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In-class pronunciation of Czech secondary school  
English teachers

Výslovnost českých středoškolských učitelů angličtiny  
ve vyučovacích hodinách

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## **PROHLÁŠENÍ**

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## **Abstract**

The present thesis examines in-class pronunciation of Czech secondary school English teachers in relation to the international debate about goals and models of English pronunciation teaching. The theoretical part of the work briefly describes the phenomenon of a foreign accent, its sociolinguistic significance, and factors influencing its degree. Subsequently, it delineates segmental and suprasegmental aspects of English pronunciation relevant to Czech foreign accent, and discusses selected accents of English regarding their status in the eyes of non-native speakers and their suitability as models of pronunciation. The core of our study is an auditory analysis of pronunciation, based on recordings of speech of ten Czech secondary school teachers of English, obtained directly in class at four Czech secondary schools – two in Prague and two in Opava – using a lavalier microphone. The results of this analysis are compared to the results of questionnaires focused on these teachers' convictions and attitudes concerning pronunciation teaching. Our findings indicate that while the phonemes /r/, /w/ and /θ/ are easy for Czech teachers to realise in a standard manner, it seems that learners typically cannot acquire standard pronunciation of /ð/ and /æ/ only through listening to their teacher's pronunciation. Whereas the proportions of linking and /ə/ have slightly exceeded our expectations, coalescent assimilation on word boundaries seems to be rarely present in the speech of Czech secondary school English teachers. Results obtained from the questionnaires show that for Czech teachers, the communicative dimension of pronunciation is important and that they consider American English more comprehensible to their learners than British English. On the other hand, they seem not to consider British English and themselves ideal models of learners' pronunciation, which applies especially to teachers having reached higher comprehensive score in the analysis.

**Key words:** foreign accent, accents of English, teaching English as a foreign language, pronunciation teaching, language transfer, teacher convictions and attitudes

## **Abstrakt**

Tato práce zkoumá výslovnost českých středoškolských učitelů angličtiny ve vyučovacích hodinách v souvislosti s mezinárodní debatou o cílech a vzorech výuky anglické výslovnosti. Teoretická část práce stručně popisuje fenomén cizineckého přízvuku, jeho sociolingvistický význam a faktory ovlivňující jeho míru. Následně vymezuje segmentální a suprasegmentální aspekty anglické výslovnosti relevantní pro český cizinecký přízvuk a pojednává o vybraných akcentech angličtiny z hlediska jejich statutu v očích nerodilých mluvčích a z hlediska jejich vhodnosti coby vzorů výslovnosti. Základem naší studie je poslechová analýza výslovnosti založená na nahrávkách řeči deseti českých středoškolských učitelů angličtiny, pořízených s pomocí klopového mikrofonu přímo ve vyučování na čtyřech českých středních školách – dvou v Praze a dvou v Opavě. Výsledky této analýzy jsou porovnávány s výsledky dotazníků zaměřených na přesvědčení a postoje těchto učitelů týkající se výuky výslovnosti. Z našich poznatků vyplývá, že zatímco fonémy /r/, /w/ a /θ/ realizují čeští učitelé standardním způsobem bez potíží, standardní výslovnost /ð/ a /æ/ si žáci zřejmě obvykle nemohou osvojit pouze poslechem výslovnosti učitele. Míra vázání a podíl /ə/ mírně předčily očekávání, avšak splývavá asimilace na hranicích slov se v řeči českých středoškolských učitelů angličtiny nejspíše vyskytuje vzácně. Výsledky získané z dotazníků ukazují, že pro české učitele je důležitý komunikační význam výslovnosti a že americkou angličtinu považují za žákům srozumitelnější než britskou. Na druhou stranu zřejmě nepovažují britskou angličtinu a sebe samé za ideální vzory výslovnosti žáků, což platí obzvláště o učitelích, kteří v analýze dosáhli vyššího souhrnného skóre.

**Klíčová slova:** cizinecký přízvuk, akcenty angličtiny, výuka angličtiny jako cizího jazyka, výuka výslovnosti, jazykový transfer, přesvědčení a postoje učitelů

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# **LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS**

CPH – Critical Period Hypothesis

EFL – English as a foreign language

EIL – English as an international language

ELF – English as a lingua franca

ELT – English language teaching

GA – General American

L1 – first language

L2 – second language

LFC – Lingua Franca Core

NELF – native English as a lingua franca

RP – Received Pronunciation

SLA – second language acquisition

TEFL – teaching English as a foreign language

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# 1. Introduction

In the context of the growing English-speaking community around the world, consisting nowadays of non-native speakers predominantly, a heated debate about the aims of English pronunciation teaching has been taking place, substantially sparked by the both influential and controversial book *The Phonology of English as an International Language* by Jennifer Jenkins (2000). Some of the burning questions are: should we prioritise intelligibility and efficient communication, or native-like attainment? And how radically? Are native accents of English useful as a goal of pronunciation teaching, as its reference model, or neither? Who should teach pronunciation – can native speakers do it better? Is exposure to native speech a more efficient means of pronunciation improvement than explicit instruction? And how should we deal with the paradox that native pronunciation is both appealing and unachievable for most learners? Approaches to these issues are intrinsically influenced by beliefs, convictions, expectations, attitudes and ideologies of both English teachers and English learners worldwide, and therefore are extremely difficult to resolve unanimously.

While influential publications on pronunciation teaching such as Underhill's *Sound Foundations* (2005) use the teacher's own pronunciation and accent as the fundamental model for the students, a body of research indicates that although teachers generally consider pronunciation important, it is given little in-class attention compared to other language skills (see e.g. Brabcová 2018, 17-19) and many teachers of English do not feel comfortable with it, unsure of what to teach and how (Darcy et al. 2012), or they address pronunciation non-systematically, largely limiting its teaching to error correction (Vykouková 2014). Importantly, one of the sources of teachers' insecurity and low confidence concerning pronunciation teaching may be their own non-native status (Bai & Yuan, 2019).

Meanwhile, empirical research on Czech foreign accent in English has substantially advanced during the last decade. Multiple recently published studies (Skarnitzl & Šturm 2017; Červinková Poesová & Weingartová 2018; Šimáčková & Podlipský 2018; Skarnitzl & Rumlová 2019) examine its various characteristic features, while other studies (Jakšič & Šturm 2017; Brabcová & Skarnitzl 2018) focus on Czech learners' attitudes to native accents of English. Yet, little is known

about the pronunciation of Czech teachers of English: advanced but to a certain degree typically foreign-accented speakers themselves.

A study by Ivanová (2011), using a sample of 66 Czech students of TEFL, reported “mildly medium-strong” Czech accent in 50% of the subjects and strong Czech accent in 14% of them, as evaluated by three university teachers of English phonetics and phonology (p. 163). This state, observed in trainee teachers, naturally evokes curiosity about the pronunciation competences of Czech in-service teachers of English, too. How convincingly are they capable of producing their selected native model accents? Which features of Czech foreign accent do they manifest and potentially pass on to their students?

The present study investigates the relationship between the pronunciation-related cognitions of Czech secondary school teachers of English and their authentic in-class pronunciation. Its theoretical part (2) introduces the phenomenon of a foreign accent, the major factors influencing it (2.1), and its sociolinguistic dimension (2.1.1). Characteristic features of Czech foreign accent in English are identified in 2.1.2, both segmental and suprasegmental, which also constitute the features analysed in the practical part (3 and 4). Section 2.2 examines several accents of English regarding their suitability as models of pronunciation in the non-native teaching context. Since our research benefits also from questionnaires distributed to Czech teachers, the theoretical part is concluded with a brief section on teacher cognition and pronunciation teaching (2.3). The methodological part of this work describes our way of data collection – in-class recording of teacher’s speech using a lavalier microphone (3.1), provides metadata about our 10 participants (3.2), presents the pronunciation-related questionnaire items answered by them (3.3), and elaborates on the method of evaluation employed in the pronunciation analysis of the recordings (3.4). Hypotheses about our teachers’ pronunciation, based on our current knowledge of Czech accent in English, are formulated in section 3.5. In section 4, the results of the questionnaires (4.1) and of the pronunciation analysis (4.2) are presented and contrasted (4.3). Section 5 discusses these results in the context of previous research in this field, and contemplates the advantages and the limitations of our data and our approach. The potential implications of our main findings, then, are addressed in section 6.

## 2. Accent and attitudes

Within the field of language variation, the term accent (unlike dialect, which entails grammatical and lexical variation) is used to refer exclusively to variations in pronunciation (Hughes et al. 2012, 3). These encompass “phonetic and phonemic aspects of speech alongside intonation, pitch, rhythm, length, juncture, and stress“, which together “greatly affect intelligibility and pragmatic appropriateness“ (Moyer 2013, 3). Variation in the above-mentioned dimensions can be studied on an endless scale of levels, from generalising common pronunciation features of large linguistic communities (such as nations and ethnicities) to fine-grained descriptions of idiosyncratic nuances in a particular speaker. In the reality of pronunciation teaching, this implies that every teacher has a specific accent of their own, to which their learners are regularly exposed, while textbooks and other study materials may use another accent, typically standard one (see Jakšič 2018, 15-16), as a referential model, given that a standard is arguably needed for pedagogical consistency (Moyer 2013, 92). Non-native teacher’s own accent, then, is typically divergent from this standard to some extent.

Explicitly or implicitly, learners in the English language classroom have to be instructed or shown (respectively) how to pronounce the foreign language, but given the complex communicative and sociolinguistic dimensions of accents, this is a major teaching responsibility. The following section (2.1) will focus on the phenomenon of foreign-accentedness, its causes and different attitudes to it, as well as on the characteristic features of the Czech foreign accent in English, on which our analysis of teachers’ pronunciation will be based. The second part of this chapter (2.2) will discuss selected accents of English from the point of their suitability as pronunciation models for learners, with a regard to learners’ and teachers’ stances noted so far. The third part (2.3), then, briefly addresses the field of teacher cognition about pronunciation teaching, focusing especially on non-native teachers of English.

## 2.1 Foreign accent

In terms of pronunciation and accent, learners of a foreign language “must acquire a new system of sound contrasts, new restrictions on where sounds may occur, and a new prosodic system” (Broselow & Kang 2013, 529) and the success of this endeavour “is predicated on a balance of cognitive, social, and psychological factors” (Moyer 2013, 2). The segmental or prosodic deviations from the pronunciation patterns found in native speakers (Skarnitzl & Rumlová 2019, 109), then, traditionally constitute the notion of a foreign accent. For the purposes of this work, we will keep to this simple delineation of foreign-accentedness, taken purely definitionally, while the controversy regarding prioritisation of native-like attainment will also be discussed. The present section briefly outlines the main factors influencing the degree of divergence between L1 and L2 speakers’ pronunciations.

Firstly, let us mention transfer, i.e. the influence (sometimes termed interference, which has the negative connotation of intrusiveness leading to impaired performance) of the learner’s L1. The contrastive analysis approach and its original postulate that learners will easily acquire those aspects of L2 which are similar to their L1, while aspects different from their L1 will be difficult (Broselow & Kang 2013, 529), may be still relevant to probabilistic predictions of language transfer (Major 2008, 65) but should not be taken universally, as it fails to explain other observed tendencies, some of which are even contradictory to it. For example, non-presence of the L2 structure in the learner’s L1 can in certain cases be advantageous; sometimes, learners also tend to create systematic pronunciation patterns distinct from both the languages; and finally, there is also a recognised tendency “for L2 sounds to be interpreted in terms of L1 sounds,” subsuming both under a single phonological category (Broselow & Kang 2013, 529-530). Providing examples pertinent to Czech foreign accent, we may e.g. think of English /r/ as being phonetically dissimilar enough from Czech /r/ and other Czech phonemes to be usually articulated successfully (see 2.1.2.2), while the mapping of both English /æ/ and /e/ to Czech /ɛ/ (2.1.2.5) could be explained as an example of “equivalence classification” (Fledge 1995; cited in Major 2008, 73 and Broselow & Kang 2013, 530). Generally speaking, similar phenomena

may be more difficult to learn than dissimilar ones since “the larger the differences are, the more easily they tend to be noticed; therefore, learning is more likely to take place” (Major 2008, 72).

Established as it is now that transfer does not explain L2 speech fully, a number of other concepts have been introduced. One of them, based on observations of an internally consistent learners’ interlanguage, is the notion of a “built-in syllabus” and explanations attributing the SLA process (although primarily in the field of morphosyntax) largely to learners’ inherent capacities and “dispositions in the language faculty” rather than to L1 influence (Thomas 2013, 37). Along similar theoretical lines, cases when transfer clearly does not operate (but the result of acquisition is not native-like) have been ascribed to the workings of various universal principles, which are said to complement transfer and interact with it (see Major 2013, 76-81), including e.g. universal grammar, rules and constraints, or markedness of the particular phenomenon – for example, marked new items should be more difficult to learn than equally novel unmarked ones (Eckman 1977, cited in Broselow & Kang 2013, 530).

Age of the learner, especially the age of the onset of L2 learning, is widely acknowledged as an important variable influencing the acquisition of L2 phonology which “relies on articulatory precision, auditory–perceptual processing, and higher-order analysis” and therefore “may be especially prone to age effects in the neurocognitive realm.” (Moyer 2013, 4). While “the relationship between age and accent is generally documented as a negative one” (Ibid., 12), the exact mechanisms behind this effect are still discussed. The so-called Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH) suggests there is an optimal “window” for language learning, connected to brain plasticity and cerebral growth, which closes before puberty, making the acquisition of a native-like L2 accent extremely difficult afterwards; strictly interpreted, it “rules out true native-level attainment in adult language learning” (Ibid., 25). CPH has been subject to much scepticism, and empirical research has demonstrated numerous exceptions, showing that we cannot determine exact age of learning onset after which foreign accent is inevitable, and that adults in fact do not lack the skills to build a new functional

sound system (Ibid., 26 – 27); nevertheless, it is still true that “phonology, by all accounts, constitutes the greatest challenge for late learners” (Ibid., 22).

Finally, experience of the learners, namely the length of exposure to L2 and L2 use, is a major factor, simplifiable to the equation: “the more L2 use and the less L1 use, the less foreign accent” and vice versa (Major 2008, 71). Tightly related to experience, we can also mention pronunciation instruction as potentially decreasing foreign accent: despite the retreat of pronunciation practice in the wake of cognitivism and communicative methods in teaching, “instructed environments still offer unique opportunities for phonological feedback and practice at the sound”, while a body of evidence renders instruction as leading to improvements in perception and production, mutually influencing each other, and “long-term phonological attainment as well if [instruction] is communicative in nature” (Moyer 2013, 150). However, this already takes us to the realm of teachers’ attitudes, further addressed in (2.3). Let us conclude with the note that all the above-mentioned factors on foreign-accentedness of course do not operate in isolation and it is “conceivable that all types of transfer in L2 phonology are correlated with age and experience” (Major 2008, 71).

### **2.1.1 Sociolinguistic dimension of foreign accents**

In English, accent has been for centuries indexical of not only geographical, but also social background and other characteristics of the speaker, notorious as one of the focal points of prescriptivism and an obstacle to social permeability in the 18<sup>th</sup>-century England already (see e.g. Mugglestone 2015). Much has been written about the stigmatisation of non-standard and regional accent features even within native linguistic communities; foreign accent, then, is a special subtype of non-standardness, adding to this category also the notion of non-nativeness. Provided that “even heavily accented speech is sometimes perfectly intelligible” (Munro & Derwing 1999) and that not all pronunciation features are equally important to intelligibility (Jenkins 2000), while there is also little agreement on the importance of detail in the concept of intelligibility itself (Moyer 2013, 92-93), it is easy to deduce that negative reactions to non-native speech are not plainly about communicative hindrances and the “difficulty to understand”.

Accent is reported to be an important criterion for social categorisation, perhaps more important than race, even in very young children already (Kinzler 2008, cited in Moyer 2013, 110). The many layers of acoustic information constituting an accent provide an immediately available aural signal marking an “outsider” to the language community, wherefore accent is notoriously associated with prejudice. In other words, “sounding identifiably non-native has negative consequences insofar as it triggers assumptions in the listener’s mind about other traits” (Moyer 2013, 85), the common presupposition that “those with a non-standard or foreign accent lack overall linguistic competence” (p. 86) being just one typical manifestation of this effect.

Another example can be the discrimination of foreign-accented applicants for certain jobs (e.g. Deprez-Sims & Morris 2013), especially for positions that require interactions with customers (Timming 2017). Even in a job interview on the telephone, sociolinguistic cues such as accent and dialect can make a recruiter assume the applicant’s ethnicity, nationality, race, and other potential sources of prejudice (Cocchiara et al. 2014). However, Moyer (2013) notes that only a few studies on accent and employability mention the applicants’ *degree* of foreign accent, too, and/or their overall fluency (p. 130).

Lev-Ari & Keysar (2010) demonstrated that native American listeners evaluated statements pronounced by foreign-accented speakers as less truthful than those pronounced by native ones, wherefore foreign-accented speakers are seen as less credible, and “this is true even when (...) the speaker is playing the role of a messenger, conveying information from a native speaker” (p. 1095). Their experiment was later replicated using non-native listeners by Hanzlíková & Skarnitzl (2017), whose results tentatively confirmed the bias towards foreign-accented speech even among non-native speakers themselves, suggesting that “subconscious attitudes to language varieties are (...) relevant in the context of international communication as well” (p. 297). Moreover, trust conditioned by accent was also reported in pre-school children, who “demonstrated selective learning of non-linguistic information from native-accented rather than foreign-accented speakers” (Kinzler et al. 2011). Very recently, Boduch-Grabka & Lev-Ari (2021) found out that distrust toward non-native speech can be reduced by

previous exposure to the foreign accent, which is an effect they ascribe to “improvement in the processing of the accent”, implying that there indeed is a connection between prejudice and intelligibility and that “cognitive aspects of language processing can influence attitudes” (p. 1).

Even proponents of ELF (see 2.2.4) acknowledge that non-native speakers are aware of the non-native English stigma (see Jenkins 2007, 180-189), which allegedly results in their mixed feelings about their own English. This dilemma is said to be manifested in their firm convictions (especially in rating and ranking tasks) about correctness, pleasantness and international acceptability of native accents (p. 186) on the one hand, but on the other hand also in “the desire to project their own local identity in their English”, in which they may feel restricted by the pressure to learn one of the major standard varieties (Jenkins 2009, 204). In any case, learners’ general preference for native accents and their linking of native-like attainment (unrealistic as it is for most of them) to benefits and positive emotions (e.g. McCrocklin & Link 2016; see also 2.2.4) is a well-documented fact, which substantially complicates radical prioritisation of intelligibility in ELT.

### **2.1.2 Czech foreign accent in English**

The following section delineates some of the characteristic features of Czech accent in English, making use of the limited empirical research into this particular topic, as well as informal observations and comparatively-based assumptions. The features are listed from segmental to suprasegmental, and they will be further addressed in the practical part of this work, i.e. the analysis of Czech teachers’ English. The list is by no means complete: numerous other phenomena, both segmental (e.g. “dark” [ɫ]) and suprasegmental (e.g. intonation, pitch range, speech rate), could be naturally analysed as well.

The notion of “non-standardness” in this section is largely based on RP and GA as reference accents. It is nevertheless worth noting that the below-mentioned features are of course not characteristic of Czech foreign accent exclusively. They may also appear in foreign accents of speakers of other L1s, or even in some minor or non-standard native accents: thus, flapped /ɾ/ in Czech English will be

obviously due to transfer in most instances, but in some rare cases it can also be pronounced quite intentionally, e.g. by a highly proficient learner emulating older, upper-class form of RP (intervocalic [r]), a Liverpoolian or Scottish accent (see Cruttenden 2014, 224-226), etc.

### ***2.1.2.1 Dental fricatives /ð/ and /θ/***

Non-standard realisations of the dental fricatives /ð/ and /θ/ are notoriously characteristic of foreign accents of English, as most learners' first languages (including Czech) do not have these sounds (Cruttenden 2014, 200). The most likely substitutions are /t/ and /d/, with the exception of French and German speakers, who tend to use /s/ and /z/ (Ibid.). In a study of 10 strongly Czech-accented female speakers, Rumlová (2018) reported 30% success rate in pronouncing /ð/, otherwise substituted by Czech /d/ (p. 36). The success rate was higher in lexical words than in grammatical words, which resonates with Cruttenden's (2014) remark that these sounds are more precarious when coarticulated, especially with other fricatives, than in isolation (p. 200). Skarnitzl & Rumlová (2019) also noted that Czech speakers of English tend to replace /θ/ not only with /t/, but to a lesser extent also by /s/, /th/, /tʃ/, and /f/ (p. 117).

### ***2.1.2.2 Approximants /r/ and /w/***

In the Czech language, the typical realisation of /r/ is the alveolar flap [r] (see Machač 2017). Pronouncing English /r/ as the native alveolar (or post-alveolar; see Cruttenden 2014, 29; Deterding 2015, 74) approximant [ɹ], however, seems not to pose substantial difficulties to Czech learners. In multiple studies, this sound is reported to be produced very successfully by Czech subjects. Rumlová (2018) measured 85% of approximantal realisations of /r/ in prevocalic contexts (p. 41), Fischer (2019) reported 90% success in non-prevocalic positions of /r/ and 84% in syllabic onsets (p. 38) within a sample of 8 non-students of English. In comparison, students of English (16 subjects around C1 level) were nearly 100% successful at producing approximants in all contexts (Ibid., 36). A study by Pojarová (2014) on strong and weak Czech accent segmental features also concluded that “the alveolar approximant proved to be generally much less

problematic (...) to produce” than other non-Czech segmental features of English (p. 38).

Yet another thing is the phonological rhoticity, i.e. the accent-specific binary feature consisting in the presence or absence of /r/ in non-prevocalic environments (Cruttenden 2014, 86). Since Czech /r/ is present in these positions, Czech English is also inherently rhotic, with around 90% of rhoticity reported in “common speakers”, i.e. non-students of English (Fischer 2019, 33). Even in highly proficient speakers aiming for a non-rhotic accent, about 40% of rhoticity on average was measured (Ibid.). Aside from production, non-rhotic English is also more difficult to comprehend for Czech learners (Kobák 2017).

The English labiovelar approximant /w/ is not a phoneme in Czech, and is known to be realised as the labiodental fricative [v] in some strongly Czech-accented speakers. This is probably due to the two sounds’ similar places of articulation, and possibly also to the fact that Czech fricative /v/ developed from /w/ historically (Volín & Skarnitzl 2018, 29). We may also speculate about the influence of orthographic similarity between *v* and *w*, as well as of the centuries-long linguistic contact of Czech with German, in which orthographic *w* is also pronounced as [v]. An interesting observation is that some speakers tend to over-generalise /w/ in English, pronouncing e.g. *very* as [weɾɪ] (Skarnitzl & Rumlová 2019, 112); this is probably attributable to hyperforeignism, stemming from the presumed peculiarity of the sound to English. Another informal observation is that the /v/ and /w/ distinction is often subject to slips of the tongue when pronouncing words easily confusable and articulatorily challenging for Czech learners, such as *world*, *word* and *verb*.

In Czech English, we can assume /w/ to be generally quite similar to /r/ in the sense that its approximantal manner of articulation makes it sufficiently “exotic” for Czech speakers to prevent extensive transfer. Pojarová (2014) found it to be “one of the least problematic speech sounds” (of those examined) for Czech university students of English (p. 40); Skarnitzl & Rumlová (2019) reported about 70% of successful realisations of /w/ in their strongly accented sample, with the reservation that it was only about 50% in some individuals, while some individuals also manifested a certain degree of neutralisation between /w/ and /v/.

Reportedly, /w/ was also pronounced more successfully in grammatical words than in lexical ones (pp. 118-119). Curiously, the speakers in this study also failed to pronounce /v/ correctly in 30% of instances on average (Ibid.); the observed tendency to over-generalise /w/ in Czech English therefore seems to concern not only advanced but also lower-level speakers.

### **2.1.2.3 Velar nasal /ŋ/**

In Czech, the velar nasal [ŋ] is an allophonic variant of /n/, appearing before the velar consonants /k/ and /g/, to which it assimilates its place of articulation (Volín & Skarnitzl 2018, 34). In the standard accents of English, however, /ŋ/ is well-known to have a phonemic status, contrasting with /n/ and thus distinguishing between e.g. *thin* and *thing*; the historical loss of /g/ after /ŋ/ gave the latter sound its phonemic significance (Cruttenden 2014, 216). In such accents, the pronunciation of the present participle morpheme *-ing* is also known to vary between /ɪŋ/ and /ɪn/, depending on social and stylistic factors (Ibid.).

Typically, Czech-accented learners pronounce the orthographic sequence *ng* as [ŋk] word-finally and [ŋg] word-medially, adding the velar plosive (required for the production of [ŋ] in their mother-tongue) even morpheme-finally; however, standard English retains /g/ only in morpheme-medial *ng* sequences, such as in *finger* or *anger*. While the results of Pojarová (2014) show that advanced learners were quite successful in producing the canonical realisations of *-ng* (pp. 37-38), it reportedly poses substantial problems to strong-accented learners, who pronounce it non-canonically in about 75% of cases, usually with a following [k] or [g] (Skarnitzl & Rumlová 2019, 120). Although this feature of Czech foreign accent is very widespread and characteristic, we cannot say it is prone to causing grave miscommunications: we can of course think of e.g. the /θɪŋ/ vs. /θɪŋk/ distinction, but Cruttenden (2014, 216) also mentions pronunciations such as *anything* [enɪfɪŋk] to be common in broad London accent.

### **2.1.2.4 Aspiration after fortis plosives /p, t, k/**

As a well-known fact, English “fortis” (voiceless and produced with relatively more articulatory effort) plosives /p, t, k/ are accompanied by aspiration, or “a voiceless interval consisting of strongly expelled breath between the release of the

plosive and the onset of a following vowel” (Cruttenden 2014, 164), if they appear initially in stressed syllables. If they are followed by sonorants /l, r, w, j/, the aspiration manifests itself in the sonorants’ devoicing (Ibid.). In standard accents of English, this aspiration after stressed fortis plosives is canonical and constitutes the strongest perceptual cue in their distinguishing from their voiced counterparts /b, d, g/; the only exception being if the fortis plosives are preceded by /s/ in the syllabic onsets, in which case the aspiration is lost and the consonants are identifiable only based on their voicelessness and articulatory energy (Ibid.).

In comparison, Czech voiced and voiceless consonants are not distinguished by this tenseness contrast characteristic of English (Skarnitzl & Rumlová 2019, 112), but by actual phonetic voicing (see Skarnitzl et al. 2016, 64-69). As a result, Czech learners generally produce less (and weaker) aspiration than native speakers. Skarnitzl & Rumlová 2019 found /t/ and /k/ to be aspirated more than /p/ by strongly accented learners, and canonical aspiration being more common word-initially (53%) than in non-word-initial stressed syllables (23%). In 23% of cases, their subjects also over-generalised aspiration to positions after syllable-initial /s/ (p. 121).

### **2.1.2.5 Vowels /æ/ and /ə/**

Given the systemic differences between the Czech and the English vocalic systems (for Czech, see e.g. Volín & Skarnitzl 2018, 15; for RP, see e.g. Cruttenden 2014, 96-97), shifts in vowel qualities belong among the central manifestations of Czech accent in English. While the approximation of English non-low vowels to their Czech counterparts is an issue more phonetic than phonological, and thus should not affect communication dramatically (Skarnitzl & Rumlová 2019, 111), Czech-accented speakers’ pronunciation of the open vowels /æ, ʌ, ɑː, ɒ/ is a more salient problem, as their accommodation to the Czech vowels /ɛ, a, aː, o/ (respectively) may be phonologically significant and impair intelligibility and comprehensibility (Ibid., 110).

This concerns especially /æ/, probably the most studied and notorious English full vowel in connection to Czech learners, whose common approximation to /ɛ/ can be also exemplified by Czech pronunciation of phonologically adapted loan words such as *jazz* /dʒɛs/, *handsfree* /hɛntsfrɪː/ or *skɛn* (scan) /skɛn/ (but compare also

*tramvaj* (tramway) /tramvaj/). Pojarová's (2014) results imply that “/æ/ is difficult for Czech speakers of English to produce in its canonical form” (p. 42), and the results obtained by Skarnitzl & Rumlová (2019) largely confirm this, having recorded only a single instance of native-like realisation of the vowel in ten strongly accented speakers (p. 116). It has been also noted that Czech learners tend to compensate for the qualitative phonological contrast between /e/ and /æ/ in their English by means of duration, producing /ε/ and /ε:/ respectively (Šimáčková 2003; Šimáčková & Podlipský 2018, both cited in Skarnitzl & Rumlová 2019). This appears to be in accordance with the findings about L2 speakers relying on durational cues in vowel contrast perception, too (Broselow & Kang 2013, 536).

A special place among vowels is reserved to schwa, the most common sound of English, which is (except for non-standard vowel reduction in rapid colloquial speech) not present in the Czech vocalic system (Červinková Poesová & Weingartová 2018, 98). In stress-timed English, vowel reduction is crucial to the contrast between stressed and unstressed syllables and to the overall rhythm of speech, wherefore the mid central vowel appears not only in grammatical-word reduction in connected speech (i.e. “weak forms”), but even in citation forms of lexical words. In comparison, Czech is a syllable-timed language (e.g. Skarnitzl et al. 2016, 149), i.e. there is a tendency towards approximately equal duration of all syllables, and full vowels appear in both stressed and unstressed positions, wherefore Czech learners happen to even perceptually transmute the English schwa into a scale of full vowels, in accordance with spelling of the word (Červinková Poesová & Weingartová 2018, 99).

From the above-said, it is apparent that schwa “constitutes more of a prosodic feature of English than a segmental one” (Skarnitzl & Rumlová 2019, 111) and is closely related to word stress, a phenomenon addressed below. As for empirical findings about schwa in Czech English, Červinková Poesová & Weingartová (2018) reported 4 subjects at an intermediate level of proficiency to have realised it successfully in about 46% of the canonical instances (p. 109); their schwas were also longer and louder compared to those of native British speakers (p. 108). A similar, yet slightly lower number (37%) of successful realisations was obtained

by Skarnitzl & Rumlová (2019, 121). Both of these studies included contexts pertinent to syllable-nuclear rhoticity in their statistics on schwa, too.

#### **2.1.2.6 Word stress**

Czech word stress, understood as a structural feature of a word, carrying the potentiality of actual prominence (Palková 2012, 347; see also Volín & Skarnitzl 2018, 63-74), is classified as fixed and placed on the first syllable. As opposed to that, English word stress is “fixed, in the sense that the primary accent<sup>1</sup> always falls on a particular syllable of any given word, but free, in the sense that the primary accent is not tied to any particular point in the chain of syllables constituting a word” (Cruttenden 2014, 241). In citation forms of words, the English language also has got secondary word stress (Ibid., 248), a phenomenon strongly dubious in Czech, rather conceptual than acoustically measurable (Palková 2017), which also applies for secondary stress in English connected speech. Volín & Skarnitzl (2018) consider secondary word stress in Czech a “myth” (p. 72). Moreover, both primary and secondary stress patterns present in the citation forms of English words may change substantially (i.e. be shifted or disappear) in connected speech due to the general tendency to avoid adjacent stressed syllables (see e.g. Cruttenden 2014, 305-307).

The inter-language differences between Czech and English word stresses logically imply that above all, we can expect Czech learners to stress the first syllables of English words excessively. The tendency towards incorrect word-initial stress was noted for example by Sokolová (2009, 44) or Rumlová (2018, 28). Occasional inappropriate stressing of other syllables can be of course expected as well, especially in advanced learners, as a result of hyperforeignism, wrongly acquired pronunciation of the particular lexical item etc. However, the good news for Czech learners is that “there is a highly significant tendency for stress in English words to fall on the initial syllable”, as “about a quarter of the vocabulary consists of words with unstressed initial syllables, but most of the words in this set have a relatively low frequency of occurrence”, while “higher-frequency words (...) are shorter and more likely to have just a single stressed syllable that is either the word-initial syllable (...) or the only syllable” (Cutler 2015, 109-110).

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1 Cruttenden uses the term *accent* instead of *stress*.

Jenkins (2000) classified word stress as “reasonably important to L1 English receivers”, but noted that it “rarely causes intelligibility problems (...) and, where it does so, always occurs in combination with another phonological error” (p. 150). It was also ascribed less important role in constituting Czech foreign accent than rhythm, intonation and segmental features by the three raters in Ivanová’s study (2011, 154-156). However, Cutler (2015) warns that “any stress error resulting in a mispronounced vowel – and most stress errors do have this effect – will throw the native listener into mis-segmentation and at least temporary lexical confusion” (pp. 120-121). Field (2005) noticed that such loss of intelligibility was weaker if the change of vowel quality was from weak to full, possibly because “a substituted full vowel is more informative than schwa or /ɪ/” and “the full quality syllable often bears a close relationship to the orthographic form of the word” (p. 416). He goes on to conclude that even though “English lexical stress does not normally serve to distinguish between lexemes” (p. 417), its wrong distribution “might have serious consequences for the ability of the listener, whether native or non-native, to locate words within a piece of connected speech” and should be given “a medium level of importance” by teachers (p. 419).

#### ***2.1.2.7 Sandhi phenomena***

Although sandhi phenomena such as liaison and coalescent assimilation are pertinent to fluency (Šimáčková & Podlipský 2018) and therefore also to foreign accent (see Moyer 2013, 9-20), it has to be noted that their non-native-like absence in L2 production is not bound to cause intelligibility issues: rather, their presence in native speech notoriously causes comprehensibility issues to foreign learners, which is the main reason they are increasingly often taught explicitly in EFL classrooms. In this particular study, we will selectively address only two of the numerous sandhi phenomena of English connected speech. First of these will be the linking of a word beginning with a vowel to the preceding word (called simply *linking* onwards), which results in the emergence of: the so-called linking and intrusive /r/ (both possible in non-rhotic accents only), resyllabification (or juncture), and linking glides [j] and [w] (see Cruttenden 2014, 315-319). The second phenomenon will be the so-called coalescent assimilation of /t, d, s, z/ with a following /j/ into /tʃ, dʒ, ʃ, ʒ/, respectively. Diachronically, this process first

affected word-medial positions (e.g. *natural*), but it has gradually become very common at word boundaries in casual speech, though some conservative speakers may avoid it (Ibid., 313).

Although linking of two consecutive words can also occur in Czech, linking of a word beginning with a vowel to the preceding word is uncommon in standard pronunciation, as word-initial vowels are canonically introduced by a glottal stop (Volín & Skarnitzl 2018, 21). A study by Šimáčková & Podlipský (2018) showed a significantly lower proportion of linking in Moravian Czech learners (38%) than in American and British native speakers (57% and 67%, respectively); resyllabification of a word-final obstruent to the adjacent word was more common than the occurrence of transient glides [j] and [w] between two vowels at a word boundary (pp. 168-169). Skarnitzl & Rumlová (2019) reported a lower percentage of linking yet in their sample of strongly accented speakers, typically below 30% of the possible instances (except for several outstanding individuals), while lexical words were generally more often glottalised than grammatical ones (p. 123).

To our knowledge, there is no published study on coalescent assimilation concerning Czech learners of English specifically. While it might be almost non-present in beginners' speech, we can expect secondary school teachers to be of course well familiar with it; however, they might associate it with colloquial speech, or be afraid of not being comprehensible to their learners, and thus decide not to use it. This might apply to linking and weak forms of grammatical words, too, wherefore the actual use of these pronunciation features by teachers in classroom is especially interesting.

## 2.2 Which accent to teach?

While pronunciation teaching requires a clearly defined and consistent model as a point of reference, especially if we employ explicit instruction, it must be admitted that at the same time “no model is capable of fulfilling all learners’ needs and expectations and (...) no single variety of English is well suited to serve such approach” (Szpyra-Kozłowska 2018, 234). The following section will examine several possible model accents regarding their advantages and disadvantages in the context of teaching English pronunciation to non-native speakers.

### 2.2.1 Received Pronunciation

In the early 20<sup>th</sup> century, seminal works by the English phonetician Daniel Jones “established the term 'Received Pronunciation' or 'RP' as representing standard spoken British English” (Cruttenden 2014, 77). This standard accent, phonologically closest to the speech of South East England (p. 79), is in fact connected to education since its very origin, intended as a pronunciation model for both native (see Upton 2012, 55-60) and non-native speakers of English: one the motives for its codification “seems to have come from the increased interest in teaching English as a foreign language“ (Cruttenden 2014, 77).

Alternative names for the accent have been devised (see *Ibid.*, 78-80), such as Queen’s English, Oxford English, and more recently Standard Southern British, BBC pronunciation or General British. Some of these were proposed in order to cope with certain negative connotations that the term RP may evoke, others are also driven by the motivation to reflect changes that the accent has undergone during the 20<sup>th</sup> century (see Upton 2012). RP is spoken by a minority of the British population, often listed as 3-5% (Hughes et al. 2012, 4; Mugglestone 2015, 31), while these claims are “purely guesstimates in fact, since no objective research into the matter has been carried out” (Upton 2015, 251). Both Cruttenden (2014) and Upton (2015) agree that 3% is an underestimation, possibly accurate only if we excluded every variety of RP which is even slightly regionally infused.

As for the accent’s position in TEFL, RP is now “to be found (...) as the exemplum in countless ELT books (...), usually without critical explanation,

question, or qualification” (Upton 2015, 252). While Jenkins (2000) argues that RP “is not even widely used among L1 speakers and is therefore unlikely to be appropriate as the basis for L2 pedagogy” (p. 17), the contemporary state of things is that “whenever British (...) English is taught to overseas or foreign learners, the accent presented as a model for the learner will most typically be Received Pronunciation” (Hughes et al. 2012, 3).

Ivanová (2011) considers it a suitable model accent for intelligible learner’s speech production “in the European context” (p. 70). She reasons that RP is widely represented in learning materials, dictionaries and textbooks available on the European market, and recommended in Czech (and other European countries’) curricular documents (p. 74). Among her further arguments, there is the accent’s prestigious status, as well as its widespread use as a pronunciation model in literature on English phonetics and phonology. Furthermore, she mentions its increasing social and regional neutrality, especially if termed “BBC pronunciation”, and finally its relatively high comprehensibility compared to other British accents (p. 78).

Many of these justifications deserve at least a brief discussion. Surely there is a “long tradition of describing and analysing RP” (Upton 2015, 252), and the teaching advantage stemming from this is hardly disputable. Nevertheless, claims about social and regional neutrality of RP are still controversial. Upton (2015) regards it as “quite regionless, and now fairly classless” (p. 252), emphasising the vast changes RP has undergone during the last decades, both in phonological and sociolinguistic terms (see Upton 2012). On the other hand, the ongoing evolution of RP can also be seen as instability, and therefore a drawback in the context of ELT (Jenkins 2000, 15), while Mugglestone (2015) insists that “RP is now understood as profoundly accented, not only in its phonological patterning but in the social meanings it has traditionally assumed. Even in news broadcasting on the BBC, it has largely lost its dominance (...)” (p. 32). Hughes et al. (2012) add that “for many people with regional accents, all RP speech (...) sounds affected” (p. 5) and mention a “long-standing association of RP with affectation, social snobbery, arrogance, aloofness” (p. 5). But in the international context of TEFL, we should

be probably more concerned about the attitudes of non-native speakers towards RP than about its sociolinguistic aura on the British Isles.

As a matter of fact, RP is held in high esteem among learners of English around the world. It has been described as the preferred accent by e.g. Danish (Ladegaard & Sachev 2006), German, Argentinian (Upton 2012), Polish (Szpyra-Kozłowska 2004, cited in Szpyra-Kozłowska 2014, 49-55), Spanish (Carrie, 2017), and Czech (Jakšič & Šturm 2017; Brabcová & Skarnitzl 2018) learners alike. Many of these studies inform us that learners label RP as “intelligent” (Eriksson 2019), “noble”, “historically original” (Jakšič & Šturm 2017) and generally “a suitable model for emulation” (Carrie 2017, 442). Compared to other accents, Czech respondents rank it very highly concerning pleasantness, model-suitability, and socioeconomic status (Jakšič 2018).

Considering comprehensibility, it should be noted that this is to some extent inevitably conditioned by the phonological configuration of the learner’s particular L1. RP is non-rhotic, which has proved to hinder comprehension in Czech learners even at higher levels of proficiency (Kobák 2017); rather unsurprisingly, as Czech learners are used to highly phonemic orthography in their L1. If we accept Upton’s (2012) assertion that intrusive /r/ – a phenomenon not supported in orthography at all – “is a decided feature of RP, and is now to be recognised as such” (p. 64), we are to deal with yet another threat to the accent’s comprehensibility. Other problematic features for both perception and production, as identified by Jenkins (2000), might be weak forms and a large number of diphthongs (p. 15). Interestingly, only one of the teachers questioned by Ladegaard & Sachev (2006) responded that they encouraged their students to aim for a British accent, which might suggest that in spite of its prestige, foreign speakers intuitively suspect RP of being difficult to produce.

Finally, it might be worth reconsidering whether the criterion of geographical or geo-cultural proximity (Jakšič 2018, 67; Kobák 2017, 16), for which the British standard accent happens to be promoted in the European context, is relevant in today’s globalised world. Kobák’s (2017) survey among Czech students showed that they were much more exposed to American media than to British media, and went as far as to the rather striking conclusion that most students “establish

contact with British English as a non-rhotic variety only in the classroom“ (p. 60). A „strong dominance of American culture in the [Czech] students’ audiovisual entertainment choices“ was also noted by Jakšič & Šturm (2017, 360). Furthermore, several authors have already pointed out that Brexit “will most likely have implications for the further development of teaching resources and the orientation toward British varieties of English in EU institutions and policies” (Sherman 2018, 117) and hypothesised about the nature of these consequences (Mondiano 2017; Jenkins 2017).

### **2.2.2 General American**

Just like the British Isles, North America is also a diverse territory regarding accents, the main factors on the variation there being regional and ethnic (Boberg 2015, 248). The term General American (GA) is typically used to denote the standard accent of the USA, or simply “that form of American which does not have marked regional characteristics” (Cruttenden 2014, 87). This is disputed e.g. by Pederson (2001), who argues that any standard of American pronunciation is “fictional”, while the “misleading phrase General American” is sometimes used in reference to the Inland Northern accent, which was used as a standard of reference by 20<sup>th</sup> century American linguists, but “has no more authority as a national standard of correctness“ than any other urban social dialects of big cities (p. 261).

In yet another diachronic overview, MacMahon (1998) observes that the term GA, coined by George Krapp in the 1920s, was originally not intended to refer to any standard (p. 402). Nevertheless, during the 20<sup>th</sup> century, it “has taken on the role of the phonetic representative of American English — solely on the grounds of its relative homogeneity and number of speakers,” reported to have been spoken by about 90 million people as early as in the 1950s (p. 403). We shall therefore acknowledge that there indeed is a standard Northern American accent, which will be addressed here as GA, and which “can now be heard, at least at higher social levels, across much of the continent” and “serves not only as a kind of pan-regional standard to be used in public domains (...), but as an acquisition target for learners of English as a second language (...)” (Boberg 2015, 229), although it – as well as contemporary RP – involves a certain degree of heterogeneity.

Czech learners rate GA (alongside RP) highly in pleasantness, comprehensibility and status (Jakšič 2018). It was even preferred over RP by Swedish upper secondary students (Eriksson 2019), and L1 Spanish speakers believed it to be easier to produce for themselves (Carrie 2017, 442), perhaps because of its rhotic nature. According to Cruttenden (2014), “it is the standard model for the pronunciation of English as an L2 in parts of Asia (e.g. the Philippines) and parts of Latin America (e.g. Mexico)” (p. 87).

Among some of the phonological advantages GA has over RP, we can mention e.g. fewer diphthongs or “closer orthographic links” (Jenkins 2000, 17). Nevertheless, it also has weak forms as its decided feature (Ibid., 15), and presents to Czech learners a number of potential phonological pitfalls of its own. Firstly, GA flaps intervocalic /t/, which L1 Czech speakers are bound to both perceive and realise as /d/, given that Czech /d/ (and not /t/) tends to be flapped in less careful pronunciation (Machač 2017, 3; Volín & Skarnitzl 2018, 41). Secondly, GA has the vowel /ɑ:/ in words such as *shop* or *pot*, i.e. represented by *o* in orthography, but in its quality actually closer to Czech /a/ than to Czech /o/. Finally, the vowel /æ/, notoriously problematic for Czech learners, is in GA featured in even more contexts than in RP.

GA is “sometimes referred to as 'Network English'” (Cruttenden 2014, 87) due to its dominant position on the Internet, an invaluable advantage in today’s digital age. As mentioned above, Czech learners are in frequent contact with American English through media and entertainment (Kobák 2017, Jakšič & Šturm 2017) wherefore American accent could be considered “socially attractive” (see Carrie 2017), especially in comparison with “haughty” RP. But even the European learners’ wide exposure to American culture, seemingly advantageous, might actually be a double-edged sword: Ladegaard & Sachev (2006) observed that although their Danish respondents admitted to watching American TV programmes, they had an ambiguous attitude to them, describing them often as “stupid, superficial and trashy” (p. 105). Last but not least, though it might be a sensitive topic, even learners’ political views could potentially constitute a substantial influence on their attitude towards acquiring American accent in L2 English.

### 2.2.3 Other native accents

Apart from the two above-mentioned standard accents pertaining to the world's dominant native varieties of English, other models have been proposed for teaching purposes during the last decades, including e.g. Scottish English, Mid-Atlantic English, or simply whatever accent – even a famous person's idiolect – appeals to the students (see Jenkins 2000, 15). The problem concerning smaller, more regional accents (including national standards of smaller nations and ethnicities, such as Scottish) is obvious: compared to the two big standard varieties, they lack the prestige and the degree of representation in media, and therefore can hardly compete in the global ELT context. A questionnaire given by Jenkins (2007) to 326 non-native teachers revealed that UK and US accents were ranked decisively as the “best” ones by a vast majority of the international respondents (167 and 100, respectively), while other native accents – Australian, Canadian, Irish – were preferred by just 5 or 4 respondents each (p. 157). Foreign learners may not be exposed to these “smaller accents” at all, and these accents may also feature phonological peculiarities making them potentially difficult to comprehend even for some native speakers of other varieties.

For receptive purposes, Ivanová (2011, 70) supports using “other regional accents, if they belong to relatively auditorily perceptible and comprehensible forms of pronunciation” alongside the British and American standard. But in the first place, we must of course resolve the problem of what fulfils the vague criterion of relative perceptibility and comprehensibility. For example, Czech learners themselves find the Scottish or North English accents rather incomprehensible, as found by Jakšič (2018). The author suggests that the possible phonological obstacles may be: monophthongisation to mid vowels [e:, o:], and the realization of /t/ as a glottal stop (p. 70). The two accents ranked low in socioeconomic status and model suitability, too (Ibid.). In the same study, Australian English was among the least comprehensible accents for Czech university students of English (p. 52), while RP and GA were generally evaluated most favourably in all respects.

The low comprehensibility of minor accents could be arguably improved through more exposure and overt phonological explanation, if teachers had the time and

will to do so. As reported by Eriksson (2019), Swedish teachers of English regarded non-dominant social or regional varieties of English either unimportant to the learners, or a “funny thing” to be included in the lessons as an amusing curiosity (pp. 222-223). It seems indeed to be the likely state-of-affairs that varieties other than the big national standards are fairly marginalised in ELT classrooms: if addressed, then rather in receptive than productive activities, and certainly not used as a model for speech production.

#### **2.2.4 International accents**

Apart from the both major and minor native varieties, there is an entire area of “non-native” or “international” accents. Firstly, let us mention the so-called Mid-Atlantic accent, which merges in itself (typically prestigious) features of British and American English, but is still based on these two globally dominant varieties only. Foreign learners are of course likely to be exposed to both, and probably also to their Mid-Atlantic mixture, e.g. through pop music (see Bailey 2001, 494). Therefore, most learners’ accents will arguably feature some British and American elements alike, even in case they are officially taught only one of the varieties. This is likely to apply to non-native teachers as well, and it would not be surprising to find that most European teachers’ accent is actually close to some kind of “rhotic RP” or “GA with British vowels”.

Speaking of non-native/international accents, we must above all mention the perspectives of scholars writing on English as a lingua franca (ELF). Both the term and the field of study emerged in the 1990s (Jenkins 2018) and resulted from the situation of L2 speakers of English having outnumbered native speakers worldwide, with most communication in English taking place among non-native speakers. Concerning pronunciation, a seminal book by Jenkins (2000) criticised ELT for not reflecting this state-of-affairs sufficiently, and proposed the “Lingua Franca Core” (LFC), “a pedagogical core of phonological intelligibility for speakers of EIL” (p. 123). In order to “scale down the phonological task for the majority of learners”, the concept involved prioritising certain phonological features over others, based on their alleged relevance to internationally intelligible communication. For example, rhoticity, intervocalic /t/, aspiration after fortis plosives, initial consonant clusters, vowel length contrasts, nuclear stress, or

division of speech into word groups were prioritised, whereas substitutions of /ð/, /θ/ and /t/, close approximations to most consonantal sounds, or certain simplifications of medial and final clusters were deemed permissible (p. 159). Phenomena such as weak forms and features of connected speech were labelled as necessary to teach for receptive purposes only (p. 149), word stress „unteachable“ (p. 150), etc.

Jenkins’s LFC has been criticised for disregarding social dimensions of communication (see 2.1.2), and even for not being able to stand up to certain empirical findings (see Brabcová & Skarnitzl 2018, 40). One specific problem is the concept’s negligence to learners’ own desire to sound native-like, a stance reported e.g. by McCrocklin & Link (2016), but also by Nowacka (2012)<sup>2</sup>, Sa’d & Modirkhamene (2015)<sup>2</sup>, Waniek-Klimczak, Porzuczek & Rojczyk (2015)<sup>2</sup>, and finally by Brabcová & Skarnitzl (2018) in Czech learners specifically. The emphasis on native-like pronunciation was also recorded in teachers – not only of English (e.g. Bai & Yuan 2019) but also of other languages, e.g. of Spanish by Nagle et al. (2018), who commented on this fact as “troubling since this is an area where empirical, ethical, and practical perspectives support intelligible and comprehensible pronunciation over natively pronunciation” (p. 17).

In a following book, Jenkins (2007) defended LFC against the “frequent misinterpretation” that it was supposed to be a model for imitation; rather, she explained, it was meant as “a core of pronunciation features (...) whose absence leads to miscommunication” among non-native speakers, while the “non-core” features of native accents should be understood as voluntary (p. 25). In more recent publications yet, Jenkins even opposes the view of ELF as a clearly defined “variety” of English, now considering this to have been the conceptual blind alley of the early research on the phenomenon, influenced by the example of World Englishes (Jenkins 2017; 2018). With the increasing amount of empirical data on the subject, she states, attention shifted to the diverse functions ELF was found to serve, and most recently also to its position within the framework of multilingualism (Jenkins 2018, 595-596). Therefore, it would be unfair to the authors if we treated ELF pronunciation here as some “20-year-old artificial pedagogical accent”, known as LFC. However, the “well established” basic

2 Cited in Brabcová & Skarnitzl (2018, 41).

position that “not all features of pronunciation are equally important in maintaining intelligibility in ELF interactions” (Gardiner & Deterding 2018, 224) is still acknowledged and worked with in contemporary research on ELF phonology.

A proposal to reconcile ELF with the traditional EFL is the concept of NELF – Native English as a lingua franca (Szpyra-Kozłowska 2014), which would accept “only the linguistic but not the sociocultural aspects of native English”, making native English the *model* of pronunciation instruction and intelligible international communication its *goal* (p. ix). It is argued in the book that this approach is in fact intuitively adopted by a majority of non-native teachers worldwide, who “take a native phonetic model as a reference point, but focus on selected features of English which they consider particularly important for successful communication” (p. 27).

In sum, an attempt on standardising and unifying a non-native, ideologically neutral variety of English and teaching it internationally does not currently seem as a too perspective idea, as it would in practice create just another accent “imposed” to foreign learners and, furthermore, one devoid of the native accents’ prestige and cultural identity. A recent study (Mohr et al. 2021) investigated the attitudes of Swedish and German teachers to the hypothetical concept of “authentic European English”, speculated by Modiano (2017) to emerge in the European Union after Brexit. Although Swedish respondents were reportedly more detached from “native speaker ideologies” than German ones (p. 89), teachers from both countries generally did not welcome the possibility of teaching a unified European variety too enthusiastically (p. 90). Apart from ideological reasons, practical ones were also mentioned, while a lot of the teachers were simply unsure of what to imagine under the concept. A remarkable answer from one of the Swedish participants was that there already existed several “European Englishes”, i.e. local varieties taught in every European country (p. 88). Seen from this point of view, we can also understand the present thesis as an investigation into the nature of one of the specific accents of this kind, namely the one pronounced by teachers of English at Czech secondary schools.

## 2.3 Teacher cognition and pronunciation teaching

The area of teacher cognition, established as a specific field of research rather recently, comprises teachers' knowledge, beliefs, thoughts, attitudes and perceptions of/about language (or another subject, of course) and its teaching (Burri et al. 2017); its development is an individual, non-linear and long-term process (Burri & Baker 2021). The "visible" part of teaching, then, consists of teachers' practices, which may be in accordance with their cognition, or diverge from it for various reasons. Some of the questions commonly addressed in this field of research (with respect to pronunciation) are e.g. the importance of pronunciation teaching itself, opinions on the teachability and development of pronunciation, selection of materials and models, teachers' self-perception, preference for the explicit/implicit type of instruction, prioritisation of intelligibility/nativeness as goals, etc. (see e.g. Nagle et al. 2018, or Vykouková 2014).

Burri & Baker (2021) identified four main factors influencing teachers' practices and cognitions about pronunciation teaching. These are: teacher preparation, personal-professional factors (e.g. motivation, experience, interests), language factors (e.g. phonological awareness, teachers' own L2 learning), and finally contextual factors, namely learners' needs and teaching program. Burri et al. (2017) also demonstrated that a post-gradual course on pronunciation teaching brought more benefits to in-service than to pre-service teachers: the latter group's cognition development was apparently more restricted by their lack of classroom experience and self-confidence.

Concerning confidence, it is important to mention that for many non-native teachers of English, teaching pronunciation of a language which is not their mother tongue (and in which they typically have some degree of a foreign accent themselves) may be an uncomfortable and stressful situation. It is often reported that non-native teachers find pronunciation teaching important, but they feel underqualified in this respect, as elicited e.g. by Bai & Yuan (2019) from Hong Kong teachers of English. This is probably why pronunciation instruction courses seem to be especially beneficial for non-native teachers, positively influencing both their cognition and confidence (Burri 2015, cited in Burri et al. 2017, 113).

However, their lack of confidence may be not only due to not having received sufficient training, but also to their non-native status itself, as the belief that “the teaching of pronunciation would be better handled by native English speakers” is still “widely held (...) in many EFL contexts” (Bai & Yuan 2019, 141-142).

The prestigious status of nativeness therefore appears to be even a potential obstacle to effective pronunciation teaching, leading to non-native teachers’ insecurity and a resulting negligence of pronunciation in classroom. Lee et al. (2017) reported that although their sample of Korean teachers of English mostly believed they could teach English as efficiently as native speakers (p. 130), they also felt insecure about not having lived in English-speaking countries, and potential criticism from their native colleagues or students who had lived in an English-speaking country was a source of anxiety for them (pp. 125-126). On the other hand, learners themselves may value both native and non-native teachers alike, as found out e.g. in Portuguese university students by Guerra (2017, 191).

Regarding the cognitions of Czech upper-secondary teachers of English specifically, a survey conducted by Vykouková (2014) revealed that a vast majority of the 228 respondents believed in the importance of pronunciation, the usefulness of explicit pronunciation instruction, and the possibility of pronunciation improvement beyond 15 years of age (p. 28). The participants also emphasised intelligibility (and “pleasantness”) of learners’ production, while native-like attainment was the goal for only 3% of them (p. 29). More than a half of them claimed to teach pronunciation in every lesson, but nearly 70% also admitted that they approached it non-systematically, typically when a problem occurred on the student’s side (pp. 31-32). Most of the teachers felt no particular aversion to pronunciation teaching, with a slightly more positive attitude recorded in the more qualified ones (p. 39), and they generally supported authentic materials as a means to pronunciation improvement (p. 38), although they predominantly based their pronunciation teaching on exercises in textbooks (p. 35).

### **3. Method**

In order to obtain authentic material consisting of Czech secondary teachers' in-class speech production, which their students are regularly exposed to, four Czech secondary schools were visited. Two of them were grammar schools (Prague, Opava) and two of them were secondary schools of another type (secondary school of civil engineering in Opava, secondary school of pedagogy in Prague). At all of these schools, the English language is taught as an obligatory subject, and constitutes a part of the final exam (maturita).

#### **3.1 The recording**

The teachers of English at these schools were asked to volunteer in the research by an e-mail, which did not specify the exact area of interest (i.e. pronunciation). The preliminary information stated that it was a linguistic research conducted at Charles University for the purposes of a diploma thesis, and that it would involve recording of their voice in the course of one 45-minute lesson and filling out a questionnaire. Thus, the risk of the participants' pronunciation being altered, modified, or more careful than in usual in-class production, was minimised, even though a potential psychological influence of the recording situation itself should be acknowledged.

A lavalier microphone was used to obtain relatively high-quality recordings of the teacher's speech, and at the same time to lower their (and their students') anxiety about the recording situation by using a visually unobtrusive device. However, half of the teachers eventually preferred the researcher to be present in the classroom and to manipulate the recording device, although they had been previously offered and instructed to operate it independently. The other half of the recordings was obtained without the researcher's presence in the classroom. The directional sound characteristic of the microphone also enabled us to record the teacher's voice almost exclusively, with concern for the students' privacy; any audible excerpts of students' speech, if occasionally captured, were later edited out of the recordings (see below).

After the recording, the participating teachers were given a two-page questionnaire focused on their cognition about pronunciation teaching and accents of English. Some preferred to fill it out immediately after the recording (and then even engaged in a short informal discussion about the topic – now revealed), others hurried to their duties and sent the questionnaire back by e-mail within several days or weeks. All the teachers also signed an informed consent with their participation in the research.

The ca 45-minute recordings obtained from each of the lessons were subsequently edited down to the teachers' speech only (excluding e.g. longer intervals of silence, classroom activities based on listening, as well as any questions, responses and presentations by the students). This resulted in excerpts from about 14 to 25 minutes long, which were later used in the analyses (see below).

### **3.2 The participants**

10 Czech secondary school teachers of English were recorded, aged from 27 to 53 years; average (also median) age was 43 years. All of them were non-native speakers of English, whose first language was Czech. 6 of the participants were born in the Moravian-Silesian Region, 2 in Prague, one in Pilsen, and one in the Central Bohemian Region.

One of the teachers was male, the others were female. All the participants possessed a master's degree (one also an additional bachelor's degree) obtained either at a Faculty of Arts (4 teachers) or a Faculty of Pedagogy (3 teachers) of various Czech universities. The remaining three teachers stated that they had studied at both of these types of faculties; whether this always meant obtaining a BA degree at one faculty, and a follow-up MA degree at the other, or whether it also included unfinished studies, was not specified.

6 of the teachers were teaching at a grammar school (3 in Prague, 3 in Opava) at the time of the recording, 4 at another type of secondary school (3 in Opava, one in Prague). The length of their teaching experience ranged between 7 and 27 years (17 years on average, median 14 years). 4 of them had not spent any significant time staying, working or studying in a foreign country (English-speaking or

other), 6 of them had stayed for a longer period of time in various countries such as Canada, Ireland, USA, Belgium, France, Switzerland, and Spain.

All of the teachers used a textbook based on British English in their classes. At the same time, all of them also stated that their additional teaching materials – magazines, films, books, music, etc. – were based on multiple varieties, at least British and American, or more (one teacher did not answer this question). When asked about the “variety they taught”, all of them reported British English, except for one, who stated that she taught both the British and the American variety. Despite this apparent dominance of British English as the model for the learners, only 4 of the 10 teachers chose RP as the most subjectively pleasant accent; the remaining 6 teachers preferred North American accents (4 GA, 2 Canadian) in terms of “pleasantness”. The same 4 teachers who favoured RP “aesthetically” (all from Opava, curiously) also stated that they tried to emulate it in their own speech; 3 teachers said they personally aimed at GA accent, and 3 claimed that they did not attempt to model any particular native accent of English in their own speech production.

The metadata about the participants are summarised in Table 1.

### **3.3 The questionnaires**

Apart from the metadata about our participants summarised in Table 1, the questionnaires also contained 14 questions investigating the teachers’ cognitions about pronunciation teaching. Answers to these were marked by the participants on a five-point scale. The questionnaire was in Czech and its full form is available in Appendix I. English translation of the questions is offered below. One of the teachers teacher did not answer items 2-6, and therefore had to be excluded from any calculations (in 4.1 and 4.3) using these five items. The first six items were evaluated in terms of importance, using a scale of numeric values (“evaluate the importance of [something] from 1 – lowest, to 5 – highest”):

1. How much importance do you attach to English pronunciation teaching?
2. Learner acquires a nearly native-like accent.
3. Learner has no problems understanding the speech of a native speaker.
4. A native speaker has no problems understanding the learner.

5. Learner has no problems communicating successfully with other non-native speakers.
6. Learner is aware of the differences among accents of English.

The remaining eight items asked for a degree of agreement with a statement (expressed verbally, from “definitely not” to “definitely yes”, corresponding to the numeric scale from 1 to 5):

7. A native speaker will teach pronunciation more effectively than a non-native speaker.
8. Stays in foreign countries, contact with native speakers, or listening to authentic materials are more effective means of acquiring English pronunciation than in-class pronunciation instruction.
9. Learner should know the symbols of the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) relevant to English, and to be able to connect them to the sounds they represent.
10. Certain aspects of pronunciation are more important to successful communication than other ones.
11. British English is the most suitable model for teaching English as a foreign language.
12. Native-like accent can be acquired at any age.
13. Teacher is the most important model of learner’s pronunciation.
14. American English is more comprehensible to the learners than British English.

### **3.4 The pronunciation analysis**

Out of each of the recordings obtained, consisting now of the teacher’s speech only, 3 shorter excerpts were selected: one from the very beginning of the lesson/recording, one approximately from its middle, and one from its conclusion. This decision was motivated by the effort to provide a representative sample of speech collected across the course of each lesson, and to be able to mitigate potential variation in the teachers’ pronunciation among its respective stages, possibly influenced by factors such as initial nervousness at the beginning of the lesson (or, conversely, fatigue at the end of the lesson). Each of these excerpts’ duration was between 91 and 101 seconds (97 on average), which resulted in a sample of 283 to 298 seconds of speech (291 on average) from each of the teachers to be analysed. The individual excerpts were also transcribed, which text was used for the purposes of an automatic phonetic segmentation of the

recordings (see below). Transcriptions of all the excerpts of recordings used in our analysis are to be found in Appendix II.

teacher	sex	age	degree (s)	region of birth	teaches in city	teaches at type of school	teaching experience	graduated from	stays in foreign countries	most pleasant acc.	emulated acc.	variety taught	textbook variety	other materials' varieties
1	F	53	Mgr.	Moravian-Silesian	Opava	secondary	25	FA	Canada	GA	GA	BrE	BrE	various
2	F	41	Mgr.	Moravian-Silesian	Opava	secondary	15	FA	-	GA	-	BrE	BrE	various
3	F	38	Mgr.	Prague	Prague	grammar	9	FP	Ireland, Canada	Can.	-	BrE	BrE	various
4	F	46	Mgr.	Pilsen	Prague	grammar	25	FP	USA, Canada	GA	GA	BrE	BrE	various
5	F	37	Mgr. et Bc.	Prague	Prague	grammar	13	FP	-	Can.	-	BrE	BrE	various
6	F	37	Mgr.	Moravian-Silesian	Opava	secondary	11	FA+FP	Belgium	RP	RP	BrE	BrE	-
7	M	48	Mgr.	Moravian-Silesian	Opava	grammar	27	FA+FP	Spain, Switzerland	RP	RP	BrE	BrE	various
8	F	52	Mgr.	Moravian-Silesian	Opava	grammar	12	FA	-	RP	RP	BrE	BrE	various
9	F	50	Mgr.	Moravian-Silesian	Opava	grammar	26	FA	-	RP	RP	BrE	BrE	various
10	F	27	Mgr.	Central Bohemian	Prague	secondary	7	FA+FP	France	GA	GA	BrE + AmE	BrE	various

**Table 1.** A table summarising metadata about the participants obtained from the questionnaires. Mgr. = Master of Arts. Bc. = Bachelor of Arts. FA = Faculty of Arts. FP = Faculty of Pedagogy. BrE = British English. AmE = American English. Can. = Canadian English. “age” and “teaching experience” are stated in years. “secondary” = types of secondary schools other than grammar school. “stays in foreign countries” = foreign countries, English-speaking or other, in which the participants studied, worked or stayed for a longer period of time. “most pleasant acc.” = native accents of English selected by the participants as the subjectively most pleasant. “emulated acc.” = native accents of English which the participants try to emulate in their own speech production. “variety taught” = varieties of English that the teachers teach to their learners. “textbook variety” = varieties of English on which the textbooks used by the teachers are based. “other materials’ varieties” = varieties of English on which other materials (films, books, magazines, songs...) used by the teachers in their English lessons are based.

On average, the teachers produced 274 words during the ca 97-second excerpts (ranging from 197 to 346 words), and 822 words on average during the entire ca 291-second speech material (from 672 to 982 words). Speech tempo, crudely calculated as words pronounced per the time of the recording (i.e. unpruned), was 170 words per minute on average, with the fastest-speaking teacher producing as many as 208 words per minute, the slowest-speaking one only 139 words per minute.

The analysis was performed by means of careful listening to the pronunciation phenomena at task, using over-ear headphones. Although it did not involve acoustic analysis, Praat (Boersma & Weenink 2014) was employed for

convenience and efficiency. In the outcome of the automatic segmentation, segments and word boundaries were not manually aligned and corrected before the analysis, bearing in mind that such precision would not be essential for our task; nevertheless, the automatic segmentation enabled easy orientation in the recordings, and a convenient interface for evaluation and tagging. In several instances of ambiguous or problematic perception, a spectrogram generated by the program was occasionally consulted for verification. Praat also made it possible to extract the outcome of the evaluation by a script.

For each of the ca 97-second excerpts, the analysis took place on 13 levels. The phenomena analysed were chosen on the basis of the typical Czech foreign accent features in English as delineated in section 2.1.2. Concerning segmental features, we examined both the voiced and the voiceless dental fricatives /ð/ and /θ/, the approximants /r/ and /w/ (the former from the point of phonological rhoticity, as well as of the phoneme's phonetic realisation in both prevocalic and non-prevocalic environments), the velar nasal /ŋ/, vowels /æ/ and /ə/, and aspiration after fortis plosives /p, t, k/ followed by a vowel in stressed syllables of lexical words. The suprasegmental features analysed were the following: linking of a word beginning with a vowel to the previous word, coalescent assimilation at word boundaries, and errors in word stress of polysyllabic words. Considering that the material consisted of spontaneous speech, as well as the above-described variation in word-count and speech tempo, it is self-evident that the pronunciation phenomena analysed were not represented evenly in the individual excerpts of recordings.

Given that most of the teachers reported in the questionnaires their effort to emulate either RP or GA, these two standard accents could be taken as referential for the purposes of the analysis (with a few exceptions, mentioned below). The following criteria were applied to the selected aspects of pronunciation:

- /ð/ and /θ/ were evaluated in all contexts where they are canonically present, on a three-point scale: 0 – distinctly Czech-accented pronunciation, 1 – intermediate pronunciation, 2 – native-like pronunciation.

- The evaluation of phonological rhoticity was binary (i.e. 0 – non-rhotic, 1 – rhotic), and was performed in all contexts where /r/ appears non-prevocally in rhotic accents. Instances of linking or intrusive /r/ were therefore excluded from this category, as they are prevocalic in principle.
- /r/ was also evaluated in terms of its phonetic realisation on a three-point scale: 0 – distinctly Czech-accented pronunciation, 1 – intermediate, 2 – native-like pronunciation. The realisation of /r/ was rated in both non-prevocalic contexts (only instances of phonological rhoticity, i.e. presence of the phoneme /r/) and prevocalic contexts (including clusters with other consonants in syllabic onsets, such as *group* or *pride*, and including linking).
- /w/ was evaluated on a three-point scale: 0 – distinctly Czech-accented pronunciation, 1 – intermediate, 2 – native-like pronunciation. Potential /ʍ/ was also accepted as a native-like realisation of the *wh*- orthographic sequence. Additionally, potential [w]-realisations of canonical /v/ were marked as errors.
- /ŋ/ was evaluated in contexts where the phoneme has got phonological significance (i.e. *thing*, *sing*, *bring*), and in *-ing* endings. The evaluation was binary: 0 meant distinctly Czech-accented pronunciation (i.e. /ŋ/ followed by a velar sound), while 1 meant native-like pronunciation. For *-ing* endings only, the pronunciation with /n/ (without a following velar sound) – common among native speakers, though non-standard – was also deemed acceptable as native-like.
- /æ/ was evaluated in all contexts where it canonically appears, on a three-point scale: 0 – distinctly Czech-accented pronunciation, 1 – intermediate, 2 – native-like pronunciation. If there was an unambiguous reduction to schwa in grammatical words (e.g. the “weak form” of *that*), the case was excluded, i.e. only instances with a full vowel were evaluated. We also excluded instances of /æ/ which are canonical only in GA, but not in RP: this concerned typically words affected by the *trap-bath* split. In other words, the position was adopted that a teacher pronouncing *past* as [pa:st]

or [pa:st] was not mispronouncing [pæst], but rather aiming (consciously or not) at the standard British pronunciation of the word.

- /ə/ is potentially so common (including all weak forms of grammatical words as possible instances of its occurrence in native English) that more restrictive criteria for it had to be applied than for the other sounds. 10 grammatical words (with a potential schwa in their weak form) and 10 polysyllabic lexical words (where schwa appears canonically in unstressed syllables and at the same time does not alternate with the reduced vowel /ɪ/, as it does for example in the second syllable of *target*, the first syllable of the verb *rebel* etc.) were chosen in each ca 90-second excerpt. These were then evaluated in a binary way (0 – any full vowel, 1 – schwa). Nevertheless, even these criteria could not be eventually applied quite consistently throughout the material (see 4.2.5).
- Aspiration after fortis plosives /p, t, k/ was evaluated in a binary way (0 – absent, 1 – present) in stressed syllables of lexical words only, and only if the plosive was followed by a vowel (i.e. not a sonorant). Additionally, instances where /p, t, k/ were non-canonically aspirated in syllable-initial clusters in stressed syllables after the sibilant /s/ were marked as errors.
- Linking of a word beginning with a vowel to the previous word was evaluated in a binary way (0 – absent, i.e. glottalisation, 1 – present). If there was a longer pause or other substantial prosodic divide before the word-initial vowel sound, or if the word was apparently emphasised, the context was excluded.
- Coalescent assimilation was evaluated on a three-point scale, where 0 meant absent, 1 meant the intermediate stage of alveolar sound changing into a post-alveolar in the presence of /j/, still perceptible, and 2 meant a completed coalescence of the alveolar sound and /j/ into a single post-alveolar sound (see Kaźmierski, Wojtkowiak & Baumann 2016, 238). It was evaluated on word boundaries only, i.e. in instances such as *would you* or *what you*, but not in e.g. *natural*.

- Errors in word stress were simply marked whenever they occurred, in polysyllabic words only. It is important to note that not every instance in which a full vowel appeared instead of a schwa in an unstressed syllable was deemed a word-stress error: perceptual attention was paid to acoustic prominence of the syllables, rather.

For each of the items analysed (except for errors), a standardised success score in the range from 0 to 1 was calculated. For items evaluated in a ternary way, 0 was assigned to distinctly Czech-accented realisations, 0.5 to intermediate realisations (formerly 1), and 1 to native-like realisations (formerly 2). For items evaluated in a binary way, the score equals to percentage of successful realisations divided by 100.

### 3.5 Hypotheses

Based on what we know about Czech foreign accent in English, the following is expected about Czech secondary teachers' of English in-class pronunciation:

- 1) The segmentals /ð/, /æ/ and /ŋ/ will be on average pronounced in a native-like manner in less than 40% of the instances analysed. /ð/ and /æ/ will be pronounced more successfully in lexical words than in grammatical words. /ŋ/ will be pronounced less successfully in *-ing* endings than elsewhere.
- 2) The approximants /r/ and /w/ will be on average pronounced in a native-like manner in more than 70% of the instances analysed. /r/ will be Czech-accented in prevocalic environments more often than in non-prevocalic environments. Pronouncing /v/ as [w] will be rare, amounting to single occurrences in our entire corpus.
- 3) Teachers preferring RP as the most subjectively pleasant accent and as a model for their own production will show less than 40% of rhoticity. The other teachers will reach more than 60% of rhoticity. Teachers emulating GA accent will manifest more rhotic pronunciation than teachers who claim not to imitate any native accent in their speech.
- 4) The mid central vowel /ə/ will be on average pronounced successfully in less than 50% of the instances analysed. It will be pronounced more successfully in unstressed syllables of polysyllabic lexical words than in grammatical words – potential “weak forms”.
- 5) Aspiration after syllable-initial /p, t, k/ in stressed syllables will be on average present in less than 50% of the instances analysed. Aspiration of /p, t, k/ after /s/ in stressed syllables will be rare, amounting to units of instances in the entire corpus.
- 6) Linking and coalescent assimilation (at least partial, rated as 1 or 2 – see 3.4) will be on average present in less than 40% of the instances of potential occurrence. Linking will be more common than coalescent assimilation.

## 4. Results

### 4.1 The questionnaires

Most teachers believed in the importance of pronunciation teaching in general (mean 4.1, median 4 on the five-point scale; standard deviation  $\sigma = 0.7$ ), with only one teacher assigning it a medium level of importance. Both learners' unproblematic intelligibility (mean 4.9, median 5, range 4-5;  $\sigma = 0.3$ ) and unproblematic comprehension (mean 4.7, median 5, range 4-5;  $\sigma = 0.5$ ) in communication with native speakers were evaluated as important, as was also unproblematic communication with other non-native speakers (mean 4.9, median 5, range 4-5;  $\sigma = 0.3$ ). Our sample of teachers was also predominantly convinced that authentic input is a more efficient means of acquiring English pronunciation than in-class instruction (mean 4.4, median 4, range 4-5;  $\sigma = 0.5$ ). Finally, our participants agreed that American English was more comprehensible to the learners than British English (mean 4.4, median 4, range 4-5;  $\sigma = 0.5$ ). The opinion that some aspects of pronunciation are more important to effective communication than others was also predominantly accepted, though with slightly more controversy than the previously mentioned items (mean 4, median 4, range 2-5;  $\sigma = 0.9$ ).

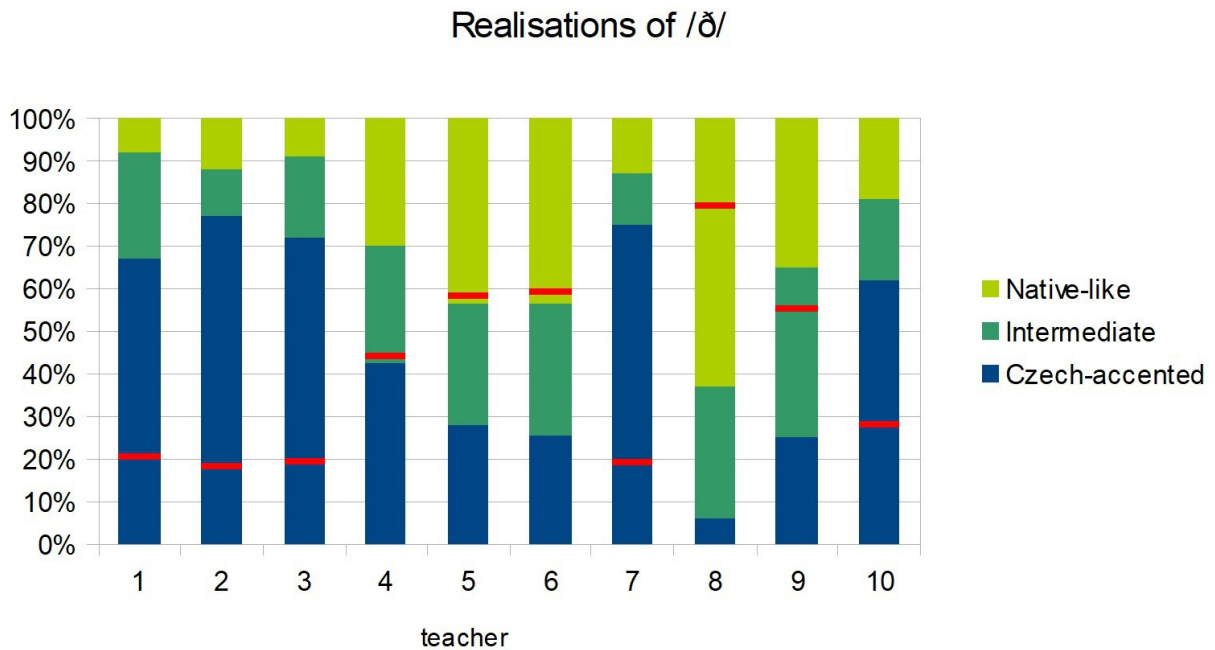
Less unequivocal were our participants' opinions about: the importance of learners' acquiring an almost native-like accent (mean 3.3, median 4, range 1-5;  $\sigma = 1.2$ ), about native speakers' ability to teach pronunciation better than non-native speakers (mean 3.7, median 4, range 1-5;  $\sigma = 1.2$ ), about the importance of learners' accent awareness (mean 3.4, median 4, range 2-5;  $\sigma = 1$ ), about the importance of learners' knowledge of IPA symbols (mean 3.5, median 4, range 1-5;  $\sigma = 1.2$ ), and about the possibility of acquiring a native-like accent at any age (mean 3.3, median 4, range 2-4;  $\sigma = 0.9$ ).

The two lowest levels of agreement were found in responses to the superlative statements that British English is the most suitable model for teaching English as a foreign language (mean 3.1, median 3, range 2-5;  $\sigma = 0.8$ ), and that the teacher is the most important model of learners' pronunciation (mean 2.7, median 2.5, range 1-4;  $\sigma = 1.2$ ).

## 4.2 The pronunciation analysis

### 4.2.1 Dental fricatives /ð/ and /θ/

696 instances of /ð/ were found and evaluated in the entire corpus of recordings, out of which 94% was in grammatical words. On average, /ð/ was pronounced as strongly Czech-accented in 48 (± 2.8) %, native-like in 24 (± 1.4) %, and intermediate in 28 (± 2.7) % of these instances. The average of scores for /ð/ was 0.4 (among all teachers), with 5 teachers reaching a score between 0.18 and 0.28, and 4 teachers above 0.5 (one of the latter even 0.79). Percentages of the three types of /ð/-realisations for individual teachers, as well as individual scores for /ð/, are visualised in Figure 1.



**Figure 1.** Percentages of native-like, intermediate, and Czech-accented realisations of /ð/, shown for individual speakers. Red horizontal lines represent individual scores (scaled to %).

Using the data from all teachers, the results seemingly suggest that /ð/ tends to be pronounced slightly more successfully in lexical words (average score 0.49) than in grammatical words (average score 0.39). However, this comparison does not pass a chi-squared test using the results of the ternary evaluation [  $\chi^2(2, n = 696) = 2.08, p = .35$  ], wherefore no conclusions can be drawn. This is not surprising, given the extreme overbalance of /ð/ in grammatical words, and considering that in 3 of the teachers there was virtually only 1 lexical word with /ð/ evaluated.

131 instances of /θ/ were found and evaluated in the entire corpus of recordings. On average, this sound was pronounced in a native-like way in 93 ( $\pm 1.4$ ) % of these instances, with strongly accented and intermediate realisations amounting both to 3-4% only. Regarding individual teachers, the distribution of values is fairly homogeneous and skewed to the right, with scores ranging from 0.83 to 1. 100% success was achieved by 4 of the teachers, while only 2 teachers reached a score below 0.9.

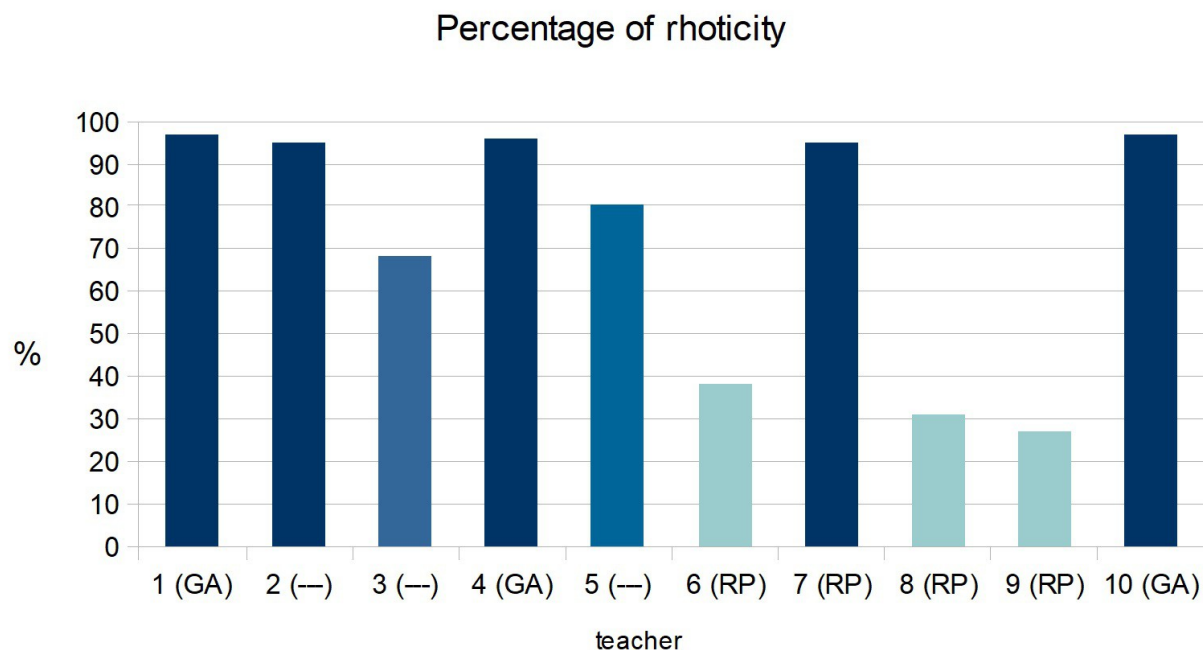
#### 4.2.2 Approximants /r/ and /w/

Phonological rhoticity was evaluated in 794 non-prevocalic contexts. Moreover, the phonetic realisation of /r/ was evaluated in 577 instances of rhotic pronunciation in non-prevocalic contexts, as well as in 478 instances of prevocalic occurrence of the phoneme.

Our sample of teachers was 72.4 ( $\pm 2$ ) % rhotic on average. 3 of the teachers were only 27-38% rhotic: not surprisingly, these three participants (all from Opava; aged 37, 52 and 50) favoured RP both in terms of “pleasantness” and as a model for their own pronunciation. 2 participants (38 and 37 years) were 68% and 80% rhotic, respectively, both teaching at the same grammar school in Prague and both preferring Canadian English as the most “pleasant” native accent, while claiming not to emulate any native accent in their own speech. The remaining 5 participants were all over 90% rhotic: they also showed (at least “aesthetic”) preference for GA in the questionnaires, with one notable exception – a teacher who was 95% rhotic, but preferred (and tried to emulate) RP. This particular teacher (48 years, from Opava, with the longest teaching experience in the sample) was also the least successful one in terms of the realisation of /r/. Individual percentages of rhoticity are visualised in Figure 2.

The average score for the realisations of /r/ was 0.93 in non-prevocalic (rhotic) contexts and 0.84 in prevocalic contexts. The sizes of the two samples (577 and 478, respectively) are fairly comparable, and at first glance there indeed is a significant difference, as confirmed also by a chi-squared test calculated for the results of the ternary evaluation [ $\chi^2(2, n = 1055) = 28.97, p < .00001$ ]. However, there were two teachers demonstrating noticeably lower-than-average scores, both

from Opava, aged 53 and 48 years: the former teacher's scores for realisation of /r/ were 0.78 non-prevocally and 0.6 prevocally, the latter teacher's scores were 0.7 and 0.18, respectively.



*Figure 2. Percentage of rhoticity, shown for individual speakers. Native accents of English emulated by the speakers are stated in brackets (GA = General American, RP = Received Pronunciation, --- = none)*

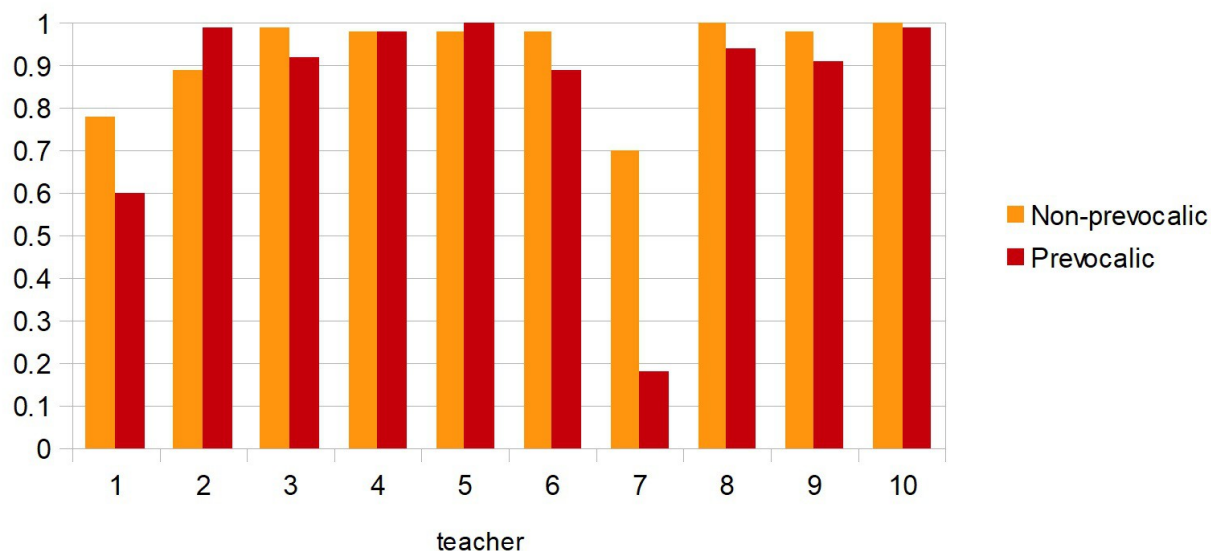
Especially the very last value mentioned seems to distort the results substantially. If we excluded these two participants, the difference between average scores in prevocalic and non-prevocalic contexts would be much smaller (averages of scores being 0.98 non-prevocally and 0.95 prevocally). This suggests that the context might actually be an influential factor on the realisations of /r/, but only in individuals displaying a generally stronger Czech accent.

Figure 3 compares individual teachers' scores for /r/ in non-prevocalic and prevocalic contexts. Curiously, in 2 of the participants the score for prevocalic /r/ was slightly higher than the score for non-prevocalic /r/.

As expected, the realisation of /w/ was generally unproblematic. 716 instances were analysed in our sample of teachers, out of which 92 ( $\pm 0.5$ ) % on average were native-like realisations, while Czech-accented and intermediate realisations amounted both to ca 4%. The average score was 0.95, with one teacher reaching 100%, the lowest individual score being 0.8; the remaining individual scores were

all above 0.9. Interestingly, not a single case of /v/ pronounced as [w] appeared in the ca 48-minute corpus of recordings analysed here, although experience with non-native speakers of English backs up the existence of this phenomenon.

### Scores for realisations of /r/ in non-prevocalic and prevocalic contexts



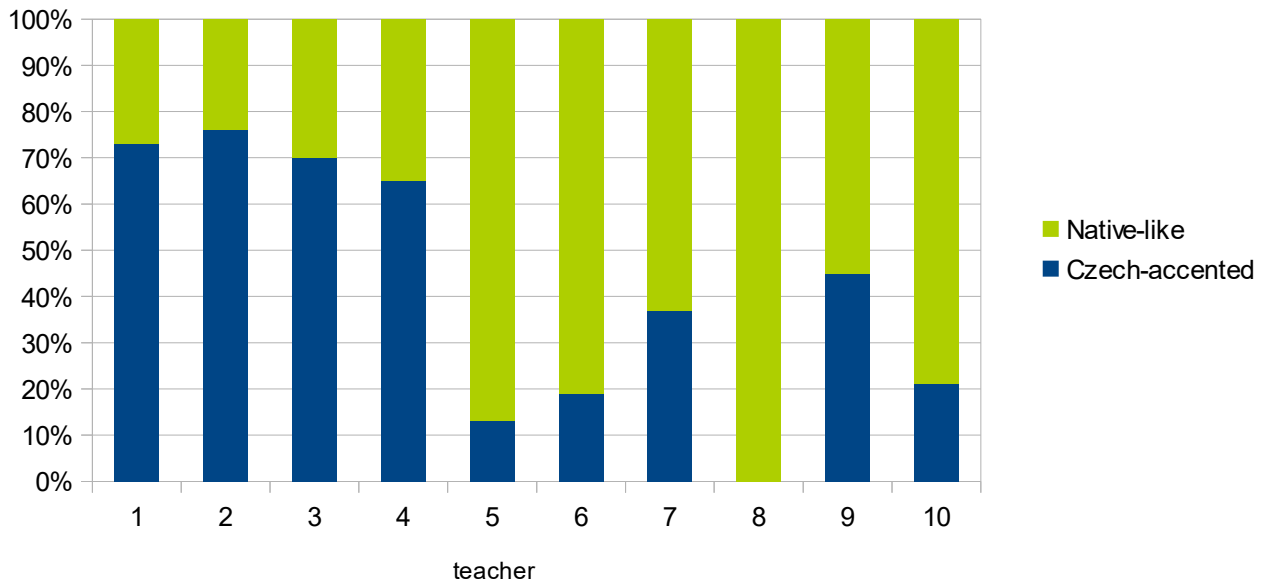
*Figure 3. Scores for realisations of /r/ in non-prevocalic and prevocalic contexts, shown for individual speakers.*

### 4.2.3 Velar nasal /ŋ/

197 instances of /ŋ/ were analysed in our sample of teachers. The average value for our entire sample of teachers was 58 ( $\pm 4$ ) % of canonical realisations of /ŋ/, but the results show extensive individual variation, with 4 teachers being in the range of 24-35% of canonical realisations, 2 teachers reaching intermediate values of 55% and 63%, and the remaining 4 teachers being in the “mostly successful” range of 79-100% of canonical realisations. There are no perspicuous factors on this detectable in our metadata: both the least and the most successful subgroup included teachers from different cities, of different ages, teaching at different types of schools, and with different accent preferences. The individual percentages of native-like and Czech-accented realisations of /ŋ/ are shown in Figure 4.

Out of the 197 tokens of /ŋ/, 140 was found in *-ing* endings of verbs, and 57 in different lexical contexts (mostly in the word *thing* and its compounds, such as

## Realisations of /ŋ/



**Figure 4.** Percentages of native-like and Czech-accented realisations of /ŋ/, shown for individual speakers.

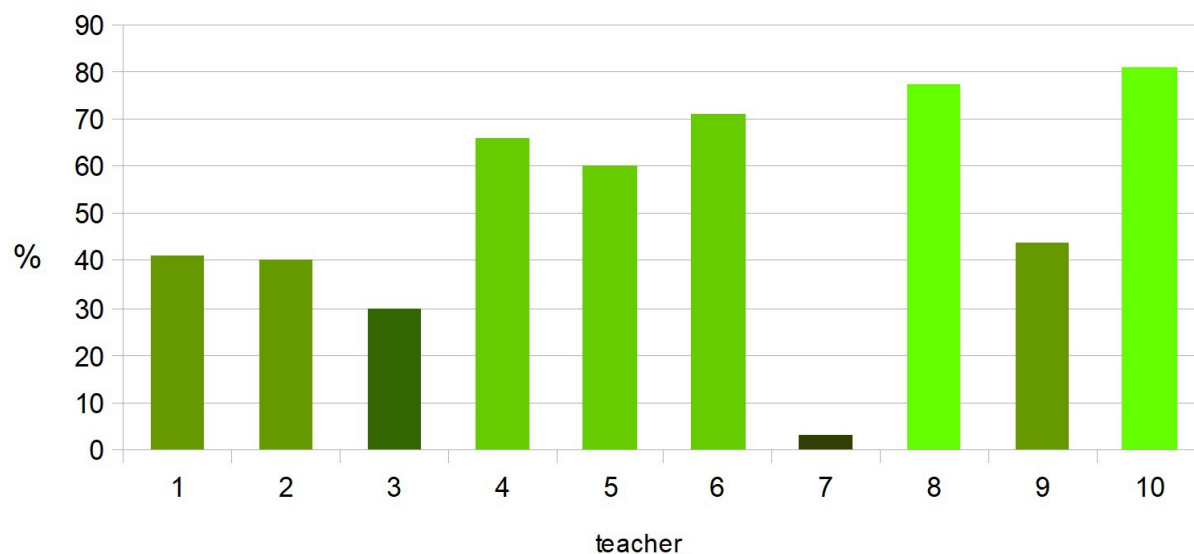
anything or something). The average percentages for these two types of context show only a minor difference (56% and 59% respectively), which is not statistically significant [  $\chi^2(1, n = 197) = 0.25, p = .61$  ].

### 4.2.4 Aspiration after fortis plosives /p, t, k/

352 contexts with canonical aspiration after fortis plosives /p, t, k/ in stressed syllables of lexical words, where the plosive was immediately followed by a vowel (i.e. not a sonorant), were evaluated. Our participants successfully aspirated in 51.3 ( $\pm 2.3$ ) % of these contexts on average, with 4 teachers in the range of 30-44%, 5 teachers in the range of 60-81%, and one person with only 3% of canonical aspiration (a single word). Individual percentages of canonical aspiration are shown in Figure 5.

As expected, non-canonical aspiration after /p, t, k/ preceded by syllable-initial /s/ was rare: it was recorded only 8 times in our 48-minute corpus of recordings. One of the teachers produced it 3 times and another teacher produced it twice (both over 50 and from Opava), 3 teachers produced it once, and the remaining 5 teachers not at all.

## Percentage of canonical aspiration



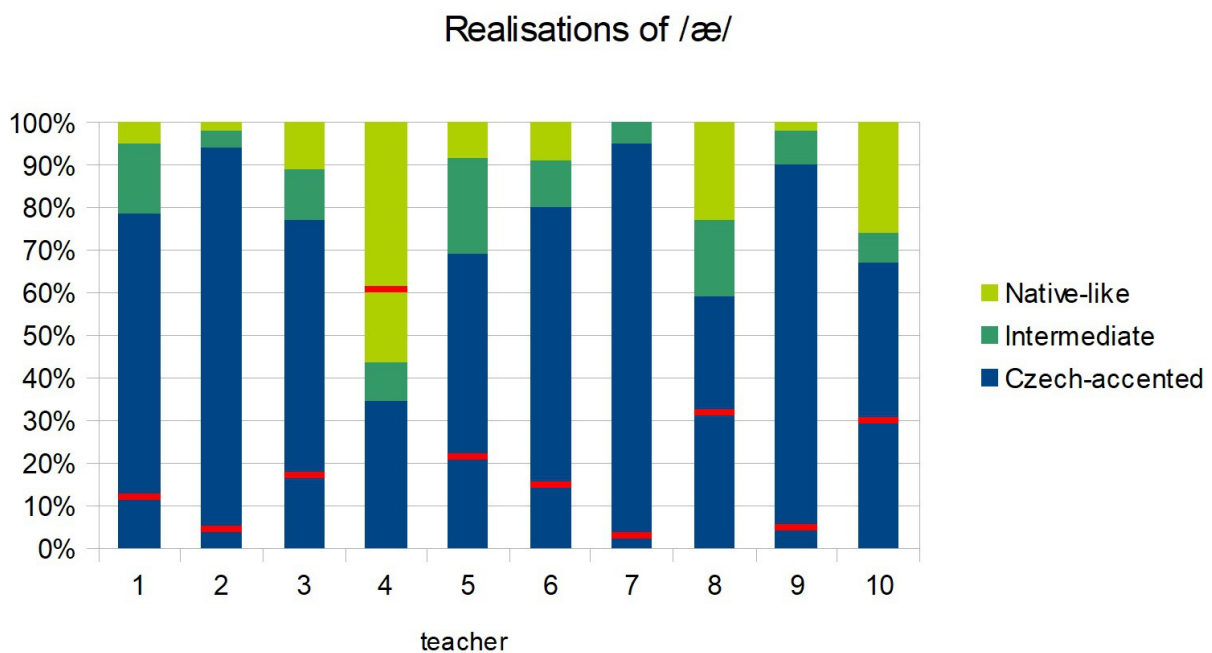
*Figure 5. Percentage of canonical aspiration after /p, t, k/ followed by a vowel in stressed syllables of lexical words, shown for individual speakers.*

### 4.2.5 Vowels /æ/ and /ə/

Based on our results, the vowel /æ/ appears to live up to its reputation as a notoriously problematic sound for Czech speakers of English. We analysed 573 tokens, of which 74 ( $\pm 1.8$ ) % on average were evaluated as Czech-accented, 11 ( $\pm 1.5$ ) % as intermediate, and 14 ( $\pm 3.7$ ) % as native-like realisations. The average score reached by our sample of teachers was 0.2, with 3 teachers in the range of only 0.03-0.05, 4 teachers in the range of 0.1-0.2, 2 teachers having reached 0.22 and 0.32, respectively, and one outstanding individual with a score of 0.61. This most successful teacher was 46 years old, teaching at a grammar school in Prague; she preferred GA both in terms of “pleasantness” and as a model for her own speech, and had stayed in the USA and Ireland for longer periods of time. Curiously enough, she was also born in Pilsen – a Czech city whose accent is well-known for near-front realisations of Czech /a:/. As opposed to this, the 5 least successful teachers in terms of /æ/-realisations (with scores of 0.15 and lower) were all from Opava, which gives rise to a hypothesis (to be tested on a larger and more representative sample of speakers) that this specific vocalic feature of Czech accent in English might be to a certain degree subject to transfer

from the speaker's L1 accent.<sup>3</sup> Individual percentages for different realisations of /æ/ and individual scores are visualised in Figure 6.

Similarly to /ð/, /æ/ was also found and evaluated in more grammatical words (394) than lexical words (197). The average score for grammatical words was 0.18, the average score for lexical words 0.27, while a chi-squared test, using the results of the ternary evaluation, confirms that this difference is not random [  $\chi^2(2, n = 573) = 7.67, p = .02$  ]. Individual scores for the realisations of /æ/ in the two above-mentioned types of context are compared in Figure 7. Notably, 2 teachers reached a higher score in grammatical words than in lexical words.



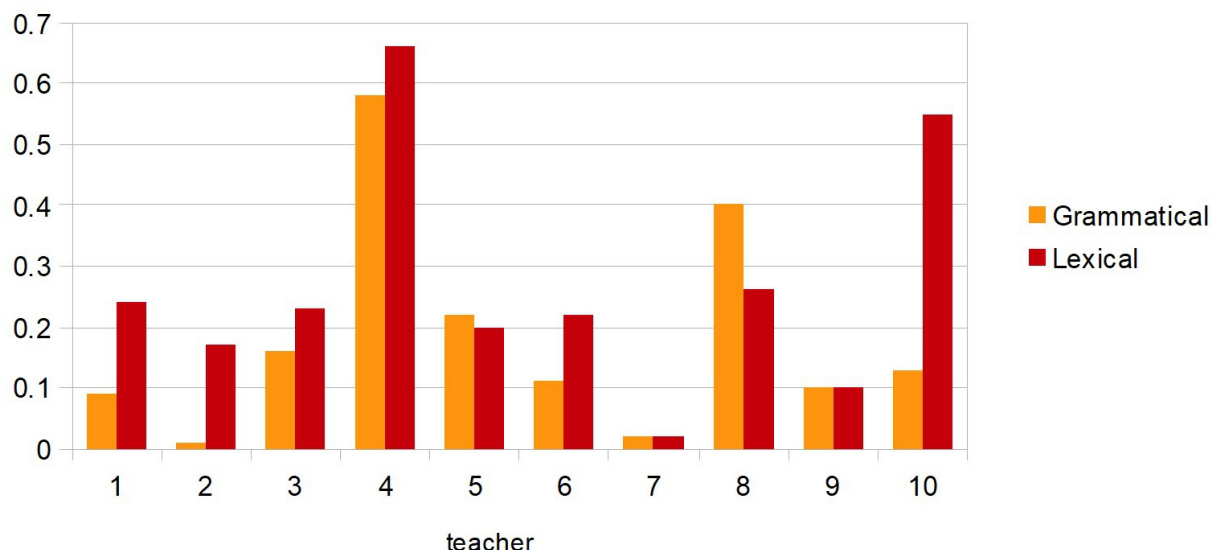
**Figure 6.** Percentages of native-like, intermediate, and Czech-accented realisations of /æ/, shown for individual speakers. Red horizontal lines represent individual scores (scaled to %).

578 tokens of /ə/ were evaluated. The original criterion of evaluating schwa in 10 grammatical words and in 10 unstressed syllables of lexical words (see 3.4) in each of the ca 90-second excerpts of recordings was not consistently applied, given especially that in some of the excerpts it was not possible to find 10 exemplars of the latter category (which, at the same time, would not potentially alternate with /i/). As a result, 319 instances of /ə/ in grammatical words and

<sup>3</sup> A related, although marginal informal observation is that some of the participants born in the Moravian-Silesian region occasionally shortened the long vowel /a:/ in words such as /a:sk/, in a way typical of their L1 accent.

259 instances of /ə/ in unstressed syllables of lexical words were eventually collected and evaluated, which still provides for two reasonably comparable samples.

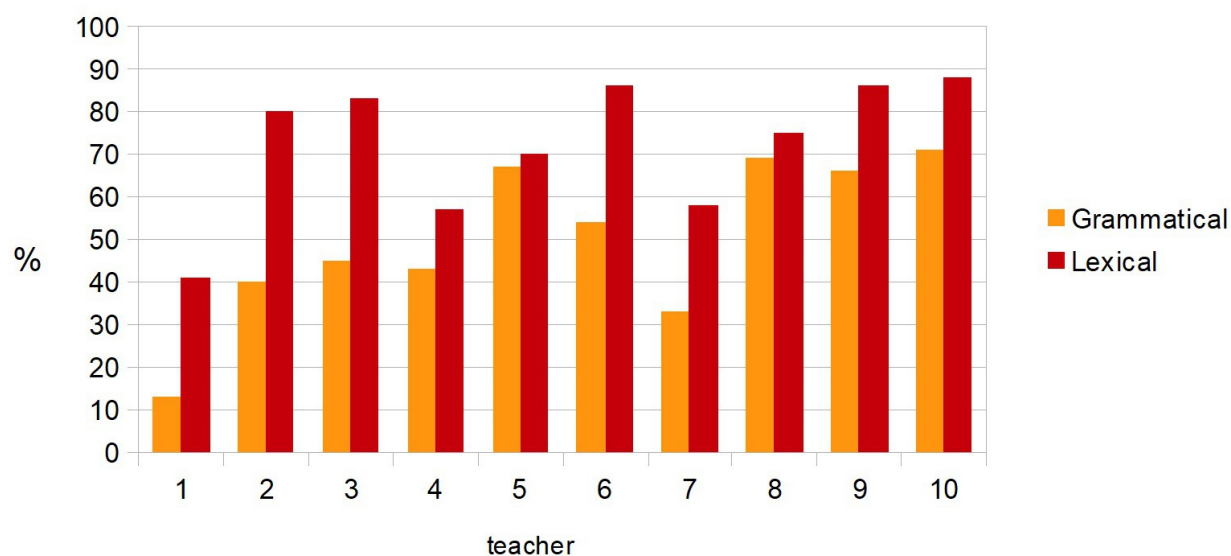
### Scores for realisations of /æ/ in grammatical and lexical words



*Figure 7. Scores for realisations of /æ/ in non-prevocalic and prevocalic contexts, shown for individual speakers.*

On average, /ə/ was successfully pronounced by our participants in 60 ( $\pm 1.3$ ) % of the potential contexts. The oldest teacher (53 years) in our sample pronounced it only in 26% of the possible contexts (i.e. realising the rest as full vowels). On the other hand, 3 other teachers reached average values over 70%, two of whom were also over 50 years of age. Every single one of our participants pronounced /ə/ more often in unstressed syllables of lexical words than in grammatical words (potential weak forms). On average, the percentages of /ə/ for these two types of context were 50% and 72%, respectively. The difference between these two types of schwa (grammatical and lexical) is statistically significant, as was also confirmed by a chi-squared test [ $\chi^2(1, n = 578) = 30, p < .00001$ ]. It therefore appears that the production of weak forms of grammatical words is substantially less common in Czech teachers of English than the production of canonical schwa in lexical words, the latter category being closely related to word stress. Individual percentages for the two types of context are visualised in Figure 8.

## Percentages of schwa realised in grammatical and lexical words



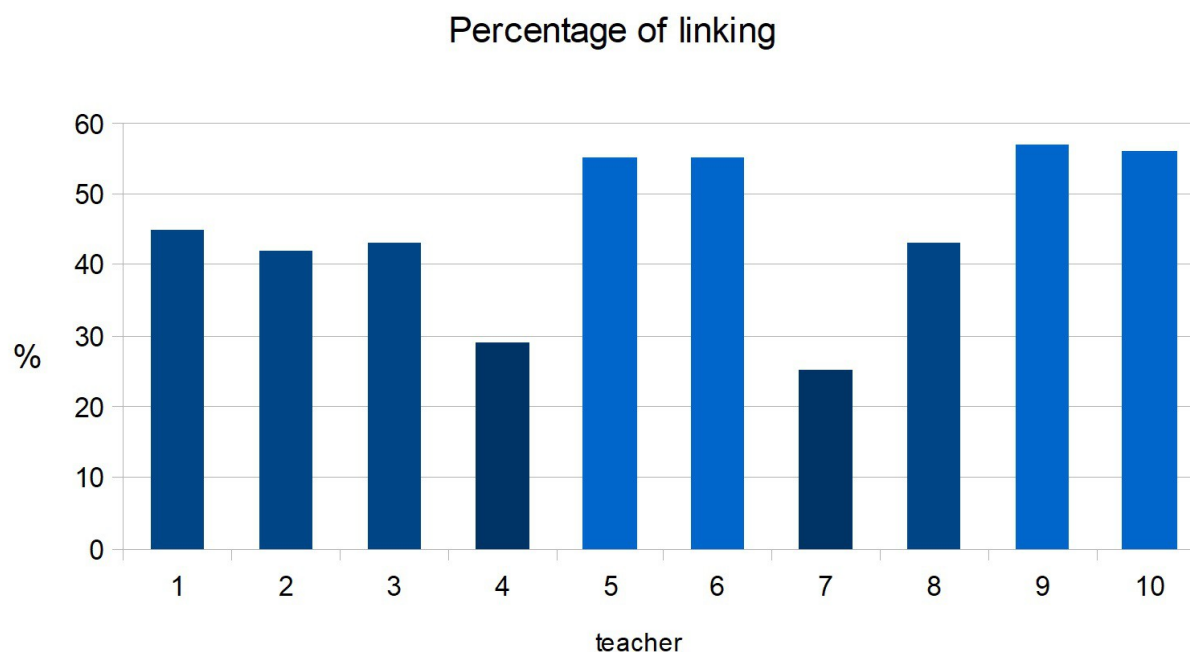
*Figure 8. Percentages of schwa realised in grammatical and in lexical words, shown for individual speakers.*

### 4.2.7 Sandhi phenomena

1218 contexts in which a word beginning with a vowel could be linked to the previous word were analysed. On average, our teachers linked in 45 ( $\pm 0.6$ ) % of these possible contexts, with the 4 most successful teachers in the range of 55-57%, approaching the percentage of linking found in native speakers. 4 teachers were in the range of 42-45%, and the remaining 2 teachers linked only in 25% and 29% of the potential contexts. Individual percentages of linking are shown in Figure 9.

### 4.2.6 Word stress

On average, our participants produced 6.5 errors in word stress (median 6;  $\sigma = 5$ ) during the ca 290 seconds of the recorded material analysed for each of them. This means less than one (0.76) word-stress error per 100 words on average. 4 teachers produced 0-4, the remaining 6 teachers produced 8-14 errors in word stress, while members of these two subgroups had nothing in common in terms of metadata. Some of the words that were mispronounced in terms of word stress by more than one teacher included *beginning*, *correct*, *comment*, *okay*, *pronunciation*, or *vocabulary*, i.e. lexical items used in ELT classrooms with high frequency.



*Figure 9. Percentage of linking, shown for individual speakers.*

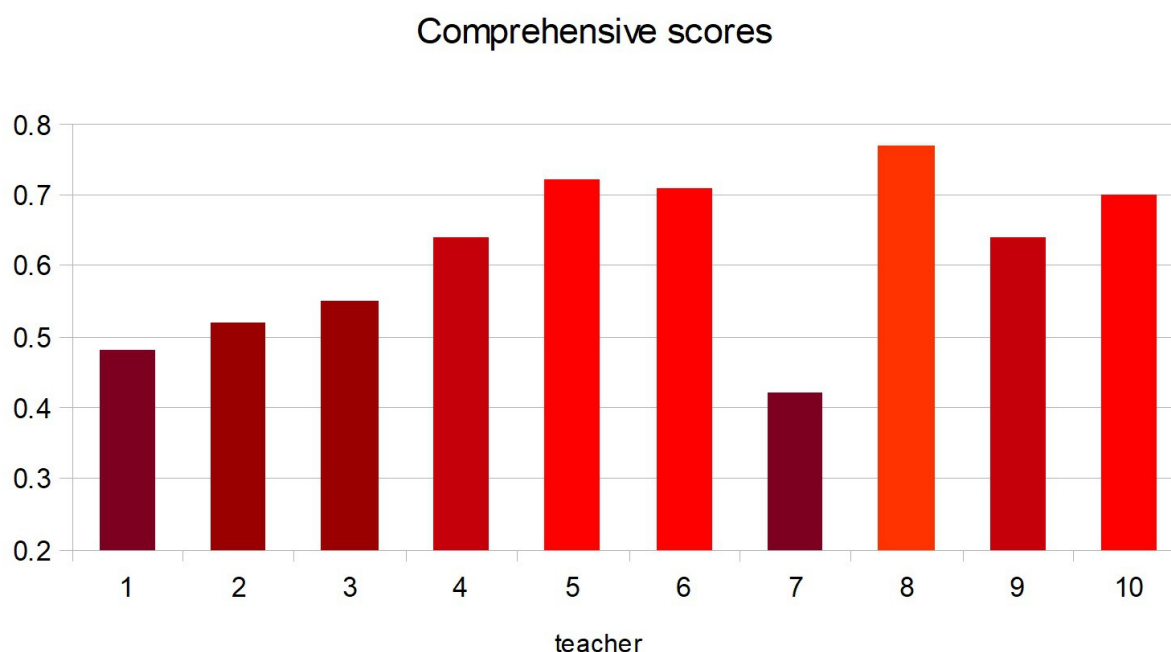
Coalescent assimilation at word-boundaries was scarce, both in terms of the amount of the potential contexts of its occurrence (118 such contexts analysed in the entire corpus) and in terms of its execution by the teachers. 4 teachers did not produce any coalescent assimilation on word-boundaries at all; 4 teachers produced its partial type (see 3.4) alone (at least once), and only 2 teachers produced the fully completed form, too. Both of these two participants were from Opava and emulated RP; notably, one of them produced the fully completed form even more often than the partial form (11 and 3 instances, respectively). On average, some type of coalescent assimilation on word-boundaries (partial or completed) occurred in slightly less than 23% of the 118 contexts analysed.

#### **4.2.8 Variability among teachers**

Canonical aspiration after /p, t, k/ positively correlates with approximantal realisations of /r/ in both non-prevocalic ( $r(8) = .76, p = .01$ ) and prevocalic ( $r(8) = .74, p = .0148$ ) contexts, as well as with canonical approximantal realisations of /w/ ( $r(8) = .7, p = .024$ ). Score of success in native-like realisations of /ð/ positively correlates with the percentage of canonical realisations of /ŋ/ ( $r(8) = .73, p = .0165$ ). No other significant correlations among the separate pronunciation features were discovered, implying that the features' configurations are rather

idiosyncratic. However, we can still observe that individual teachers often excelled (or fell behind) in multiple aspects of pronunciation: for example, the same participant was the least successful one in terms of realisations of /r/, /w/, and /æ/, and also the one with the lowest degrees of aspiration and linking in our sample.

In order to capture the variability within our sample of teachers more illustratively, each participant's comprehensive score (0 – 1) was calculated as the average of the scores obtained for 9 different aspects of pronunciation. This comprehensive score did not include rhoticity (which, in itself, cannot be considered indicative of a foreign or a native accent), coalescent assimilation (mainly because of its rare occurrence in the sample, but also due to its dubious canonicity), and errors in word stress or aspiration. /ð/, /r/, /ŋ/, /æ/, and /ə/ were each treated as a uniform category, regardless of any types of contexts. It must be expressly stated that this score does not (and cannot) by any means represent the speaker's "overall accent", bearing in mind that many aspects of speech constituting an accent (e.g. intonation, fluency...) were not analysed at all, and that the categories given equal weight in the comprehensive score differ in terms of sample sizes and means of evaluation. Comprehensive scores obtained by individual teachers are shown in Figure 10.



*Figure 10. Values of the comprehensive score, shown for individual speakers.*

The values of the comprehensive score ranged between 0.42 and 0.77 (average 0.62, median 0.64;  $\sigma = 0.12$ ), with 2 teachers below 0.5 (both from Opava, aged around 50), 4 teachers above 0.7 (2 from Prague, 2 from Opava, apparently sharing no other relevant metadata), and the remaining 4 teachers between 0.52 and 0.64. The teacher with the very highest comprehensive score (0.77) was 52 years old, teaching at a grammar school in Opava, preferring and emulating RP; she graduated from the Silesian University in Opava, and had no experience with longer stays in foreign countries. Curiously, she was also the one to produce full coalescent assimilation most frequently in our sample. The teachers with the second and third highest comprehensive scores (0.72 and 0.71) were both 37 years old, one teaching at a grammar school in Prague, the other one at a secondary school of civil engineering in Opava. The former favoured Canadian English, had no model accent of her own and had never stayed in a foreign country for a longer time, while the latter emulated RP and had been on a study exchange programme in Belgium. The fourth highest score (0.7), then, was obtained by the youngest teacher in our sample (27 years), emulating GA and teaching at a secondary school of education in Prague; she, too, had studied in a francophone country (France) for some time. From the above-said, it is apparent that our metadata do not show much influence: the comprehensive score did not correlate significantly with either age, length of teaching experience, type of school, region, preferred accent, or anything else.

On the other hand, the comprehensive score did correlate very strongly and positively with canonical aspiration ( $r(8) = .89, p = .000475$ ), less strongly also with canonical realisations of /r/ ( $r(8) = .78, p = .0075$ ), the percentages of schwa ( $r(8) = .73, p = .0155$ ), and canonical realisations of /ŋ/ ( $r(8) = .72, p = .0186$ ). What all these correlates have in common is a high variance of the individual scores.

### **4.3 Cognitions vs. pronunciation**

Unsurprisingly, significant correlations with pronunciation features were found only for those questionnaire items which were at least slightly controversial (i.e. the answers to them showed higher variance), and not for those which were unanimously agreed upon by our participants (see 4.1).

The conviction that the teacher is the most important model of learners' pronunciation showed a moderate negative correlation to the comprehensive score ( $r(8) = -.064, p = .048$ ). The conviction about the importance of pronunciation teaching does not correlate significantly with the comprehensive score, but shows a moderate negative correlation to the comprehensive score's strongest correlate – canonical aspiration ( $r(8) = -.06, p = .04$ ). Aspiration after /p, t, k/ also correlates negatively with the conviction that learners should acquire almost native-like pronunciation ( $r(7) = -.069, p = .04$ ). The opinion that British English is the most suitable model for TEFL strongly and negatively correlates with the score for native-like realisations of /w/ ( $r(8) = -.084, p = .002$ ), more mildly and negatively also with the score for /r/-realisations ( $r(8) = -.067, p = .034$ ).

While aspiration is a strong correlate of the comprehensive score, /r/ and /w/ are correlates of aspiration and generally quite unproblematic features for Czech learners to pronounce canonically, with average scores noticeably skewed towards higher values, and therefore probably rarely produced in a strongly Czech-accented way by advanced speakers. In the light of this, we can tentatively interpret that teachers with a stronger Czech accent possibly tend to uphold the British model and native-like attainment, while they may also – perhaps paradoxically – ascribe high priority to pronunciation teaching and teacher as its predominant exemplar. On the other hand, their more mildly-accented colleagues might not consider pronunciation teaching so crucial and not to value the British standard, native-like attainment, and themselves as models of pronunciation so highly.

To illustrate this point, let us list that the two teachers with comprehensive scores below 0.5 rated the importance of pronunciation teaching, native-like attainment, British English as a model, and teacher a model with average values of 4.5, 4, 4, and 4 (respectively), while the four teachers with comprehensive scores above 0.7 rated the same items with average values of 3.75, 2.5, 2.75 (although two of them emulated RP), and 1.5, respectively. Nevertheless, our observation needs to remain at the level of speculation, considering – as mentioned in 4.2.8 – that the comprehensive score cannot be deemed fully representative of our participants' overall degrees of Czech accent in English.

## 5. Discussion

Concerning segmental features of pronunciation, our research confirms the previous findings of Skarnitzl & Rumlová (2019) that /r/ and /w/ are unproblematic for Czech speakers of English to produce in a native-like manner, while /æ/ and /ð/ seem to be highly problematic even for fairly proficient speakers such as secondary school teachers of English. Bearing in mind that we analysed /ð/ in grammatical words predominantly, our 24% of native-like realisation of /ð/ corresponds to slightly less than 25% of target-like realisations in grammatical words found in strongly accented learners by Skarnitzl & Rumlová (2019, 118). This suggests that non-canonical realisation of /ð/ is a very strong feature of Czech accent in English, considerably resistant to improvement with increasing proficiency. Unfortunately, our material did not allow for a significant comparison of /ð/ in lexical and in grammatical words, wherefore the hypothesis about a higher success rate in lexical words remains statistically unconfirmed.

/æ/ was even more problematic than /ð/, amounting to ca 14% of native-like realisations only, which is a better result than a single target-like realisation found by Skarnitzl & Rumlová (2019) in their strongly accented sample (p. 116); yet, it still makes /æ/ the most problematic sound in our sample, too. This might be interpreted as disquieting even by those who are inclined to radically prioritise intelligibility, considering the important phonological contrast between English /æ/ and /e/ or /ɛ/ (whereas native-like /ð/ is deemed dispensable for intelligibility by Jenkins 2000, 159). On the other hand, we did not investigate whether and how our participants compensated for the functional distinction; furthermore, it has to be noted that a majority of the words analysed here were, of course, not distinguished from other words by means of /æ/ only, wherefore the real impact on intelligibility is probably not very substantial. Our result is also largely based on grammatical words, such as *that*, and the hypothesis that /æ/ would be pronounced more successfully in lexical words than in grammatical words was confirmed at a significance level of  $\alpha = .05$ . Curiously, the distinctly highest score for /æ/ was found in a teacher born in Pilsen, which encourages speculation about the possibility of L1 accent influencing this particular vocalic feature to a certain degree.

As for /ŋ/, it turned out to be less problematic for Czech teachers of English than expected, with the hypothesis about less than 40% of successful realisations on average unconfirmed. However, this sound was characterised by great individual variance of scores, with 4 teachers (around 30%) corresponding roughly to the score of strongly accented speakers (cf. Skarnitzl & Rumlová 2019, 120). No significant difference between *-ing* endings of verbs and other contexts was found. On the other hand, our hypotheses about /r/ and /w/ were mostly confirmed. The results indicate that Czech-accented /r/ may be indeed pronounced prevocally more often than non-prevocally (suggested, but not confirmed with a statistical significance by Fischer, 2019), though this apparently applies only to individuals displaying a generally stronger Czech accent: an experiment using two distinct and sufficiently large groups could resolve this decisively. At the same time, we must still consider rhoticity typical of Czech accent in English: while teachers aiming at GA were indeed more rhotic than teachers with no model accent selected, even teachers aiming at RP were not fully and consistently non-rhotic. One of the teachers emulating RP reached even 95% rhoticity, formally violating our hypothesis about the 40% limit for this subgroup (the reason being that he was relatively strong-accented, and atypical of our sample). Surprisingly, no [w]-realisations of /v/ were found in our sample at all.

Canonical aspiration after fortis plosives /p, t, k/ has proven to be realised in around 50% of the evaluated contexts on average, though we cannot refute our hypothesis about it being less than 50% on average due to the margin of error. However, the degree of canonical aspiration has also proven to be strongly correlated with the comprehensive score, which seems to make it a potential candidate for a quite reliable predictor of accent strength. Over-generalised aspiration after syllable-initial /s/ was indeed detected in our sample, though as rarely as expected.

Our average value for the canonical realisations of schwa was noticeably higher (ca 60%) than the values obtained by both Červinková Poesová & Weingartová (2018, 109) and Skarnitzl & Rumlová (2019, 121) in their intermediate and strongly accented learners, respectively. This suggests a positive influence of our teachers' overall level of proficiency, which was generally probably higher than in

the above-mentioned samples. At a significance level of  $\alpha = .05$ , we have also confirmed that schwa is more frequently realised in unstressed syllables of lexical words than in grammatical words. Nevertheless, even the value obtained for potential weak forms is surprisingly high, suggesting that our sample of teachers tries to maintain certain features of English connected speech in their in-class speech production, even in spite of the communicative need to speak carefully and intelligibly to their learners.

A similar thing applies to linking, slightly exceeding our expectations. Despite the need to speak distinctly in the classroom, our participants realised it in 45% of the possible contexts, surpassing the 38% found in Moravian learners by Šimáčková & Podlipský (2018). Interpreting this, we must bear in mind that not even native speakers naturally link words in 100% of the possible contexts but rather in around 60% of them (Ibid., 168). However, it must be also acknowledged that our overall picture of the teachers' prosody is very incomplete, lacking any information on pausing, intonation, sentence stress, and other important aspects.

As far as we know, word-stress errors occur sporadically in Czech secondary school teachers' speech. Coalescent assimilation, too, was scarcely produced by our participants, with a majority of them producing its partial form at most, a notable exception being the person with the very highest comprehensive score. This may suggest two things: it is either a feature reserved mostly to the "elite" foreign speakers of English, or the teachers avoid it purposefully, not wanting to burden the learners with a feature of connected speech potentially impairing comprehension.

Interpreting our participants' cognitions about pronunciation teaching, we must be aware of the fact that our sample was quite incomparable in size to e.g. Vykouková's (2014) one. Contrasting the answers of her 228 respondents to those of our 10 participants, we can only observe that our sample valued native-like attainment more, and pronunciation teaching as such slightly less than hers; what the samples had in common was a positive attitude towards authentic input. Nevertheless, such comparisons are obviously highly inconclusive.

What we can infer from our own data is that the participants valued the communicative dimensions of pronunciation (intelligibility, comprehensibility,

key features) more than native-like attainment, which was ascribed medium importance. Teacher as a model (not even a native one) was not valued too highly, which might be indicative of Czech teachers low self-confidence in terms of pronunciation teaching; it seems to logically correspond to the lukewarm attitude towards in-class pronunciation instruction and the use of IPA, too. It should be probably added to this that one of the lesson recorded (at a secondary school of civil engineering in Opava) was largely based on pronunciation teaching, and the teacher made use of IPA transcriptions, which the students were actually able to read.

On the other hand, exposure to native English (probably other than the teacher's) was held in high esteem. Our participants also found American English decisively more comprehensible to Czech learners than British English, regardless of their own accent preferences. It appears that among our teachers, British English was not considered as superior to other varieties as we could expect based on previous research findings about L2 speakers' attitudes towards native accents of English. Even though all of our participant reported that they taught the British variety, some of them also expressly noted that it was "because of the textbook". Interestingly, there was a tendency for the participants having reached higher comprehensive score in the pronunciation analysis to express more "relaxed" attitudes towards pronunciation teaching and the teacher and British English as its models.

It is obvious that our sample of Czech secondary school teachers of English was very limited. Given the complicated method of data collection (in-class recording during the ongoing COVID-19 pandemic), it consisted of 10 individuals only. It was not balanced in terms of gender, and included teachers from only two different Czech cities and four different schools, not represented equally. Importantly, it has to be emphasised that we could not, of course, record other teachers than those willing to participate: many of those asked to volunteer in the research eventually refused to take part (for various reasons), even while not knowing yet that it was focused on pronunciation specifically. It is therefore justifiable to guess that the average Czech secondary school teacher of English is probably more strongly accented than our average participant, due to volunteer

bias. Finally, it has to be acknowledged that given the very comprehensive nature of the pronunciation analysis, it was only perceptual, carried out by means of careful listening, wherefore the results are inevitably influenced by human factors to a certain extent.

On the other hand, our study provides another fairly comprehensive insight into the nature of Czech foreign accent of English. It uses the same number of participants as the study published by Skarnitzl & Rumlová (2019), then being “to date the most comprehensive analysis of Czech English pronunciation” to the researchers’ best knowledge (p. 124), but with nearly three times as many items analysed in our work. We employed an uncommon method of data collection, providing at least a partial and fragmentary image of Czech teachers’ of English authentic in-class speech production. Our sample also featured mostly teachers who were “in the middle of their careers”, on average slightly above 40 and neither freshly graduated nor shortly before retirement, which might potentially enhance the representativeness of our findings. It has to be added to this that the available metadata about our teachers (whether it be age, region, length of teaching experience, type of secondary school, or accent preferences) mostly revealed themselves as surprisingly insignificant variables concerning in-class pronunciation: this could either mean that they would manifest their effect only in a much larger sample, or that Czech teachers’ foreign accent in English is highly idiosyncratic and independent on external factors more than could be anticipated.

## 6. Conclusion

In-class pronunciation of Czech secondary school teachers of English has surpassed our expectations concerning especially linking and vowel reduction, features closely related to prosody. From the pedagogical perspective, this is positive news, suggesting that learners are often exposed to aspects of English connected speech only by means of listening to their teachers in class. Meanwhile, many suprasegmental features relevant to an accent were not addressed in our analysis. Most of our participants also did not adopt coalescent assimilation on word boundaries, but learners definitely should be at least perceptually familiar with the phenomenon, given its commonness in contemporary native English. The absence of the feature in teachers' speech can, of course, be compensated for by exposure to authentic native English, which our participants seemed to prefer to teacher as a model of pronunciation anyway.

As regards segmental features, our research has confirmed English /r/, /w/, and apparently also /θ/ to be easy to produce for advanced L1 Czech speakers of English, which can be speculatively attributed to their sufficient articulatory dissimilarity from the consonantal sounds of Czech (see 2.1). These generally unproblematic sounds realised non-canonically therefore seem to be indexical of a particularly strong Czech accent in English, wherefore our data on /r/-realisations suggest that even our small sample of volunteers did include strongly accented teachers. Their proportion in the entire population is, unfortunately, unknown to us. Our results also suggest that aspiration after fortis plosives /p, t, k/ – a significant correlate of approximantal realisations of /r/ and /w/, and of our teachers' comprehensive scores – might potentially find further use in this field of research as a good predictor of accent strength in Czech speakers of English.

/ð/ and /æ/ are apparently highly problematic even for advanced speakers such as teachers of English. If a teacher decides that these particular sounds should be successfully acquired by their learners, it is probably necessary to pay special attention to them, and to deal with them by means of explicit instruction. Otherwise, Czech-accented realisations are likely to be perpetuated, given that teachers' spontaneous in-class speech, full of grammatical words, in which the sounds seem to be typically pronounced as [d] and [ɛ] (respectively), apparently

cannot serve as a sufficient exemplar in most cases, not to mention the effect of equivalence classification in learners' perception.

Proponents of ELF and related approaches may find it soothing that our participants considered intelligibility and comprehensibility to be very important goals of pronunciation teaching, and highly valued successful communication with both native and non-native speakers, too. The position that not all features of pronunciation are equally important in communication was also largely accepted. Finally, it is worth mentioning that our participants did not manifest any strong preference for British English as a model variety, while they were at the same time strongly convinced about American English being more comprehensible to the learners. Although all of our participants admitted to teaching the British variety, North American accents seemed to prevail in terms of their aesthetic preferences. Even though this observation is based on a very small sample, it may suggest that British English has been increasingly losing its prestigious status at Czech schools since the time the last studies into this subject matter were carried out.

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## Résumé

Tato práce se zabývá autentickou výslovností českých středoškolských učitelů angličtiny v hodinách anglického jazyka. Výslovnost vybraných výslovnostních jevů, charakteristických pro český přízvuk v angličtině, byla poslechově analyzována na základě úseků nahrávek řeči deseti učitelů, pořízených s použitím klopového mikrofону během vyučování na čtyřech různých středních školách ve dvou městech. Výsledky této analýzy byly porovnány s názory a přesvědčeními účastníků výzkumu, získanými prostřednictvím dotazníků, které se týkaly výuky výslovnosti angličtiny, jejích cílů a vzorů.

V úvodní části práce (1) jsou téma a jeho význam představeny na pozadí celosvětově probíhající debaty o cílech a vzorech výuky výslovnosti angličtiny jako cizího jazyka, jakož i v souvislosti s postupujícím výzkumem českého cizineckého přízvuku v angličtině. Teoretická část práce (2) předkládá nejprve základní poznatky o fenoménu cizineckého přízvuku, přičemž jsou stručně vyjmenovány příčiny jeho vzniku a faktory ovlivňující jeho míru, k nimž patří zejména transfer z mateřského jazyka, věk, ve kterém se žák začne cizímu jazyku učit, a také míra žákovy zkušenosti s příslušným osvojovaným cizím jazykem (2.1). Následně je rozebírán sociolingvistický význam cizineckého přízvuku a jeho možné komunikační konsekvence, k nimž podle výzkumů patří například předsudky týkající se všeobecné jazykové kompetence mluvčího hovořícího s cizineckým přízvukem, omezená zaměstnatelnost takovýchto mluvčích v komunitách sestávajících převážně z rodilých mluvčích, ale i vnímání takovýchto mluvčích jako méně důvěryhodných, což bylo zaznamenáno ze strany rodilých mluvčích (včetně dětí) i ze strany jiných nerodilých mluvčích (2.1.1).

Teoretická část práce dále pokračuje výčtem aspektů výslovnosti angličtiny relevantních pro český cizinecký přízvuk v tomto jazyce (2.1.2). V segmentální rovině se jedná o realizaci fonémů /ð/, /θ/, /r/, /w/, /ŋ/, /æ/, /ə/, aspiraci po neznělých explozivách /p, t, k/ v přízvukných slabikách a o fonologickou roticitu. V suprasegmentální rovině se pak jedná o slovní přízvuk, vázání slova začínajícího vokálem ke slovu předešlému a o splývavou hláskovou podobu na hranicích slov. Tyto výslovnostní jevy a jejich problematičnost pro české mluvčí angličtiny jsou diskutovány z komparativního hlediska, tj. s přihlédnutím

k fonologickým rozdílům mezi češtinou a angličtinou, a také v souvislosti s poznatky některých nedávných studií týkajících se českého přízvuku v angličtině, například Skarnitzla & Rumlové (2019). Na těchto poznatcích jsou pak založeny také naše hypotézy (3.5) a metodologie poslechové analýzy výslovnosti českých středoškolských učitelů angličtiny (3.4).

Dále teoretická část práce zkoumá některé vybrané akcenty angličtiny z hlediska jejich vhodnosti coby potenciálních vzorů pro výukové účely, s přihlédnutím k výzkumům týkajícím se postojů žáků a učitelů angličtiny k těmto akcentům, jež byly provedeny jak v zahraničí, tak v České republice (2.2). Nejprve je tímto způsobem pojednáváno o výslovnosti standardní britské angličtiny (2.2.1), nejběžnějšího vzoru používaného ve výukových materiálech v Evropě, následně pak o výslovnosti standardní americké angličtiny (2.2.2) jakožto o akcentu globálně dominujícímu v oblasti kulturního vlivu. Zhodnoceny jsou z tohoto pohledu i další, menšinové akcenty rodilých mluvčích angličtiny (2.2.3), s nimiž běžný žák střední školy přijde zřídka do kontaktu a které se ve výuce angličtiny jako cizího jazyka objevují vzácně, tím méně pak jako vzor výslovnosti. V neposlední řadě je také diskutována problematika takzvaných mezinárodních akcentů angličtiny se zvláštním zaměřením na koncepci výuky angličtiny jako mezinárodního jazyka (2.2.4), která upřednostňuje komunikativní význam výslovnosti a snaží se identifikovat aspekty výslovnosti, jež jsou pro úspěšnou komunikaci v mezinárodním kontextu klíčové.

Jelikož náš výzkum využívá také dotazníků zaměřených na názory, postoje a přesvědčení učitelů týkající se výuky výslovnosti angličtiny, závěrečný oddíl teoretické části této práce (2.3) se stručně věnuje výzkumné oblasti, jež se zabývá tím, kterak učitelé o výuce výslovnosti uvažují. Z některých zahraničních studií vyplývá, že pro ty učitele angličtiny, kteří nejsou sami rodilými mluvčími, může být výuka výslovnosti tohoto jazyka stresující nebo si s ní nevědí rady: výslovnosti se tudíž v hodinách nemusí dostávat dostatečného prostoru. Pokud jde o české učitele angličtiny, významná je v tomto ohledu studie Vykoukové (2014), zahrnující velké množství respondentů: k jejím poznatkům mimo jiné patří, že čeští učitelé jsou převážně přesvědčeni o významu výuky výslovnosti, zároveň

k ní však často přistupují nesystematicky a věnují se jí především prostřednictvím cvičení v učebnicích nebo prostřednictvím korekce žákovských chyb.

V metodologické části této práce (3) je nejprve popsán způsob sběru dat (3.1), nahrání řeči deseti dobrovolníků, středoškolských učitelů angličtiny, přímo ve vyučovacích hodinách na čtyřech českých středních školách ve dvou městech: na gymnáziu a na střední pedagogické škole v Praze a na gymnáziu a střední škole stavební v Opavě. K nahrávání byl použit klopový mikrofon a nahrávky použité při analýzách obsahovaly pouze řeč učitelů. Pro účely analýzy byly z nahrávky každého účastníka vybrány tři zhruba devadesátisekundové úseky: ze začátku, středu a závěru vyučovací hodiny. V části 3.2 jsou uvedeny údaje o našich účastnících týkající se jejich věku, pohlaví, vzdělání, rodiště, působiště, délky praxe, zkušeností s pobytem v zahraničí, preferovaných akcentů angličtiny a dalších proměnných.

Část 3.3. představuje otázky týkající se výuky výslovnosti angličtiny, na něž účastníci odpovídali v dotaznících, resp. položky, jejichž důležitost hodnotili na pětibodové škále, a tvrzení, s nimiž na pětibodové škále vyjadřovali míru souhlasu. Část 3.4 pak popisuje metodu hodnocení použitou v poslechové analýze výslovnosti, zejména které aspekty výslovnosti byly hodnoceny binárně, které tříbodově a které kontexty výskytu příslušných výslovnostních jevů byly z analýzy vyřazeny. V části 3.5 je formulováno šest hypotéz týkajících se očekávaných výsledků analýzy výslovnosti, jež se zakládají na dosavadních poznatcích o českém přízvuku v angličtině. Předpokládá se například nízký podíl kanonických realizací fonémů /ð/, /æ/ a /ŋ/ a závislost úspěšnosti realizace těchto zvuků na kontextu, v němž se vyskytují. Dále se předpokládá vysoký podíl kanonických realizací aproximant /r/ a /w/, méně než 40% vázání v možných kontextech, méně než 50% kanonické aspirace po neznělých explozívách následovaných vokálem v přízvučných slabikách plnovýznamných slov, méně než 50% přítomnosti /ə/ v příslušných kontextech, nebo závislost míry fonologické roticity na akcentu napodobovaném příslušným učitelem.

Ve výsledkové části práce (4) jsou nejprve prezentovány výsledky získané pomocí dotazníků (4.1), z nichž vyplývá, že učitelé v našem vzorku vysoce hodnotí komunikační význam výslovnosti angličtiny, a to jak v kontaktu s rodilými

mluvčími, tak i v kontaktu s jinými nerodilými mluvčími. Převážně také vyjadřují přesvědčení, že americká angličtina je žákům srozumitelnější než britská a že kontakt s autentickou výslovností rodilých mluvčích je lepším prostředkem osvojení výslovnosti než instrukce ve vyučovacích hodinách. Menší důležitost přiřkládají například používání symbolů Mezinárodní fonetické abecedy ve výuce nebo vědomostem žáků o rozdílech mezi jednotlivými akcenty angličtiny. Nejnižší míru souhlasu pak vyvolala tvrzení, že britská angličtina je nejlepším vzorem pro výuku angličtiny jako cizího jazyka a že nejdůležitějším vzorem výslovnosti žáka je učitel.

V části 4.2 jsou prezentovány výsledky poslechové analýzy výslovnosti, z nichž vyplývá, že nejproblematictější je pro české středoškolské učitele angličtiny kanonická realizace /ð/ a /æ/. Fonémy /r/, /w/ a /θ/ byly naopak převážně realizovány standardně, zatímco /ŋ/ a aspirace po /p, t, k/ vykazovaly výrazný rozptyl individuálních výsledků. Potvrdilo se také, že vokály /æ/ a /ə/ jsou českými mluvčími angličtiny častěji realizovány standardně v plnovýznamových než v gramatických slovech. Splývavá asimilace na hranicích slov se ukázala jako jev velmi vzácně se vyskytující v řeči českých středoškolských učitelů angličtiny, zatímco míra vázání předčila očekávání. Jako vzácně se vyskytující se rovněž projeví chyby v umístění slovního přízvuku a přehnané zobecnění aspirace na kontexty, v nichž neznělé explozivě předchází sykavka /s/. Záměna kanonického /v/ za /w/ se dokonce nenašla v našem vzorku vůbec. Krom obecných tendencí jsou v části 4.2 znázorněny také individuální výsledky.

Část 4.3 zkoumá vztahy mezi výsledky analýzy výslovnosti a výsledky dotazníků. Na základě několika zjištěných negativních korelací vyjadřuje domněnku, že učitelé a britské angličtině jakožto vzorům výslovnosti, osvojení přízvuku téměř na úrovni rodilého mluvčího a výuce výslovnosti jako takové je paradoxně přiřkládán větší význam těmi učitelé, kteří patrně sami mají v angličtině sklon k relativně silnějšímu cizineckému přízvuku.

Část 5 srovnává tyto výsledky s předchozími výzkumy souvisejícími s daným tématem, vyznačuje nejzajímavější tendence a spekuluje o možných příčinách zjištěných výsledků. Jsou zde přiznána omezení našeho výzkumu, spočívající zejména v malém a nepříliš reprezentativním vzorku učitelů a v diskutabilní

spolehlivosti výsledků poslechové analýzy prováděné jediným hodnotitelem. Zároveň jsou vyzdviženy i přednosti našeho výzkumu, k nimž patří neobvyklá metoda sběru dat, poskytující vzácný vhled do autentické výslovnosti českých středoškolských učitelů angličtiny ve vyučovacích hodinách, jakož i rozsáhlost a mnohostrannost provedené analýzy.

Část 6 se nad výsledky zamýšlí převážně z hlediska jejich pedagogických implikací. Pozitivně je hodnocen význam zjištění o vyšší než očekávané míře vázaní a /ə/ v řeči českých středoškolských učitelů angličtiny, což indikuje, že žáci jsou pravidelně vystaveni některým prvkům anglické spojitě řeči i skrze mluvu svých učitelů, ačkoli náš celkový obraz o učitelské prozodii je stále značně nekompletní. Fonémům /æ/ a /ð/ by měla být věnována ve vyučovacích hodinách zvláštní pozornost a instruktáž, neboť jejich správné osvojení žáky pouze z řečového projevu učitelů je nepravděpodobné. Zastánci výuky angličtiny jako mezinárodního jazyka mohou považovat za pozitivní zprávu, že čeští učitelé vysoce hodnotí komunikační význam výslovnosti. Zároveň výsledky naznačují, že britská angličtina v českém školském prostředí možná začíná postupně ztrácet své dominantní postavení, alespoň ve vnímání středoškolských učitelů.

# Appendices

## Appendix I: The questionnaire

Pohlaví:            Věk:            Titul(y):            Rodný kraj:            Město působení:

Typ školy: \_\_\_\_\_ Jak dlouho učíte? \_\_\_\_\_

1) Kde jste studoval/a anglický jazyk? (možno více)

Pedagogická fakulta    Filozofická fakulta    Jiné: \_\_\_\_\_

2) Pobýval/a, studoval/a či pracoval/a jste delší dobu v cizích zemích (anglickojazyčných i jiných)?  
Kde, jak dlouho?

\_\_\_\_\_

3) Který z těchto akcentů angličtiny je Vám osobně nejpříjemnější?

Received pronunciation    General American    Australský    Kanadský    Skotský    Irský

Jiný: \_\_\_\_\_            Nevím.

4) Snažíte se ve svém vlastním řečovém projevu napodobovat některý z těchto akcentů? Který?

\_\_\_\_\_

5) Jakou varietu angličtiny vyučujete (Br., Am., jiná...)? \_\_\_\_\_

6) Na jaké varietě angličtiny jsou založeny učební materiály, které používáte? (možno více)

Učebnice (popř. název): \_\_\_\_\_

Další materiály (knihy, časopisy, filmy, písňe...): \_\_\_\_\_

7) Jaký význam přikládáte výuce výslovnosti angličtiny? (1 – nepodstatná, 5 – zásadní)

1                            2                            3                            4                            5

8) Ohodnoťte prosím důležitost těchto cílů výuky výslovnosti AJ: (1 – nepodstatný, 5 – zásadní)

a) Žák si osvojí akcent téměř na úrovni rodilého mluvčího

1                            2                            3                            4                            5

b) Žák bude bez problémů rozumět řeči rodilého mluvčího

1                            2                            3                            4                            5

- c) Rodilý mluvčí bude žákovi bez problémů rozumět
- |   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
- d) Žák se bez potíží domluví s jinými nerodilými mluvčími
- |   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
- e) Žák si je vědom rozdílů mezi jednotlivými akcenty angličtiny
- |   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|

**9) Do jaké míry souhlasíte s následujícími výroky?**

- a) Rodilý mluvčí naučí žáka výslovnosti lépe než nerodilý mluvčí.
- |             |   |          |   |       |   |           |   |              |
|-------------|---|----------|---|-------|---|-----------|---|--------------|
| rozhodně ne | – | spíše ne | – | nevím | – | spíše ano | – | rozhodně ano |
|-------------|---|----------|---|-------|---|-----------|---|--------------|
- b) Pobyt v cizích zemích, kontakt s rodilými mluvčími nebo poslech autentických materiálů jsou efektivnější prostředky osvojení výslovnosti AJ než instrukce ve vyučovacích hodinách.
- |             |   |          |   |       |   |           |   |              |
|-------------|---|----------|---|-------|---|-----------|---|--------------|
| rozhodně ne | – | spíše ne | – | nevím | – | spíše ano | – | rozhodně ano |
|-------------|---|----------|---|-------|---|-----------|---|--------------|
- c) Žák by měl znát symboly mezinárodní fonetické abecedy IPA relevantní pro angličtinu a umět si je spojit se zvuky, které reprezentují.
- |             |   |          |   |       |   |           |   |              |
|-------------|---|----------|---|-------|---|-----------|---|--------------|
| rozhodně ne | – | spíše ne | – | nevím | – | spíše ano | – | rozhodně ano |
|-------------|---|----------|---|-------|---|-----------|---|--------------|
- d) Některé aspekty výslovnosti jsou pro úspěšnou komunikaci podstatnější než jiné.
- |             |   |          |   |       |   |           |   |              |
|-------------|---|----------|---|-------|---|-----------|---|--------------|
| rozhodně ne | – | spíše ne | – | nevím | – | spíše ano | – | rozhodně ano |
|-------------|---|----------|---|-------|---|-----------|---|--------------|
- e) Britská angličtina je nejvhodnějším modelem pro výuku angličtiny jako cizího jazyka.
- |             |   |          |   |       |   |           |   |              |
|-------------|---|----------|---|-------|---|-----------|---|--------------|
| rozhodně ne | – | spíše ne | – | nevím | – | spíše ano | – | rozhodně ano |
|-------------|---|----------|---|-------|---|-----------|---|--------------|
- f) Akcent na úrovni rodilého mluvčího je možné si osvojit v jakémkoli věku.
- |             |   |          |   |       |   |           |   |              |
|-------------|---|----------|---|-------|---|-----------|---|--------------|
| rozhodně ne | – | spíše ne | – | nevím | – | spíše ano | – | rozhodně ano |
|-------------|---|----------|---|-------|---|-----------|---|--------------|
- g) Učitel je nejdůležitějším vzorem výslovnosti žáka.
- |             |   |          |   |       |   |           |   |              |
|-------------|---|----------|---|-------|---|-----------|---|--------------|
| rozhodně ne | – | spíše ne | – | nevím | – | spíše ano | – | rozhodně ano |
|-------------|---|----------|---|-------|---|-----------|---|--------------|
- h) Americká angličtina je žákům srozumitelnější než britská.
- |             |   |          |   |       |   |           |   |              |
|-------------|---|----------|---|-------|---|-----------|---|--------------|
| rozhodně ne | – | spíše ne | – | nevím | – | spíše ano | – | rozhodně ano |
|-------------|---|----------|---|-------|---|-----------|---|--------------|

## Appendix II: Transcripts of the excerpts of the recordings used in the pronunciation analysis

### Teacher 1

01

So I – I think we can start, yeah. Well, as you can see, we have a guest today and eh it's necessary to say that this lesson is going to be recorded. So eh you might have noticed that I'm wearing an microphone, but only my voice, okay? And eh today we are all together and we are going to work together, hopefully. Ah I know that there is her group and eh my plan is to speak English because usually with my group I speak English. So far so good? Do you understand what I'm saying? Good. Perfect. As the warm up today, I want you to work in pairs and I'm going to give you the handouts and your task is, as you can see, two pictures and – you are welcome, you are welcome – yes but eh we are not going to speak about it today, okay? Kubo, you can do it on your own? You're welcome. And your task is to find out eight differences. And when you find eight differences, raise your hand, let me know, and then we'll discuss it. In English, obviously. Okay? In picture A, picture B. Right? Yes, Marku? Sure, sure, you can write there, it's up to you. Okay? And if you discuss it, I prefer English, not Czech. Both the groups. Yes? When you have eight of them, raise your hand please. Kubo, can you see? Could be more light.

02

And last one, the number was? Kristi? This one, last one, on the right side. Eh but number, number. When he was talking about them. Number eight. And what can you say about the cat? Ahm, ahm. Similar to number one. And what is the cat doing? It is sleeping, yes, and probably dreaming about something. Okay, fine. Hopefully there was no problem with that, everything correct. Okay. Now, let's talk about the seasons. Ah. Who? Um, Eliško, what are the seasons? Yeah, eh but all of them. Autumn and winter. And now it is autumn. But in American English, they don't say autumn. Fall, exactly. Ahm. Okay, so now it's eh fall or autumn. When does the – the autumn start? According to the calendar. On the – on the twenty first of June? Autumn? Patriku, autumn! You don't know. Oh gosh. Aha. But we cannot say on the twenty three. On the twenty third of September, exactly. That's autumn. Ahm, okay. And what about, Niki, Australia, New Zealand? So d – do they have four seasons there? They do. But yes, in opposite, exactly. So when we have autumn, they have opposite. So spring, exactly. And why, why is that, Aničko? Why in the Southern Hemisphere? As I said, it's the Southern Hemisphere, yes, exactly.

03

It's not difficult. Just read it and I think quite easy. We've been speaking about it, should be a piece of cake for you. And uh who – by the way – who is absent? Is anyone absent? And my group, all of you? Yes, all of you? Eli? Yeah, I guess so. Ahm. Ah, Michal is not here. Okay. Well. The first line, let's do it. Kristi, can you read the sentence? That's it, aha. After summer and before winter. That's it, fine. Eh. Puw, puw, puw. Who, who, who. Denisi, go on please. Before winter, go on, go on. Fall, go on. Finishes. Autumn finishes near the end of – and you may choose. December, exactly, because on the twenty first of December, that's the beginning of winter. Right, ahm. Ah, eh next to Roman there is a Tobiáš, ahm. Go on, Tobiáši. Exactly. Ahm, okay. Eh Patrik next to Tom. Windy, ahm. Okay, fine. Eh Ondro. Yes, exactly. Animous – an – animals look for food for the winter. And well I think we have one minute to go but eh if you quickly scan the sentences and the countries. Well, the first one, I think, you might guesses – eh, guess it. Eh. Read the first one. Ahm. Where? Where do you think it is? What do you think? Someone? Mexico. Okay. Guys, that's it for today, we – I might see you on Friday, I'm not sure. That's it. Okay. You can have the break.

## Teacher 2

01

Okay, hopefully it's on. So I want you to eh pay attention to me. Ah, we should start the second part of the lesson. And the second part of the lesson ah is going to be about one of those maturita topics that we study from time to time. This one about one person who you definitely know. Eh he was English, he already died some centuries ago. So think. Yes. Okay. Well done, Vendy. Ah, can you please give me eh the spelling? Can you spell the name for me? S C? Is it S C? Definitely not. Okay, so it is S, H, yes. A. Eh, A? A or E? It is A, okay. Looks better. So S, H, A, K, yes, yes. E? E, R, and the last one E again. Yeah, there is one more letter. Shakespeare, mister Shakespeare. Ah you have already heard the name and you may have already heard something about him. And that's exactly what I want you to do right now. I want you to think about as many things as you can that you have already heard about William Shakespeare. Okay? So put your heads together for a few minutes, ah like two or three minutes. Share your infor – share – share your knowledge about William Shakespeare and then I will ask you and you will share with me, okay? The information or the knowledge that you already – that you already have. Ah, it's too cold in here? So you probably know something about eh – what he – eh what he – what he did, what he produced.

02

And because the video is quite long, I will play it only twa – only once, okay? Not twice as usual, only once. And once again, watch it and ehm – try to m – try to m – match the numbers with some pieces of information from the video. Give me a second. It is this one. I hope that you will like it. Well, that's it. Did you manage to catch ah the numbers in the video, did you manage to ah match them with the pieces of information that I ah now would like to hear from you? Yes, yes, or so-so? Yes, okay, good. So let's start with the first one which eh is four hundred. So what does it refer to? Eh y – yes, okay. So this is something we didn't mention at the beginning of the lesson. When did he live? At least the century. Four hundred years ago. Seventeenth century, yes. He was born in the sixteenth century and he died in the seventeenth century. Okay? So, of. He - he lived from fifteen sixty four to sixteen sixteen. Easy to remember, ah especially this one, okay? Sixteen sixteen. That's eh the year in which he died. Okay, so he lived four hundred years ago, okay? Ah, Viktor, what about this number one, what does it refer to? Yes, okay, he was the – we – we cannot say the first child, because the – that's what he wasn't, but he definitely was the first son. Anything else about that? What am I saying? I – I'm saying that he was not the first child, he was the first son, but in a way he was the first child.

03

Based on the information that we have somehow discussed or mentioned. Is it understandable what to do? So let's pretend that you are, I don't know, kind of journalists maybe and you can speak to William Shakespeare ah and – and ask him some questions. Ah and they – he should provide you with these ah – answers. Okay, so – yes, yes, yes, a written one. Okay? A written one. Eh well, Pavel, you can work on your own or you can join some one. It's up to you. Will you be able to do that in those two minutes, what do you think? Is it possible? Yes, it is, Adam, well done. Sounds good. Eh, in a written form. Make nice, beautiful, past simple questions, okay? Grammatically correct sentences. Full sentences, please. And let's say that you are interviewing him one day before his fifty second birthday, okay? So at the end of his life. Well, eh – eh you are there right now but you are discussing something that has already happened. He is fifty t – he is fifty one and he is going to die tomorrow, haha. But I need the – I need the – you know, well. So please do not ask him questions like eh what have you eaten today. Do not waste his time. He is going to die tomorrow. How many questions did I ask you to make? So ten of them, okay, is the minimum. In one sentence. Be careful with the – with the grammar. By the way, do you know the answer? You know one of them. Adam, is Viktor help – helping you? It is right, really? This is right, really? This is O. No, no no. This is O. Okay, so eh it means that eh – that eh you should finish it at home, okay?

### Teacher 3

01

Eh hello everyone, thank you, sit down. So eh today I would like to start eh with the eh another grammar part that we touched in this unit, it's gonna be eh impersonal reported structures. We eh have so far spoken a lot about reported speech so eh today we are going to speak about the impersonal reporting structures, okay? So I would like you now to take your books if possible and open them at page seventy six I think it is. Yes. So at page seventy six you see fix – exercises five A, B and C. I would like you to work in pairs if possible, so Honza, you may join Tadeáš today, if you don't mind. And eh I would like you first to look at the sentences in exercise five A, em especially to eh the parts that are highlighted in blue. Eh those are called impersonal reporting structures and your first task is to think of why. Why they – they are used in the sentences. Eh what is the reason why eh English imply such grammar features. Impersonal reporting structures. So you first just go through the sentences and try to think of what is the reason we use the impersonal in English. What are you counting? Okay, yeah. They are not the most modern the books. Do you need any help? No. That is the passive voice and impersonal reporting structures and ehm it's just a – an – a question to think about, why, why is English using it, for what reasons, ew w – why is it different from eh the active eh reported speech, eh the personal one, like why is eh it is said to be famous different than John said.

02

Eh the house is believed to have been updated anebo the house is believed that it has been updated. Ahm. Any questions concerning this exercise? No. If there are no questions, you can eh try one more exercise eh to eh rewrite the sentences. Now you have some words eh given on the – on the right, those are have be it to and be eh – and be. And you have the sentences and you try to rewrite them using the w – the – the words given, right? So they say that the house has a lot of eh space eh try to eh imply have there and eh that's it. That's it. You don't need to make the sentences impersonal, you eh can if you want eh, you can leave passive where it is and eh just try to put eh the given wor – words in the system of the sentences and rewrite them. Do you know how to – how to take it, how to work on it? Okay, I see that you have some troubles with that exercise. Maybe we can eh try the first sentence as an example one, so that eh you eh feel more safe eh in that area. So eh, they say that the house has a lot of space. Eh we need to put it into the passive, how? Jo, it is said or the house is said. What about the have that we have too? To have a lot of space, exactly, yes. The house is said to have a lot of space. Will you please be as kind, Filip, as to come to the board and put the sentence there, eh so that everybody sees the correct example? Yes, exactly.

03

So if you have finish, you can choose another picture. Can you please switch the eh sounds off? Did you switch the roles? You have finished, okay, perfect. Fine. Most of you have finished, I suppose. Have you switch the roles as well? Yes? Have you switch the roles? Y – you have finished? Okay. Now, if I can get your attention please, eh – was it easy to you – eh was it easy to you eh to describe such a picture that you have never seen before? For eh – and to talk about it for one minute? It's good for you because not all the students are that spontaneous, so eh I can – I can – I can see it often at the examinations, as they – as they are nervous, they don't know where to start or how to start. So in case it happens to you, I suggest maybe you can start by locating, you know, the locating expressions like eh in the background, in the foreground, in the left up corner, right down corner and so eh you can first locate and eh w – when your brain feels that you have spoken enough, it eh starts getting more ideas. Eh your task when you are describing picture is not only to describe, but you can also eh speak about the things that eh – that comes – that come to your mind when eh you see the picture. So it may evoke some strange feelings in you when you see somebody probably writing a homework, so eh – you may eh – you may eh co – cover your attitude toward eh – towards homework eh as well, Martin, that would be a task for you especially. So we are going to continue tomorrow I think it is. Yes, tomorrow we are going to hear one student sitting at this concrete examination, and we are going to do the listening that works with this picture. Thank you very much for today, see you tomorrow. Phew.

#### Teacher 4

01

No, it's just me, I have the microphone in here, so. And it's anonymous. My name shouldn't be anywhere – I shouldn't be on the news with my name and my photograph, so it's only audio. So today, I would like to start with your reports on the survey. So ah Danča, you ready? Okay. So come over here. Are you going to – are you going to use ah the internet? No. You have your own. Well someone has to be first. And please pay attention, do not disturb, and. Okay. Perfect, okay, Danča. Well done. Ah it was almost perfect. Ah maybe you have noticed some ah pronunciation mistakes. Majority and in comparison. These were the pronunciation mistakes. Then ah there were many grammar mistakes, but we are not doing this because of grammar, so ah I'm just saying. Ah and you use the target language perfectly, that those were good questions and you ah prepared the graphs also perfectly. So well done, thank you, Danča. Lucka. Are you going to use? Okay, well. Ah is there anyone who is not going to use the computer? Okay, so Kačka you can go ah in the meantime. Okay, Kačka, hold on because I need to take notes. I don't know why the Teams are not here. Office, I need log in. Okay, almost there. Okay, you can s – I'm – I'm paying attention now, you can start, yes. Perfect. Okay, Kačka, that was excellent. I appreciate your use of the target language, that was perfect. Now I want everybody to say slowly in comparison. Yes, that was the only pronunciation hiccup.

02

Okay, I'm not gon – I – I don't – I don't even want to know who that is and don't tell me. Good. I'm not even supposed to listen to that, but once I asked for it, then. So ah, now, our next topic is quite interesting. We've already started discussing all the horrible crimes. Today, we have couple minutes left and what I would like you to tell me is the difference between a crime and an offence. It's an easy one. You all know that. What is uh different w – if you commit a crime and you commit an offence. How is that different? Yes. Yes, it can go, yes. You still haven't any criminal record. Yes, yes. So offence is basically minor crime, so it's not as serious and there can be even like minor offences. So these are just like some little things, some bad things, some misdemeanor, m – misbehaviour, something that just happens or can happen to all of us. You just break the rules without even realizing it. So now I will give you one minute to talk to each other. Not math again, unless you committed an offence during your math lesson. And come up with some things, like some really common frequent things that people do in their everyday lives, maybe when they get drunk, they go crazy, or when they feel frustrated, where they just feel rebellious, so what are some of the common things, some minor offences people can commit.

03

Graffiti, yes. Graffiti or vandalism in general. Okay. Now ah, open your books and there is a one short exercise to practice this particular thing and go to u – lesson five or unit five. Can't find the page. Whoever finds the page first. I've got it. It's fifty eight. Fifty eight, exercise one A, and there is some new vocabulary. The new vocabulary is in red letters and all you need to do is to decide the appropriate punishment for these minor offences. So on the left there are sentences with the minor offences, on the right there are some punishments. So I would like you. And there is not one correct answer. It's up to you. You decide. Whatever you think is appropriate. So match it and we will discuss it later. And if there is anything that you don't understand, ask me. If you don't understand any of the red words, ask me. Ah if the public lodges – like if I decide to complain so I lodge the complain which means I write it to a, I don't know, to the mayor or to the magistrate, so I lodge a complain. I place a complaint. No Czech please. If you want to discuss it with Daniela, do so in English. There are no correct answers. It's your opinion we want here. All right. So you can finish this at home. Now ah tomorrow you will have Jess and David and then for the rest of this week we will – we have to go through didaktický test. Which is ah the most boring thing in the world, but we need to get it over with.

## Teacher 5

01

Okay, so hello everybody. Thank you, sit down please. I have to inform you about something. Can you see this? It's some kind of device that's – that is today recording my voice. Throughout the whole lesson it's gonna be recording my voice. Don't worry, it's just recording my voice, not your voices, that's why I'm wearing the microphone. However, eh I was inf – I wasn't informed I should have been wearing something else, so I have to keep this box like all the time in my hand. I hope I won't destroy it throughout the lesson. I'm sorry for that. It's gonna be a bit uncomfortable. Ah but you don't have to worry, the – like this recording device here is just getting the sound from the microphone so whatever you – you say probably will not be heard there. It's a – it's a research from the Charles University and I don't know what it is for. It's um – it's like diploma thesis of one of the students and he can't tell me what the purpose is. I think and I'm really interested to find out, he will tell me after the lesson, eh I think it's either w – something with pronunciation or the vocabulary I use or my intonation or British versus American English. I don't know. I – actually I don't know. Ah I just volunteered to take part in the – in the research. So I can tell you tomorrow if he tells me today. But he said that for the purpose of the – of the work, he can't tell me, because probably if he tells me like if it's, I don't know, about using ahm – using pronouns, then I would use more pronouns. So probably that's the reason why he didn't tell me and now ah I can tell you tomorrow.

02

Sometimes there might be some conflict in between the people. Or one of you is willing to work hard, the other one is not. So I think the situation can be quite real, maybe it won't help you when you're doing the dishes at home, but it might help you dealing with friends or with people, even unknown people you have to work with. So I'll give you some time to read the text and also try to match the headings for the paragraphs in the leaflet. They are in two B, it's win at all costs, gloss over something, compromise and avoiding conflict. Do you understand all of these? Do you understand what it means to gloss over something? Mm, no, it's not about talking, it's quite the opposite. You get over it, you overlook it. So you almost ignore it or y – you pretend it doesn't exist, yeah. That's to gloss over something. So I'll give you some time to read it and just skip the last part, the negotiating compromise. Just read the first paragraph and then part ABCD and match the headings. If you eh see some new words, underline them, we will explain them. Finished reading? Can we check it? Yeah, okay. Um before we do that, just a few words that I think might be more difficult. In the first paragraph there is the expression in retrospect. What does it mean? Looking back. Like from now, when I look back, I have probably different point of view. Then in the paragraph with A eh they use the adjective resentful. Like ah students may feel resentful towards someone. What does it mean when you are resentful? Is it a positive or negative meaning? Negative, yeah, you feel quite hostile.

03

But if there is an opportunity, if you have a tiny conflict about something, try to negotiate, try to come up with an ef – ef – effective strategy. And we will continue with that tomorrow, I've got one more listening and video task that eh we will be discussing with that. Fine, okay. Thank you for the work we've done and now I h – know that you will want to get your tests back. Ah so I have to tell you that the results are not very good. Ah the only person that got a one is Verča but she is not here. Eh and most of you have twos, threes but there are even some worse marks. Uh so I'll give it to you, you have time to ask about anything you – you want to. And many of the mistakes I have to say you would realize were kind of unnecessary. When do you want to? What about Wednesday? She has her nails manicured every Monday. Like they describe her programme. It's just says ah she's a technician, she earns a money, she doesn't have time. I can discuss it with the native speaker if it's – if that is acceptable and if – if they agree on that, I'll give you that half point. The tenses especially. Okay, I also wanted to give chance to everybody who has written the test but would like to correct it and write another one to do the same. So we've agreed on next Monday. Aničko, is it okay, next Monday? Okay, fine. Any questions? No. So I'll collect it. Thank you for your work today. Homework, don't forget. Try to negotiate in a conflict situation if there is any and see you tomorrow. Bye.

## Teacher 6

01

Where's Linda? Yeah, stay seated. W – eh – was she – was she at school? Okay, and Matěj was? Matěj. Aha. So he's – he's absent. Eh ha – has he left? Because I don't think I saw him. Well. I'll sort it out later. Where have you been? Okay. How are you doing? Good? That's good. Did you have a nice weekend, eh Ondro? How was your weekend? Great? What did you do? Is seventy? Ah, aha. How did you celebrate? It – where? Aha, okay, eh, so, yeah. Did you play bowling? Hah, w – were you successful, did you win? Wow, great, congrats. Eh what – what did you – what did you get? Hahaha. Okay, so get – the get – the get together that you saw – saw each other. Okay, okay. Ah Johy, what about your weekend? Ahm, ahm. Does she live in Jeseník as well? Okay, okay, okay. Did anyone else do anything interesting, worth mentioning, you want to share? No? Okay. Eh, so we'll start with eh the activity called find someone who. Uh do you remember that – that one? Not sure, ow. Maybe. Okay. I'll give you the handouts. Have a look at it. Here you go. Here you go. Haha. Okay. And the girls, yeah. Okay, I'll give you a – a minute to go through eh the left column. Adame. You had a – an opportunity to – to ts – to share anything you want. Now it's not the time. Ah so go through eh the left column and if you don't understand anything, ask. Yeah, just – just – look at – look at – read all the things – just read all the things, in case you don't understand anything.

02

Decisive. Again, where is eh the stress in this word? Aha, on the ne – eh second syllable. Decisive. Yeah. Decisive. Okay. Eh someone who is relaxed calm and easy to get along with. Haha, nice, okay. Ahm. Eh it would be a – a slang word mo – mo – m – maybe. But yeah, why not. But I'm sh – I'm not sure if you know the – the adjective easy going. Now you know. Easy going. Okay. Ah right. Šárko, what about someone who makes other people laugh? Yep, okay. Emo. Eh, the – Míšo, sorry. Eh cheerful, yeah, why not, yeah. But definitely funny eh, that would be the word ah we're looking for – for. Eh so who – someone who co – cares only about themselves. Yeah, definitely, selfish. Ah Honzo, what about the next one? Someone who tells the truth and doesn't cheat or lie? Loyal? Yeah, definitely, someone who – who doesn't lie and cheat. Honest, yeah, great, aha, aha. That would be a – the word as well. And the last one. What do you think? No ideas? The – that's probably – but you can find the word in your textbooks. We had this one. Yeah. I don't care wh – I don't care what happens. Irresponsible, ahm. Great, okay. Okay, great. Okay. Any questions? Okay, I might need to switch off the lights. I will – I will show you a transcription of eight ah words, personality adjectives, so haha if you can, come to the board and write them.

03

Which of the words is it? Dishonest, yeah. Aha. And what about the la la la? Exactly. Aha. So we have these. What about the unadventurous? How would you draw it? So Šárko, can you come here and draw it for this word? So you would say unadventurous? Unad – n – edn – eh. Unadventurous. Unadventurous. And – and – and all of the rest. Turous. So you should have five circles with one bigger. So. Yeah. Okay? And the – then we have unpopular and insensitive. Ow, yeah. Unpopular and in – in – insensitive. Okay. Aha. And where does the irresponsible eh go? Adame, can you come and dry – eh, draw it? Irresponsible. So do you think irresponsible? Is it pronounced like that? The third one is stressed. Can you say – can you try and say it? Try a bit more. Irresponsible. Yeah, great, great. Aha. Okay. Okay. So if I eh say again – do we have this one? Yeah. So if I say la la la la, which word should it be? Which word? Yeah, for instance. Okay, you get it. By the way eh, when did we agree – don't forget we agreed on the voca – vocab test for Thursday, am I right? Yeah. So don't forget about it. Thursday.

## Teacher 7

01

It's all about me. As you can see, the – the mike is pointing at my mouth, so it is me, okay? Fine. So forget about our guest. He's not here anymore. Now, ladies and gentlemen, today eh we should eh carry on working about communication, conversation types and so forth. We've got another topic. We've got another topic, look, which is one of number one topics for you, the young, and I hope you will help me to understand it better. Eh it's a topic connected with this. We'll get to talk about it a little bit later. Before we start, one short administrative remark. One of my colleagues was very sad and unhappy to find out something last week. She made a mistake and she counted badly the number of eh – eh magazines, the Gate magazines, in subscription for her students and she's got ten extra. And she asked us, please, can you ask in your groups if there are any more people interested. If not, I will have to do – do s – something about it. If there are any more people interested, it will help her. She will be glad. Okay.

02

The second verb was to replace something. Okay. It's not the last warning. The last warning was before, so maybe you can sit in the front – in the front desk. Why do you want to use this verb? Why are you looking for this verb? With emojis. Very nice, yeah, because emojis or emoticons are about our feelings and when we write a text, when we type a text, we can't add feelings. It's not face to face conversation, it's something at a distance, so that is why maybe these are important. Okay. Now ah – now ah – how many emojis do you use? How many is it? Okay, types of em – emojis, usually, let's say. Hard to say. Can you give us an example of a frequent em – emoji you – you use? What does this show, what kind of feeling does this show? Happiness, aha, fine. Another example of an emoji can be? Okay, ahm, what is it? Sad face? Maybe. What else can it be? Once I also saw eh the symbol of heart. What does this show, what does this mean? Either somebody or something, a situation, aha. Fine. Okay, so there are really many of them. And it's a nice to hear from Ondra that these help us to express our feelings in a message. Fine. Let's have a look eh into our book, can we?

03

So it's clothes in general. Thank you, very nice. Eh how about the third one, Ondra? That's not true. How would you correct the sentence? Ideas, we can say, myšlenky. All cultures in the world – of the world, yeah, I would say so. Correct, very nice, ahm. How about the fourth one? It's true, ahm, you think, aha, fine, that they use eh a lot more colours. And I will agree with you. I – it is given. Dark skin of a face, and so on. Yeah? And the last one, Daniel? How would you correct eh or eh change the sentence to make it true? Emojis really help with communication. And we learnt today in the lesson that they help a lot in co – communication, because how do they help? Andrew talked about it before. Show – we can show sadness, happiness, what is it? Emotions and feelings. Next time, we are going to talk about – a little bit about emoticons. By the way, emoticon is an interesting blending. Znamená to emotion icon. Pocit – pocitová ikona, bychom mohli říci. I want you to look up some emojis which you like to use in instant messaging and to show us this – the symbols on eh – on the screen and to describe to us, what it means. Because, to tell the truth, I would like to learn something from you. You are experts. Thank you.

## Teacher 8

01

Ignore it, please. It's nothing. Nothing's happening. Em kay, how are you today, Anežko? How come you are tired, why? Why? And that's what I want to ask ey about. So how eh – effe – effective you were. How successful, how good you were. Okay? So what is it you participated in? What do we call it? Okay, eh it sounds like a Czechism a little bit, so in English it's fundraising event. Fundrasing event. And eh if you were to translate this event in English – into English, of course, so how would you do that? Aha, aha, okay. And em could you explain, if you were to explain the foreigner, maybe the native speak – a native speaker what it's all about, what would you say? How would you es – describe this eh fund eh raising event? Or the charity organization, what it was for. Who – who actually did you help? Hello, you're late. What were you two doing together? Aha, okay. Ahm, ahm. Simply the blind. The blind. Blind is an adjective and how to make a noun? You simply add a definite article. The blind. Right. Okay, so today, ah can we start with the s – kind of speaking again? And let me use blind or random selection again.

02

That's a nice figure. One, one, one. Look at the speaking part, number one, em do you think that English has influenced the Czech language a lot? Do you h – can you prove it? Do you have some evidence? Could you tell him? What I – eh ee – he apparently doesn't know what to do, so tell him. Do we have lot of eh English words that actually flooded the – the Czech language? What you think? Is the influence eh of the English language em so high? Lajknout, výborně, super, ahm. Ee – the word – the word business itself comes from English. Lots of words, yes. Business, eh finance, technologies, social – social websites. Do you like it or you don't care? You don't care. Okay. Exactly. So it's a natural development of the language as well. So if there is a Czech equivalent, em try to use the ch – the one – the – the Czech equivalent, don't replace it eh w – with an English words, okay? And this way, you won't like eh flood the Czech language with these low words. Okay, okay, understood? And there is one thing, eh you are learning German here. So German, eh – eh in German – in the German language, it's even worse. The situation is even worse. So now we are pretty okay here. All right, we – we are going to talk about it later on, but now, eh you need some more information about the history, all right? So could you please look at number two? A usual exercise.

03

Only a few minutes left, I'm sorry. A bad timing. Right, we need to finish it on Friday, okay, so f. Yeah, now I'd like you to focus on number five only, and number four'll be discussed on Friday because there is a lot to say ah including your – your opinion. Could you check it together? Number five. Comment on the dates and numbers or figures. Or you can join someone. Small groups, perhaps? Ahm, ahm. Due to, thanks to. So how is it going here? You are not the only eh ones, okay, so there – there is some hesitation, yeah. I will ask them. Ah before we finish, okay, eh there are some hesitations about number six, so can you help? What is it – um a w – what is it related to? Number six. Yep. The number of Welsh speakers, ahm. By the way, just one thing before we leave. Have you – have you identified West Indies? I mean what West Indies is and where it's situated. It's not only it, it's not probably a bad word for this. The – the pronoun. What is West Indies? Could you f – okay, okay, I won't tell you. So on Friday, I expect your answers. Plus you can expect some tasks on Teams as well. Because I need to – I – I want you to find some other eh words for Friday lesson, okay? So thank you and see you on Thursday.

## Teacher 9

01

Let's say something a bit more lively. Firstly, you still remember we started talking about ah reported speech, okay, and I gave you homework because everything in the student's book is done, so I would like to move on to the workbook and I would like to check okay how successful you were. Eh eight B which is page eighty seven, okay. And I hope you're ready, okay. I would love to do it quickly on – only if we have got some troubles, I will probably ask you and we can discuss it, okay. Whenever you do not understand why, and this is important, ask. Okay? We can explain things, we can discuss things, and we can get mu – much more knowledgeable after that, okay? Barčo, beginning with the first one. Eh the task is easy, what did people say? Rewrite the reported speech as a direct speech. So this is something that we did in one of the last lessons, you must be successful. Number two. Exactly, okay, thank you very much, aha. Dane, next one's number three. Ahm, fine, thank you very much. Míšo, number four. I don't like chase, this is something we had little troubles in the last lesson with, okay. Terezko, next one. And is there anybody who can explain what the problem in fact is, hidden in such sentences? Because we discussed it in the last lesson. Kristi, do you still remember? All right, aha. In other words, what she wants to say is that if you have got reported speech and the reported speech has got past perfect, *předminulý čas*, we usually have got two possible ways what it might have been originally. It might have been past simple and it might have been present perfect. And you've got to be extremely, extremely, okay, eh careful. Okay? Okay.

02

Eh talking about the last, eh Dane, we have got Billy the Kid. What interesting things have you learnt? So i – is there anything that eh Filip hasn't mentioned and you know it? The reporter, okay, ahm. Yeah, ahm, okay. Maybe it's misleading, I don't know, I haven't checked the pictures I must say, okay. But if you have got this funny fact it's nice when you tell the others, okay. So you heard it? Am eh even though it's in the textbook and textbooks should be right, okay, eh what eh Kuba says is that Google says that this person in fact is the other one, Sundance Kid, okay. They were a pair, they were a couple, okay, performing together, okay. So eh talking about the last picture, who was it? Which group was it? Ahm, Terko, what do you know about the last one? Celebrity of that time, in fact, aha, okay. During the escape. Probably the guards, okay, people working in the prison. Okay. On the way? Civilians? Ah, all right. Ahm, ahm. So he had some helpers and then he finally killed them, okay, because they were burden, okay, eh eh when he was eh escaping the prison, okay. Aha, all right. So, eh it's much better now, because these are not anonymous pictures, okay, these are people who had some history, who had some em saga, okay, that we were trying to study at least, okay. Now I would like to check your vocabulary because when you listen, very often you are not given the word exactly, but you are given a synonym, an opposite, or sometimes even explanation. So maybe Ondro, in exercise number two, we have a sentence and there is something underlined. Do you think you can come up with a word that would substitute? Look at the example. The police arrested.

03

You asked me, okay, what was well off in fact, okay, and I say that well off is the same as rich but they didn't use rich. Do you know what they – what they used? Short of money. They were short of money. Okay, ahm. Eh Filipe, can you comment on number three? Yes, it was the time of depression and everybody knows what it means, okay. So only B is the right one. Thank you, Filipe. Eh Adélko at the back please, number four? Both are correct, yes. They frequently stole cars because they in fact eh eh – they were hunted and they were chased, okay, so they needed to switch from one car to another quite frequently and they stayed in regular contact with their families. This is how they were trying to get them. Very often they were waiting for them in their families' houses, but unfortunately they never got them this way, okay. Uh well I know it from the film, okay, and I guess the film in fact copies the – the story quite precisely, I would say. Rady, next one, the last one in fact. Yes, only one of them is the correct one. Okay. Well, eh the time has almost run up, eh but I would like to give you little homework for the next lesson, okay. We opened the topic of outlaws, so because you have different preferences, I will probably give you two different tasks. One task is number seven. Outlaws are on the side of ordinary people. Very often these – in fact these people steal from the rich and give to the poor. That's why they are very often very popular with many ah – em – eh ordinary people. So I would like you to give us a speech, how do you or – or how you see things. If you feel that many of them in fact did it for good purpose, or if you feel it is still illegal and they should have been executed as they many times were.

## Teacher 10

01

Eh where is Kamča? She left? Oh because they're in room eleven. Yeah. When did they change it? Hi. Hi, no, that's okay, I also thought we were in – in room eleven. They they – changed it for some reason. I don't know why. Okay. All right, so. Hi, okay, you can take a seat, ladies. All right. Okay. So hello, just to – just to recap it for everyone, for the ladies who were not here, yesterday I pressed the button on the recorder wrongly, okay, so we're gonna have to record it again. Okay? But you don't need to worry, your voices will not be on the recording, just mine. Okay? All right, so good morning. Eh Aničko, could you please open the blinds? We're a little dead this morning, aren't we? Yes, it's Friday, yeah, you should be happy cos it's Friday. Okay, so Andy. Hi, how was your morning? Okay, can you tell me more? Okay, great. Are you also happy that it's Friday? Yeah, so what are your plans for the weekend? Okay, so are you looking forward to the weekend? Okay, thank you. Nelo, hi. How about your plans for the weekend? Ahm, ahm. Okay. So is it gonna be a good weekend for you? You hope so. Okay, thank you. All right, eh Áďo. Hi, how was your morning? One to ten? Five, how come? I'm so sorry. So is it better now? Okay, and that helped. Okay, so good luck with your stomach. Thank you. All right, Aničko. Hi. Why, how come? Oh, okay. I'm sorry. Do you know why? You have no idea. Okay. So do you think you can get some rest during the weekend? So what are your plans for the weekend? Aha, okay. So what movie are you planning on watching?

02

Just make sure to think eh – just make sure to check if it's – if it's present or past, okay? I haven't figured out what I'm gonna do if it's wrong. Ha. Okay, if it's wrong eh if the person that's – shouts got it has it wrong then eh – then it continues, okay, so you search again, just the two, just the pairs. All right, almost finished. Almost finished, okay. Okay. So I'm gonna ask you to wait till I finish saying the sentence, okay, and when I finish saying the sentence you can start. Okay? So Kájo, Áďo, are we ready? Okay, haha, okay. Well, sucks for you, you know. Eh yeah and when – so first we're gonna check if the winning lady has got it correctly and then I'll read the next sentence and after that. So eh there we go. You are missing your best friend. Okay, Kájo, can you read it out? Yes, great job, you can take it. All right, ready? Okay. So you had a terrible day at work, you messed up and your boss yelled at you. That's not the one that I meant for this, okay, so you can go on. Great job, okay. Yeah, yeah, yeah. Eh put it here somewhere, okay, we're gonna count it at the end. Okay, Aničko, Andy, ready? Thank you. Okay, so eh it's raining and you don't have an umbrella. I wish it wasn't raining, yes. Okay, eh you just woke up and you really wanna stay in bed today.

03

And what you need to do is you need to figure out by asking your partner questions what the original question was. Okay? For each of the things. So eh – can I? So there's for example – so Áďa for example has reading. So eh – so Verča could ask her reading, what – what's this about? You know, would you like to read more or. Yeah? So try to figure out what the original question was. Okay, so e – can I ask you to switch, Kája and Verča? I'm so sorry but you – you shouldn't have the same questions, okay, that's the point. Haha, I'm just making you mad today. You're gonna hate me after this class. Okay, so Kájo – eh Kájo, Verčo, can you switch please? Or – or – however you wanna switch. Okay? I'm sorry, ladies, you – you – you'll see each other again. Okay so maybe you have some guesses. You're awfully quiet, ladies. Okay, ladies, we have a few more minutes so let's wrap it up with the final question, okay? Yeah, just pick one more question, okay? Okay, ah thank you so much, ah I'm gonna ask you to wrap it up now, we have one more minute to go, it's gonna – the bell is gonna ring soon eh so Kájo, can you tell us one wish that Áďa has? Oh, okay, yeah. Is eh – is that true, Áďo? Is she correct? Okay, thank you. Nelo, can you tell us one wish that Anet has? Okay, okay, so that's a – that's a nice note to end it on, thank you so much ladies, enjoy your weekend and I will see you next week, okay?