</u> p	m <u>u</u> st	bl <u>o</u> nde	h <u>u</u> ngry	q <u>u</u> iet	c <u>o</u> lour	l <u>o</u> rry
c <u>o</u> mic	u <u>n</u> der	gl <u>u</u> e	c <u>o</u> me	u <u>n</u> cle	bl <u>u</u> e	b <u>u</u> t	squ <u>a</u> re
fr <u>u</u> it	br <u>o</u> ther	d <u>u</u> ck	l <u>u</u> nch	sh <u>o</u> e	r <u>u</u> n	y <u>o</u> ung	w <u>o</u> rk
h <u>o</u> use	g <u>u</u> itar	l <u>o</u> t	o <u>u</u> r	b <u>u</u> rger	d <u>o</u> uble	c <u>u</u> rly	s <u>o</u> ng
o <u>r</u> ange	put	b <u>u</u> y	q <u>u</u> estion	h <u>u</u> rt	m <u>o</u> ther	j <u>u</u> ngle	s <u>u</u> n

Finish \rightarrow

Now listen and check

Nixon, Caroline and Michael Tomlinson. *Primary Pronunciation Box: Pronunciation games and activities for younger learners*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2005.

Appendix 3 – Lesson 3: Word stress

Odd one out:

- 1) balloon flowers guitar shampoo
- 2) kangaroo lemonade magazine banana
- 3) pizza butter apples champagne candies
- 4) umbrella giraffe potato computer

Created by the author.

Appendix 4 – Lesson 5: Intonation

Match the following questions:

- 1) What's your name?
 - 2) Can they swim?
 - 3) Where are you going?
 - 4) Does he go to school?
 - 5) How old is she?
 - 6) Why did you do that?
-
- A) When does she go to school?
 - B) Are you going there?
 - C) Did you do that?
 - D) Is this your name?
 - E) Is she 15 years old?
 - F) Who can swim?

Created by the author.