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Supplementary Reading in Grammar School TEFL

The Introduction of the Concept of Teaching Reading-Related Skills in the Czech Republic

DIPLOMOVÁ PRÁCE

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Prohlašuji, že jsem tuto diplomovou práci vypracovala samostatně a pouze na základě uvedených pramenů a literatury.

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SEPARATE APPENDIX ENCLOSED TO THE THESIS

THE LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CAE	Certificate in Advanced English
CD	compact disc
CD-ROM	compact disc read-only memory
CEFR	*Common European Framework of Reference for Languages*
EFL	English as a foreign language
EL	English language
ELT	English language teaching
ERR	evocation, realization, reflection
ESL	English as a second language
FCE	First Certificate in English
FL	foreign language
FLT	foreign language teaching
ICT	information and communications technologies
IT	information technologies
L1	first foreign language
L2	second foreign language
n.d.	no date
NFEC	new framework educational curriculum for grammar schools
p.	page
PC	personal computer
pp.	pages
PSE	personal and social education
RWCT	Reading and Writing for Critical Thinking
SR	supplementary reading
SRM	supplementary reading materials
TEFL	teaching English as a foreign language
TEFL	teaching English as a foreign language
TESOL	teaching English to speakers of other languages

I.   INTRODUCTION

Teaching supplementary reading in the English language at Czech grammar schools seems to be seriously underestimated due to the prevailing communicative aims of teaching foreign languages in general. If students do come across some supplementary reading materials which teachers bring for them, these are most likely to be articles from magazines which are then used for reading round the class, practising reading comprehension or speaking about the text in the time left after the obligatory subject matter has been covered.

Still, most students seem to enjoy supplementary reading. It seems however, that they do not appreciate supplementary reading so much for the benefits which it might bring to their English language improvement. Rather, they appreciate the escape which supplementary reading provides from the routine of the textbook – the obligatory course material. Compared to textbooks which comprise the grammar and vocabulary that students need to learn in order to succeed in examinations, the role of supplementary reading is second-class and students are not willing to dedicate too much time and effort to it outside classroom. At the same time, teachers confirm the minor role of secondary reading by using techniques aimed primarily at the development of language skills and not setting any other meaningful and clear-cut objectives which reading in the English language should help attain. Thus the question arises, what are other reasons why to teach reading in the English language? Looking for the answer to this question, it soon becomes apparent that supplementary reading in the English language has a lot more to offer to grammar school students than the present practice makes us think at first sight.

The time has come to shift the focus off teaching the English language for exclusively communicative purposes to accentuating other areas of development, one of which is the acquisition of various reading-related skills. This advancement is desirable and advocated also by the contemporary trends in foreign language teaching presented by major European documents on language teaching and learning. The ongoing reform of the Czech curricular system also seems to provide the ground for teachers and schools to adopt a more systematic and elevating approach to teaching reading in the English language.

The opportunities for students' language and personal enrichment through reading in the English language are numerous and one of the major tasks of English language teachers is to motivate students to read and offer them opportunities to accomplish their personal goals of learning English through reading suitable texts. The role of teaching factors in the process of teaching supplementary reading and motivating students is unquestionable and there certainly are changes which should be taken into account in order to improve the present situation.

According to the author of the presented thesis, teaching supplementary reading in the English language should not concentrate merely on practising lower-level language skills. Apart from that, it should focus on practising specific higher-level and more intellectual reading-related skills which aim at developing in students universally applicable personal and social competences and helping them become autonomous and critical thinkers and readers for life.

Thus, the objective of the presented thesis is to advocate a more systematic approach to teaching supplementary reading in the English language. We want to find out whether it would be suitable to introduce to Czech grammar schools the concept of teaching various reading-related skills in successive steps with respect to student's needs, preferences and personal goals. If the proposed concept proves to be beneficial, the next objective is to state what changes in the present state of TEFL in the Czech Republic would need to be made in order to enable the implementation of our proposals to Czech grammar schools. This will be done on the basis of analyzing the teaching factors, the relation of students' motivation to supplementary reading and suggesting what innovations teachers might introduce into their daily practice of teaching supplementary reading in the English language.

II.   THE THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS

1.   Defining the terminology

Looking into professional literature and browsing through various on-line linguistic journals and peer-reviewed articles, it was impossible to overlook the state of chaos seizing the domain of English language teaching (ELT). Indeed, the terminology related to this discipline is not uniform in all parts of the world due to the fact that we live in the era of "didactic pluralism" (Mothejzíková, 1995, p. 183). Therefore, in order to provide a solid ground for the ideas that are to follow, it is important to clarify the meaning of the terms and concepts that will be central throughout this paper and give well-grounded reasons for such decisions.

1.1.   The name of the discipline

The British have traditionally distinguished between English as a second language (ESL) and English as a foreign language (EFL) (Robinett, 1972, pg. 198). The term *second language* traditionally refers to learners who are residing and learning in an English-speaking country and whose mother tongue is not the English language (EL). The use of the term *foreign language* (FL) traditionally refers to learners of any language who are residing and learning in their own country, i.e. they are not immersed in the target language (Lee, 1986, p. 181). Furthermore, as the labels *foreign* o r *second* a re considered, at least by some, to be politically incorrect, the term English language teaching (ELT) is sometimes preferred and Teaching English to speakers of other languages (TESOL) is now rapidly coming into fashion and slowly spreading outside of America.

In this paper, we will analyze the situation which may best be characterized as Teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL) at Czech grammar schools, therefore the terms TEFL and ELT will be used most often. However, as a certain amount of literature originating in the U.S. will be referred to and cited from, it is possible that other appellations discussed earlier will be present too. When using the term FL (respectively Foreign language teaching – FLT), the author of this paper refers to the situation concerning any foreign language with a particular emphasis on the EL.

1.2. The base disciplines

It is now the objective to take into consideration several significant disciplines whose findings this thesis draws upon. Indeed, the *base disciplines* such as linguistics, psychology, sociology and pedagogy (and there are also others) are closely related to FLT. "The more knowledge [a teacher] can glean from the wealth of writing in the field, the better he will be able to combine this knowledge with practical experience to produce a suitable teaching methodology for his own purposes" (Broughton, Brumfit, Flavell, Hill & Pincas, 1993, pp. 38-39).

Linguistics (the science that deals with the nature of language) together with sociolinguistics (studying the role of language in human behaviour) and psycholinguistics (investigating, among other things, how language is learned) form the central field of applied linguistics – a science that provides an important source of background knowledge for FLT (Broughton et al., 1993, p. 38). Psychology and sociology also present an important source of additional information for this thesis. Psychology offered the knowledge of motivation, cognitive and personal development, personality differences among the learners and teachers, their needs and interests, etc. Sociology then helped understand certain phenomena that take place in groups of people – here in school groups, e.g. group dynamism, different social roles of the students, the authority of a teacher and his or her interaction with students. In addition, it was pedagogy that offered valuable inspiration concerning ELT methods, techniques and other significant teaching factors.

1.3. Grammar schools

The term *grammar school* also needs to be defined. This paper focuses on exploring the situation concerning supplementary reading in the last four grades of Czech public grammar schools. Generally, this kind of school can be characterised as offering comprehensive education. However, some grammar schools may be more technically-oriented, others more language-oriented, and some may even be bilingual. The approach to ELT at grammar schools should be more or less unified by the Czech curricular documents, but it is important to point out that there have been many changes concerning the educational conception of the whole Czech educational system in order to provide schools with more autonomy in composing their own school

educational curricula (further information on the changes can be found in the passage on "Teaching factors in relation to the new Czech framework educational curriculum for grammar schools").

These practical diversities count for the varying number of English lessons per week and even for the overall differences in the attitudes of English teachers at grammar schools to teaching English. The details and circumstances of the research and the interpretation of the obtained results are the subject of the second major part of the presented thesis.

1.4.   Other primary considerations

Throughout this thesis, we have decided to use the terms *students* and *teachers* rather than the more general terms *learners* and *instructors* or *educators*. It is the theory and reality of teaching reading in the EL at grammar schools which we want to analyze. Therefore, regardless of the fact that most of the issues discussed are valid in broader context of teaching and not only in relation to teaching at schools, we will use the terms corresponding to our concerns more closely. However, the terms learner and instructor might be used somewhere when referring to FLT in general.

One further note: all the references to professional literature written in the Czech language were translated and paraphrased by the author of this thesis.

2. Supplementary reading in the English language

Generally, learning to read is an important educational goal. For both children and adults, the ability to read opens up new worlds and opportunities. It enables people to gain new knowledge, enjoy literature and do everyday things that are part of modern life (Pang, Muaka, Bernhardt & Kamil, 2003, p. 6). This, of course, seems to be true when speaking about reading in a mother tongue, but to what extent can we say so about reading in a foreign language? No doubt, the reasons for reading in a foreign language might differ from those that people have when they read in their mother tongue. The aim of the following passages is to elucidate this difference.

2.1. Reading and supplementary reading – the definitions

First of all, it is important to ask what we will understand by the terms *reading* and *supplementary reading* in this paper. Reading is one of the language skills (together with listening, speaking and writing) which every foreign language learner strives to acquire. Reading in the context of Czech ELT has several connotations which usually differ from what any manual on teaching reading would tell us about reading. For most students and also some teachers usually use the term *reading* to refer to in-class activities with textbook or any other supplementary reading materials that most often involve reading and translating the passages round the class, answering a number of reading comprehension questions or filling gaps in a text.

Generally speaking, reading is a very complex process that "involves a whole series of lesser skills" (Broughton et al., 1993, pp. 89). It is an activity that consists of both perception and thought. Basically, reading consists of two related processes: word recognition and comprehension. Word recognition refers to the process of perceiving how written symbols correspond to one's spoken language. Comprehension is the process of making sense of words, sentences and connected text (Pang et al., 2003, p. 6). Defining reading for the purposes of this thesis, we may use Christine Nuttall's (1982, p. 4) formulation that "reading is the decoding of the meaning out of a text for some purpose".

It is necessary to mention that we will not be concerned here with the elementary technique of teaching the mechanics of reading. Nor will we concentrate on reading

aloud for the purposes typical of the early reading stage (when beginners, in Nuttall's (1982, p. 2) words, "need to discover how writing is associated with the spoken words they have already learned to use"), on the contrary, we expect the students to be already literate and do most of the activities through silent reading.

Having introduced the term reading, let us now move to defining the term *supplementary reading* (SR). As the expression suggests, supplementary reading must supplement something. The counterpart supplementary reading is derived from is central to ELT – it is the textbook, one of the most important teaching materials to be used in English lessons. Textbooks represent the point of departure for teachers' work and most teachers take textbooks as the core (but luckily not the only) source of reading materials.

In fact, SR is suitable to supplement and extend the reading experience students gain from working with the textbook. Thus, SR can be characterized as reading a battery of materials (authentic or adapted) that can be used inside and outside classroom (e.g. various articles, texts, graded readers, books, notices, timetables, etc.) which one can find beyond the scope of the textbook. It is important to note that from now on, when speaking about reading, we mean reading using *supplementary reading materials* (SRM) as characterized above and not reading the articles in a textbook.

To make the picture complete, it is necessary to point out that the term SR is not too widely used worldwide. Instead, the notions *extensive reading* and *intensive reading* are usually employed probably in order to hint at two specific types of reading which most reading handbooks consider the proper reading. The notions *extracurricular reading* or *leisure time reading* are also sometimes used when speaking about extensive reading. For the purposes of this paper, all of the three terms (supplementary, extensive and intensive reading) will be used, keeping in mind that SR is the superordinate and more general term while the other two refer to its specific subcategories. One of the aims of the presented thesis is to provide the guidelines to easier orientation in this widespread and not yet fully explored field of SR.

2.2. The overview of TEFL methods in relation to reading

During recent years, reading has been made the subject of much varied and thorough investigation. Very little investigation, however, has concerned itself with the question of SR. Before concentrating on introducing SR in its relevance and breadth, the context of TEFL methods and the significance they assign to reading, respectively SR, will be discussed.

2.2.1. Method, technique, activity

Before starting a little historical survey concerning TEFL methods and the different roles they ascribe to reading, the triad of terms from the domain of TEFL methodology – approach, method and technique – needs to be elucidated. Again, it is fair to mention that the terminology in FLT publications does not use them uniformly at all (Choděra & Ries, 1999, p. 56). Strictly speaking, the terms approach, method and technique exist in a hierarchical relation from the most general to the most particular one. As Jarmila Mothejzíková puts it, "[t]he organizational key is that techniques carry out a method which is consistent with an approach" (Mothejzíková, 1988, p. 221).

An *approach* to teaching languages states a global view, a certain philosophy or basic presuppositions relating to the nature of language and the way it should be taught (Mothejzíková, 1988, p. 221). According to Choděra & Ries (1999, p. 57), *method* in the context of FL teaching and learning may be understood in a broader or more narrow sense. Method in the broader sense refers to the general approach to FL teaching and learning, to the methodological direction or conception (Choděra & Ries, 1999, p. 57). Two commonly mentioned methods in the broader sense are the Direct Method and the Grammar-Translation Method which constitute the dichotomous classification of TEFL methods. Method in the narrow sense represents a specific way of acquiring knowledge, skills, habits, a world view, as well as developing students' abilities. This process takes place under the guidance of a teacher who adopts the leading role, but the student's role should not be passive either.

Techniques, on the other hand, mirror both the more general approach and the method (in both senses); they are exercised by the teacher in the classroom. Techniques also propel the types of *activities* used by teachers or textbooks to mediate the language material to the students. Techniques are chosen in correspondence to an immediate

objective (Mothejzíková, 1988, p. 224). Some approaches and methods will be very briefly introduced in the following paragraphs and some techniques later on in relation to the survey into teaching SR.

2.2.2. The Grammar-Translation Method

For a long time, there was no clear distinction between the teaching of modern languages and that of the only foreign languages taught in schools, the classical languages. As in the case of Latin and Greek, the emphasis was laid on grammar and translation into and from the language of study. Traditionally, the purpose of learning to read in a language was to have access to the literature written in that language. The texts used were mainly literary and were considered a medium of access to the culture (*Learning Modern Languages at School in the EU*, 1997, p. 20).

The Grammar-Translation Method assumes that students learn to read a language by studying its vocabulary, grammar, and sentence structure, not by actually reading it. In this approach, lower-level learners read only sentences and paragraphs generated by textbook writers and instructors. The reading of authentic materials was limited to the works of great authors and reserved for upper level students who developed the language skills needed to read them ("Teaching Reading", n.d., paragraph 2).

2.2.3. The Audio-Lingual Method and the Audio-Visual Method

After the Second World War in both Europe and the U.S.A., the Audio-Lingual Method took over. With the rise of new technologies, the emphasis shifted to listening and speaking and some theoreticians held the view that students taught audio-lingually would automatically acquire the ability to read. In itself, reading was much neglected since it was considered "decoding speech written down, a skill which would naturally transfer from a command of the oral skills" (Mothejzíková, 1988, p. 167). This claim was often criticized by those who argued that "the audio-lingual environment can be very effective in furthering the realization of reading comprehension and literature aims" (Dannerbeck, 1969, pp. 265-6), but to what extent this was put into practice depended largely on the competence of individual teachers. In order to integrate reading into the objectives of the Audio-Lingual Method, it would be necessary to guide students from

predominantly audio-lingual activities at the beginning of the language course to the introduction of reading that would build upon what has been learned audio-lingually. This then should lead to liberated reading without the loss of audio-lingual skills (Dannerbeck, 1969, p. 267).

The Audio-Visual Method emerged in France in the course of the 1960s. This method was intended for teaching everyday language and it was similar to the Audio-Lingual Method in many ways. Its unique feature was to present new language materials using filmstrips and corresponding tapes that described social scenarios. Reading materials were usually substituted by visual clues. Speaking and listening were taught before reading and writing (Jiang, 2000, paragraph B).

2.2.4. The Communicative Approach

The Communicative Approach, which has been ruling the domain of FLT since the 1980s until today, has given teachers a different understanding of the role of reading in the language classroom and the types of texts that can be used in instruction. When the goal of instruction is the communicative competence, everyday materials such as train schedules, newspaper articles, and tourism websites become appropriate classroom materials, because reading them represents one way of developing the communicative competence. The instruction in reading and reading practice thus become essential parts of language teaching at every level ("Teaching Reading", n.d., paragraph 3).

The same, however, cannot be said about reading literature, which was moved into the background of both practical teaching and theoretical research on the grounds that it makes no contribution to the learning of English for practical use (Hezinová, 2003, p. 6).

2.2.5. Didactic pluralism in ELT

Apart from the above-mentioned TEFL methods, there have always been other more or less alternative methods trying to go against the mainstream and coming up with better alternatives. Světlana Hanušová (2006, p. 8, my translation) sums up the situation in the domain of ELT in the following way:

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"Throughout history, the linguists and methodologists have searched for the optimal method of teaching foreign languages. Today we may state that an optimal method does not exist and it is most likely that it will not be discovered in the future either."

There are various methods that can be applied in different situations for different target groups. Mothejzíková (1995, p. 183) mentions the term "didactic pluralism", which gives a true and vivid picture of the reality most fittingly, and calls for understanding the individual methods as complementary and not competitive.

This also corresponds to the most recent development in the domain of FLT reflected in principal European documents. In 2001, the Council of Europe introduced *The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (CEFR). This document is a descriptive instrument for the professionals to encourage teachers and the broader public to reflect upon the process of language learning and teaching, and to review and plan learning, teaching and assessment. The *Framework* is a non-prescriptive tool; it does not advocate one particular method that should be used to achieve the aims of FLT stated in the *Framework*. According to *The Lisbon Process*, an action and development plan for the European Union from the year 2001, any method or procedure which has proved suitable and effective in FLT should be used (Mothejzíková, 2005/6, p. 172). This can also be applied to the domain of teaching reading.

The aim of the following passages is to critically discuss the different approaches to teaching reading in the EL (originating in the methods discussed above, especially the Grammar-Translation Method and the Communicative Approach) with respect to the major reading-related skills which students should acquire in the process of reading. However, there are some common presuppositions that every teacher intending to teach reading for any specific purpose has to consider.

2.3. Teaching as decision making

In the context of FL teaching, teachers must take into consideration the often contradictory demands of limited time, institutionalized curricula, student expectations, individual needs and many other variables. Sandra Silberstein (1994, p. 16) points out that there is no simple recipe by which one can always teach reading to all students and

that it is of crucial importance not to stop systematically questioning all the teaching and learning factors in order to decide what, how and to whom to teach and how to improve the present situation. There are several principles teachers have to bear in mind and the following paragraphs will discuss them.

2.3.1. Reasons why we read

One of the premises teachers have to consider when setting a reading goal and choosing the SRM is the reason why students read at present or why they will want or need to read in the future. When examining the reasons for reading in general, Nuttall (1982, pp. 2-3) distinguishes between reasons people have for reading in their mother tongue and in a FL.

When reading in the mother tongue, one normally reads for authentic (non-linguistic) reasons and these involve any everyday (outside classroom) issues. These usually include either reading for information (newspapers, timetables, messages, letters, telephone diaries, textbooks, etc.) or reading for pleasure (magazines, novels and the like). When people read for authentic reasons, their main objective is to understand the message and access (sometimes even learn) the information encoded in the text.

On the other hand, the reasons why people read in a FL may be quite different. Some more advanced learners may read in a FL for the same reasons they would read in their mother tongue (i.e. for information, facts and ideas, for pleasure and entertainment), in order to get the message, understand and interpret the meaning. Yet, reasons why most less advanced learners of a FL read are non-authentic reasons for reading – usually connected with the study of the FL. It is possible to add that, apart from developing the language skills on the basis of a text, all readers may read a FL for yet another reason – for learning to read more efficiently and a more variable body of texts (when this is achieved, no doubt, the quality of reading in a FL for authentic purposes will rise). This assumption is also in accord with what theoreticians such as Smith (as cited in Mothejzíková, 1988, p. 168) claim – "that reading is learned rather than taught, and that one learns reading by reading". The teaching of reading in a FL thus has to take into consideration the purposes for which learners want to be able to read texts in the FL.

2.3.2. Teaching supplementary reading for what purpose?

We have analysed the reasons for reading both in a mother tongue and in a FL and from now on teaching SR in the EL is our major interest. We feel that teachers have to decide on the objectives, methods, techniques and SRM on the basis of analyzing the reasons for which their students want to be able to read in the EL. Some of the students, for example, may want to be able to read texts in English either for study purposes, for future careers, for keeping in contact with friends from abroad or simply for enjoyment.

There are many reasons why teachers should try to get students read English texts. "Good reading texts can introduce interesting topics, stimulate discussion, excite imaginative responses and be the springboard for well-rounded, fascinating lessons" (Harmer, 1998, p. 68). Prototypically, any exposure to English texts (given that the students understand them more or less) spurs the spontaneous process of acquisition of English and they learn how and in what contexts words are used. This process is the more effective the more interesting and engaging the text is. Jeremy Harmer (1998, p. 68) adds that reading texts also provide good models for English writing and the opportunity to study the structure and function of language (its vocabulary, grammar, punctuation, and the way sentences, paragraphs and texts are constructed).

Mothejzíková (1988, p. 168) summarizes the objectives of teaching reading in the following way:

> "(...) we read for information and for pleasure. On the very elementary level, however, reading serves primarily to introduce basic grammar patterns and vocabulary items in context and to reinforce this basic knowledge."

In other words, teaching reading may focus on developing the following four categories – *reading-related skills*: *language skills, reading skills, literary interpretative skills* and we may also add *critical thinking skills*. But it should be clear by now that reading is a support skill for other educative concerns or goals as well – these humanistic aims spread over the three categories mentioned previously and, to a certain extent, should permeate through them. For, when teaching reading, the teacher should also direct his or her endeavour to teaching *cultural awareness and tolerance* and *educating the whole person* through mutual cooperation. All of these categories will be discussed in more detail later on. No matter how different the purposes of reading are, they seem to build

upon a common ground and there are certain aspects that need to be considered before making the first step and giving students a SR text to read.

2.3.3. English proficiency and difficulty

One of the most important rules a teacher should follow when choosing SRM is the balance between real English on the one hand and students' capabilities and interests on the other hand.

Generally, the level of difficulty of a text varies from a reader to reader. Why one student finds a certain text difficult while another student finds it quite easy? This may be caused, among other things, by the reader's unfamiliarity with the vocabulary, the excessive amount of technical vocabulary, the excessive complexity of the ideas expressed in the text, by the reader's ignorance of the facts, or simply because the text is too scientific for a certain reader to understand (Nuttall, 1982, p. 9). Mothejzíková (1988, p. 168) adds that texts using slang or dialect features, as well as old fashioned language are not appropriate either. The SRM thus has to be carefully chosen with respect to the level of bearable difficulty for the intended readers.[1]

2.3.4. The common reference levels

There used to be various modes of assessing proficiency levels resulting in several different scales. Recently, the CEFR became well-known for implementing the six-level scale of descriptions of language performance and proficiency required by existing standards, tests and examinations in order to facilitate comparisons between different systems of qualifications. These are the so-called *common reference levels* (spanning from A1 to B2),[2] which constitute the vertical dimension of the *Framework*. (The horizontal dimension consists in the terminology and methodology that characterizes the competences, activities, themes, tasks, situations, etc. whose mastery is required for each of the six levels) ("The challenge of MFL in secondary education", n.d., p. 1).

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[1] There are several techniques that help teachers assess students' level (the most successful one being the cloze test), but these will not be discussed here. For more details see Nuttall, 1982, pp. 25-29, Hill, 1986, pp. 21-22, or Mothejzíková, 1988, pp. 168-169.

[2] See the Appendix (Part I) for the complete description and characterization of the common reference levels.

2.3.5. The question of the authenticity of SRM

There has been frequent discussion about what kinds of reading texts are suitable for EL students. The greatest controversy has centred on whether the texts should be *authentic* or not. According to Harmer (1998, p. 68), that was because "people worried about more traditional language-teaching materials which tended to look artificial and to use over-simplified language which any native speaker would find comical and untypical."[3] Nevertheless, giving low-level students an article from *The Times* or *The Guardian*, authentic quality newspapers that native speakers would read, will probably discourage them – they will not understand the text as there will be too many words they are not familiar with and, at the same time, they will find the grammar and style too complicated to make sense of.

There is some authentic written material which lower-level students can understand to some degree: menus, timetables, signs and basic instructions, for example, and where appropriate, these can be used. But for longer prose, teachers may want to offer students texts which, while being like English, are nevertheless written or adapted especially for their level. The important thing is that such texts are as much like real English as possible and there is a great range in reading difficulty levels.

When discussing the question of authenticity, it should not be forgotten to mention that authentic texts are authentic only temporarily. Indeed, it is necessary to make an effort to find out whether textbooks articles or SRM speak to students independently of time, context and circumstances (Kostelníková, 1998/9, p. 121). Besides using classic literary texts that do not lose their authenticity, teachers should try to keep the SR topics which they want the students to read up-to-date; otherwise students lose interest in working with the texts.

Looking at authenticity from yet another perspective, students' purpose for reading in their native language may sometimes be to obtain information about the subject they study, and this purpose can be useful in the EL classroom as well. Reading for content information in the EL classroom gives students both authentic reading

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[3] Texts in textbooks teaching elementary English were often criticized for their distortion due to the fact that they included numerous examples of a particular teaching item (e.g. a tense), often described the obvious or dealt with over-familiar topic, some were over-explicit and some even "guilty of having virtually nothing to say" (Nuttall, 1982, p. 20).

material and an authentic purpose for reading ("Teaching Reading", n.d., Reading to Learn paragraph).

2.3.6. Graded readers

The issue of readers (i.e. reading books) is closely connected to both the question of authentic vs. adapted SRM and the optimal difficulty level for EL students. Basically, there are two types of books one may include under the header *reader*.

The first type of readers involves *anthologies* of sample works (usually by classic authors) which may serve as mere readers, but sometimes also supply an outline of literary development and historical context of a certain language community. The texts presented in anthologies are not simplified.

On the contrary, *graded readers* are short books of fiction and non-fiction which are controlled – graded with respect to the information, structure and vocabulary (Hedge, 1990, p. 1). At lower levels, the books are usually purpose-written original titles. At higher levels, they are usually abridged and adapted from existing books and written using only the grammatical structures and vocabulary items appropriate to that level of study (Bamford, 1984, p. 218). This enables students to read without encountering a large quantity of unknown words and such experience positively encourages reading more.

Graded readers contain few, if any, questions and exercises, in the section *points for understanding*, and there is usually a *glossary* of more problematic words. These illustrated mini-books try to look as little like textbooks as possible and attempt in both content and design to simulate the type of paperback that students might read for pleasure in their own language. Although they can be and are used in the classroom, graded readers should preferably be used outside the formal language lesson (Bamford, 1984, p. 219).

Classroom work requires that either every student buy the reader or that the teacher has sets of graded readers available for all students. Free-time graded readers may be displayed in a little library to be borrowed by students who may freely choose books to suit their own level and interests. Students read the books at their own pace at home and then, ideally, complete some sort of follow-up activity at school. If and how the readers are used, however, depends on a particular situation at school or the type of

reading programme. The instances that play a key role in determining whether teachers and students work with graded readers are various and will be discussed in the pragmatic part of the thesis.

2.3.7. The topics and types of SRM

The topics and types of SR texts are worth considering too. Should teachers expose students to novels and short stories or should they read factual encyclopaedia-type texts? Should they read timetables and menus or shall teachers offer them letters, magazines and newspaper articles? Or, should teachers recommend that students browse on the internet – the most authentic source of texts in English (Harmer, 1998, p. 68)? A lot will depend on who the students are and, as already mentioned, on their level of English proficiency.

Mothejzíková recommends that elementary-level students start on narratives and dialogues, but intermediate and advanced-level students should be exposed to diverse types of writings (e.g. descriptions and directions, explanations and analyses, arguments and persuasions, summaries, and non-fictional narration such as news reporting, history, and biographies) (Mothejzíková, 1988, p. 168). If more students were interested in, for example, biology, the teacher might bring them some more scientific or specialized texts.

Most often, however, it is the case that students form a mixed group with differing interests and ideas about their future careers. Therefore, the range of SRM the teacher may bring should vary. Among the things the teacher might want the students to read are magazine articles, letters, stories, menus, advertisements, reports, play extracts, recipes, instructions, poems, humorous pieces, reference manuals and, last but not least, graded readers.

The medium may also vary. Reading in the 21st century is no longer confined to reading print materials. Electronic versions of many SRM have been made available on the internet. Some of the advantages of using electronic or digital materials include their relative accessibility and flexibility in terms of time and space. Electronic materials also allow the inclusion of multimedia elements like sound and video clips, which cannot be presented in printed books (Bodomo, Lam & Lee, 2003, p. 34).

In sum, there are countless alternatives, but the most efficient way to find out more about student's preferences and thus bolster their motivation is to carry out a survey asking them about the type of SRM (respectively the medium), the topics they find attractive and the activities they would like to practise.

All the factors mentioned above are mutually dependent. The teacher should try to determine their optimal combination also with respect to the reading-related skills he or she wants to teach to the students (i.e. reading focused on developing language skills, reading skills, literary interpretative skills, critical thinking skills or other instructional goals in keeping with the humanistic tradition). These will be discussed below with regard to their different approaches to the text, to the process of reading, the role of the teacher and the skills they aim to teach.

2.4. Teaching reading for the development of language skills

Although it seems that many reading handbooks neglect teaching reading primarily for language improvement pointing out to its non-authentic aims, we should not be discouraged from investigating this domain further. It represents one of the most effective ways of learning basic grammatical structures and vocabulary in their proper context and of acquainting oneself with the target culture.

If not worldwide, the contemporary situation concerning SR at Czech grammar schools seems to be limited particularly to this use of texts for teaching the language (the findings from a survey aimed at mapping the current situation concerning SR will be discussed in the practical part of this thesis). Indeed, from our own experience, the reading practices and activities with SRM used at grammar schools in this country often focus on improving language skills (that is on using SRM very similarly to how they use articles and activities in textbooks), rather than on developing in readers intellectual skills that would enable them adequate understanding of multiple kinds of texts in a FL.

It is true that reading widely represents an effective means of extending one's command of a FL. However, an important remark pointed out by Nuttall (1982, p. 31) states that in a proper reading lesson, the teacher is not setting out to teach language; alternatively, if the teacher is setting out to teach language, he or she is not giving a reading lesson. We should therefore bear in mind that the suggestions covered in these paragraphs correspond to the language-based teaching of reading and we do not lay

claim to call any lesson aimed at practising language-related skills a proper reading lesson (even though in Czech conditions of EL teaching it is usually done so).

2.4.1. The text

It has already been stated that for many people who strive to master the EL, "the language is merely the means of achieving a non-linguistic purpose" (Nuttall, 1982, p. 19), e.g. to find a job abroad, or to be able to communicate with English friends, etc. Language-based reading in a FL is not an authentic use of text and theoreticians used to recommend limiting it to activities and articles in textbooks (Nuttall, 1982, p. 19) which are properly chosen to complement the grammar which accompanies them. However, many language textbooks used to emphasize the product (e.g. finding the answers to reading comprehension questions) over the process (i.e. using reading skills and strategies to understand the text). They also provided little or no contextual information about the reading selections or their authors, and few if any pre-reading activities. Some newer textbooks should provide pre-reading activities and reading strategy guidance (another survey would have to be conducted to find out whether or not this claim is true), but their one-size-fits-all approach, which Silberstein (1994, p. 11) calls "monotonous parallelism", may or may not be appropriate for all students ("Teaching Reading", n.d., paragraph 5).

Some experts, especially from the communicative era of FLT, would argue that it is counter-productive to make students "spend time on texts intended to improve [their] command of the language" (Nuttall, 1982, p. 19). However, this statement definitely should not be taken for granted because there are many kinds of texts, simplified or not, that meet the needs of both language improvement and intellectual satisfaction. The teacher only has to make an effort to get hold of them which is not always an easy task.

2.4.2. The process of reading and the role of the teacher

In a language development lesson based on using SR, the process of reading is always stimulated by the teacher. The teacher's aim is to make students follow the tasks on the text he or she gives them which should result in their improvement in an area of a certain language skill. Therefore, as Nuttall (1988, p. 21) calls it, the teacher is trying to put something into the students' heads instead of trying to get them to make it

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themselves. From this viewpoint, the role of the teacher is that of an instigator or a facilitator of learning; he or she represents an indispensable element in the reading process, without which improvement would be limited.

Primarily, language-based teaching of reading is focused on the language rather than on the content, quality or the message of the text. From this perspective, the aim is not to stimulate any more intellectual interaction of the text and the reader.

However, since it is the teacher who is responsible for the choice of the text and the follow-up activities, he or she may choose meaningful and interesting texts already at the elementary level and make the students look at them from a broader perspective, i.e. make sure that students not only understand the message but also make them aware of or at least hint at how the syntactic and functional features of the text convey the message. Indeed, some recent trends tend to synthesize the language-based approach to reading with more cognitive and academic development (Snow, Met & Genesee, 1989, p. 202).

2.4.3. The language skills to improve

It is possible that teaching reading for language development may prove useful at any stage of English proficiency (given that the text is carefully chosen so that it has something to offer to the readers), but that teaching primarily language skills is more suitable for students up to the Threshold level (B1). Beyond this level, the aims of reading should focus on teaching other more intellectual reading-related skills, e.g. proper reading skills, literary interpretative skills or critical thinking skills. Some say that these higher-level reading-related skills should be integrated into the teaching process from the very beginning, but the reality shows that this requirement is exaggerated considering the teaching factors.

Using SRM from the elementary up to B1 level is often practised with the purpose of improving one or more of the language skills (listening, speaking, reading or writing) or language forms (grammar, spelling, vocabulary or pronunciation). Some of the common techniques designed to develop the language skills, among other things, involve listening to find out the right answers to selected questions about the text or filling-in spaces using a tape or a CD-ROM, summarizing orally the content of a paragraph, reading a passage and trying to answer some reading-related questions, or

writing a composition about the text. As for practising the language forms, students may be asked, for example, to underline or explain a certain grammatical pattern, to spell a line of the text, to give the meaning of a tricky word or to underline unknown vocabulary (which may involve learning it afterwards) and to read a passage aloud in the course of which the teacher corrects their pronunciation.

No doubt, the more practice students get in all the language areas and the more experienced they become with various activities related to language, the better they master the language skills and forms. However, the position of the teacher is still too strong and the students' tasks too passive and one-sidedly focused.

Reading for linguistic purposes does not teach readers to approach texts in their wholeness and to adequately understand their message – which are, no doubt, skills of great importance when reading English (not only for authentic purposes). "While the need to actively involve learners in their own learning process seems to be well established, it is suggested that learners be encouraged to establish their own aims, to find the means of achieving these aims and to assess their own performance" (*Learning Modern Languages at School in the EU*, p. 66). The following passage will focus on these issues.

2.5. Teaching reading for the development of reading skills

Any communicative handbook on teaching reading is designed to teach reading in order to develop universal reading skills that would be used when reading for authentic purposes which are in the centre of the author's attention. The aim of teaching reading for developing reading skills is to form fluent, independent readers who set their own goals and strategies for reading and who are aware of the aspects of the reading process, as Silberstein puts it (1994, p. 12).

Heidi Byrnes (1998, p. 5) observed the usual situation at secondary schools. She learned that reading ability becomes a concern only at the advanced levels of ELT. "Although readings are incorporated in lower-level language classes, reading is not really a concern for teachers and learners until the so-called content courses at the upper levels. At that point second language curricula dramatically elevate the importance of reading making it *the* skill advanced learners must have acquired, to a particularly high level and largely on their own."

In the context of Czech grammar schools, the approach to reading for the development of reading skills is not applied, at least not systematically, and teaching reading skills is not a defined part of the Czech curriculum at the level of secondary education. Relating Byrnes' observation to our country, the situation here is even worse: teaching reading with the intention of developing reading skills is mostly the concern of tertiary education – more precisely specialized literary courses and seminars at universities – and it is extremely rare to come across such advanced reading-related activities at secondary schools (and if it is the case, then most probably only in the last year). We may be lucky and find teachers who use techniques that are relevant for teaching reading skills, but, as already explained, neither proper intention nor systematic approach is usually present. On the contrary, one does not have to go far to find teachers practising with students reading round the class (a procedure relatively profitless in terms of students' motivation and participation). It will be the matter of more thorough investigation in the practical part of this thesis to determine why this is so.

2.5.1. The text

In order to be able to teach reading skills, it is necessary that students have certain knowledge of the EL, at least of the Waystage level (A2), but preferably the Threshold level (B1).[4] The teacher may gradually use more complicated texts so as to provide enough practice in the process of acquiring and applying the reading skills. The purpose of the text should be, first and foremost, to convey a message (Nuttall, p. 21) and we may stress that neither teaching the language nor improving students' knowledge of the content is the primary aim, although it may happen that the students spontaneously absorb some vocabulary or pieces of information as they read. The principles of selecting a suitable text were already discussed in the passage on "Teaching as decision making" and may also be applied also. However, we may add one more aspect to it.

SRM have the potential to provide a much greater variety of literary forms, styles and themes than a textbook can ever offer, but only on condition that when choosing them, the teacher also pays attention to the "background knowledge of the intended

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[4] See the Appendix (Part II) for the characterization of the common reference levels in relation to overall reading comprehension.

readers – their first language reading ability" (Byrnes, 1998, p. 7) which consists of three components. Text topic knowledge helps to an easier understanding of the text and the richer it is, the less FL formal knowledge the reader needs to draw on. In addition, the more interesting the topic is, the more motivated the student is to read. Knowledge of various text types helps the reader build expectations on the basis of matching the meaning and form and the reader's understanding of the text's organization is easier. Knowledge of the target language culture can compensate for limited formal knowledge; it leads to the consideration of motivations, implications, inferences and the significance of actions and events (Byrnes, 1998, pp. 7-8).

2.5.2. The process of reading and the role of the teacher

In order to make the best of a text, the writer and the reader should share some common ground, certain "presuppositions about the world" (Nuttall, 1982, p. 7). When this condition is satisfied, readers may further make use of their background knowledge, vocabulary, grammatical knowledge, experience with texts and other strategies (such as prediction, guessing, inferring meaning from context, etc.) to help them get the meaning out of the written text. Obviously, this process involves *active* participation on the part of the readers and this participation requires smaller or greater amount of effort. However, the author also writes the text with a particular group of readers in mind and should adequately adjust the text's structure, vocabulary and stylistics to their intellectual abilities. Therefore, Nuttall (1982, p. 10) refers to the process of reading as an *interactive* one.

Furthermore, it is obvious that complete understanding of what the author had in mind when he or she wrote the text is impossible, but as Nuttall (1982, p. 9) says, "the fact that we cannot get inside the writer's mind is no excuse for not doing our best to understand what he [or she] wants to say." For this reason, students should approach reading of a text as a "problem-solving activity" (Mothejzíková, 1988, p. 171).

The role of the teacher is to trigger students' interest in the text by making them follow pre-reading activities, by monitoring a student's understanding in the course of their reading and by providing time for some post-reading activities. The teacher should not provide help to students in terms of telling them how to understand the text; on the contrary, he or she should make them understand how the text works and generates

their understanding. "Reading comprehension lessons have traditionally centred on a passage of text followed by questions. But the questions were usually designed to *find out* whether the student had understood, rather than to *produce* understanding. In other words, they were devices for *testing* rather than teaching" (Nuttall, 1982, p. 125).

According to Nuttall (1982, p. 22), the most important role of the teacher is to provide suitable texts and activities through which he or she would make the students aware of what they are doing and make them interested in doing it better. She stresses the crucial role of raising students' awareness of reading as a skill that requires active engagement, and by explicitly teaching guided reading strategies (telling and showing students what they (should) do before, during and after reading). Having acquired basic reading strategies, EL students can further develop their reading ability on their own, without an instructor, and in their own time – "all they need to do is read!" (Byrnes, 1998, p. 2). This corresponds to the principles of *autonomous learning* (initiated by humanistic tendencies and the pursuit of the democratization of education) (Choděra & Ries, 1999, p. 37). Silberstein (1994, p. 10) shows the irony: here, contrary to reading for language learning, "the goal of teachers is to make themselves dispensable."

2.5.3. The reading skills to improve

There are two basic types of reading for the development of different but complementary reading skills. These are intensive and extensive reading and their teaching needs to be combined in order to provide the students with maximal input. Moreover, as there is no absolute divide between these two types of reading, the same text can usefully be employed for training in both, key passages from it being used for intensive study and in turn, illuminating the book as a whole (Nuttall, 1982, p. 24).

2.5.3.1. Intensive reading

Nuttall (1982, p. 21) specifies the aims of teaching *intensive reading* (sometimes labelled reading for accuracy) in the following way: "We want our students to learn how language is used for conveying content, to develop the skills needed to extract the content from the language that expresses it." From this perspective, it is obvious that even this approach to teaching reading has something to do with language. However, teaching reading to develop language skills aims at learning the language, while

teaching reading to develop reading skills perceives language as the means to get to the message through focusing on the linguistic (syntactical and lexical) features of the text.

Intensive reading usually focuses on short texts (i.e. texts of not more than 500) words in length, although even long texts may sometimes be used. The aim is a deep and thorough understanding of the logical argument, the rhetorical arrangement of pattern of the text, of its symbolic, emotional and social overtones, of the attitudes and purposes of the author, and of the linguistic means that he or she employs to achieve their ends (Broughton et al., 1993, p. 93). Therefore, the skills that are most important to develop are the recognition skills and, less so, the skills for the production of language features (Mothejzíková, 1988, p. 170).

The efficient reader needs to be able to understand the patterns of relationships between words, both grammatical and semantic. One of the activities focused on recognizing the structural clues in a text is word study. Contrary to the study of vocabulary (where the aim is usually only to learn lexical equivalents of the mother tongue) word study concentrates on understanding what kinds of words constitute a text, how these words are formed and what parts of speech or sentence elements they are. Learning this might enable students to guess unknown vocabulary items and also improve their writing skills.

2.5.3.2. Extensive reading

Ellis & McRae (1991, p. 5) describe the aim of *extensive reading* (sometimes labelled as reading for fluency) as "encouraging learners to read a range of materials, read them quickly and well, for pleasure and for language development." The longer-term objective is to become superficially familiar with a large body of reading material and acquire the ability to read efficiently, while a relatively low degree of understanding is adequate (the students are advised to use the dictionary only to look up such words that are central to their understanding of the meaning).

Mothejzíková (1988, p. 182) points out that extensive reading plays a big part in building an adequate vocabulary and Broughton et al. (1993, p. 110) add that extensive reading is also one of the means by which a foreigner may be exposed to a substantial sample of the foreign language he or she may wish to learn without actually having to live abroad. "If he reads, and what he reads is of some interest to him, then the language

of what he has read rings in his head, the patterns of collocation and idiom are established almost painlessly (...)" (Broughton et al. (1993, p. 110).

From the viewpoint of reading skills useful when handling long texts, students need to be able to do a number of things with a reading text and they may practise these by following the extensive reading activities. They need to be able to *survey* the material which is to be studied, to *scan* a body of text for a particular bit of information, to get a general idea of what the text is about without concentrating on specifics by *skimming* it. Nuttall (1982, p. 23) stresses the importance of yet another technique which is the ability to discern relationships between various parts of a longer text, the contribution made by each to the plot of argument, the accumulating evidence of the writer's point of view, assessing critically the content, etc., but she admits that these useful matters seldom get much attention except in literature classes.

Nevertheless, Michael Rost (2005, pp. 2-3) rightly points out that students need more language instruction than teachers can provide in classrooms. Therefore, a major part of a teacher's job is to help students find opportunities for engaging learning tasks outside the classroom. Extensive reading is primarily focused on reading outside classroom and on the development of the *habit* of reading in the students. The first instance that may influence the results of this process according to Ellis & McRae (1991, p. 5) involves the teacher's enthusiasm, his or her ability to motivate the students and the regular monitoring of the process. Rost (2005, p. 3) adds that spending classroom time to help students select, share, and evaluate their out-of-class work with English is just as important as covering a lesson in the textbook. Other instances i nclude the teaching factors, such as class time, the availability of books and SRM and the place of such activities in the curriculum.

As for the availability of SRM which ensure a reader-friendly climate, there are three ways of encouraging extensive reading (the materials may of course be used for other mentioned types of teaching reading as well). The first way is by having class sets of titles (which may be costly and difficult to organize), second by operating a class library system (a great idea for implementing an extensive reading program), and third by using the school library (if it is available and if it contains graded books in English and not only in MT). The findings from our survey will discuss this question from the

point of view of real-life experience and hint at the advantages and disadvantages in relation to the teaching factors.

We may conclude this passage by Broughton's (1993, p. 110) optimistic belief:

> "Given properly graded readers whose language and subject matter suit the capabilities and interests of the students using them, there is no reason why extensive reading should not form a part of regular ELT from the most elementary stages."

2.6.   Teaching reading and literature

In their mother tongue, people read literature, i.e. the literary works of classic authors (or other imaginative piece of writing), for aesthetic pleasure or for the acquisition of general knowledge. "A focus on texts, particularly literary texts, is in the best tradition of what Western societies consider to be definitional for the educated person" (Byrnes, 1998, p. 3). Reading literature contributes to students' intellectual, social and moral development. It also helps the readers develop language skills, communicative and creative competence and raise their awareness of the foreign culture in contrast to their homeland. From this perspective, it may also stimulate the readers' imagination, critical thinking and emotional engagement (Kostelníková, 1998/9, pp. 121-122).

However, the degree to which foreign literature (in the original or adapted form) is accessible to grammar school students of English depends on several factors. These include students' proficiency in English, the curricula requirements and the teaching factors, especially the attitude of their EL teacher (and in consequence also of the students themselves) to reading in general and to reading literature.

2.6.1. The text

Literature which is going to be suitable for students, especially in the early stages of a language course, will have to be very carefully chosen. Jennifer Hill (1986, p. 13) doubts that many classics of literature in the original are accessible to students before tertiary level at universities. However, a literary text, in its ambiguity and redundancy, has a lot more to offer to students in an English class than a factual or artificial text (Choděra et al., 2000, p. 24).

From William Littlewood's (1987, pp. 178-180) perspective, we may have a look at literature from five perspectives, all of which should be achieved by the students step by step under the guidance of their teacher. These steps also provide criteria for the selection of suitable texts for specific classes and objectives. Littlewood also points out that graded readers of classic authors are definitely appropriate for the first two levels proposed by him and that, in order to be able to profit from the fourth level, a particular degree of English proficiency (at least of the Threshold level (B1) which represents the transition from learning the language to the ability to use it to express opinions and discuss abstract ideas) should be reached.

First, at the simplest level, literature is not qualitatively different from any other linguistic performance and thus (bearing in mind its potentially complicated linguistic features) could be used to practice the language skills discussed in the passage on "Teaching reading for language development". The second layer of differing language varieties may become relevant when students become sensitive to different registers and literary styles. The next level includes the level of subject matter, such as the episodes, situations, characters, the plot, etc. Students reach the fourth level when they begin to uncover the author's vision – which might generate discussions or essay writing. The fifth perspective turns up when we locate the work in time and place.

2.6.2. The skills to practise

Generally, one may come across three approaches to teaching reading and literature: teaching language through reading literature, teaching literary interpretative skills and teaching literature (in the sense of teaching about classic authors and their works throughout history). We may add however, that, with certain exceptions of the last or the two last years before the secondary school leaving examination, teaching literary interpretative skills does not principally occur at Czech schools until studying literature at university – and even there students are usually required to have already mastered the skills and be able to apply them without much input on the side of the teachers.

The first approach – teaching language through reading literature – concerns similar premises as the passage on "Teaching reading for language development" and thus will not be mentioned here in much detail. It, however, needs to be stressed that

even here we may find the trends attempting to establish the integrated approach to reading literature for language development as the pre-stage of the stylistic and interpretative skills (Kostelníková, 1998/9, p. 122).

2.6.2.1. Teaching literary interpretative skills

Neil Gilroy-Scott (1983 as cited in Hill, 1986, p. 13) asserts,

"There is an immediate need for guidance over the question of how to introduce students to the primary texts of literature (...) and how to teach them strategies and study habits to enable them to cope with the heavy reading requirements in most tertiary level courses."

The approach of teaching literary interpretative skills may, in a way, build upon the reading skills mentioned in the passage on "The reading skills to improve". In fact, the kind of awareness of the intricate relationship between language form and meaning provides an important basis for developing literary sensitivities (Byrnes, 1998, p. 24). At this stage, the teacher should decide whether to direct the student's attention to the content (basically what the play, novel or poem is all about), or to the form (how it is written rather than what is written). "Even though form and content are inextricably linked, one dependent on the other, in practice it is possible to stress one particular aspect" (Hill, 1986, p. 45).

Not only can the reader make use of the intensive and extensive reading skills, but, when approaching literature, the reader also needs to be able to identify the genre, the topics, themes, motifs, its multiple layers, as well as the temporal location of the work and some information about the author. All of this is part of comprehending a literary text through the use of literary interpretative skills. Markéta Hezinová (2003, p. 90) emphasized that ideally, the process should be interactive and student-centered and it should include interesting pre-reading activities, interpretation and synthesis of what was said. If possible and in order not to deter students from adopting the courage to practise independent interpretation, the teacher should welcome various interpretations of the literary work or a passage of text. In addition, discussions about literary texts should centre on personally experiencing and discovering the universal dimensions embodied in the texts. This might lead the readers to recognize and adopt

higher values, human solidarity and to recognize oneself as a part of a broader social and spiritual context (Choděra et al., 2000, p. 24).

2.6.2.2. Teaching literature

There is one important comment made by Littlewood (1987, p. 180) about teaching literature on the fifth level (i.e. locating the work in time and place) – that it "might involve superficial chronological facts, which are often over-emphasized because of their simplicity and their reassuring 'hardness'". In other words, such teaching of literature (which has nothing to do with reading) might turn into the memorization of facts about authors, literary history or intellectual movements – which in themselves provide little illumination of the literary work in question.

Hezinová (2003, p. 90) pointed out that the teaching of literature written in the EL at Czech grammar schools often has this form of supplying the outline of British and American literature (in the form of loading the students with facts and figures about authors, their works and the literary and historical periods they belong to) or establishing textual comprehension and the acquisition of vocabulary. These practices are carried out in order to enable students to succeed in the secondary school leaving examination at the expense of actually teaching how to approach a literary text (not even mentioning the difficult position of the teachers who, even if they wanted to teach literature differently, would hardly obtain the space and conditions to accomplish it).

Such excessive focus on detailed information and the requirement to learn the facts by heart for the secondary school leaving examination have a deterrent effect on students motivation to read virtually any literary text (not even mention that they probably would not know how to approach a literary classic (in authentic or adapted EL) having not been taught any facilitative and effective literary reading skills.

However, there are many reasons for the incorporation of literature into the syllabus. If appropriately approached, it can, among other things, sharpen students' perception of reality and help them become critical readers who not only accept the reality around them, but are able and willing to question it.

2.7. Teaching reading for the development of critical thinking skills

The use of (literary) texts may not only be practical for developing reading or literary interpretative skills, but also for encouraging students to become more critical. The goal of having students become competent thinkers has long been an educational ideal. For many years in the past though, acquiring bodies of facts and associations was considered the core of education, and problem solving and other activities recognizable as thinking took place at the top of these hierarchies not to be reached by many students at all. "Thinking and problem solving were isolated from the main, "basic" or "fundamental," activities of learning" (Resnick & Klopfer, 1989, p. 2). The cognitive theories in the late 1980s offered a perspective on learning that was thinking- and meaning-centered, while insisting on a central place for knowledge and instruction. Such approach started to be called the *Thinking Curriculum* (Resnick & Klopfer, 1989, p. 3).

Even today, thoughtful educators everywhere are calling attention to the importance of developing students' critical thinking skills through their experiences in school. Basically, *critical thinking* relates to "one's conscious effort in deciding what to do or to believe by focusing one's thought on it" (Ennis & Norris, 1989, as cited in Daud & Husin, 2004, p. 478). Thinking should pervade the entire school curriculum, for all students, from the earliest grades. Indeed, it has become obvious that knowledge is acquired not from information communicated and memorized, but from information that students elaborate, question and use. The aim is to have students "think effectively and act rationally" (Ruggerio, 1988, as cited in Daud & Husin, 2004, p. 478). However, recent research suggests that critical thinking is not typically an intrinsic part of instruction at any level. "Students come without training in it, while faculty tend to take it for granted as an automatic by-product of their teaching" (Paul et al., 1995, as cited in Bataineh & Zghoul, 2006, p. 1).

There is a worldwide critical thinking project that seems to have a common ground with the previously mentioned approaches to teaching reading (reading for the development of reading skills and literary interpretative skills) in terms of encouraging students' activity and independence and reflecting upon the process of reading and cognition. It is now the aim of this thesis to examine this project and see what additional skills it could offer for students to develop through reading and school interaction.

2.7.1. The RWCT project

Reading and Writing for Critical Thinking (RWCT), a long-term, multinational school-restructuring project starting in 1997, seems to offer teachers and students practical methods, techniques and strategies of integrating critical thinking skills in the school curriculum. It deals with the following areas which should be implemented into all school subjects: the development of individual thinking, reading, writing, debating; provoking lifelong learning and creative approach, the ability to cooperate and respect the opinions of others, permanent self-reflection of the learning process, considering students´ needs and interests, the change of the teacher´s role, etc. (Steele, 2001, p. 2).

Many of the discussed critical thinking methods, techniques and strategies might be applied to reading various kinds of texts and multiple activities connected with it with the aim of developing critical thinking (and potentially also reading) skills. The text selection is not limited by any other variables than those discussed already in the section on "Teaching as decision making".

2.7.2. The process and the role of the teacher

The RWCT model is a three-phase framework for teaching (Steele, 2001, p. 7) sometimes abbreviated as ERR. The first phase, *Evocation*, is intended to help students evoke prior knowledge, sentiment, or impressions; create a context for new learning and provide stimulus for future exploration. In other words, the role of the teacher involves implementing pre-task activities that should positively motivate the students to find the readiness to learn. The second, *Realization of meaning* phase, exposes students to new information or ideas, to new content. This is realized through various texts, listening activities, film watching, discussions etc. The teacher´s role centres on engaging students in the process and turning their attention to the development of their own perception of the new subject matter. In the last phase of *Reflection*, students re-asses their previous background knowledge about the topic in the light of the new information and insight. The teacher encourages the students to express the new information in their own words, to discuss their opinions with others and realize how the new knowledge and understanding changed their thinking.

It becomes obvious that this interesting innovative approach usefully integrates three important aims that should be achieved all at the same time – teaching content,

teaching (critical) thinking and developing motivation for their use. Steele (2001, p. 9) stresses that this ERR model represents an inclusive model under which teachers can incorporate those strategies that they already employ in their teaching.

Teaching reading for the development of critical thinking skills of course does not have to concentrate on teaching the content, but it may use the content that students read (ideally employing the reading skills at the same time) to spur, for example, an interesting discussion over a piece of SRM or a debate. When inspired to hone their critical thinking through reading, students may also learn to become aware of the subjectivity of their own opinions, to face diverging ideas, value different attitudes and interpretations, discover cultural diversities and understand the necessity to respect them. In sum, they will gain necessary skills for living and hopefully learn mutual cooperation and tolerance.

2.8. Teaching reading for cultural knowledge and awareness

Reading is practised as a way of supporting wide range of goals, one of which is enhancing cultural knowledge and awareness. In the past, it was the knowledge of the so-called *big-C culture* (Chavez, 2002, p. 129) which Byrnes (1998, p. 23) characterizes as "achievement culture" – great names of literature, arts and music that EL students should know. According to Byrnes (1998, p. 4), big-C culture involved understanding the other culture primarily through literary texts, which can be seen as the best written embodiment of it. This fact was already hinted at in the passage on "Teaching reading and literature".

More recently, the understanding of culture has been expanded to include the so-called *little-c* (or *small-c*) *culture* (Chavez, 2002, p. 129) – the culture of everyday life (social customs, relations, institutions, free time, etc). As a result, the relationship of language and culture and the extent to which oral and written language build on and express these cultural assumptions, are gradually being considered in the foreign language classroom. Byrnes (1998, p. 23) points out that FL students may learn quite a lot about the target culture from studying authentic materials and focusing on "how something is being said or not said in a FL rather than what is being said or not said."

At present, with the boom of information and communications technologies (ICT) and the opportunities to travel, there are other means than only reading that

convey knowledge about different cultures. Still, reading everyday materials (printed or electronic) t hat are designed for native speakers can give students insight into the lifestyles and worldviews of the people whose language they are studying. "When students have access to newspapers, magazines, and websites, they are exposed to culture in all its variety and monolithic cultural stereotypes begin to break down" ("Teaching Reading", n.d., paragraph 7).

Apart from the contributions of teaching reading for cultural knowledge and awareness for personal development, there is something more that can be added. It can be referred to in terms of recommended objectives for FLT set by CEFR. For one of its general measures points out the importance of achieving "a wider and deeper understanding of the way of life and forms of thought of other peoples and of their cultural heritage" (CEFR, 2001, p. 3). Indeed, reading in a FL may play an important role in this process. The *Framework* also specifies the so-called general competences among which it includes learning to sensitively and empathically perceive and respect other cultures – and this represents the real content of the contemporary terms "pluriculturalism" and "multiculturalism" (Mothejzíková, 2005/6, p. 133) which have become so fashionable today and which also reading can help put into practice.

2.9. Teaching reading for the education of the whole person

The aim of CEFR is "To promote mutual understanding and tolerance, respect for identities and cultural diversity through more effective international communication" (CEFR, 2001, p. 3) which is the issue already touched upon above.

Another instructional concern or goal which can also be achieved through the promotion of reading in the EL is the overall orientation towards the humanization of education. Mothejzíková (2005/6, p. 131) emphasizes the importance of human objectives of FLT and understanding it, first of all, as a means of education towards profound humanity. Choděra & Ries (1999, p. 113) speak about humanity as the process when a student undergoes the transformation from a reproductive mechanism of perception and thinking to a human being who thinks, learns, feels, evaluates, senses, anticipates and performs. The ability to read effectively and critically and to understand the other, whose importance was mentioned in the previous passages, is closely interconnected with encouraging the human side in students to come to light.

According to Broughton et al. (1993, pp. 9-10), "The major areas of the school curriculum are the instruments by which the individual grows into a more secure, more contributory, more total member of society." Again, the role of the teacher as a model who influences the personal development of the students is evident.

The Council of Europe also calls for the promotion of humanization of FLT and the education of the whole person which comprises both the formal acquisition of knowledge and the cultivation of students' personalities. CEFR (2001, p. 4) also argues in favour of promoting "methods of modern language teaching which will strengthen independence of thought, judgement and action, combined with social skills and responsibility." This leaves a lot of space for the promotion of reading at s chools. However, national education curricula together with the tradition of language teaching also determine the overall orientation of FLT and now it seems that they might start playing an important role in promoting the integration of personal and social education into the curricula.

2.9.1. Personal and social education

In order to be able to approach other people in a good-quality interaction and be able to cooperate on an everyday basis, it is important to get to know oneself. Here we might see yet another instructive aim of teaching reading – the enlargement of students' mental potential in terms of personal, social and spiritual development of their personalities (Choděra & Ries, 1999, p. 114). To a certain extent, these issues were already discussed when speaking about the contribution of literature and cultural awareness to the cultivation of students' personalities through reading in the EL. Let us have a look at the social dimension now – more specifically at cooperation and tolerance.

There seems to be a shift in education in general towards emphasizing students' personal and social development and making it an integral part of school educational curricula. It is also in accord with the approach towards education promoted by Humanistic psychology of Carl R. Rogers (1902 – 1987) (Choděra & Ries, 1999, p. 116). Rogers called for replacing one-sided cognitive learning with learning by doing and experiencing (which is also connected with the so-called experiential education).

Teaching reading based on Personal and social education (PSE, a practical discipline originating from the British national curriculum) may centre on such activities

that would enable students to get to know themselves in interaction with others, establish relationships, seek mutual understanding and resolve conflicts in consensus. In cooperation and communication, they learn to listen to other people, respect them and value their opinions. We may thus claim that personal and social development programs represent a sort of training in general competences (mentioned earlier in relation to CEFR) or, more specifically, social competences that students will make use of in their everyday interaction, as well as with people form different cultures.

The objectives of a Personal and social development program lie in two domains. The domain of *personal competences* helps students elaborate their self-knowledge, self-evaluation and self-regulation; they learn to choose from alternatives and bear the responsibility. The second domain – the domain of *social competences* – focuses on interaction, manners and the ways of doing which students employ when treating other people (Valenta, n.d., "Overview of the basic topics" section). Activities that might help practise the development of personal and social skills on the basis of SR include, among other things, cooperation on a common project, conflict-solving, debating and role-playing.

Additionaly, the implementation of drama in education, which is becoming popular these days, makes use of the domains of personal and social development. It brings into the process of education dynamism and both physical and mental relaxation (Choděra & Ries, 1999, p. 119). As John Dougill (1987, p. 3) puts it, "The value of drama as an educational tool consists in fostering the social, intellectual and linguistic development of the child."

Activities such as those mentioned should be exercised with SR, at least from time to time, in order to break the routine of the lesson and make students develop also other areas of their skills than only those concentrating on language. As it was already pointed out, successful implementation of these interactive teaching techniques (or we may even say any techniques with SR) depends on the teaching factors (the practical aspect of this issue will be discussed more thoroughly in the practical part of the thesis).

However, the psychological aspect of students' personalities, the power of motivation, their interests and their relationship with the teacher, among other factors, play an equally important role in the process of education. Any teacher should be aware

of these influencing factors and thus, their further exploration will be of interest to us in the following passages.

3.   The psychological profile of the students in focus

It now seems the right time to look more closely at the target group of students this thesis focuses on. The students of secondary schools represent a specific group. Studying and understanding them closer is crucial in order to adjust the SR materials and techniques and take measures that would possibly improve the current situation. The disciplines that provide the ground for the following further exploration are, especially, psychology (developmental psychology) and sociology.

3.1.   The viewpoint of developmental psychology

The target group of students central to this paper ranges from 15- to 19-year-olds and comprises both males and females. Professional literature is not in accord as to what appellations to use for this stage of life. Some psychological literature such as Lerner, Easterbrooks & Mistry's *Developmental psychology* (2003, p. 320) call the whole transitory period from childhood to adulthood *puberty*; Erik Erikson (1902 – 1994) in his theory of psychosocial development calls it *adolescence* (Thornburg, 1983, p. 79). Marie Vágnerová (2000, p. 15), on the contrary, distinguishes two stages of the journey from youth to maturity and calls them *pubescence* and *adolescence*. Since the term pubescence is not widely used in psychological literature written in the EL for what we would need to use it in this thesis and we still want to distinguish between the two stages of maturing, we will use the terms *early* and *late adolescence* to refer to the life stages and *young adolescents* and simply *adolescents* to refer to their representatives.

A human individual is formed by a bio-psycho-social unity. According to Marie Vágnerová (2000, p. 15), mental development can be characterized by changes occurring in bio-social, cognitive and psycho-social spheres. The bio-social development includes the aspects of physical changes, it deals with factors that determine and influence it. The cognitive development involves all the processes related to cognition, i.e. the competences which we use to think, decide, learn, etc. Psycho-social development captures the changes in experiencing, in personality features and interpersonal relations (note the significant influence of external factors).

3.1.1. Young adolescence

Let us now have a brief look at the first phase of maturing – young adolescence. According to Vágnerová (2000, p. 209), this period dates from 11 to approximately 15 years of age and can be characterized by a complex transformation of all constituents of one's personality. The bio-social factors involve changes of one's body and its perception; physical attractiveness is considered important and influences a young adolescent's perception and self-image.

From the viewpoint of cognitive development, it can be said that the most remarkable changes occur in thinking – abstract thinking becomes natural and young adolescents are capable of thinking in hypothetical categories. Once they have acquired this way of thinking, they begin to see their contemplations as exceptional, they often involve in never ending debates in which they can prove their ability to argue brightly. Otokar Chlup & Jaromír Kopecký (1965, pp. 92-93) add that the differentiation and deepening of students' interests, among other things, may lead to their disregard of systematic acquisition of knowledge and sometimes even to their negative attitude towards school.

Considering the psycho-social determinants, young adolescents, on the one hand, become less dependent on their parents and strive to differ from them as much as possible. On the other hand, they get more dependent on their peers – social conformity and identity play an important role in their self-conception and determination. Chlup & Kopecký (1965, p. 93) point at the inconsistency in young adolescents' experiencing. They go through the period of emotional instability, excitability and hypercriticism; they experience insecurity, embarrassment, shyness, the fear of clumsiness, etc. especially in the presence of the other sex. Young adolescents also experience first loves. They try to establish their identity, which is connected with the ending elementary education and the necessity to think of their future. An important fact is that in this stage of life, young adolescents no longer adopt the subordinate role and find it hard to get on with their parents. Nor is the teacher still accepted as an implied, formal authority. On the contrary, students acknowledge their teacher only if he or she impresses them. Peers represent the informal authority and young adolescents strive to stick to the unwritten norms of their class (Vágnerová, 2000, pp. 251-2).

3.1.2. Adolescence

The second phase of maturing is adolescence and the majority of the grammar school students this paper focuses on belong to this group of 15- to 20-year-old individuals. It becomes clear that many of the characteristics mentioned in the previous passage intersect with the following because the border line between young adolescence and adolescence is not firmly determined.

From the bio-social point of view, adolescence is the time of sexual maturing, when one's body becomes a part of an adolescent's identity; the role of models and patterns of beauty is not negligible either.

The cognitive characteristics include flexible thinking which may at times be too radical since it is not influenced by experience. Chlup & Kopecký (1965, p. 94) assert that during the time of adolescence, students' interests are usually already shaped and their choice about future career made. However, the author of this thesis feels that there are more and more students who, approaching the end of their secondary education, still have not found out what their future vocation should be. We may only speculate why this is so, but some of the crucial factors might be the lack of students' interests in a particular area in general, the versatility of some students at grammar schools, or not enough practical experience with professional life. Vágnerová (2000, p. 296) claims that the importance of the feeling of worth connected with a certain activity is crucial for adolescents, as if is missing they lack positive motivation and do not make much effort to succeed at school.

The shaping of adolescents' personal identity is accompanied by their attempts to recognize their social roles, i.e. the behaviours, attitudes, values, beliefs, etc. that are considered appropriate for males and females on the basis of their biological sex. However, as Erikson pointed out in his study of eight phases of psycho-social development, adolescents find themselves in the phase of *identity versus confusion of roles* (Drapela, 1997, p. 70). In other words, young people want to be true to themselves and to the ideals about what they want to become (if they know what that is). They want to feel recognized by their surroundings, especially by the *significant others* (i.e. their models, usually important people in their lives who react in a certain way to the adolescents' behaviour) if we use the term that George Herbert Mead (1963 – 1931) coined (Hughes, Kroehler & Zanden, 1999, p. 84).

Carl R. Rogers pointed out that adolescents feel the urge to harmonize the three layers of their self – the *ideal self,* the *real self* and the *mirror self* (how others see them) (Drapela, 1997, p. 130). However, the life objectives which an adolescent may want to achieve usually clash with the necessity to accept limitations (be it the limitations imposed by time, norms, physical capacities, health, one's interests, etc.). This may result in adolescents' moodiness. A teacher should bear in mind the difficult phase of maturing their students find themselves in and try to understand them.

Many adolescents find the oncoming adulthood unattractive since it is connected with the adoption of responsibility and with many "unpleasant" limitations they do not feel ready to undergo. The term that describes this state of mind and its manifestations is called the *psycho-social moratorium* (Vágnerová, 2000, p. 296).

The most important psycho-social determinants involve close relationships with peers with whom adolescents seek understanding and acceptance. The importance of friendship and attempts at intimate partner relationships contribute to establishing the position within a social group. Adolescents should have completed the process of separation from their family and this influences their relationship with their parents and teachers. Adolescents try to establish their identity by proving their personal worth. They look for information in a polemic and do not accept advice. They usually respect only such adults who impress them and take their opinions seriously. If a teacher wants to be respected by students, he or she would have to have this kind of natural authority (Vágnerová, 2000, p. 283).

There are several i mportant findings in the paragraphs above that might be essential when trying to determine what approach a teacher should adopt towards students and what techniques with SR he or she should implement in order to motivate them.

3.2. Motivation

"It is important to think about motivation as the essence of language teaching because of the stark realities of learning English for most of our students. All of the conditions that we know contribute to successful second language acquisition are lacking in most EFL contexts: there just isn't enough English input in the environment, there probably aren't

enough opportunities for interaction with English speakers, there usually aren't enough strong role models promoting the learning of English, and there may not be widespread enough social acceptance for the idea of becoming proficient in English. Because of these adverse conditions, a learner has to have extraordinary motivation in order to succeed at learning English!" (Rost, 2005, p. 1).

The author of these lines, Michael Rost, who has been active in teaching and teacher training for over twenty years, knows what he is talking about. Let us then have a closer look at what motivation is and how it works. The aim of the following paragraphs is to define motivation and its constituents, outline basic motivation theories that may be applied to teaching and learning and point out where it overlaps with the general teaching laws.

Motivation can be defined as one's will to make an effort; it is an internal dynamic process that can be characterized by its direction (positive or negative), intensity (high or low) and persistence (short- or long-term) (Bedrnová & Nový, 1998, 222). The will to make an effort is conditioned by motives, i.e. needs, habits, interests, values and ideals, that is to say by everything one ascribes importance to. In general terms, a student's motivation refers to his or her willingness, need, desire and compulsion to participate and be successful in the learning process. Students who are motivated to engage in school "select tasks at the border of their competencies, initiate action when given the opportunity, and exert intense effort and concentration in the implementation of learning tasks; they show generally positive emotions during ongoing action, including enthusiasm, optimism, curiosity, and interest" (Bomia et al., 1997, p. 1, as cited in Brewster & Fager, 2000, p. 3). Less motivated or disengaged students, on the other hand, "are passive, do not try hard, and give up easily in the face of challenges" (Skinner & Belmont, 1991, p. 4, as cited in Brewster & Fager, 2000, p. 7).

However, the sources of motivation may vary – there are differences between internal (intrinsic) and external (extrinsic) motivation. *Internal motivation* employs direct, intrinsic motives, which means that the task or activity one undergoes represents in itself a value or a source of satisfaction. Intrinsically motivated students actively engage in learning out of curiosity, interest, or enjoyment, or in order to achieve their own

intellectual and personal goals. "A student who is intrinsically motivated (...) will not need any type of reward or incentive to initiate or complete a task. This type of student is more likely to complete a chosen task and be excited by the challenging nature of an activity" (Dev, 1997, p. 13, as cited in Brewster & Fager, 2000, p. 8).

On the other hand, *external motivation* is driven by indirect, extrinsic motives and that means that the task or activity in question is only a means of satisfying other needs. Therefore, a student whose motivation to learning English is external will learn the language because of external forces such as classification, gaining recognition by peers or succeeding in his or her future career. A student can be described as extrinsically motivated when he or she engages in learning "purely for the sake of attaining a reward or for avoiding some punishment" (Dev, 1997, as cited in Brewster & Fager, 2000, p. 7). Teachers may also motivate students by publicly recognizing them for their academic achievements.

Does it really matter whether students are primarily intrinsically or extrinsically oriented toward learning? A growing body of evidence suggests that it does. Many educators think the best motivation is internal motivation or self-motivation. In the classroom, self-motivation operates independently of the instructor. However, learning can be improved by external motivation supplied by the environment or the instructor. We may even add that a teacher's task is to influence students in such a way as to reinforce the building up of their internal motivation. For this reason, the teacher should have a notion of what motivates and discourages the students and respect the fundamental teaching laws.

3.2.1. Motivation and the teaching laws

"Much of the research on motivation has confirmed the fundamental principle of causality: motivation affects effort, effort affects results, positive results lead to an increase in ability" (Rost, 2005, p. 2). Every teacher, no doubt, would like to have motivated students. The good news is that there are several variables a teacher may positively influence in order to bolster students' motivation. Several of them can be classified under the so-called *teaching laws*. These are laws that form the basis of effective teaching process. Any practising instructor should keep them in mind and constantly revise his or her work asking whether he or she sticks to these laws when teaching.

These fundamental teaching laws developed in the course of history. Each epoch or educational approach prefer a different set of laws and this preference is conditioned by the perception of the world, language and the achievements education should reach. It was John Amos Comenius (1592 – 1670), a Czech teacher, scientist, educator, writer and one of the earliest advocates of universal education, who developed a conception of teaching laws that are typical of the Czech educational tradition. This conception, which is dating back to the turn of the 16th and 17th centuries and was initially aimed against scholasticism, has not become obsolete and the teaching laws proposed by Comenius are applicable and topical even today (Vlčková, 2006, p. 1). The five teaching laws proposed by Comenius are the following.

The first law is *cognitive teaching*. It accredits a crucial role to students' understanding and awareness of where their English instruction in general is heading and what the objective of each lesson is. J. Skalková (in Pešek et al., 1964, p. 104) adds that enabling students to get a clear vision of where they are going and what they are supposed to be doing helps them establish a positive attitude towards learning. In other words, cognitive teaching requires that long-term objectives are divided into short-term ones or even partial goals for each lesson and that students are made familiar with these or, even better, that students participate on setting them. "Break large tasks into a series of smaller goals. Doing so prevents students from becoming overwhelmed and discouraged by lengthy projects and it can assist students to associate effort with success" (Stipek, as cited in Lumsden, 1994, p. 2, Brewster & Fager, 2000, p. 11).

Moreover, not only are conscious students aware of what they are supposed to do in class, but they are also familiar with the pros (or cons) of the methods and techniques the teacher uses. "Verbally noting the purposes of specific tasks when introducing them to students is also beneficial" (Brophy 1986, as cited in Lumsden, 1994, p. 2). From a slightly different viewpoint, cognitive teaching points out the importance of a real understanding of the subject matter taught and not only learning it by heart in order to succeed in examinations. The teacher should also "ensure that classroom expectations for performance and behavior are clear and consistent" (Skinner & Belmont, 1991, as cited in Brewster & Fager, 2000, p. 11). In addition, Skalková (in Pešek et al., 1964, p. 106) stresses yet another important contribution of cognitive teaching: the teaching process should aim at making the students understand the interdisciplinary

nature of the subject matter taught. If a teacher sticks to this law, the students will never lose the idea about the purpose of what they are supposed to do.

Appropriate teaching represents the second Comenius' teaching law. It suggests that a teacher should consider the teaching factors (e.g. time, the age, level of English and knowledge of the students, the form and extent of the subject matter, the techniques and teaching materials, etc.) with respect to the objectives he or she wants to reach (Pešek et al., 1964, p. 120). The appropriateness should be both quantitative and qualitative. "Various task dimensions can also foster motivation to learn. Ideally, tasks should be challenging but achievable" (Lumsden, 1994, p. 2). Indeed, if they are too demanding or not demanding enough, students will lose motivation and stop cooperating. However, students also need to feel that "school work is significant, valuable, and worthy of their efforts" (*Policy Studies Associates*, 1995, as cited in Brewster & Fager, 2000, p. 14).

Multisensory teaching, the third teaching law, helps students to approach the subject matter from various perspectives using their senses. It recommends using multimedia teaching materials as well as empirical and practical methods of teaching and learning. One of the advantages of using multisensory teaching materials is the activation of the right hemisphere, which is the site of more artistic and sensual perception, experiencing and learning (Choděra et al., 2000, p. 59), and this process might help the students to better remember the subject matter. In addition, this law stresses students' creativity and initiative in the process of learning, so the teacher should give them the chance to engage in developing their abstract thinking (Vlčková, 2006, p. 4). According to Rost (2005, p. 3), a teacher should make each learning activity as vivid and tangible as possible; include visual aids (pictures, charts) and other references (games, boards, index cards) to engage students' attention. It also involves providing variety in teacher's teaching style so that students can try out different activities (interpersonal, dramatic, musical, etc.).

The fourth law is *systematic teaching*. One interpretation of this teaching law claims that it is related to the consistency of the whole process of teaching and learning. That is to say, students should become accustomed to devoting their time to systematic home preparation build appropriate and permanent studying habits, skills and attitudes. Skalková (in Pešek et al., 1964, p. 117) pointed out that the subject matter

taught to students should build upon their previous knowledge and elaborate and enrich the system of knowledge which they have already mastered. The teacher should respect the internal logic of the subject matter and add up to it when he or she has checked that the students have already grasped it. Not only is it important to proceed from the known to the unknown, but it is also essential to go from the easier to the more complicated concepts, form particular pieces of knowledge to abstract ideas.

Permanent teaching represents the last of Comenius' laws. It refers to the fact that in order to maintain the gained knowledge, remember it and be able to recall it when needed (Pešek et al., 1964, p. 123), constant revision is necessary. The teacher should always revise the subject matter taught during the previous class at the beginning of the following lesson, and if he or she starts new issues, summarize them at the end of the lesson. For, in T. S. Eliot's words which Mothejzíková (2005, Materiály z přednášek DAJ) often uses, "the end is where we start from."

Furthermore, there are other principles that may be mentioned and added to the teaching laws put together by Comenius. Some of these are the principles of individual approach, active and creative teaching, effective instruction and focusing on the practicality and topicality of the materials. "Relevance also promotes motivation, as does "contextualizing" learning, that is, helping students to see how skills can be applied in the real world" (Lepper, as cited in Lumsden, 1994, p. 2). Other principles involve quality teaching and teaching towards humanism (Vlčková, 2006, p. 5).

As Linda S. Lumsden (1994, p. 2) pointed out, "[b]ecause the potential payoff – having students who value learning for its own sake – is priceless, it is crucial for parents, teachers, and school leaders to devote themselves fully to engendering, maintaining, and rekindling students' motivation to learn." The knowledge of a few theories of motivation might help the teacher to do his or her job more effectively. For this reason, a little survey into the best-known motivation theories will be the subject of the following passages.

3.2.2. Motivation theories

There are many motivation theories that started to emerge in the course of the 1960s as general motivation theories and later on, some of them became adapted to the working process and started to be thought of as the instruments of management. Some

of these work motivation theories may be easily applied to educational settings. Generally, motivation theories form two groups. The first group involves theories that describe the hierarchical structure of needs (motives) and these are called *general motivation theories*. The second group of motivation theories is concerned with the *process of motivation*. Apart from these theories, one can come across several typologies of people in relation to what motivates them and these will be focused on in the first place.

3.2.2.1. Motivation typologies

According to Douglass McGregor's (1906 - 1964) theory dubbed *Theory X and theory Y*, there are two basic assumptions a teacher might adopt about the students' attitude to learning. They present two mutually exclusive viewpoints, where student X (who is lazy, irresponsible and does not like studying) needs authority, direction and control, while student Y is self-motivated to learn (Tureckiová, 2004, p. 58). Undoubtedly, students' personalities differ a lot and this typology only describe two extremes a teacher may rarely encounter. Students' personalities are still in the process of development and it is up to the teacher to try to use all means in order to intrinsically motivate the students to learn. Nevertheless, sometimes a teacher needs to use the means of negative motivation in order to eliminate inappropriate behavioural patterns, especially in students who seem to demonstrate some characteristics that might be attributed to student X.

Edgar H. Schein's (1928) *Typology of people in an organization* bears certain similarities to McGregor's typology. When applied to school environment, we may distinguish four types of students: rational-economic (McGergor's X), social (who strive for recognition in human relations), self-actualizing (wanting to fulfil their potential, McGregor's Y) and complex (motives and behaviour of such people would differ in relation to the context) (Tureckiová, 2004, p. 58). Again, the teacher should try to get to know the students as well as he or she can in order to uncover what motivational drives prevail in them.

3.2.2.2. General motivation theories

Having introduced two well-known motivation typologies, the following passages will outline the most important *general motivation theories*. It was Abraham H. Maslow (1908 – 1970) who first presented the *Hierarchy of human needs* and proposed to

arrange them in a pyramid. He started with the deficiency-needs (i.e. physiologic needs, safety needs and love and belonging (social affiliation) needs) which must be met in order to avoid anxiety. The growth-needs may be satisfied if the deficiency-needs are fulfilled. The growth-needs include esteem and self-actualization needs (Tureckiová, 2004, p. 59). There are some important implications a teacher might take from this theory of Maslow's (regardless of the fact that it was often criticized throughout history due to some of its false assumptions). A good educational environment is such in which students do not need to strive to meet the more primitive deficiency-needs, but where they can concentrate on developing self-esteem, respect of and by others, confidence and achievement, as well as moral growth and creativity.

It was David C. McClelland (1917 – 1998) who studied the strength of motivation that individuals exhibit within groups. He distinguished three motivational categories. *Power motivation* might be displayed in educational settings by students who are extremely competitive, who gain a sense of power by being recognized as the brightest student or as the student most likely to succeed. *Achievement motivation* is typical of students who are task- or mastery-oriented and hard-working. *Affiliation motivation* is exhibited in response to the desire for approval in social contexts, for example, in situations where a student receives praise for doing well from family or friends (Renchler, 1992, p. 13).

3.2.2.3. The process motivation theories

The *process of motivation* was central to investigations of several psychologists; two of their theories will also be outlined in this thesis. Victor Vroom's (1932) *Expectancy theory* works on an assumption that the motivation power is proportional to the expectancy (individual expectations and levels of confidence about what is achievable) together with the valence (the subjective desirability of the goal which refers to the attitude people have in respect to rewards) (Tureckiová, 2004, p. 63). The implications for a teacher are the following. For example, if a task is considered by students being too difficult, it might not be approached although the rewards would be highly valued. The intensity of the desire for extrinsic (recognition, good marks, affiliation, etc.) or intrinsic (increased self-esteem, fulfilment of personal desires, etc.) rewards is also taken into consideration by students. Therefore, it may be summarized that the more likely it is

that a student's effort will lead to desirable ends, the more intensively he or she will strive to complete the task. This also implies that the teacher should "[e]nsure that classroom expectations for performance and behaviour are clear and consistent (Skinner & Belmont, 1991) and help students understand the criteria for individual assignments by giving them examples of high-, average-, and low-level work and then providing an opportunity to discuss how each piece was evaluated" (Strong et al., 1995, as cited in Brewster & Fager, 2000, p. 11).

John S. Adams' (1925) *Equity motivation theory* allows teachers to increase the motivation within a group of students. This theory, which was first presented in 1963, asserts that members of a social group seek to maintain equity between the inputs that they bring to an activity in order to accomplish the task (their invested time, effort and, used competences and skills) and the outcomes that they receive from it (the reward, mark, etc.) against the perceived inputs and outcomes of others. This results in one's subjective feeling of equity or inequity. There are three possible situations that may arise. When an adequate effort is met with adequate reward (results), it may produce further development of a student's school endeavour or remaining in the status quo. On the contrary, when one's similar or even greater (in comparison) effort results in worse results than other students have obtained, it leads to the feeling of inequity and undervaluation. Consequently, this results in the loss of motivation. Similarly, knowing that one has invested little or less effort than others and gained the same results is considered unfair and it leads to the drop in one's motivation and effort. There is yet another interesting connection made by Lumsden (1994, p. 1), "although younger children tend to see effort as uniformly positive, older children view it as a "double-edged sword". To them, failure following high effort appears to carry more negative implications – especially for their self-concept of ability – than failure that results from minimal or no effort."

3.2.3. Students' interests

The paragraphs above are concerned with the issue of motivation, its components, factors that influence it and some motivation theories. One of the connections that can be made with what is to follow brings forward the idea that, in order to motivate students to study the EL and reading in it extensively, a teacher

should have a notion of student's interests and preferences. It has already been pointed out that interest is a specific kind of motive. An individual focuses his or her attention on a certain domain or a subject and the activity connected with these leads towards the individual's personal satisfaction. Interests may be temporal or life-long. Skácel (in Bedrnová & Nový, 1998, p. 229) gives an inventory of interests among which he includes: cognitive, aesthetic, social, outdoor, technical, sport, artistic, handmade, commercial and other interests, etc. A study of grammar school student's real-life interests was carried out by the author of this thesis in the survey (which will be discussed in the practical part of this paper) while here the topic of students' interests will be covered from a more theoretical perspective. The following implication can be reached about the connection of students' interests and the learning (respectively reading) process:

"It only makes sense that the more interesting an assignment is, the more likely students are to immerse themselves in the task and stick with it until completion. Even highly motivated students need schoolwork that actively engages them by building on their interests and prior knowledge. Research tells us that the teachers who are most successful in engaging students develop activities with students' basic psychological and intellectual needs in mind" (Ames, 1992; Anderman & Midgley, 1998; Strong et al., 1995, as cited in Brewster & Fager, 2000, p. 13).

Indeed, as Vágnerová (2000, pg. 234) stated in her publication, adolescents, who feel forced to go to school and often do not find sense in studying, are often enthusiastic about a certain activity which they enjoy and have become involved in voluntarily. These encompass their personal interests as well as their preferences concerning the topics, materials and activities with SRM. This implies the suitability of the teacher's individual approach to each student and spending time to get to know them and their hobbies more.

"In general, students need work that develops their sense of competency, allows them to develop connections with others, gives them some degree of autonomy, and provides opportunities for originality and self-expression (Anderman & Midgely, 1998; Strong et al., 1995). The challenge teachers face, then, is to create a learning environment that attends to all or most of these needs" (Brewster & Fager, 2000, p. 13). Therefore, it is

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possible to come up with a few recommendations which might help teachers engage students in class activities.

One of such principles suggests that the teacher directly employs student's real-life interests – passions – in the process of learning English. Rost (2005, p. 2) notes that "the learner needs to find a way to connect English learning to his or her real passion in life. The teacher can help learners to bring their passion into the classroom in several ways. One is by introducing "hot elements" in the classroom — music, movies, fads, current t opics, personalities, games, and so on — in o rder to arouse l earners' real interests".

Another interesting and time-tested tip advises teachers to make sure that course materials relate to students' lives and to highlight ways learning can be applied in real-life situations. Schoolwork should be meaningful to students outside the school building, as well as within. "Students are more engaged in activities when they can build on prior knowledge and draw clear connections between what they are learning and the world they live in" (Brewster & Fager, 2000, p. 14).

Organizing class activities around the theme of self-expression represents another way of helping learners find their enthusiasm in connection with learning English. "When learners realize that the content of the class is their personal lives, and that the teacher responds to them as people, not just as language learners, we invite a deeper level of commitment and motivation" (Rost, 2005, p. 2).

A well-approved way of motivating students is to arouse their interest and curiosity about the topic being studied. Rost (2005, p. 3) suggests using personalized warm ups which lead into an activity. This would create relevance – an essential condition for memory to work effectively. Appropriate pre-reading activities, such as anticipatory questions, reading expectations, etc. (some of them were already mentioned earlier) serve as a spur for the subsequent major tasks. "Strong, Silver, & Robinson (1995) suggest using the "mystery" approach, in which students are presented with fragmentary or contradictory information about a subject and are then asked to examine available evidence to develop their own hypotheses. This kind of activity also builds on students' needs for competence and autonomy, giving them an opportunity to direct inquiry and "discover for themselves" (Brewster & Fager, 2000, p. 15).

Another way of generating interest and enthusiasm is through the psychological *principle of immediacy*. This principle can be looked at from two perspectives. First, the teacher may use himself or herself as a model of enthusiasm and motivation for learning (this closely relates to the teacher's role as a model, to the leading role of a teacher, as well as to the teacher's personality which will be briefly discussed in the passage on "Student – teacher relationship"). A slightly different way of approaching the principle of immediacy is in connection with giving the students a sense of autonomy and initiative. "By introducing, or allowing the learners themselves to bring in samples of current songs, clippings of famous people, or photos or video clips, we invite greater engagement in the classroom" (Rost, 2005, p. 2).

In addition, it seems important to point out that adolescent students try to explore and seek information that would help them shape their opinion on what they live through and take a stance on different life situations. (It is necessary to admit though, that not all teenagers explicitly strive to get information and many of them, feeling insecure and imbalanced, even prefer not to show that they do have an opinion.) There are two implications resulting from this statement. The teacher should try to bring such teaching materials (and here we are concerned with SRM) that would satisfy students' desire to obtain information. That is to say bring (or let the students bring) topical and burning issues to class and let students choose the topics they are interested in.

Moreover, since students look for their place in this world, the teacher should implicitly guide them, gradually and consistently introducing them to firm moral values and show them the human approach. Here we may see the connection with the education of the whole person as well as learning towards humanity and tolerance that were discussed earlier. Furthermore, a teacher should choose appropriate activities and connect them with thought-provoking and mind-sharpening materials in order to hone students' critical thinking. Forming opinions and learning to articulate them should also be connected with practising public presentation skills. We may see a strong connection to the RWCT project which was introduced in the passage on "Teaching reading for the development of critical thinking skills".

Last but not least, it is also important to mention the effect of learning "not only for the teacher". It might be very useful to design projects that would allow students to

share new knowledge with others or to present what they have learned to other people (e.g. their schoolmates, other teachers, parents, peers, etc.). Projects and performances, such as school debating or public drama activities, are more engaging when students can show their skills and competencies and obtain recognition from others. The feeling of success, no doubt, is one of the best motivators.

Nevertheless, it is necessary to mention that similarly as students differ in terms of motivation also their personalities vary. Indeed, each person is unique, has a different genetic make-up and comes f rom a different social background. This suggests that a further study of the theories of personality is necessary in order to understand that not everyone likes to share his or her opinion or to perform in front of the class, let alone a wider audience. A teacher should develop such basic knowledge in order to be able to work with such different personalities. The study of personality traits and types will be the subject of further discussion in the following paragraphs.

3.3. Different personality types

Usually when we talk about someone's personality, we are talking about what makes that person different from other people, perhaps even unique. This aspect of personality is called individual differences and for some theories, it is the central issue. These theories often spend considerable attention on things like types and traits and tests with which we can categorize or compare people: some people are neurotic, others are not; some people are more introverted, others more extroverted, and so on. The knowledge of students' personality types is the prerequisite of the teacher's individual approach which represents one of the teaching laws.

Before presenting certain personality theories and typologies which are relevant for understanding teenage students, it is important to determine what will be understood by the term *personality* in this paper. According to Vágnerová (2001, pp. 5-6), *personality* may be characterized as a relatively stable mental complex of character features, that is to say intellectual qualities and processes, which are both inherited and determined in social interaction and therefore comprise individual differences. Erich Fromm (1900 – 1 980) distinguished two elements of personality – *temperament* (the relatively permanent, main instrument of personality) and *character* (which individuals

develop in connection with moral values influenced by social and cultural surroundings) (Drapela, 1997, p. 65).

During one's life span, personality comes through gradual transformation of mental features (relating to one's physical marks and processes, external surroundings and even one's self) (Vágnerová, 2001, p. 6). Even though this statement includes a contradiction, we may say that personality is a certain "dynamic constellation" of one's self. Given that there are dozens of different personalities in a class collective, it is obvious that the collective undergoes a constant dynamism in interaction. Some of the following personality theories might help understand this dynamism and positively control it.

3.3.1. Basic dimensions of personality

It might be rewarding to discuss the basic dimensions of human personality as these represent certain mental extents to which one's experience stretches. These mental categories are developed on the basis of interaction of innate dispositions and external influences – environment (Vágnerová, 2001, p. 163). It is important to note, however, that the personality types are never pure; it is more likely that one person will show the traits of several personality types.

It was the Greek physician Hippocrates (460 – 360 B.C.) who, more than 2 300 years ago, distinguished four personality types: the optimistic and energetic *sanguine type*, the irritable *choleric type*, the *melancholic type* who inclined to depressions and the apathetic *phlegmatic type* demonstrating little emotional response (Drapela, 1997, p. 83). Hans J. Eysenck (1916 – 1997) suggested two major influencing personality factors; the first was derived from the tendency to experience negative emotions, and Eysenck referred to it as *neuroticism* (N). The second factor was the tendency to enjoy positive events, especially social events, and Eysenck named it *extraversion* (E). E and N provided a two-dimensional space to describe individual differences in behaviour.

J. Linhart (1981, p. 538, as cited in Choděra et al., 1999, p. 32) connected these two models and formed four combinations which were similar to the four personality types first proposed by Hippocrates: high N and high E = the choleric type, high N and low E = the melancholic type, low N and high E = the sanguine type, low N and low E = the phlegmatic type.

high neuroticism

melancholic   choleric

introversion --   -- extraversion

phlegmatic   sanguine
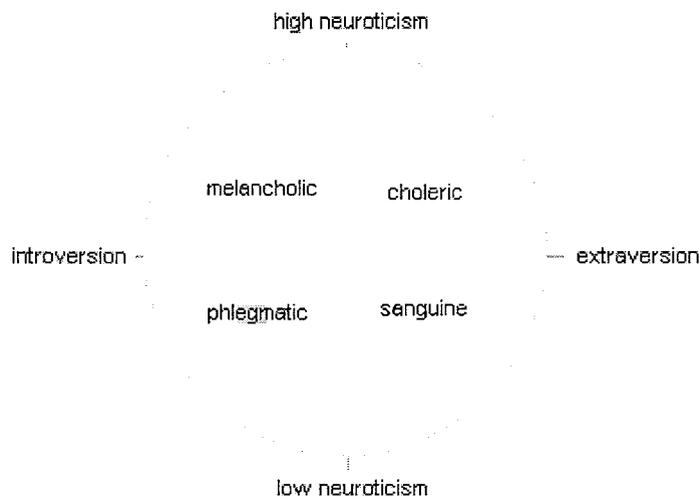
low neuroticism

Diagram adopted from Choděra et al. (1999, p. 32)

According to the diagram, the most optimal combination a teacher might obtain in his or her students thus seems to be the "extraversion – low neuroticism – sanguine" type and the least optimal combination "introversion – high neuroticism – melancholic" type. Exaggerating a little bit, this dichotomy may stand for the "communicative" – "non-communicative" types (Choděra et al. 1999, p. 32).

Chlup & Kopecký (1965, pp. 95-96) offered closer characteristics of school children belonging under the four above-mentioned personality types. According to these authors, the choleric child has problems with self-control, inconsistent and restless behaviour and is often irritable; such a child finds it hard to accommodate to school rules. Melancholic children often suffer phases of decline in activity, they are often tired and find it hard to concentrate; their learning fluctuates. The sanguine child is lively and adaptable and often composed. The reactions and experiencing of phlegmatic children are also balanced but slower, their behaviour is calm and their attitude towards learning dutiful.

3.3.2. Jung´s theory of extraversion vs. introversion

From the newer typologies, it is that by Carl Gustav Jung (1875 – 1961) which might be useful for our study. The personality span it offers involves two dimensions – *introversion* and *extraversion* – in other words an individual's concentration on his or her interior world or external surroundings. Both of these types can be found in everyone, yet one type is always dominant (Drapela, 1997, p. 38). The characteristics of each type

are important for understanding differently-oriented students and therefore will be introduced in detail in the table below.

	Extraversion	Introversion
Relationship towards the world	sociable	self-oriented
Social contact	easy, open	difficult, reserved
Way of Reacting	active, impulsive	passive, restrained
Way of Thinking	prefers facts, gullible, conformable	prefers ideas, suspicious, empiric
Emotional tuning	optimist, less sensitive	pessimist, sensitive
Adaptability	likes change	conservative to rigid, likes order
Features	low self-control, unreliable	high self-control, reliable

Adapted from Vágnerová, 2001, p. 164.

3.3.3. Leary's theory of dominance vs. submission

There are another two factors whose study might be useful in order to understand the motives behind a student's behaviour. These are *dominance* and *submission*, two dimensions that were studied by the American psychiatrist Timothy Leary (1920 – 1996). This theory divides people into two categories according to their prevailing tendency. The first tendency that may take over is the desire to control and dominate (or resist the tendencies of being controlled and dominated). A dominant person may be characterized as energetic or even aggressive, self-confident, boastful, independent and unyielding. The antipode of such a dominant personality type represents a submissive person who prefers to be controlled and dominated. Such a person is usually calm, insecure, with low self-esteem, obedient, dependent and adaptable. The tendency to dominate is said to be genetically determined and developed in the process of learning (Vágnerová, 2001, pp. 166-167). Therefore, if such tendencies become apparent in a student's behaviour, a teacher who observes them m ay take measures in order to restrain too dominant types and, by contrast, support more quiet and submissive ones. Some techniques which could be useful to maintain healthy relations in the class were already hinted at in the passage on "Personal and social education" and will be discussed again later on.

3.3.4. Horney's theory of social movements

Karen Horney (1885 – 1952) developed a theory helping to reach healthy social relationships. She suggested three ways of establishing relations with other people: the movement towards others, against them or from them. When *moving towards* other people, one wants to approach them, to be liked and respected by them and in doing so, he or she wants to ensure personal safety. *Moving against* people signifies mistrust and suspicion; a person who moves against people is not often far from reacting aggressively and wants to have power over the others. An individual who *moves away from* people feels isolated and does not want to interact with them, he or she has the impression that other people do not understand or care (Drapela, 1997, p. 54). A teacher may try to observe the class for signs of positive or negative social interaction, strive to reinforce movements towards people and work with students who are too dominant or have isolationist tendencies.

3.3.5. Adler's theory of social interest

The last personality theory that will be mentioned here is that of Alfred Adler's (1870 – 1937). He pointed out the role of social elements in one's personality growth and maturation. According to him, a well-adapted personality can be recognized by proving *social interest*. Drapela (1997, p. 45) informs us that Adler defined this notion in several different ways – once as a sort of feeling of belonging, cohesion and solidarity with others, next time as the cooperation of an individual with other people. Therefore, Adler recommends focusing on building straightforward and cooperative relations with people around.

English teachers should follow Adler's recommendation since it seems logical to help improve relationships within a class collective and encourage students to work on common tasks and support reciprocal learning. The following paragraphs will introduce a scheme that focuses on stimulating positive social interaction among students in class.

3.4. Developing positive and cooperative human relationships within a social group

The time of adolescence is dominated by forming friendships, by the desire to belong to a group and be accepted by the collective of classmates. It is the time of

socialization by a social group. It has proved of invaluable worth when students at secondary schools have had the chance to go through certain initial collective-building courses or workshops where they would get to know each other and the teacher, learn to respect each other's individualities and cooperate as a class.

Cooperation and adoption of various social skills in order to get on with other people and find one's place within a social group represent an important task to be fulfilled in the course of adolescence. Apart from developing desirable language competencies, it is also personal and social education (which we have already discussed) whose objectives teachers should have in mind when choosing the methods and techniques of ELT. For, in order to establish and cultivate flourishing interpersonal relations, certain t eam-building or cooperation-building activities might be put into effect.

Even English teachers who want to teach SR may be helpful in this endeavour. Indeed, there are certain activities with SR aimed at developing communication and cooperation in class on the basis of reading, e.g. debating and drama (already mentioned in the passage on "Motivation"). H owever, the success of implementing such interpersonal activities and having students get used to them and take them as an integral part of the ELT process depends mostly on several variables on the part of the students, their teacher, the teaching climate and other teaching factors. It is also very much the matter of a teacher's ability to make students enthusiastic about the untraditional activities, in other words knowing how to motivate them. The educational style and the student – teacher relationship also make a difference and these will be discussed below.

3.5. The student – teacher relationship

Chlup & Kopecký (1965, p. 60) reflected upon the student – teacher relationship and came up with the following idea. According to them, what arises between a student and a teacher is the mutual relationship of two human beings, two individual personalities. The teacher should address the student as a unique human personality in order to help him or her develop their skills and competencies, learn about real life, find their most convenient place in society and grow to recognize responsibility in the broader context of social life.

However, from the findings about adolescents presented by Vágnerová's publications earlier, it is obvious that the adolescent – adult relationship is not always this uncomplicated. It is now the aim to look more closely at several principles which teachers should not neglect if they want to have cooperative and respectful students. The author of this thesis bears in mind the fact that the school reality may differ from the suggestions presented in the following paragraphs, yet comparing the theory and the current state of things will be the subject of investigation in the practical part of this paper.

If teachers want to establish perspective relationships with their students, they should try, among other things, to focus on certain qualities of their mutual interaction with students that might help them build up a positive attitude in their students and motivate them. The two important issues that will be emphasized now concern the teacher's authority and his or her educational style. Admittedly, there are other variables that should be taken into consideration, such as the teacher's personality, behaviour, professional competence, and the atmosphere he or she manages to create during the classes which might be discussed separately, but most of their aspects can be included under the two major chosen categories.

3.5.1. The components of a teacher's authority

If possible, a teacher should try to establish a partner relationship with students, since they appreciate if an adult does not try to show them his or her superiority. This, no doubt, is not an easy task since adolescents no longer take adults as formal authorities. It was stated earlier that the teacher should impress the students, take their opinions seriously and show them his or her interest in their problems and needs. It is clear that every student is different and showing a teacher's individual approach to each student is very time-consuming and demanding in all respects. Yet, it may also be rewarding for establishing a better student – teacher relationship.

First of all, the term *teacher's authority* needs to be defined and its constituents looked at. According to Čáp & Mareš (2001, p. 225), there are six components of a teacher's authority helping him or her to carry out this profession. The first constituent involves expertise and proficiency in a teacher's profession, the so-called *core subject*, which may be seen as his or her formal or professional authority. The teacher must be an

expert at three areas: at what he or she wants to teach to students, at theoretical and methodological issues and approaches and at issues concerning the psychology of students. Moreover, at this time of rapid changes and progress, knowledge may become obsolete and it is up to the teacher to keep his or her knowledge up-to-date by constant education and training. One may argue that a language teacher learns the language once for good and does not need to study it any further. However, even a language teacher may brush up his or her knowledge of the language and grammar and update their awareness of methodology. Last but not least, a good teacher should try to avoid stereotype by introducing original techniques and activities and generally broaden students' horizons by using new teaching aids, for example ICT and the internet.

An educational style represents the second category coming under a teacher's authority. Individual educational styles will be discusses separately below since their study is crucial for understanding their impact on work and interaction with students and also on influencing their motivation.

Natural authority, or personal authority, constitutes another part of a teacher's overall authority. This kind of authority results from a teacher's personality and draws on his or her charisma, social skills and his or her relationships with students. According to the results from a survey among students at schools mentioned in Čáp & Mareš's publication (2001, p. 225), students most dislike if their teachers have the following attributes: if they lack a sense of humour and are moody and capricious, which often signals the instability of their character, inconsistency and unpredictability of behaviour. A teacher who is unfair and unjust (that is to say does not assess everyone according to the same standards, favours some students to others and judges on the basis of his or her first impression) can never win students' recognition. Nor can a teacher who ridicules students, yells at them, uses vulgar expressions or even corporal punishment. Other weaknesses on the side of teachers brought forward by their students include: arrogance, regarding the school subject they teach as the most important one, overrunning lessons, explaining the subject matter in a confusing or insufficient way, refusing to explain the subject matter and punishing students with tests.

Therefore, it should be clear that from these personality and behavioural attributes, students most appreciate if their teacher is fair, consistent and well-tempered.

The survey carried out by the author of the presented thesis sought to verify whether or not adolescent students really hold similar views of their English teachers and the results will be discussed in the practical part of this paper.

Further, a teacher's authority incorporates another three components, namely the authority of the teaching profession, the authority connected with the gender role and the situational aspect of authority. These components, no matter how interesting their study may be, will not be discussed here in more detail.

3.5.2. The influence of teacher's educational style

It was already mentioned that an educational style constitutes an important part of a teacher's authority. According to Čáp & Mareš (2001, p. 225), it is possible to divide a teacher's educational styles into five basic categories according to a teacher's emotional relation towards students and the strength of his or her control. The following paragraphs show how a teacher's educational style may affect the student – teacher relationship and the classroom climate. Additionally, the suitability of each style will be discussed too.

The first of these educational styles is the *autocratic style* in which the emotional-relational dimension of the teacher to students is negative and the teacher's control very strong. An autocratic teacher directs students all the time, speaks too much at their expense, stresses and threatens them, blames them and punishes them. Such a teacher is interested only in students' results and not in their potential. He or she requires obedience and strict following of orders and instructions and therefore suppresses any initiative on the students' part. An autocratic teacher is not open to student's needs and wishes since their individualities are not in the centre of the teacher's attention. On the contrary, an autocratic teacher does not approach students individually but rather as a mass. The authority of an autocratic teacher is derived from his or her position and is always forced. The motivation he or she uses is extrinsic.

The next educational style is called the *liberal style* without an interest in the student. A teacher implementing such a style is either neutral or negative towards students, but his or her control is weak. He or she is not strict and demanding enough, and does not control students' work dutifully. Such a teacher seems to be bothered by

students and tired of their demands. In some cases, a liberal teacher acts in an insecure way and tells students about his or her personal problems.

The *contradictory autocratic-liberal style* represents the third of the educational styles and may be characterized by the blend of manifestations typical of the two styles already mentioned (the autocratic and the liberal one). The emotional relationship towards students is negative and the strength of control fluctuates. Such a teacher is inconsistent in his or her behaviour and demands, which confuses the students to a great extent.

The next two educational styles both involve a positive emotional tuning towards students. Teachers using the *kind liberal style* do not exercise a strong control over students. They are friendly towards them and try to understand their problems, but they are not demanding enough and their educational style is little challenging.

The *integrative style,* unlike the previous one, stresses the importance of a medium-strength to stronger teacher's control. Such a teacher can be characterized as calm, good-tempered, willing to help and consistent in his or her behaviour. The requirements of such a teacher are adequate and gradually more demanding; he or she regularly controls students' work, knows how to engage students in meaningful activities and strives to raise their interest in the subject matter. An integrative teacher supports students' initiative and when there is a problem, he or she tries to make students think of their behaviour instead of punishing them.

It is obvious that all school collectives are different and require a different attitude and educational style. However, it is possible to deduce from the above-mentioned characteristics which educational style would suit adolescent students, at least judging from their general psychological profile. It is the integrative educational style that helps establish a straightforward student – teacher relationship, leaving enough space for the initiative on the students' part. It also seems that an integrative teacher manages to maintain a suitable classroom climate. "If students experience the classroom as a caring, supportive place where there is a sense of belonging and everyone is valued and respected, they will tend to participate more fully in the process of learning" (Lumsden, 1994, p. 2). Also, the fact that the integrative educational style is characterized by rather stronger teacher control helps keep students' study morale high. The role of the teacher practising the integrative style is also that of a model for students since he or she enjoys

natural authority and students´ appreciation. Such a teacher may positively influence students when forming moral values and attitudes and be their partner in the educational process.

4. The conclusion of the theoretical part and the formulation of the working hypotheses

One of two major objectives set by the theoretical part of this thesis was the exploration of different approaches to teaching SR with respect to the reading-related skills which students may develop through the process of reading. It seems suitable and logical to present the concept of teaching various reading-related skills in successive steps with regard to the relevant objectives to be reached through reading. The first step is to improve language, therefore teaching reading should concentrate on the development of language skills. Once this is mastered to a certain extent, the teacher may lead the students to discover also some higher-level and more intellectual skills such as reading skills, literary interpretative skills or critical thinking skills – according to the objectives which they set for themselves or which are set for them by the teacher or the curriculum. Ideally, at the same time, teaching reading may and should be used to develop other social or general competences required by the European documents. These competences include cultural awareness and sensitivity, and the education of the whole person through activities with SR aimed at communication and cooperation. It is obvious that the choice of reading-related skills to be developed together with the selection of suitable SRM should correspond not only to the students' level of English proficiency and their interests, but also to their personal goals of learning English and reading in it.

Since teaching reading is an interactive process, one must not neglect the role of other factors, such as the psychological characteristics of the students. Therefore, the second major objective of the theoretical part was to focus on depicting students' personalities in the course of their bio-psycho-social development. It was suggested that understanding the basic principles of motivation and personality theories may help teachers to better understand students' behaviour and adapt the teaching process to suit their individual and collective needs. This, together with a teacher's authority and educational style, may very much influence the overall reader climate either positively or negatively.

The following practical part of the presented thesis introduces a pedagogical research focused on examining the contemporary situation concerning Czech public schools. The first hypothesis is that it would be very opportune if teaching reading in the EL at Czech grammar schools focused on the gradual acquisition of all the various reading-related skills that may be acquired through the process of reading. We presume that the reality concerning the requirements of the Czech curricular documents together with the teaching factors might allow for the implementation of the concept of teaching various reading-related skills in successive steps.

The first objective is therefore to find out what the requirements are of the Czech curricular documents on reading in the EL and whether they are compatible with the skills and instructive objectives that may be reached through teaching reading proposed in the presented thesis. This analysis will be conducted with regard to the teaching factors and also the requirements of the secondary school leaving examination.

The second hypothesis is that certain techniques and activities with SR covering the different kinds of reading-related skills are already practised at Czech grammar schools, but that these mostly belong into the category of language skills and very rarely focus on developing other higher-level skills, such as literary interpretation skills or critical thinking. We presume that this is due to unfavourable conditions concerning teaching factors in relation to SR, but also due to the fact that teachers underestimate the role of motivation in reading and concentrate on more routine activities without using techniques that would help them draw students in the process of reading.

The next concern is therefore to map the present state of SR at Czech grammar schools in order to describe how teachers and students work with SR in classrooms and outside, what SRM they use, what motivates and discourages students and what teachers do to bolster students positive motivation to reading in the EL. This is closely connected with students' interests and actual and intended purposes of using English, but also with the climate in the English classroom and the overall conception of English lessons. All these influences will be the subject of a detailed analysis and discussion in the subsequent passages.

Subsequently, it will be pointed out what adjustments would potentially be necessary in order to introduce the concept of teaching various reading-related skills

into Czech grammar schools. If we find out that our hypotheses are exaggerated, more realistic minor changes will be proposed to improve the current situation.

III. THE PEDAGOGICAL REALITY CONCERNING SUPPLEMENTARY READING

Much as with any language skill, the teaching of SR is a complex matter. Obvious variables such as students' proficiency, age, motivation, teacher factors and materials, resources, educative setting, curriculum and institutional factors all impact on the degree of success of reading instruction. It is now the aim to explore these variables and their real impact on the process of teaching SR, starting with the analysis of the requirements of the Czech curricular documents.

1. Teaching factors in relation to the new Czech framework educational curriculum for grammar schools

Setting out to explore the Czech curricular documents, we need to start with defining the term *curriculum*. It may be interpreted in several different ways, but we will understand it as the *content of education*. This content includes both the subject matter (knowledge and information) which students need to learn and the skills, values, attitudes and competences which they should acquire in the process of education. Apart from the content of education, curriculum also prescribes the aims, forms and usually some teaching materials (Průcha, 2002, pp. 243-5). In the Czech Republic, the content of education is determined by institutions with the decisive power over the educational policy, namely the Czech Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports. Yet, teachers also construct the curriculum in a way, as there is always a difference between the demands of the normative curriculum set by the Ministry of Education and the final results of the teaching and learning processes at schools. Thus it is necessary to distinguish between the normative curriculum and the real-life curriculum.

Basically, there is the national educational curriculum that provides the standards of the objectives and core subject matter for education as a whole. Then there are framework educational curricula providing orientation for different types

of school levels and also school educational curricula which represent an innovation in the Czech curricular system to be explained below.

It was on July 24, 2007 that the new framework educational curriculum for grammar schools (NFEC) (*Rámcový vzdělávací program pro gymnázia*, 2007) was adopted by the Ministry of Education with a two-year implementation period. This means that by September 1, 2009 all grammar schools have to start teaching with respect to the NFEC plus according to their individually created school educational curricula. Indeed, the NFEC leaves enough space for individual schools to create their own school educational curricula according to the objectives stated in the NFEC and, at the same time, to decide about the conception of compulsory educational areas, to offer other subjects according to the grammar school specialization, students' interests and future choices and, on the whole, to take measures which would shift the content of education towards learning through real life (Šíbová & Jeřábek, 2006, paragraph 3).

Since the NFEC is yet to fully come into force, the transitory period can be characterized by several inconsistencies and legislative faux-pas. The former involves the simultaneous existence of the present-day curricular documents for grammar schools (*Učební osnovy pro gymnázia*, 1995 and *Učební plány pro gymnázia*, 2007) implemented at certain grammar schools, while other grammar schools have already developed their individual school educational curricula and started teaching according to them. The legislative problem centres on the confusion surrounding the state secondary school leaving examination which was intended to come into practice starting with the school year 2007/8. This date was however postponed recently until 2010 and the requirements for the state secondary school leaving examination will have to be re-evaluated and rewritten. Due to the chaos in Czech school legislature, it is difficult to give a true account of the curriculum requirements and the teaching factors, since they may change every day. However, the reform of the Czech secondary school system is inevitably approaching and therefore we will focus on the requirements of the NFEC and the state secondary school leaving examination and make necessary comparisons to the current curricular documents where appropriate.

Having briefly introduced the principles of the NFEC for secondary public schools and the burning issues connected with it, it is now the aim to have a closer look at its requirements regarding language education (especially teaching reading), with respect to the skills proposed by the concept of teaching various reading-related skills.

1.1. Time

One of the important determining teaching factors is time. It is often introduced as the first teaching factor which influences other variables, such as aim, subject matter, teaching methods, etc. However, all these teaching factors are mutually interconnected and, in fact, it is not right to try to present them in a hierarchical order.

According to the new *Generalized educational plan* (*Učební plány pro gymnázia,* 2007, pp. 3-4) which came into effect on September 1, 2007 and whose purpose is to provide a temporary solution until the school educational curricula take over at all grammar schools, the number of English lessons (both as the first studied FL (L1) and the second studied FL (L2)) is three (45-minute) lessons per week. The same is ensured by the NFEC's framework educational plan (*Rámcový učební plán, Rámcový vzdělávací program pro gymnázia,* 2007, pp. 83-84) with the annotation that the number of English lessons per week required by the new framework educational plan is only the compulsory minimum which can be extended by individual school educational curricula.

Given that students will study English at grammar schools for at least four years for three lessons per week (estimating that a school year has approximately 36 weeks if we exclude holidays and other free days), it gives approximately 108 EL lessons per school year and 432 EL lessons in total in the course of four years. The question of how many lessons the proposed concept of teaching reading-related skills would need to operate with will be discussed in the closing passages.

1.2. Aim

It is extremely important to state aims and desirable outputs of education and ensure that these aims are not exaggerated. They determine the direction of the process

of education in relation to time and other teaching factors, such as the subject matter, teaching materials, teaching conditions, etc. Aims are usually categorized as long-term and short-term, but these two categories also intersect. The aims presented below are long-term objectives or outputs required by the new framework educational curriculum for grammar schools and the state secondary school leaving examination.

1.2.1. General aims of the NFEC

First of all, certain general aims of the NFEC (*Rámcový vzdělávací program pro gymnázia*, 2007, pp. 9-13) should be mentioned since they are closely connected with the aims of EL teaching.

One innovation in the NFEC is the implementation of the integrative approach. It means that it is desirable that students are presented with the subject matter in such a way that they can grasp the interdisciplinary nature of the knowledge. There are eight *educational areas* in the NFEC: language and language communication, mathematics and its application, man and nature, man and society, man and work, arts and culture, man and health and ICT. Consequently, rather than having to learn facts and figures separately for each discipline, the aim is to make students learn to understand the broader context of what is being taught to them.

As for the concept of teaching reading-related skills proposed by the author of this thesis, it would mean that certain skills could be adopted from and transferred into other subjects, e.g. reading skills or literary interpretative skills learned in the lessons of the Czech language could be used in English lessons, and critical thinking skills developed during English lessons used in any other subjects. This would help students understand that what they learn in one subject is applicable also outside its scope and in real life.

Apart from the requirements of the integrative approach, great emphasis is laid on students' acquisition and development of the so-called *key competences*, i.e. sets of various skills, pieces of knowledge, attitudes and values which are mutually interconnected. These key competences involve, among others, competences to learn, social competences, communicative competences, interpersonal competences, and IT competences (*Rámcový vzdělávací program pro gymnázia*, 2007, pp. 7-8). All of these are skills that are important for students' personal development and future utilization.

The proposed concept of teaching reading-related skills also aims at developing all these key competences via reading different kinds of texts and possibly working with ICT and the internet.

Moreover, there are five *cross-curricular topics* that have been implemented into the NFC which schools have to integrate into the content of education. These involve Personal and social education, Education towards thinking in European and global context, Multicultural education, Environmental education and Media education (*Rámcový vzdělávací program pro gymnázia*, 2007, pp. 66-81). We may see that most of these newly-adopted cross-curricular topics are in accord with what the concept of teaching reading-related skills focuses on, i.e. the development of instructional goals such as the education of the whole person and cultural awareness.

1.2.2. Aims of EL teaching in the NFEC

As for the aims of EL teaching, the NFEC specifies that students should build upon their previous knowledge of English which should be A2 (for English as L1) or A1 (for English as L2) and, at the end of the grammar school education, reach B2 or B1 levels respectively. In general, students should be able to acquire the grasp of basic communication rules in English, gain overall knowledge of the social and historical development of human society towards the respect and tolerance of cultural diversities (*Rámcový vzdělávací program pro gymnázia*, 2007, p. 14).

The aims related to reading in the EL (studied as L1) are the following. Students should be able to work creatively with factual as well as literary texts, understand their structure and style and appreciate their aesthetic, emotional and ethical aspects. At the same time, they should be able to appreciate literature and approach it from a critical point of view. Moreover, they should develop the habit of individual extensive reading of both literature and other texts which will positively influence their life orientation. Students should also shape moral values, preferences and emotional perception of themselves and the world around (*Rámcový vzdělávací program pro gymnázia*, 2007, p. 15).

1.2.3. Aims expressed in the state secondary school leaving examination

It has already been pointed out that the burning issue concerning the new state secondary school leaving examination is still not resolved. Therefore, when looking at its

requirements in relation to the EL (studied as L1), we will use the *Catalogue of requirements for the secondary school leaving examination from the English language* (*Katalog požadavků k maturitní zkoušce – AJ 1/2*, 2006). This catalogue (whose requirements should have come into force in September 2007 but were postponed until 2010) is still available on the web at the moment. Thus, when writing these lines we need to keep in mind that some of the requirements might change.

As far as reading is concerned, the written part of the state secondary school leaving examination in English as L1 contains, among other things, the discipline called reading comprehension. The students' task is to read four kinds of texts differing in length and style and choose the right answer (the types of follow-up questions comprise matching, true or false-type questions and choosing one right answer) to the questions about the texts (*Katalog požadavků k maturitní zkoušce – AJ 1/2*, 2006, p. 3).

There are also specific aims required by the state secondary school leaving examination which students need to meet. For the domain of reading comprehension (*Katalog požadavků k maturitní zkoušce – AJ 1/2*, 2006, p. 8), these aims are quite similar to the aims advocated by the NFEC. They include, among other things, the understanding of the main theme, intentions, opinions and feelings of the author, narrator or characters and understanding the events described. These requirements correspond to what the proposed concept of teaching reading-related skills would practise as the category of literary interpretative skills.

Then there are requirements, such as the understanding of a text's organization, looking up information, collecting information from different parts of one text or several texts, understanding simple manuals, regulations, signs and directions, guessing the meaning of unknown words and recognizing whether a text includes relevant information (*Katalog požadavků k maturitní zkoušce – AJ 1/2*, 2006, p. 8). All these tasks belong among the intensive reading skills which our concept of teaching reading-related skills also proposes to practise.

The oral part of the examination includes the discipline called reading aloud in which pronunciation is tested with respect to correct intonation, articulation, stress and the linking of words (*Katalog požadavků k maturitní zkoušce – AJ 1/2*, 2006, p. 11). Reading aloud belongs under the skills that may be practised when teaching reading for language improvement which also forms a part (however small) of the proposed

concept of teaching reading-related skills. The areas that can be tested in the oral part of the examination do not contain any specific requirements concerning the knowledge of the outline of literature and foreign authors; however, there are thematic areas centred on any components of the so-called *small-c culture* of both mother country and the English-speaking country (*Katalog požadavků k maturitní zkoušce – AJ 1/2*, 2006, p. 14).

From what was written above it is obvious that the aims in the area of reading in the EL required by the NFEC and the state secondary school leaving examination more or less correspond to the aims promoted by the concept of teaching various reading-related skills in successive steps. Hence we assume that its implementation would be an important step forward which would help students in their studies of the EL and enable them to pass the state secondary school leaving examination more easily.

1.3. Subject matter

Subject matter represents the content of education which students should acquire in order to meet the curricular aims. It was already pointed out that the NFEC operates with eight educational areas and five cross-curricular topics whose content the NFEC outlines and characterizes only briefly. It is so due to the fact that more emphasis is laid on the final outputs towards which the formation should lead than on the precise prescribed amount of items of knowledge that students should acquire in a specific order.

The subject matter concerning reading in the EL (studied as L1) includes texts varying in difficulty and style. Relatively easy and logically structured texts involve texts of informative or factual character, documents, fiction and literary texts. Texts used by students as the point of departure for practising reading and communicative situations are more demanding in terms of language and content, but allegedly not complicated; they include artistic, publicist, scientific and popular styles and concern both common and less common topics. Their themes are either specific or abstract and centre on everyday situations at home and abroad (*Rámcový vzdělávací program pro gymnázia*, 2007, pp. 16-19). Students should also come into contact with printed and electronic media.

As for literature, students will acquaint themselves with important works of renowned authors in the EL (which authors and which works is not specified). Other themes that may appear among texts students will work with concern any areas of *small-c culture*. The NFEC presents them in the following disordered "clusters": science, technology, sports, arts, famous people, famous works, successes; life and traditions, family, education, national hobbies and national specifics; language rarities and d ifferences; the media and its effect on individuals and the society; topical events of broader significance; and, last but not least, authentic materials such as print, radio and film (*Rámcový vzdělávací program pro gymnázia*, 2007, p. 18). It seems that the above-mentioned texts would be appropriate for practising the reading-related skills.

Yet, the subject matter that students need to acquire involves also the following language forms presented in the NFEC, e.g. grammar (noun and verbal phrases, morphemes, prefixes, suffixes; other ways of expressing the past, present and future; complex clauses and subordinate clauses; derivation, transposition, transformation and valency) and lexicology (collocations, proverbs, easy idioms, phrasal verbs, specialized terms, and phrases concerning well-known topics) (*Rámcový vzdělávací program pro gymnázia*, 2007, p. 18). These requirements seem really exaggerated for students of English striving to reach the B2 level and it is apt to point out that most of the subject matter just listed is studied at universities in specialized linguistic seminars. However, if a certain introduction into linguistics was to be offered to higher-level students of the EL already at grammar schools, it could potentially be connected with practising the intensive reading skills which aim at teaching logical relations among syntactical and lexical language features in relation to the meaning of the text.

1.4. Teaching methods and techniques

On the one hand, the outputs of each subject (that is to say the knowledge, skills and competences which students should have mastered at the end of their grammar school education) are firmly stated (Šíbová & Jeřábek, 2006, paragraph 7). On the other hand, methods and techniques which teachers might use in order to achieve the aims are not prescribed.

It was pointed out earlier that neither the *Lisbon Process* nor the CEFR prescribe any particular method of teaching the EL. Also the output-oriented nature of the NFEC leaves for EL teachers an open field of activity to implement virtually any method and technique which they find effective and appropriate with respect to the teaching factors. The choice of methods and techniques of EL teaching may be influenced by particular grammar school educational curricula, but more often the choice of methods and techniques of teaching is left up to the teacher.

However, TEFL in the Czech Republic is still dominated by the Communicative Approach and the competence mentioned among the most important ones is usually the communicative competence. Also many textbooks used at grammar schools are communicative ones. Yet, as it was explained before, the didactic pluralism allows for the use of any other method of ELT.

1.5. Teaching materials and teaching conditions

In the NFEC, no measures concerning teaching materials are taken and it seems that it is up to individual grammar schools to decide which textbooks teachers will use to teach the EL to students of different proficiency levels. Grammar schools are recommended to use *textbooks with a clause*[5] which have been approved by the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports. Any requirements concerning particular teaching materials for teaching SR are not mentioned.

As for teaching conditions, the NFEC (*Rámcový vzdělávací program pro gymnázia,* 2007, p. 84) only suggests that in order to achieve the desirable aims and make teaching more efficient, students should be divided into smaller groups. However, any more precise numbers specifying how many students should be in an EL lesson are not stated and it is up to individual grammar schools to decide about it.

Definitely, working with smaller groups of students enables teachers to work more intensively with each student and it is also a condition under which teachers' individual approach to each student can be put into practice more easily. In a smaller

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[5] These textbooks are usually published by quality publishing houses such as Oxford University Press or Cambridge University Press, Longman or Heinemann and a number of experts have their word before they are recommended for the use at schools. The list of the textbooks with a clause is available at the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports website:
http://www.msmt.cz/uploads/SeznamZS_04_2007_web.xls

group, it is also less difficult to positively influence the climate which may help make language education more effective. The same can be said about the optimal conditions for teaching reading in the EL. In order to achieve higher efficiency, the number of students in one language group should not be higher than ten people. However, the reality at grammar schools gives us different numbers (which will be discussed subsequently).

From the analysis of the requirements set by NFEC and the *Catalogue of requirements for the secondary school leaving examination from the English language*, it is obvious that they are compatible with the concept of teaching various reading-related skills advocated by this thesis.

It is now the objective to have a closer look at the respondents of the survey – grammar school students and teachers – analyze their opinions and preferences with regard to SR and find out what methods, activities and materials with SR are most commonly used or could be used potentially.

2. The pedagogical research

In order to relate this thesis to real-life teaching at Czech grammar schools and see whether our hypotheses prove right or wrong, a pedagogical research was carried out. The first part of the research included mapping the situation at Czech grammar schools and the second part focused on analysing the SRM available on the market and on the internet.

The analysis of the data obtained was done with the help of a predictive analytics software programme called *Statistical Package for the Social Sciences* (SPSS) which enabled not only an effective processing of the data, but also the use of basic statistical functions and creating charts. In addition, MS Excel was also used where necessary, particularly for a better design of charts. All the charts which will be used for illustration of more relevant findings were made by the author of this thesis.

The first part of the research centred on a survey held at seven Czech grammar schools in total. It consisted of student and teacher questionnaires designed by the author of this thesis (see the Appendix (Parts III-IV, IX-X) for details) which were distributed to chosen quality grammar schools either in person or by post. Student questionnaires were distributed to six grammar schools while teachers from yet three more grammar schools agreed to fill in the teacher questionnaires without having to distribute the questionnaires among students. The questions in the questionnaires were both closed and open. The questionnaires were designed to obtain maximum data on minimum space for which it proved efficient to use scales of different colours.

The grammar schools were chosen in order to provide a representative sample of respondents – five of the schools were Prague grammar schools, two of them were situated outside Prague. It is fair to mention that one of the schools was a private grammar school, but the author of this thesis decided to include the data obtained at this school into the survey for the following reason: students' interests, motivation and teaching methods, techniques and problems concerning SR which one may encounter there are comparable to the reality at state grammar schools. Where the teaching factors radically differ will be pointed out as a valuable means of comparison.

On the whole, in the course of conducting the survey, we did not encounter any major problems. Student questionnaires were, with rare exceptions, filled out very

precisely while it was sometimes the case that teachers did not take time to respond to all questions, especially the open ones. The attitudes of the English teachers who were asked to help with the survey, fill in the teacher questionnaire, distribute the student questionnaires among the students and collect them again, were predominantly positive. Most teachers were very helpful as to organize the survey even though they were busy towards the end of the school year, and their cooperation and support enabled us to obtain the results for the following analysis of the teaching factors with regard to the student and teacher questionnaires respectively.

2.1. Student questionnaires

In total, there were 167 students who completed the student questionnaires. The following paragraphs will describe this target group in more detail focusing on their age, sex, study orientation, level of English, interests and other characteristics. The data obtained from the questionnaires will not be analysed in the same order in which they appeared in the questionnaires since some of the questions were included as control questions to check students' consistency in responding.

2.1.1. Characteristics of the target group

There were 59 male respondents (35%) and 108 female respondents (65%). The fact that there were almost twice as many female respondents than male respondents may cause a little bias when trying to analyse other variables, therefore we will try to distinguish between the answers of female and male respondents where a more precise analysis requires it.

The following graphs illustrate the target group with regard to the age of the respondents and the grades they attend at grammar schools. The students who completed the questionnaires belong to the group of 15- to 19-year-old adolescents. Most of them (40%) are 17-year-olds and go to Year 2.

Age of respondents

Age	Frequency
15	4
16	42
17	69
18	47
19	5

Age of respondents

Year at grammar school

Year	Frequency
Year 1	43
Year 2	70
Year 3	54
Year 4	0

Year
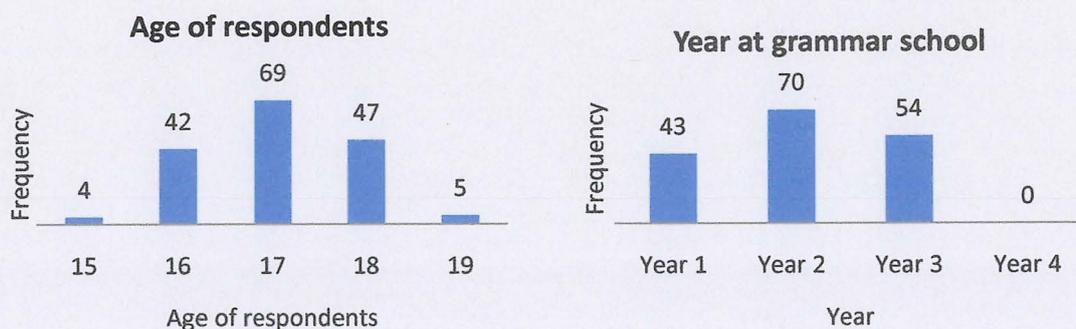
The students were also asked to categorize themselves in terms of study orientation. The vast majority of the students (32%) chose their study orientation to be humanities, 16% of the students chose natural sciences and the third highest percentage (15%) comprised the group of students who still have not decided about their study orientation. The language study orientation was chosen by 14% of the respondents and the technical orientation by 9%. The rest of the students regard themselves as oriented towards both humanities and languages, as music-oriented, and a minority of the students indicated the combination of two options. The differences between sexes are not relevant here; we may only add that the second biggest group of males think of themselves as technically-oriented. Having added the respondents who characterized themselves as language-oriented (either on its own or in combination with humanities), we have almost 20% of students who feel a strong connection to studying languages already in their teens.

The students also had to assess their level of English proficiency and give the last mark they got from English. A majority of the students (47%) got a 2 and 23% got either a 1 or a 3. Almost 60% of the students assessed their level of English as intermediate, 20% of the respondents see themselves as advanced students of EL, 18% assessed themselves as pre-intermediate and the rest 3% were either beginners or did not respond to the question (see the Appendix (Part V) for more details).

When the students were asked to determine by self-assessment the areas of English language skills and forms which they think they are good at, they most often chose reading (almost 30%), then speaking (20%), writing (15%), listening (14%), pronunciation (12%) and grammar (10%). On the contrary, having been asked to decide which areas of English they are bad at, they gave the following responses in the

hierarchical order: grammar (20%), listening (27%), speaking (20%), writing (12%), pronunciation (8%) and last reading (3%).

These findings show that students themselves think that, from all the language skills and forms, it is reading they are best at, which is rather surprising. However, it may be due to the fact that students imagine "reading" to be reading aloud or reading comprehension – skills that are often practised at grammar schools, but which have not much in common with the proper and more demanding reading-related skills we propose to introduce to grammar schools. From a slightly different perspective, if teachers did want to help students improve certain language skills and forms, they could easily draw inspiration from the pie charts (see the Appendix (Part V)) and prepare such exercises and activities that would focus on the development of one or a few of the listed areas students themselves think they need to improve.

Students were also asked to name the conditions which, according to them, would lead to their better acquisition of the EL. The findings are quite relevant and not only in relation to SR. Almost half of all the students think that they would learn the EL better if they could live or stay in an English-speaking country, some of them even mentioned that they would like to participate in a secondary school exchange study programme. Surprisingly, the next relevant condition that should lead to students' better acquisition of the EL, according to them, was if they were forced to self-study at home more. This means that teachers should insist on assigning homework despite students' objections. This may be related to SR, especially preparations concerning extensive reading assignments. Some students also stated that they would prefer if there were fewer students in EL classes and if they had better contact with native speakers, or even have one for their EL teacher. For the rest, please see the chart in the Appendix (Part V).

2.1.2. Students' interests

The area of students' interests is of a great significance to this thesis and, in general, to SR in the EL too. The students were asked to name at least three areas of their interests and hobbies. Various sports activities represent the area that most students (over 30%) named among their interests. The second most commonly included area named by boys was IT (16%) while girls chose music (18%). Other interests of the

respondents are arranged in the chart below which can be studied more closely since it illustrates the individual preferences of girls and boys respectively. Books and reading were named by 11% of girls and 5 % of boys which is a positive finding for the presented thesis. Almost 20% of all students also named other individual interests such as dance, animals, travelling, photography, geography, history, biology, ecology and so on.

Girls´ and boys´ interests

■ Girls ■ Boys

Interest	Girls	Boys
sports	31	33
music	18	13
books and reading	11	5
arts	5	2
friends	5	9
movies	5	4
IT	3	16
languages	2	1
other individual activities	20	17

%
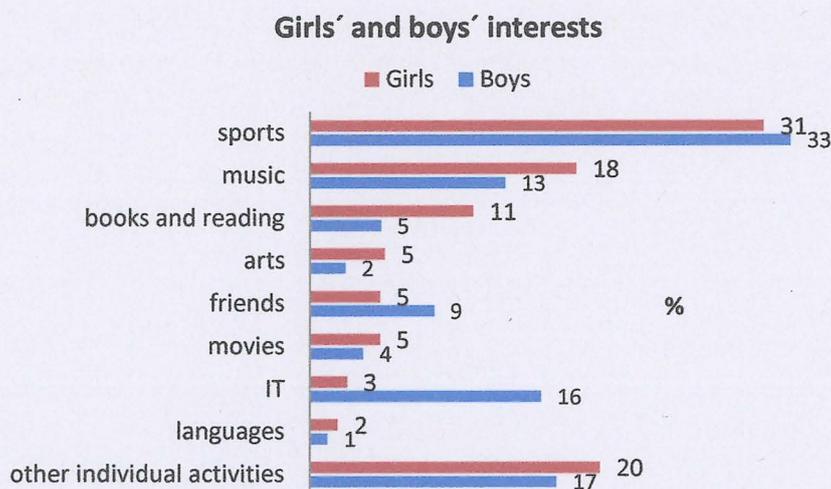
2.1.3. How students use or intend to use English in the future

Another battery of questions was intended to find out more about how students really use English outside the classroom, why they study this language and what are the domains in which English might be best used.

Students were asked to write how they react when an English-speaking person asks them to describe the way to a certain place. This question was included into the questionnaire to find out if students were willing to use English in everyday situations. Most students (64%) responded that they tried to answer the question despite the difficulties they had, 30% of the students answered the question without any problems and only 9 people responded that they either said that they did not speak English, or pretended not to hear.

Another question aimed at the use of English in everyday situations asked the students to say whether they used English outside the classroom and, if they did, to specify how. Most students (75%) responded that they used English outside the classroom and it was interesting to find out that the vast majority used it in relation to ICT and the internet (34%), to oral communication (27%) or when they had the chance to

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travel abroad (20%). Other minor responses involved watching movies in English, private English lessons and translating.

When trying to find authentic reasons for reading in the EL, students were asked to give reasons why they studied English and say what they found English useful for. The responses are well arranged in the charts to be found in the Appendix (Part V) and teachers may take advantage of them in order to select appropriate SRM related to students' goals of studying English. Most students stated that they learned English in order to be able to communicate and understand when someone spoke to them in English or because of the general importance and usefulness of the EL as a world language. Around 10% of the respondents studied the EL because it was a compulsory subject at school or because they felt that they would need it at work (either in the Czech Republic or abroad). Slightly under than 10% of the students studied the EL because they enjoyed doing so and a similar percentage of students wanted to use the EL when travelling. All in all, students recognized the importance of studying English especially in relation to their future use of this world language in their lives.

A seemingly similar question was posed asking the students about what they thought the E L could b e best used for. This question led the students to think in eventualities and the answers reveal something about their future intentions for using the EL. Again, communication and conversation together with travelling abroad gained top ranks. This time, however, they were beaten by the usefulness of the EL which students saw for their future careers (to get a job, use the EL at work in their country as well as abroad). When asked what English is useful for in general, the forth most frequent response was "reading in English", followed by the domain of IT and the internet, but also translation and interaction with foreigners and their culture (see the rest in the Appendix (Part V). All these categories are, in a way, included among the reading-related skills or other instructive goals that may be practised through activities with SR.

2.1.4. The circumstances of learning English and the teaching conditions

The students also responded to a series of questions determined to describe the circumstances and teaching conditions under which they have been learning English. The majority of students responded that they started studying English already at

elementary school (85%), the remaining 15% stated that they had been studying English for four or less years. Almost 70% of the respondents stated that they had not been studying English outside school; over 20% of the students had been studying English outside of school for one year or less. The remaining number of students had been studying English for two to six or more years. This signifies that the majority of students rely on school institutions for the acquisition of the EL.

Almost half of the respondents stated that they had four (45-minute) English lessons per week, which is one lesson more than the minimum required by the NFEC, and 40% of the students had three English lessons per week. The 12% of the respondents who wrote that they had five English lessons per week were the students of the private grammar school. Approximately 66% of all respondents stated that they were divided into smaller groups for English lessons; the rest of the students stayed in one group throughout. When asked to determine the number of students in their EL class, students most often indicated that there were from 11 to 15 students; the second most common range was from 16 to 20. The private school provided the students with better teaching conditions when allowing most of them to study English in groups of 6 to 10 students.

More than 70% of the respondents claimed that they did not have any lesson per month focused strictly on conversation in English (neither with a native speaker, nor with their English teacher), but some of them admitted that conversation in the EL was sometimes a part of regular English lessons. At the rest of the grammar schools, students had either four conversation lessons per month (i.e. one per week) or six conversation lessons per month (i.e. one 90-minute lesson per week – this was the case of the private grammar school).

2.1.5.   Teachers as seen through their students´ eyes

Students were also asked to respond to the questions concerning the characteristics of their EL teachers. By asking such questions, we wanted to find out what the most commonly cited strengths and weaknesses were that students came up with when thinking about their teachers. Most students a ppreciated s uch teacher´s qualities that might belong among the characteristics of the *integrative educational style*: the professional qualification, helpfulness, good humour, effective lessons and consistent behaviour. There are other teacher´s qualities that students appreciate (such

as speaking English throughout the lessons, being accurate and consistent, making students speak, etc. – more details are to be found in the Appendix(Part V) and it is good to keep them in mind.

As for the weaknesses, students most disliked it when their EL teacher was inconsistent in behaviour (i.e. showed outbursts of anger, was once friendly and the next time mean, did not check homework, etc.). On the one hand, the respondents did not like it when their teacher was too strict and demanding (12%), on the other hand they also did not appreciate it when the teacher was not strict enough (7%). Some students (9%) wanted the teacher to converse with them more and others complained about too stereotypical lessons. The rest of the features or circumstances that students included among weaknesses are listed in the chart in the Appendix (Part V).

This questionnaire also wanted to have a quick look at the textbooks which students used in EL lessons and ask them if they were satisfied with what the teachers or the school chose for them and specify their reasons. The matter of the choice of the textbook, its composition, texts, themes and activities together with the use of the workbook represent variables which may be determining for the use of SR in English classes. However, the analysis of a textbook and of the reasons why its users are or are not satisfied with it would need much space and this thesis does not intend to deal with it on these pages.

Having described the findings from the survey concerning the characteristics of the students, their interests, reasons why they use English, their self-assessment of EL skills and evaluating their teachers, we will now focus on what students have to say about SR in the EL.

2.2. Supplementary Reading

2.2.1. The reader climate

The first battery of questions concerning SR centred on the reader climate at the chosen grammar schools. When asked how many (45-minute) lessons focused particularly on activities with SR students had per month, over 50% of the respondents wrote that they did not have any strictly reading lesson, 23% had two reading lessons per month (one every two weeks), 14% had one reading lesson per month and 16% of the respondents said that they had three reading lessons per month.

Approximately 12% of the respondents did not enjoy the activities with SR and found them boring, useless, too demanding or other. However, the majority of students (65%) responded that they enjoyed their activities with SR. The reasons which they mentioned were the following: they found SR interesting and reviving (26%), others saw it as the opportunity to practise and develop various skills (12%) or simply as a change from the routine (8%).

The next aim was to ask students under what circumstances they would perceive SR as more meaningful. Only 50% of the respondents answered this question, but their responses aptly summarize the situation. The students pointed out that the following measures would have to be taken in order to improve the situation: the activities with SR would have to be more frequent and regular, the themes and materials would have to be more variable and centre on practical, real-life, relevant and personal issues. Students would also have to spend time doing home preparation (reading for the lessons). Some of them also mentioned that if they already had better knowledge of the EL, they would find working with SRM more sensible (but this which might also mean that the SRM were not well chosen for them). Others pointed out that the work with SR would be more efficient if there were fewer students in the class (which corresponds to what we found out earlier).

Changes that might make SR more meaningful

Category	Value
more frequent activities with SR	14
practical and real-life SRM	10
home preparation and reading	8
more variable materials available	5
more time spent on SR	4
relevant and personal issues	3
better knowledge of English	2
regular SR activities	2
less students in class	1

%, only 50% of students responded
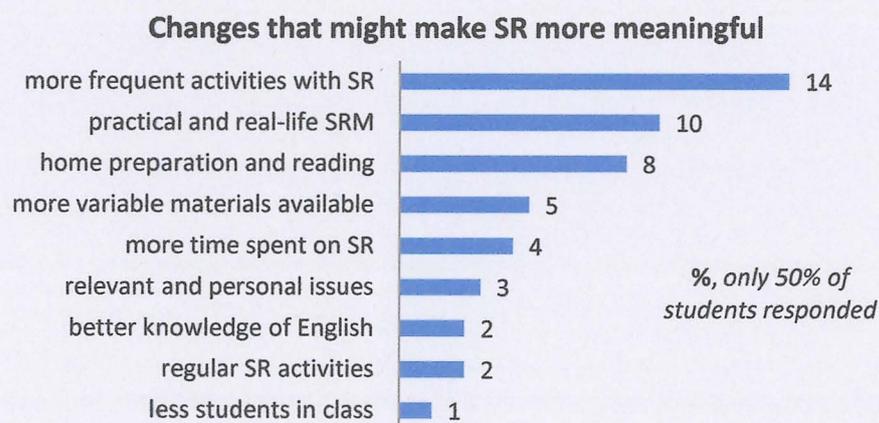
Other questions focused on the availability of SRM at grammar schools. The vast majority of students (80%) responded that they had a school library or a supply of graded SRM available and that they could take advantage of them mostly anytime (60%), during opening hours (20%), during breaks (18%) or some days in the afternoon.

Students who did not have a school library or a supply of SRM available at school (20%) were asked if they would take advantage of it if it was available. Approximately 76% of the respondents would take advantage of the SRM and 24% of the students would not. The majority of the students who did not have the library would be willing to contribute a certain sum of money (mostly from 10 to 100 CZK) to set it up. All students were asked whether they would be willing to buy a graded reader for use during SR lessons at school. Almost 40% of the respondents would be willing to spend from 50 to 100 CZK on it and 50% would buy a graded reader for 101 to 200 CZK.

2.2.2. The content of SR

Another cluster of questions was aimed at finding out more about students' personal preferences concerning the form, content and activities with SR. Students expressed their opinions on a series of statements about SR by circling a point on a graded scale. The results presented below distinguish between boys' and girls' preferences (boys' colour is blue, girls' is red). Even though the results were calculated on the basis of average values and therefore one could argue that their value is debatable or biased, we take the results as a tool of determining at least the direction of students' preferences towards more positive or negative points on the scale.

One of the aims when setting up the student questionnaire was to ask the students what the content of SR should be like in order to attract their attention and motivate them to read. The results presented in the chart below enable us to come up with an ideal SR text for both boys and girls (we may see that their preferences did not differ too much).

According to the students, the content of SR should ideally be: shorter, preferably cheerful and witty than too serious; there should not be too many characters, but there could be some action and adventure. The content should preferably be topical, popular and from real life, and its English should be neither too difficult, nor too easy. The text should be printed rather than in the electronic version. Students also pointed out that they preferred drama, travelogues and biographies to poetry, coverage and interviews.

The Content of SR Should Be:	definitely	preferably	either, both	preferably	definitely	Boys / Girls
short	1	2	3	4	5	long
cheerful and witty	1	2	3	4	5	serious
descriptive	1	2	3	4	5	action
historical	1	2	3	4	5	topical
scientific	1	2	3	4	5	popular
easy EL	1	2	3	4	5	original EL
printed	1	2	3	4	5	electronic
real-life	1	2	3	4	5	fiction
many characters	1	2	3	4	5	few characters
adventurous	1	2	3	4	5	romantic
biographical	1	2	3	4	5	interview
travelog	1	2	3	4	5	coverage
drama	1	2	3	4	5	poetry

2.2.3. The topics of SR

In order to map the present situation concerning the topics of SR that are most widely used in EL classes, students were asked to mark the topics which they had already come across. Most students named topics such as film, music, sports and geography, animals, celebrities, people who achieved something, etc. (see the chart in the Appendix (Part V) for the rest).

As for the choice of SR topics which students would like to read and work with in future EL lessons (see the chart below), the preferences of most students balanced around the middle values. This means that the respondents did not express either extreme preferences or dislikes. On the whole, it seemed that girls were more positive about encountering most of the topics while boys were more restrained. The topics which girls seemed to prefer more than other include: film and music, cultural differences, animals, and lifestyle and fashion – that is topics that they had mostly encountered already. Boys also preferred film and music, but they added computers (which were not marked as too common topics at present). Judging from the vagueness of boys' responses, they would like to read about mystery topics, themes concerning people who achieved something and books and reading. However lifestyle and fashions and celebrities (topics that many students named among those which they had

encountered) did not appeal to boys so much as to girls. All in all, it seems that the present topics of SR are not too far from what students would like to keep in the future.

The Topics of SR That Boys and Girls Prefer	difinitely not	preferably not	do not mind	preferably yes	definitely yes
daily news	1	2	3	4	5
new discoveries	1	2	3	4	5
computers	1	2	3	4	5
geography and world	1	2	3	4	5
cultural differences	1	2	3	4	5
nature and ecology	1	2	3	4	5
animals	1	2	3	4	5
mystery	1	2	3	4	5
lifestyle and fashion	1	2	3	4	5
people who achieved smt.	1	2	3	4	5
celebrities	1	2	3	4	5
friendship and love	1	2	3	4	5
books and reading	1	2	3	4	5
arts	1	2	3	4	5
theatre	1	2	3	4	5
film	1	2	3	4	5
music	1	2	3	4	5
sports	1	2	3	4	5

2.2.4. Activities with SR

The areas of activities which students have had the chance to practise with SR may be traced in the chart below. It has come out that the majority of students have done reading, speaking about the text, translating, reading comprehension questions, working with unknown vocabulary items, some grammar and text activities and listening. All which has just been listed may be categorized under the reading-related activities aimed at developing language skills (and forms).

On the contrary, activities about which it is possible to say that they are aimed at practising the category of higher-level reading-related skills were generally not too common. One of them, namely discussing the content of the reading (which focuses more on the message than on language development) was mentioned by 60% of the

respondents. The remaining responses, however, showed, that other reading-related activities that were exercised were aimed more on practising their final output than on becoming aware of the process which would enable the students to improve the skills and gradually become independent readers. These skills involved presenting one´s opinion in front of the class, taking a critical stance and debating.

Most common activities with SR according to students

■ Yes ■ No

Activity	Frequency
reading	143
speaking about the text	136
translation	124
reading comprehension questions	122
making notes of unknown vocabulary	114
grammar and text activities	103
listening	103
discussing the content of the reading	96
presenting opinion in front of class	77
using new vocabulary in sentences	70
writing composition about the text	69
forming opinion	62
writing composition on related theme	58
drama activities	48
finding out info about the author	44
taking critical stance	38
debating	32
self-recording of pronunciation	16

We also wanted to see what reading-related activities students themselves found useful and would like to continue practising in the future. Most students wanted to read texts and speak about them (which corresponds to what they already do with the texts). Translation and reading-related listening activities also belonged among those which the respondents wanted to develop and teachers do give them the opportunity. However, there are activities aimed at practising critical thinking skills through reading, such as forming opinion and taking a critical stance, which students wished to develop more than teachers let them. As for presenting opinion in front of the class, it could be seen that this is an activity preferred by boys rather than girls. On the other hand, the place of other activities, such as making notes of unknown vocabulary and using it in sentences,

showed that the students did not only want to enlarge their word stock. Apart from that they wanted to be able to use the items they learned in their context and this might anticipate their interest in practising intensive reading skills if teachers acquainted them with the corresponding techniques.

Activities With SR That Boys and Girls Prefer	definitely not	preferably not	do not mind	preferably yes	definitely yes
reading	1	2	3	4	5
speaking about the text	1	2	3	4	5
grammar and text activities	1	2	3	4	5
translation	1	2	3	4	5
making notes of unknown vocabulary	1	2	3	4	5
using new vocabulary in sentences	1	2	3	4	5
listening	1	2	3	4	5
writing composition about the text	1	2	3	4	5
writing composition on related theme	1	2	3	4	5
follow-up understanding questions	1	2	3	4	5
finding out info about the author	1	2	3	4	5
discussing the content of the reading	1	2	3	4	5
debating	1	2	3	4	5
drama activities	1	2	3	4	5
self-recording pronunciation	1	2	3	4	5
forming opinion	1	2	3	4	5
taking critical stance	1	2	3	4	5
presenting opinion in front of class	1	2	3	4	5

It is obvious from the charts that students prefer the traditional more routine reading-related activities which they know and which they are required to know for tests and the secondary school leaving examination. Nevertheless, there is a significant shift in students' preferences towards the desire to practise also other skills, namely the critical thinking skills, and sometimes even less traditional activities, such as drama activities. There is one interesting finding from the survey which cannot be deciphered from the chart: students who did have personal experience with playing theatre based on a graded reader adaptation of Shakespeare's plays wanted to continue in this activity (the results in the chart were outbalanced by the majority, especially boys, who had never been through any drama-like activities and were reluctant to try them out).

When asked to come up with other ideas and recommendations that might help improve the present situation concerning SR, most students did not write anything. The few students who did give their suggestions showed the desire to use more multimedia devices in connection to SR, especially films or music.

2.3. Teacher questionnaires

Teacher questionnaires were distributed to nine different grammar schools where 27 teachers agreed to complete them. When contacting the teachers and asking them for help with this survey, most of them were willing to participate. Teachers whom the author of this thesis knows personally took more time to respond to the questions while the majority of the teachers who were contacted only by e-mail either did not reply at all or, when given the questionnaires, completed them only roughly (although even their responses were valuable). On the whole, one could see that teachers were overloaded with work at school and somehow, this lack of time seems to be typical of the school environment in general. Indeed, when filling in the questionnaires, most of the teachers wrote that they would need more time for teaching English and more time for teaching reading in English.

The following paragraphs will describe the respondents of teacher questionnaires and the teaching conditions. Subsequently, teachers' opinions on SR will be analyzed especially with regard to the factor of motivation and techniques which they use when working with SR.

2.3.1. Teachers and the teaching conditions

Most of the 27 teachers who completed the questionnaires were women between 36 and 45 years of age. Seven teachers were over 46 and four were younger than 36. There were only three male respondents. The majority of the respondents (21 persons) have been teaching English for more than 10 years.

When asked about to describe the teaching conditions, 17 teachers wrote that they taught one group of students three times a week for 45 minutes, eight teachers wrote that they taught one group four times a week. They stated that most often, there were from 11 to 15 students in one class (in 16 cases), more than 16 students in eight cases and less than ten in two cases.

Most teachers claimed that there was a school library or a supply of graded SRM (in 23 cases) at their grammar school, two teachers described this supply of materials as very limited and would like to extend it. There were three other teachers who did not have SRM available at school, two of whom would welcome the opportunity to have it and one opposed the idea (due to his or her preference for different sorts of SRM than a school library can offer). Eighteen teachers expressed their preference to have their students buy a graded reader for following common reading activities in class, while six teachers were not interested in this idea.

2.3.2. The circumstances of teaching supplementary reading

One of the questions teachers were asked to reflect upon was why, in their opinion, it was so that SR was not sufficiently used in EL lessons and why it was so that the contribution of teaching SR was underestimated. The teachers gave several reasons explaining the situation, but the vast majority of them agreed that the major cause of such unfavourable reality was the lack of time they had to teach English in general and thence also to teach reading in the EL. The teachers pointed out that having three English lessons a week with one group of students was sadly insufficient and that for that reason they were forced to devote most of the time to teaching the subject matter from the textbook, or that they spent time practising also other language skills than only reading. Others added that teaching SR was a time-consuming matter which could not be effectively exercised during 45-minute lessons.

Not only did the teachers find SR demanding in terms of time during a lesson, but they also pointed out that it was very time-consuming in terms of preparation. A significant number of teachers responded that in order to present the students with meaningful and interesting SR activities, they would need to spend a lot of time looking for and preparing the materials to satisfy students' various interests and levels of English. For that reason they preferred ready-made activities which they could find in the textbook. Some of the teachers also pointed out that textbooks contained a significant range of texts and therefore they did not need to search elsewhere to supplement it.

Another reason which a lot of teachers gave to explain why SR was underestimated at grammar schools was the lack of interest in reading on the part of students. The teachers wrote that this was true of students reading both in Czech and in

English and that it was so due to the fact that many of them were overloaded with schoolwork for other subjects and therefore did not have much time left for reading at home. Some of the teachers said that, on the whole, the trends were shifting from reading books towards using the internet and electronic multimedia devices.

There was also one teacher who expressed the very reasonable opinion that teaching reading was a long-term matter which required a very conscientious effort from both teachers and students in order to develop in students adequate reading habits, get them used to thinking critically about literature, preparing presentations, writing reading diaries and reviews of books. This, for the above-mentioned reasons, was hardly possible under the present teaching conditions.

2.3.3. Students' attitudes to supplementary reading

Another open question for the teachers to answer related to students' attitudes to SR and its aim was to find out how students perceived activities with SR. Most of the teachers responded that students' attitudes to reading in the EL depended very much on their interests. Students who were readers already did not have much trouble getting used to reading in the EL. Usually, if the reading texts were chosen to suit students' interests, they did not mind working with them during English lessons.

Other teachers suggested that students' attitudes to reading in the EL closely derived from their teacher's attitude to reading in the EL. That is to say, the teacher who made students gradually understand that reading in the EL was an integral part of English lessons did not have problems to make students read regularly and follow up reading-related activities. Yet, such a teacher, it was pointed out, had to be very consistent in his or her approach.

There were several teachers who observed that students' attitudes to reading in the EL depended very much on their motivation. Some students were motivated because they knew that the secondary school leaving examination was approaching. Others were motivated to read in English when they saw the purpose in doing so – when they understood the vocabulary more or less, when they were able to follow the flow of the text, when the form of the text was not too complex, when the text was topical and when the themes could be at least partially chosen by the students themselves.

Four teachers observed that students saw SR as a desirable change or as an escape from the routine of the textbook. One of the teachers remarked that some students saw SR as relaxation which could, however, be followed up by useful communicative activities and vocabulary development in order to combine business with pleasure.

2.3.4. What discourages students from reading in English

The previous paragraphs were concerned with students' attitudes to reading in the FL as teachers perceived it. Our next concern was to find out what, according to teachers, discouraged students from reading in the EL most. The majority of teachers responded that it was the inappropriate choice of text either in terms of difficulty, form, length or content. Two teachers noted that students were automatically discouraged from reading when they had to do reading at home (the teachers thought that it was mostly due to the fact that students had home preparation in other subjects which was more urgent for them to accomplish and for that reason were reluctant to spend time on reading).

Other teachers mentioned that many students despised forced reading round the class and subsequent analyses of the passages without having been properly introduced into the context of the reading or helped to see the sense in it. There were a few teachers who remarked that also the price of graded readers could discourage students form buying books for reading inside and outside the classroom.

2.3.5. How to make students enjoy SR more

Having read what it is that discourages students from reading in the EL, it is obvious that certain measures could and should be taken in order to make students enjoy the activities with SR more. The teachers were asked to say what these measures could be.

Many teachers expressed their opinion that the choice of the topic was of crucial importance in order to make students read in the EL, and that the topic should be as close to real life and to students' personal passions as possible. One teacher even wrote that students would enjoy any reading activity if it was not connected to the school environment. This, as other teachers suggested, might be achieved at least partially

through the development of less conventional activities with SR such as literary competitions or quizzes or, for example, including ICT into the teaching process (e.g. reading and writing online blogs and visiting interactive reading websites), which would move teaching SR outside the classrooms.

Such innovations in teaching could, according to some respondents, only be initiated by an enthusiastic and motivated teacher. He or she would provide better feedback on the reading activities and, on the whole, implement some pre-reading, while-reading and post-reading strategies to draw students in. Since many teachers saw SR as a complex matter, they expressed interest in having handy some ready-made SRM (we will have a look at these in the passage on "Teaching materials") and in having a school library of graded readers at their disposal. Nevertheless, many of the teacher respondents claimed that students would enjoy SR much more if there were more strictly reading lessons for the whole class or at least for a specific group of students who would frequent a special optional reading seminar.

2.3.6. How teachers motivate students to read in English

Another question was aimed at finding out how teachers motivate students to read in English and what guided reading strategies they use when they want to make students work with SR. The vast majority of teachers stated that they tried to motivate students to read by selecting topics which they found attractive. A few teachers wrote that they gave students the chance to have their say on the choice of the topics and SRM, and two teachers even mentioned that once or twice a school year the students voted on what graded reader they would buy and read together in English lessons.

There were teachers who motivated students by stressing the importance of language development through reading in the EL (e.g. practising grammar, building up vocabulary, reading the text with voice accompaniment on CD, etc.), others emphasized the importance of the knowledge of literature in order to succeed in the secondary school leaving examination or the FCE or CAE examinations. According to those teachers, when students had a specific goal and knew that they would be examined on the subject matter, they accessed reading more responsibly. However, there was also one teacher who wrote that his or her way to motivate students was by pointing out that

students could improve their marks by voluntarily presenting a book review or a presentation about a chosen author.

There was a significant number of teachers who wrote that they motivated students to read in the EL by using what we might possibly call guided reading strategies. Some teachers claimed that they recommended books, others read extracts from the books, spoke about the author, the text or its historical context, and one teacher let the students do a quiz containing some vocabulary from the text, or fill in a cloze poem. There were also some teachers who let the students read an excerpt from the text and then asked them to infer or imagine the ending. One of the teachers pointed out the importance of looking for the message in the text together with the students and speaking about the text afterwards.

In addition, there were teachers who tried to motivate students to read by starting out with literary extracts presented in the textbook and moving to read the whole titles afterwards; others started on easy readers and gradually moved to read the original piece of writing. There were quite a few teachers who started with a movie or TV adaptation of a book and then moved to read the original with the students. Only two teachers wrote that they motivated students by taking them to see theatre adaptations of the texts or by putting book reviews or actualities referring to SRM on notice boards.

2.3.7. Teachers' suggestions for the improvement of the reader climate

One of the last open questions in the teacher questionnaire centred on what could be done in order to improve the reader climate and encourage the use of SRM at grammar schools. The chart which can be found in the Appendix (Part VI) put the findings in a hierarchical order according to the number of teachers who suggested taking each measure. Some of their suggestions will be discussed below in more detail.

Most teachers suggested increasing the number of English lessons taught at grammar schools from three lessons per week to at least four. The fourth lesson could be used as a strictly reading lesson. Other teachers proposed introducing a special optional literary seminar for those who would be interested in reading in the EL, which would ensure regular contact with SR and motivated participants. There were also teachers who would welcome the opportunity to get access to more and better ready-made SRM.

This would enable them to spend less time on lesson preparation, take inspiration from quality resources and motivate students to read by implementing various guided reading strategies.

Other teachers suggested that a school library should definitely provide access to graded SRM which, however, depended on individual schools, their equipment, finances and overall approach to reading. Other interesting suggestions to improve the reader climate which teachers proposed included, among other things, focusing on projects or performances related to SR which students would accomplish together and present publicly. Such activities with SR would give students authentic reasons to use SRM and motivate them to work hard in order to succeed in the project or the performance, e.g. a theatre performance for teachers, schoolmates and parents.

2.4. Teaching materials

Teaching materials represent important requisites for teachers to succeed in the teaching process and for students to have something they can always refer to when learning the EL. The very basic teaching material is the textbook and as it was already pointed out earlier, SRM usually supplement it. However, we will not focus on analyzing textbooks as this would need a very extensive study. Instead, we will have a closer look at the teaching materials which teachers most often use in connection with SR and suggest other SRM which they could potentially use.

2.4.1. The type of SR

In student questionnaires, the respondents were asked to mark the type of SR which they had already come across at school (see the Appendix (Part V) for more details). It was not surprising that magazine articles and the whole magazines were named most often. The majority of students also mentioned graded readers and newspaper articles. Very similar results were obtained from teacher questionnaires: teachers most often used magazine articles and graded readers while electronic resources were only used for the lesson preparation and not in the teaching process.

When students were asked about their future preferences concerning the type of SR which they would like to work with, the choices of boys and girls were quite alike. They expressed their wish to work with magazine articles, graded readers or EL

magazines, which means that they were satisfied with the present situation. On the whole, students did not want to work with electronic books and internet magazines or newspapers.

As for specific titles, students named the following publications: magazines *Bridge* (mentioned by more than half of the respondents), *Friendship* and *Hello*; newspapers *The Prague Post* and *The Times*; graded readers *Sherlock Holmes, Robinson Crusoe, Pride and Prejudice, Woman in White, A Midsummer Nights´ Dream, Romeo and Juliet*; various Penguin Readers (level 4-6), complete books in the original *Harry Potter, Of Mice and Men*, some short stories by E. A. Poe and a few bilingual books (without specifying the titles).

The teachers most often used the magazine *Bridge* (both printed and electronic), a few of them mentioned *Friendship* (not so often), *Team* and *National Geographic* (both printed and electronic); other teachers used articles from *The Prague Post, The Guardian Weekly, The New York Observer* (electronic versions); some of the teachers used articles from *BBC* online, from the *Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia* online and from *Google*. A few teachers stated that they used Penguin Readers or Oxford Bookworms. One teacher used online *Poetry archive* and another took advantage of the *Project Guttenberg*. One teacher mentioned using Michaela Čaňková´s publication *Open Channels*.

The aim of the following passages is to look more closely at some of the SRM which are or can be used to create an interesting and effective English reading lesson.

2.4.2. Graded readers

Graded readers were already briefly introduced in the passage on "Teaching as decision making". In our survey of teaching materials, we analyzed chosen graded readers from different publishing houses and will now comment on their layout and quality. On the whole, it seems that all renowned publishing houses such as Oxford and Cambridge, Longman, Macmillan and Heinemann publish series of graded readers. Penguin Readers and Oxford Bookworms seem to be most popular. It should be noted that the terminology and grading used by each publisher is very different as the following passages show.

Oxford Bookworms Library offers over 130 graded readers and more than 50 titles are also available on tapes or CDs.[6] The titles range from classics, true stories, fantasy and horror stories to human interest, crime and mystery, thriller and adventure stories. There are six stages of English levels from the most elementary titles to titles in the original (stage 1: 400 headwords, stage 2: 700 headwords, stage 3: 1000 headwords, stage 4: 1400 headwords, stage 5: 1800 headwords, stage 6: 2500 headwords). The books contain a glossary, a short note about the author and carefully chosen before reading, while reading and after reading activities (these activities relate to the whole book and not to individual chapters). The books are accompanied by pictures or photos. However, it is not specified whether the books are written in British or American English. Also, the series titles claim that each book has an introduction, but the sample we looked into did not have one. The prices[7] range from 80 to 180 CZK on average (according to the number of pages).

Penguin Readers represent the second series of graded readers which was most often mentioned by the respondents. They are published by Penguin Books in cooperation with Longman. Penguin readers are graded in a different way than Oxford Bookworms. They are available in seven levels (level 0 easystarts: 200 words, level 1 beginner: 300 words, level 2 elementary: 600 words, level 3 pre-intermediate: 1200 words, level 4 intermediate: 1700 words, level 5 upper intermediate: 2300 words, level 6 advanced: 3000 words). The last level seems to be more difficult than the last level from the Oxford Bookworms edition. They include classic titles, contemporary or original writings. Penguin Readers contain an introduction which gives interesting information about the author and the context of the piece of writing. They are illustrated and at the end, there are before and after reading activities grouped for every four chapters and a few suggestions for writing. However, sometimes the glossary of problematic words is missing. Penguin factsheets with answers and other teacher resources are published in teacher resource packs or available on the internet. There are many additional materials, teaching activities and supplementary exercises available on the website of the

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[6] Most recent information on the titles from Oxford Bookworm Library can be found on the website:
http://au.oup.com/content/general.asp?ContentID=180

[7] All the prices mentioned were obtained in the bookshop Palác knih Luxor on August 25, 2007.

publisher.[8] Some of the books are accompanied by tapes or CDs. The prices vary from 100 to 140 CZK on average.

We also want to mention *Macmillan Readers* since they are becoming widely available in bookshops and their quality is relatively high. These readers provide original, classic or modern titles in six levels (starter: 300 words, beginner: 600 words, elementary: 1100, pre-intermediate: 1400 words, intermediate: 1600 words and upper: 2200 words). One may notice that Macmillan's elementary level contains almost fifty per cent more words than Penguin Reader's elementary level which only enhances the inconsistency in the grading. The series are illustrated and they provide information control, structure control and vocabulary control (see the Appendix (Part VII) for more details). It is always marked whether the English is British or American. The note about the author is always available and often, the characters of the story are introduced and pictured in the beginning. There are activities for each chapter at the end of the book, but no distinction is made between pre, while and post reading activities. There is a glossary and sometimes also a guide to pronunciation. Most of the books are available with an audio-CD and some of them even have film or TV tie-ins. Resource packs, answer keys and other additional activities are available on the internet.[9] These book editions were not available in the bookshop which we visited.

There is one more publisher, an Italian company *Black Cat*, whose graded readers are worth mentioning. They are nicely illustrated and contain many various activities from listening, playing drama, gap-filling, scanning activities, true and false questions, writing activities, grammar-related points to brief and informative essays and a final test. The pre and post reading activities are presented before and after each chapter. The edition provides enough background information on the author and the story. However, there is no glossary. The series are available in five levels of difficulty marked according to CEFR reference levels and the exams which they may help prepare for (beginner: PET (B1), elementary: PET (B1), pre-intermediate: FCE (B2), intermediate: FCE (B2) and upper-intermediate: CAE (C1) – there is no information about the number of English head words). All of the books are accompanied by audio-CDs and some include

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[8] Penguin Readers website: http://www.penguinreaders.com/pr/resources/index.html
[9] Macmillan Readers website: http://www.macmillanenglish.com/readers/

enhanced CD-ROMs (for use on the computer) with additional games and activities. These book editions were not available in the bookshop which we visited.

From the survey of the market and the materials available, it is possible to say that bookshops offer many graded readers from different publishers for various levels of English. Prices of over 100 CZK seem to be standard for FL publications. The publishers whose series we have analyzed offer graded readers with various activities and, therefore, if students buy any of the readers, they will get a quality product. However, if teachers or a school library wanted to buy a set of graded readers, they would have to make sure that they buy the readers published by one publisher. This will save them problems which they would encounter if they had several different series with different grading styles.

2.4.3. English magazines

Many students and teachers mentioned that they sometimes used the magazines *Bridge* and *Friendship*. *Bridge* is the English magazine for students offering a wide range of news and articles on topical events, film, sports, history, music, technology, foreign countries and others. *Bridge* also offers students tips on topical events taking place at various places. There is always a vocabulary and pronunciation corner accompanying each article and the differences between British and American English are pointed out. Sometimes, words which students might find new or which would be useful to learn are printed in bold. There are also weird news, comics, quizzes and easy English corners and it seems that, on the whole, the teacher has a relatively wide range of different topics and styles to choose from. The magazine is also available in an online version on the *Bridge* internet site.[10] Schools can subscribe and the publisher will send them the number of copies which they need to work with in lessons or to put into a school library. The price for up to ten copies is 16 CZP an issue.

Friendship is a magazine for learners of English with a long tradition. It is published in Slovakia and distributed to schools also in the Czech Republic. It is aimed at intermediate and post-intermediate students. The magazine includes several sections on various themes; usually there are a few articles related to English-speaking countries

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[10] Bridge website: http://www.bridge-online.cz/2006/index.php

(their culture, literature, traditions, lifestyle, etc.), but there are also articles about, for example, m usic, film, holiday, nature and travelling. There is always a vocabulary corner. It seems very practical that there is a section dedicated to the preparation for the secondary school leaving examination. *Friendship* also offers various competitions. Some of the articles are available on the internet[11] where the contestants may also check the correct answers to the competition questions.

The authors of the articles are both native English speakers and Slovak and Czech authors and there is one comment which needs to be made in relation to this. A respondent of the student questionnaire suggested that he or she did not like the fact that articles in an EL magazine were written by Slovak or Czech authors and would prefer if the whole magazine was written by native speakers of English who, according to the respondents, would provide more authentic materials which students would take as more credible. This claim is probably not well-founded, but the publishers of the magazine and the teachers should keep in mind that if students know who the authors are, they may unconsciously change their attitudes to the articles. Indeed it seems to be trendy among students to approach English through more authentic (but at the same time not excessively difficult) materials.

2.4.4. Open Channels and Open Gates

In teacher questionnaires, a significant number of the respondents expressed their wish to have access to more or better ready-made SRM. It seems that the publications *Open Channels* and *Open Gates* by Michaela Čaňková would meet these requirements. They represent two special ready-made Courses of 20th century literature – British literature and American literature and culture – consisting of a Student's Book, a Teacher's Book and a tape or a CD. The Student's Book contains varied pre-reading, reading and post-reading sections on the extracts written by well-known authors. The Teacher's Book offers a variety of teaching ideas, suggestions and detailed methodology on how to deal with the presented material. The tape and the CD include almost all the literary texts from the Student's Books.

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[11] Friendship website: http://www.flp.sk/vydavatelstvo/flp/

The series is intended for post-intermediate students of secondary schools (particularly the last two years of studies) who want to improve their language abilities on something more challenging than textbook material and it can also serve as preparation material for the secondary school leaving examination. Most of the reading activities are supposed to be done at school, although there is a homework activity at the end of each chapter. The books are illustrated, accompanied by various photos and, on the whole, nicely-designed. It seems that if teachers integrated these publications into EL courses, they might help to successfully develop v arious reading-related skills and broaden the horizons of the students.

2.4.5. Anthologies

The issue of anthologies was already introduced in the passage on "Teaching as decision making". They represent an interesting source of extracts by well-known writers written in an authentic language and systematically arranged to outline the literary development of a language community. Anthologies contain brief information about the authors. If a teacher decides to work with anthologies, he or she may choose from extracts of various linguistic styles, forms genres and time periods and practise any reading-related skills. The disadvantages might be that there are no ready-made activities accompanying anthologies, there is no tape or CD available, there are too many names and dates and the students are not usually enthusiastic about reading extracts even in their mother tongue, let alone in the EL.

Nevertheless, there are several anthologies which can potentially be used for more advanced students. One of them is *The Anthology of American Literature* (*Antologie americké literatury* by Jařab, Masnerová & Nenadál, 1985) and another is *The English Reader* (*Anglická čítanka* by František Marek, 1976). There are also *Norton Anthologies* of full texts representative of the literary development of English-writing communities. Some of the anthologies focus on women's writings, while others a re o n minority authors, for example. However, such voluminous anthologies are fully appropriate for tertiary studies of literature and if teachers do use them at grammar schools, they should do it very carefully and only from time to time, e.g. for reasons of literary, language or stylistic comparison.

2.4.6. Almanacs

Using almanacs represents an unconventional way of connecting learning the language with the content. *The World Almanac for Kids* published annually in the U.S.A. contains numerous facts, quizzes, experiments, puzzles, maps, source websites and many other activities on all sorts of contemporary topics such as people and places, art, weather, homework help, music, dance, sports and nations and U.S. history. It contains more than 300 pictures and also the topics are designed to attract the eye of the reader and thus help memorize the facts. *Almanacs* represent an authentic source of reading material which might enable students to quickly take in a bigger amount of factual information and therefore to practise their scanning reading skills.

At the same time, students can connect to the internet,[12] read the articles, play games and follow up the various activities and articles which are prepared for them online. There is also the resource kit and the exercise key and various activities for English lessons with *Almanacs* prepared for teachers. The *Almanac* is suitable for use in lower-level English lessons and it seems that younger students might enjoy working with it from time to time.

2.4.7. Internet resources

Most of the teaching materials mentioned above have internet websites where teachers and students may find additional resources and activities. Getting students to use the internet seems to be a natural and interesting way of moving learning and reading outside classrooms. Therefore, teachers might assign homework connected with certain activities to be accomplished on the magazine sites and other web pages.

Using internet newspapers provides teachers with numerous opportunities to easily print out articles and edit them in word processors to suit their teaching aims. However, newspaper articles usually provide authentic materials and are not always suitable for all students. For instance, the websites of *The Prague Post, The Guardian Weekly, The New York Observer* (which are the newspapers used by teachers most often) as well as other online newspapers are easily accessible when typing the name into Google search engine. If teachers

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[12] The World Almanac for Kids website: http://www.worldalmanacforkids.com/

Nevertheless, there is one more area which needs to be mentioned in order to make the picture of available reading materials more complete. It is the area of e-books offering the opportunity to read pieces of writing on the computer monitor. Not only is it possible to find on the internet full versions of many books in full text formats, but it is also possible to download a reader programme which provides the background for reading a real e-book (i.e. to see the content, the chapters, the information about the author, and to browse the book by turning its pages). Some of the programmes that enable this sort of authentic online reading experience are e.g. Adobe Digital Edition[13] or Microsoft Reader.[14]

However, there are many different file formats in which e-books can be found on the internet and each of the series require the installation of a different reader software (which may be free to download or available for a fee). Apart from the technical difficulties, it has also become hard to access online e-books for free and many internet sites require that those who are interested in downloading the books pay a certain sum of money. Last but not least, it is true that ICT and the internet represent one of the areas of students' utmost interests, but when expressing their preferences, the overwhelming majority of students wanted to use printed SRM in their EL lessons. Therefore, teachers should focus on using printed SRM (while still accessing the internet to prepare reading activities for students or to find ready-made resources) and from time to time assign students a reading homework activity connected with the use of the internet.

There is one more activity connected with reading in the EL which teachers might introduce to students via the internet. It concerns writing online reading diaries or blogs about the books which students have read in English. However, this might work on condition that teachers know how to motivate students to read in the first place.

2.5. Teaching techniques

In student questionnaires, the respondents were asked to check the activities that they often came across in relation to SR and state which of them they would like to engage in in the future. Our aim at this point is to see what techniques teachers prefer when teaching reading-related skills, why they do not use other techniques and what

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[13] Adobe Digital Editions website: http://www.adobe.com/products/digitaleditions/
[14] Microsoft Reader website: http://www.microsoft.com/reader/

advantages and disadvantages they attribute to each activity with SR. The following chart presents the findings.

Most common techniques with SR used by teachers

■ Yes ■ No

Technique	Frequency
reading	25
speaking about the text	25
reading comprehension questions	24
discussing the content of the reading	24
presenting opinion in front of class	22
listening	19
grammar and text activities	18
making notes of unknown vocabulary	17
forming opinion	16
taking critical stance	16
debating	15
translation	14
finding out info about the author	13
writing composition about the text	11
writing composition on related theme	11
using new vocabulary in sentences	8
drama activities	7
recording students´ pronunciation	3

If we compare the responses given by students and teachers, we may see that both groups mentioned reading and speaking about the text among the activities with SR most commonly used. Reading comprehension, grammar and text activities and listening were also marked by students and teachers in almost an identical order. However, activities which included practising more purely reading skills and critical thinking skills (such as discussing the content of the reading, presenting one´s opinion in front of the class, forming an opinion, taking a critical stance and debating) on the whole maintained much lower positions in student questionnaires. We may ask why it was so that teachers thought that they practised with students those higher-level reading-related skills while students claimed that such skills were by far not so much emphasized in the EL lessons. One of the reasons could be that the target group of teachers addressed by the questionnaires represented a rare exception to the commonly

held practice of teaching SR at grammar schools. However, we think that it is also likely that the afore mentioned activities with SR were usually exercised in connection with other reading-related activities without having the teachers verbally specify that those activities were aimed at, for example, taking a critical stance or forming an opinion. For these reasons students might not have become aware of the fact that those activities formed an integral part of the reading process as a whole.

Nevertheless, the individual reading-related activities will be discussed in more detail in the table below in order to see what advantages and disadvantages teachers saw in their use with respect to teaching factors.

Most common techniques with SR used by teachers	The advantages of the techniques according to teachers	The disadvantages of the techniques according to teachers
Reading	it is good for practising pronunciation, diction and reading an unknown text; it is easy to control; students may learn specific information; it is good in order to get to know the piece of writing, its style and the author	reading round the class is a time-consuming, routine activity which requires little or no effort; it can be boring for those who are not reading at the very moment; it can be embarrassing for some students
Speaking about the text	it helps control the understanding of the text; it gives students the practise in formulating sentences and articulating thoughts; it is possible to combine it with group work or pair work	it is very demanding in terms of time; students sometimes do not have anything to say; their vocabulary may be insufficient to express their ideas; students sometimes tend to describe what they have read rather than interpret the text
Reading comprehension questions	they are useful for checking the understanding of the text, for practising orientation within a text and for formulating questions	they sometimes require routine repetition of what was written in the text; they may seem too textbook-like, they do not leave much space for creative thinking about the text; the correct answers may be arguable and such uncertainty discourages the students
Discussing the content of the reading	it is good for improving communicative skills and learning to argument; students have the right to express their opinion; it is more convenient for advanced groups of	shyer students are reluctant to speak; students sometimes do not have an opinion, it is time-demanding and language-demanding; it may get out of control; students often want to express

	students; it is motivating	themselves, but their vocabulary is not sufficient
Presenting opinion in front of class	students learn to express themselves and formulate problems; it helps them develop presentation skills and rhetoric; students may learn to act in front of bigger groups and get rid of nervousness; they may learn to control the body language	it may be very stressful and hard for introversion types; the audience sometimes shows the lack of attention and interest; it is importance that the atmosphere is friendly; it is time-demanding if all students are to present their opinion; it is necessary to teach students how to present their opinion
Listening	it involves training the most difficult language skill; it is good in order to get accustomed to different accents; it is suitable for training pronunciation, intonation and an English accent; it may be creative and interesting when teachers adequately connected it with gap-filling exercises; it helps train concentration on spoken word	not all SRM are accompanied with a tape or a CD with listening activities on it; it may be discouraging if the listening is too difficult; the acoustic of the room may make it hard to understand; it can be time-demanding and therefore it is only a good substitution of reading when the text is shorter
Grammar and text activities	they represent an excellent way to make students realize that grammar does exist outside of a textbook; they are good for the explanation and fixation of grammatical phenomena in their real context; the text to practise grammar should be interesting too; they are good for practising inferring the meaning of the context and becoming aware of the structure of a text	grammar can be boring for students; the accent on grammar may cause that the content and the message of the text are pushed into background; when the text is more complex, it is usually not suitable for practising grammar; activities focused on the development of grammar are time-demanding, grammar and text activities do not focus on communication
Making notes of unknown vocabulary	it is good for vocabulary development; students realize what words are really used and how; it allows to easily recall the vocabulary items in their context, it is good if there are not too many new words; students can also practise spelling	students often lose interest or refuse to make notes of new vocabulary items; it is more effective to dedicate time to reading in the course of which students come across the vocabulary items again and thus arrive at remembering them naturally; certain vocabulary may be too specific and therefore unfit for everyday use; it is difficult for the teacher to control; it does not have a permanent effect if students do not train the vocabulary from their wordbooks regularly; it is time-demanding

Forming an opinion	students develop their personality and learn to formulate abstract ideas; it is thought-provoking and inspiring; it should be an integral part of all reading-related activities	students are sometimes reluctant to make an effort to think and to express their opinion; a positive and friendly atmosphere in class plays an important role; some students prefer to accept "ready-made ideas"; the preparation for less cooperative groups is time-demanding for the teacher
Taking a critical stance	it enables students to look at a problem from different perspectives and to see the pros and cons; students may use it to learn polite manners and to express their opinion freely without the fear of being criticized by other students or the teacher; in general, students like to criticize and thus enjoy this activity	some students are afraid to disagree with the teacher, other students always disagree on a principle
Debating	it helps develop argumentation skills, learn the rules of the debate and tolerate and respect other people's opinions; it is good for teaching students to listen to other people and develop positive relationships within the class; directed debate it is more effective than a free debate	introvert students prefer not to take part in debates; it is time-demanding and demanding in terms of preparation, teacher's control and language and cognitive skills of the students (they sometimes want to express themselves in Czech); it can work if students know and stick to the rules of the debate
Translation	it is good for the elucidation of difficult passages of a text; it is practical for life; it enables to control the understanding; it is good for the comparative language approach and contrasting the differences between Czech and English; it helps precise formulation of sentences	it can be lengthy and tedious and therefore unsuitable for longer texts; it does not teach thinking in the EL; it leads to using the mother tongue too much; when assigned as homework, students may use internet translators; it is not convenient for lower-level students whose translation might be too verbatim
Students find out information about the author	students broaden their horizons and learn about the context of the piece of writing; it may help build a tighter bond to the text, it enables effective use of the internet and other resources, it may interest students if the author's life story is unusual; it is good to develop independence in students	it diverts attention from the text itself; it is not productive; students may use the internet and bring the information without even having read it; sometimes students look for the information in Czech; some students may go into too much detail

Writing composition about the text	it forces students to think of the text, to interpret and express their thoughts on paper; it sharpens their cognitive skills; it is good for students who are less creative - the text gives them a theme to write about; students learn to use and fix vocabulary and structures	it is time-demanding also for the teacher to correct; it is necessary to make sure that students will not retell and describe, but that they are creative and innovative; students sometimes copy structures from the text; on the whole, the activity is not creative enough
Writing composition on a related theme	it is suitable for students in order to present their own conception of writing – they only draw inspiration from the original text; it helps convey thoughts into writing and formulate ideas	it is time-demanding also for the teacher to correct; less creative students may lack ideas
Using new vocabulary in sentences	it serves to check the correct understanding of the vocabulary; it helps fix the expressions, collocations and idioms in context; it is a useful and effective variation of a drill; students move the vocabulary from the passive area of knowledge to the active area	it is not too creative for students; it diverts the attention from speaking about the text and its message; it is time-demanding for the teacher to prepare and correct; during the lesson it my be time-consuming and boring at the same time; students sometimes use the words in inadequate contexts
Drama activities	they helps to maintain communication and reinforce the acquired vocabulary structures; they are motivating and students usually enjoy them a lot; they are excellent for helping students learn the intonation, pronunciation and speaking aloud; they make students understand the characters and the time period of the play as students-actors live through them for a while; even students who do not play the protagonist listen to the text again and again and learn something; they involve emotions into the teaching and learning process	they are demanding in terms of time and organization; it is not always easy to make all students participate; it is necessary to justly assign the roles so that each student has the chance to play a major character at least once in the course of the studies; all students are different: some students enjoy acting, others find it difficult and some may find it embarrassing
Recording students' pronunciation	it may be amusing and useful in order to build a positive relationship to English; it is highly effective in order to acquire exact pronunciation as it provides good feedback for students	it is demanding in terms of time and technical equipment; it can only be used individually; it is also demanding for the teacher to provide the feedback on students' recorded pronunciation; it can be embarrassing for some students

Teachers could also add any other technique of working with SR which they used. One teacher suggested that he or she used techniques leading students to a deeper understanding of the text; one teacher wrote about using techniques to initiate students' private reading at home, another teacher pointed out that it proved useful when some students chose one English graded reader with an audio tape and spent time reading and listening to it at home (one problem is that some students may find Czech translations of the books and read those instead). Another teacher mentioned that he or she used various pre-reading activities, and yet another teacher divided students into groups which then worked on a common project related to the text.

From the findings presented in the table above and the additional comments made by teachers, it seems that each technique of working with SR has its advantages and disadvantages. One teacher suggested that all the disadvantages were only a matter of time and that all the techniques were highly profitable for students. It is true that most teachers preferred not to engage students in such activities with SR which would require that teachers spend long hours preparing the materials or correcting students' work (e.g. recording, writing compositions and using new vocabulary in sentences). Similarly, teachers did not usually want to take advantage of activities which would use up the whole time of the lesson (such as drama activities and debating) no matter how interesting and rewarding teachers found them for students' development.

Having discussed the findings of the survey, we may now relate them to our hypothesis. On the whole, it seems that when choosing techniques to teach reading in the EL with the use of SRM, most teachers "take refuge" in choosing more classical techniques. One of the classical techniques is reading in the sense that students read the text aloud and do some gap-filling, cloze exercises and follow-up activities such as reading comprehension and writing new vocabulary into wordbooks. The next classical technique is making students speak about the text (or possibly focusing more closely on its content) or presenting their opinion in front of the class. However, teachers do not teach students *how* to arrive at the understanding from various textual features or *how* to analyze a text in order to be able to see different viewpoints. Having not been taught these reading skills, students often have to present their opinion about the English text in front of the class which, no doubt, can be very stressful for them.

In general, slightly more than half of the teachers sometimes use techniques which might be described as aiming at developing higher-level reading-related skills (rather than only grammar and language). Very few teachers stated that they purposefully used techniques which could be linked to forming proper reading skills (such as pre-reading activities), which would introduce the text to students for a closer analysis, or techniques which would help build in students positive and permanent reading habits. Indeed, the adoption of reading skills should be prior to any more systematic development of other higher-level reading-related skills.

As for teaching reading connected to the development of literary critical skills or cultural awareness, there were several teachers who introduced the texts in their historical contexts and who assigned tasks which required that students looked up the information about the author. Yet it seems that any strictly literary critical skills are not taught at grammar schools. Teaching reading for cultural awareness is probably developed on the basis of suitable texts concerning any topics connected to *small-c culture* and cultural differences, but teachers did not write that they would teach reading particularly for cultural awareness.

Other reading-related skills focus on critical thinking and the techniques which teachers use to develop them in students include forming an opinion, taking a critical stance on the content of the text and debating. The numbers of teachers who use these techniques are not as low as our hypothesis expected, which is a positive finding. It is positive also due to the fact that these techniques (when properly used) also help educate the whole person and teach cooperation and tolerance. The same can be said of the techniques employing motion and emotion in the educational process, such as drama, and it showed that about a quarter of the teachers were aware of the advantages it may bring.

All in all, the above-mentioned findings confirm the hypothesis that nothing of the sort of systematic approach to teaching reading-related skills can be found at Czech grammar schools.

3. The pedagogical implications that might improve the situation

Before taking steps to discuss the pedagogical implications of our findings which might help improve the conditions concerning SR in grammar school TEFL, we may use Byrnes' (1998, p. 5) words to characterize the situation: "while a foreign language instruction has had a general commitment to reading as an important goal of second language learning, it has not developed an explicit and encompassing second language reading pedagogy. (...) Such new pedagogy also requires adjusting our goals for second language reading."

It is also our belief that certain pedagogy and methodology should gain a much more significant role in teaching reading-related skills at Czech grammar schools. For that reason we may ask what can be done at schools so that teaching reading-related skills is not underestimated and what teachers can do to make students more interested and participative. The following paragraphs will focus on these issues.

3.1. The concept of teaching reading-related skills

The theoretical part of the presented thesis discussed the various areas which teaching reading-related skills helped develop. The pedagogical research approached the issue from a more practical perspective relating to the teaching factors and the teaching reality. The following paragraphs will put together the findings of the theoretical and practical parts of this thesis and estimate what changes would have to be implemented in order to adjust the present state of teaching reading to the optimal state proposed by the concept of teaching reading-related skills in successive steps.

In order to be able to introduce the concept of teaching reading-related skills to grammar schools, several measures would have to be taken. First, there is a vital necessity to increase the number of EL lessons per week from three (which is a common practice at present) to at least four. One of the lessons would be a strictly reading lesson. For, if at least one lesson each week was regularly devoted to teaching reading according to the concept of teaching reading-related skills, it would ensure 36 lessons per year and 144 lessons in total in the course of four years at grammar school. This number of reading lessons seems to be sufficient for a well-prepared and structured concept which would help students develop desirable

reading-related skills. At the same time it seems appropriate to decrease the number of students in a class by dividing them into smaller groups (with a maximum of twelve students) which the NFEC also recommends. Meeting these basic teaching conditions would allow for the practical introduction of the concept of teaching reading-related skills for all students studying the EL.

However, if the optimal conditions could not be created due to the lack of time which rules the domain of Czech ELT and due to other technical difficulties, there is still one more possibility which could be considered in order to implement the concept of teaching reading-related skills into the educational process at least partially. It involves setting up a special optional reading seminar for students who enjoy reading or who are interested in developing reading-related skills with the intention of using them in tertiary education. This alternative would meet the condition of having in class fewer students than normally and the students frequenting the seminar would probably be motivated enough to follow the various activities with SRM. The seminar would take place on a weekly basis or, if teaching conditions allowed it, every two weeks for 90 minutes (meanwhile, students would read a home assignment for the next session).

The question of what year to introduce the optional reading seminar should be discussed in this context. For, if the seminar was intended only for more advanced students of the EL in the last two years at grammar schools, it would mean that by that time students would not have had the chance to gradually work on developing their reading-related skills. A much better solution would be to set up the optional reading seminar in every school year with respect to the English level of the participants. It is fortunate that the NFEC makes the educational area language and language communication (and the EL in particular) compulsory in all years of study (*Rámcový učební plán, Rámcový vzdělávací program pro gymnázia*, 2007, p. 82). By doing so, it provides enough space for grammar schools to develop the EL further also in optional seminars and connect them with other cross-curricular topics in the same way as our concept of teaching reading-related skills intends to do it.

3.2. Guided reading strategies

The question of students´ motivation seems to be of at least equal importance as the improvement of the teaching conditions. It was already mentioned that when

selecting the text, teachers must take into consideration students' level of English, their background knowledge, their real-life passions, the topicality of the text, students' personal goals of studying English and the particular reading-related skill which the teachers intend to develop through the text. However, this may not be enough for a successful reading lesson.

It is necessary to underline the importance of guided reading strategies. The role of the teacher is to trigger students' interest in the text by making them follow pre-reading activities (such as activating prior knowledge, previewing the text, making predictions, establishing a purpose, generating questions, guessing on the basis of a book cover or pictures, etc.), by monitoring a student's understanding in the course of their reading (making notes about concepts/ideas, answering questions which they have formulated during pre-reading as well as other questions which have arisen through the reading, selecting fix-up strategies: re-reading confusing passages, examining the context of unfamiliar words, etc.) and post-reading activities (which encourage student to reflect upon what they have read through answering questions, summarizing main ideas, drawing conclusions, or applying the information to a new situation). See the Appendix (Part VIII) for sample guided reading activities.

It is obvious that teaching reading-related skills effectively and with the use of guided reading strategies makes heavy demands on the teacher. Indeed, teachers should have handy a methodology or a SR manual which would inspire them when preparing SR lessons. If teachers knew more about the significance of guided reading strategies and pre-reading, while-reading and post-reading techniques, they would be probably more willing to depart from the usual practice of teaching language-based reading lessons. At the same time it would enable teachers to draw students into the process of reading and become a cooperative reading group which would more efficiently meet the requirements of the activities and thus save time for their further practice or for alternative activities.

There are several publications which teachers could use. One of them is called *Ways of Doing* (Davis, Garside & Rinvolucri, 1998) which offers various activities based on everyday and classroom processes as students see them. Other useful handbooks are called *Using Readers in Language Teaching* (Hedge, 1990) and *Drama Activities for Language Learning* (Doughill, 1987). Teachers can also use the internet which provides

innumerable amounts of resources which teachers can use. Two websites proved particularly useful for guided reading strategies and these were *Penguin Readers*[15] and the *Reading Rockets*.[16] Also the website *Teaching English*[17] provided useful tips for using drama texts in classrooms. There are countless possibilities to find out more about teaching reading meaningfully and teachers only need to find the time to take advantage of them.

3.3.   Teacher training

Another possibility for the teachers to draw inspiration and keep up with trends in teaching the EL is taking special teacher training courses or seminars. The Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports came up with the *Framework plan of the system of further education of FL teachers* (*Rámcový plán systému kurzů DVPP pro cizí jazyky*, 2005). This system offers FL teachers the opportunity to develop their language and pedagogical competences. Basically, the courses offered consist of 180 hours of practice: 60 hours for language practice, 30 hours for the basic didactics course with an instructor, 30 hours for individual preparation, and 60 hours for an optional didactic course – the latter offers to practise any area which the participants find useful and interesting and this could be for example teaching reading-related skills (*Rámcový plán systému kurzů DVPP pro cizí jazyky*, 2005, pp. 12-13). The general courses are offered by organizations such as the National Institute for Further Education[18] or Teachers' Centre,[19] but there are not any organizations focusing particularly on providing courses in teaching reading (or reading-related skills) in the EL.

There are also other courses which teachers could participate in if they wanted to include some of the cross-curricular topics into their EL teaching. One of the courses is offered by the Czech centre for RWCT (Kritické myšlení, o.s.) and it is called *Reading and writing for critical thinking* (RWCT – KM).[20] This course consists of 80 hours with the instructor and additional time for home preparation. Some of the techniques related to

[15] Penguin Readers website: http://www.penguinreaders.com/pr/resources/teachers.html
[16] Reading Rockets website: http://www.readingrockets.org/articles/82
[17] Teaching English website: http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/think/literature/drama_texts.shtml
[18] National Institute for Further Education website: http://www.nidv.cz/en/
[19] Teachers' Centre website: http://vzdelavani.kvalitne.cz/
[20] Kritické myšlení, o.s. website: http://www.kritickemysleni.cz/codelame/kursy/anotaceobecna.rtf

the development of reading offered by this course comprise procedures such as asking questions, reciprocal teaching, reading and anticipation, debating, etc. This basic course can be extended by special courses one of which is called *Reading aloud and reading strategies*.

In addition, if teachers want to learn more about personal and social education, they can participate in PSE courses of various types and focus offered by several institutions, (for example, Projekt Odyssea, o.s.,[21] Aisis, o.s.[22] or Dokážu to).[23]

3.4. The system of class libraries

In order to maintain a sufficiently strong connection to the language and to build students' motivation for extensive reading in the EL, students should find opportunities for engaging learning tasks outside the classroom. There should be a small library of accessible readers and supplementary materials in every grammar school so that students have the chance to borrow readers for leisure time reading. It is, however, mostly up to the teacher to raise student's interest in extensive reading. This can be done with the help of guided reading strategies which make students experience that reading may be interesting or by introducing controlled reading programmes.

However, as one teacher pointed out, it might be a good idea to set up a system of *class libraries*. This system, as the teacher stated, was very demanding in terms of organization, but once it was implemented, it had many advantages. The system of class libraries would work as follows: each student would contribute 100 CZK to buy a set of graded readers of the same difficulty level but different themes. Given that there were 15 students in the class, they had 15 different graded readers to read in the course of the school year and recommend to one another. At the end of the school year, the teacher would sell the set of graded readers to the students of the year below with a 20-CZK discount on each piece. Then he or she would collect 20 CZK from the students, add them to the sum obtained for the sold readers and buy another set of more advanced graded readers for the students to read in the course of the following school year.

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[21] Projekt Odyssea, o.s. website: http://www.odyssea.cz/kurzy-pro-ucitele.php
[22] Aisis, o.s. website: http://www.aisis.cz/
[23] Dokážu to website: http://www.dokazuto.cz/

This system of class libraries engages students a lot as they not only share the graded readers, but have something in common to talk about. However, the system works only on the condition that there is somebody who controls what students borrow and ensure that they return the books on time. If the person in charge is the teacher, it is very time-demanding for him or her, and if the person in charge is one of the students, the system does not usually work without the teacher's supervision anyway. Yet, it seems that setting up a class library of readers may be a good alternative for grammar schools which do not possess a school library or any other supply of SRM.

IV. CONCLUSION

The theoretical part of the presented thesis provided the ground for the focus area. The terms used were clarified; the issue of teaching supplementary reading in the English language was introduced, put into the historical context of TEFL methods and analyzed with respect to the various purposes of teaching reading.

The prevailing dominance of teaching English mainly for communicative purposes advocated by the Communicative Approach is being gradually weakened in favour of more universal aims presented by the European documents and action plans. Therefore, it is the right time to accentuate also other areas of language development, one of which is reading in the English language. From our analysis of professional literature, it became obvious that there were six important purposes for which supplementary reading in the EL could be taught and these encompassed several reading-related skills which could be developed through the process of reading in the EL.

On the very basic level, teaching reading can help develop language skills. For at least an elementary knowledge of these lower-level skills represents the condition in which teachers can move on to teach reading for the development of more intellectual reading skills. It seems logical that the first area of these higher-level skills to focus on is the area of proper reading skills. These involve intensive and extensive reading skills and practise understanding the logical connections of all the elements and layers of a text in order to generate the meaning. In addition, proper reading skills encourage students into becoming independent readers with permanent reading habits. Teaching reading for the development of literary interpretative skills aims at approaching a text in a similar complexity as the previous area of skills and at the same time enrich the reader by pointing out the literary dimensions of the text. Furthermore, there are three other reading-related areas which teaching supplementary reading in the EL may help develop and which represent important educational goals o f contemporary FLT in general. These areas involve teaching reading for the development of critical thinking skills, for cultural awareness and for the education of the whole person. These areas should not be taught separately from the previous ones; on the contrary, the teacher should ensure that they pervade the whole process of teaching reading in the EL.

Having analyzed all the purposes which teaching reading in the EL can be useful for, we tried to find an appropriate means of putting them into a compact concept. In the light of contemporary didactic pluralism, the choice of methods and techniques to achieve desirable aims is not strictly prescribed. Therefore, we found it logical to come up with a concept of teaching various reading-related skills in successive steps which could potentially be introduced to Czech grammar schools.

In addition, the psychological profile of the target group of students was described with a particular focus on the areas which might influence the process of teaching reading in the EL. These involved students' motivation, interests, their personalities and the student – teacher relationship. Indeed, the knowledge of all these areas connected to psychology and sociology seems to be of vital importance to all teachers who want to teach reading in the EL. It enables them to reach a deeper understanding of the phenomena that occur in the teaching process on a daily basis and improve the reader climate.

The practical part of this thesis set the objective to find out whether it would be suitable to introduce the proposed concept of teaching reading-related skills in successive steps to Czech grammar schools. This was to be done on the basis of analyzing the requirements of the Czech curricular documents and the secondary school leaving examination. Due to many present conceptual changes and innovations in the Czech secondary school system and legislature, we decided to relate our concept of teaching reading-related skills to the new framework educational curriculum for grammar schools (which is already implemented at some grammar schools but whose requirements will fully come into force in 2009) and to the state secondary school leaving examination (whose requirements will probably take effect in 2010).

We found out that all six reading-related skills and educational goals proposed by our concept correspond to the aims set by the new framework educational curriculum for grammar schools, especially with respect to the recently adopted interdisciplinary approach to the educational areas, the cross-curricular topics and the key competences which students should develop in the course of school education. Similarly, the requirements imposed on the discipline of reading in the English language set by the state secondary school leaving examination focus mostly on reading

comprehension of various kinds of texts and topics and therefore are compatible with our concept of teaching reading-related skills.

For the above-mentioned reasons we dare to claim that our first hypothesis – that the reality concerning the requirements of the Czech curricular documents together with the teaching factors might allow for the implementation of the concept of teaching various reading-related skills in successive steps – proved correct. Moreover, since the new framework educational curriculum for grammar schools states only educational aims and desirable outputs and not specific methods and procedures which would enable to reach them, it seems that our concept of teaching reading-related skills in successive steps might provide an effective and systematic set of principles to teach supplementary reading at grammar schools.

The next concern was to find out what the present state of teaching supplementary reading at Czech grammar schools was (how teachers and students worked with SR in classrooms and outside, what SRM they used, what motivated and discouraged students and what teachers did to bolster students positive motivation to read in English) and what changes would have to be made in order to enable the implementation of the concept in question. Our second hypothesis suggested that teaching reading at Czech grammar schools was rather the matter of teaching language-related skills than any higher-level reading skills. We presumed that teachers used certain methods and techniques which bared the characteristics of teaching reading for the development of critical thinking skills or literary interpretative skills, but that those were not implemented in any logically structured conception. We presupposed that the lack of systematic approach to teaching supplementary reading was, first, due to unfavourable conditions relating to teaching factors. Second, we presumed that it was due to the fact that teachers underestimated the role of motivation in reading and concentrated on more routine activities without using techniques that would help them draw students in the process of reading. If our second hypothesis proved right, we wanted to suggest the adjustments which might help implement our concept of teaching various reading-related skills to Czech grammar school. If our second hypothesis proved wrong or exaggerated, we intended to come up with other minor changes to the current system of teaching supplementary reading at Czech grammar schools which would be more realistic.

Our pedagogical survey held at secondary schools uncovered the following findings. Indeed, most of the techniques which teachers use to work with supplementary reading materials focus on the improvement of language-related skills, reading comprehension skills and on speaking about the text. Critical thinking skills are taught by more than half of the teachers yet not systematically. A significantly small number of teachers implement into their teaching of reading in English any other higher-level skills. When trying to find out the causes of such a situation, we discovered that it was mostly due to the fact that teachers did not have enough time to teach reading at schools due to the limited number o f English lessons. Other significant reasons included the lack of suitable ready-made materials available for teachers to use. At the same time, many students lacked sufficient knowledge of English which would be necessary to systematically practise other reading-related skills and activities. The third important reason was the fact that students were not enthusiastic enough about reading in the EL.

Therefore, it seems that our proposed concept of teaching reading-related skills in successive steps could be implemented to schools on condition that the number of English lessons in general are increased so that at least one lesson a week could be dedicated to teaching reading, starting in the first year of studies. It would also be desirable to decrease the number of students in a class. If these conditions could not be met, at least a special optional literary seminar could be set up for students who would be interested in improving their reading-related skills in the last two years of study or earlier. We observed that the new framework educational curriculum for secondary schools made language education compulsory in all four years of study and gave grammar schools the opportunity to offer students various optional seminars (one of which could centre on our concept).

We discovered that the question of motivating students was closely connected to the success or failure of EL lessons focused on supplementary reading. On the whole, it proved that teachers were aware of most of the topics which students found interesting and that the types of supplementary reading materials w hich they used were also chosen according to students preferences more or less. However, teachers did not use any systematic guided reading activities which would help motivate students to read both at school and extensively in their leisure time. If teachers did use some, they were

mostly related to uncreative reproduction of facts about the text or its author or routine textbook-like follow-up activities. For these reasons, it seems appropriate to provide teachers with suitable guided reading resources and additional materials on teaching supplementary reading which they might use to draw inspiration from. At the same time, teachers should be offered additional teacher training in didactic disciplines, particularly in teaching reading-related skills in the English language. It was satisfactory to find out that the Czech Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports developed a plan focusing on teacher training, for it seems that, in order to be able to teach according to the concept of teaching reading-related skills proposed by this thesis, teachers themselves would need to participate in didactic courses designed especially for this purpose.

It was also observed that teachers did not systematically try to motivate students to read extensively. Once again, in order to improve this situation, teachers should use suitable pre-reading activities and possibly set up a reading programme in which students would have the chance to borrow graded readers from a school library. Teachers of English should try to guarantee that there is a small library offering a range of properly graded supplementary reading materials. Grammar schools should provide the financial support and adequate rewards for teachers who involve themselves in such activities beyond their duties. Another effective way of making students read is by setting up a system of class libraries which, however, requires a teacher's enthusiasm and full engagement.

To conclude, the implications of the theoretical background of this thesis and the practical research show that the acquisition of all the skills proposed by the concept of teaching reading-related skills in successive steps is of crucial importance. It is yet more so in the light of the growing requirements on one's language education and personal development in the context of European action documents as well as of our globalized world. It is fortunate that the new Czech curricular documents seem to adopt a more liberal approach enabling individual grammar schools to develop their own interdisciplinary and cross-curricular educational conceptions focusing only on standardized outputs of education.

For these reasons it seems that grammar schools and English language teachers are offered a unique opportunity to gradually improve the unsatisfactory situation typical of the present state of teaching supplementary reading in the English language. For, if the current situations does not change, the aim of teaching reading-related skills – which is the development of c ritical and autonomous readers as well as complete human beings aware of what is happening in the world around them – cannot be fulfilled. On the other hand, if the proposed measures are taken into consideration and progressively adopted, the positive changes in grammar school approach to teaching supplementary reading may help students build long-term reading habits and a positive relationship to reading in the English language and to reading in general.

V. RÉSUMÉ

Na využití doplňkové četby při hodinách anglického jazyka ve středoškolské gymnaziální výuce nebyla v poslední době soustředěna příliš velká pozornost. Hlavním důvodem této skutečnosti je převažující důraz kladený na osvojení komunikační kompetence, který je patrný ve výuce cizích jazyků v České republice i ve světě již od 80. let minulého století. Proto se využití doplňkové četby při výuce anglického jazyka redukuje na postupy, při nichž žáci nahlas čtou učitelem předložený text a posléze se soustřeďují na čtení s porozuměním či diskuzi o přečteném. To vše navíc probíhá pouze v případě, že učiteli zbývá čas na konci hodiny poté, co probral vytyčenou látku v učebnici. Studenti většinou k doplňkové četbě přistupují jako k oddychové činnosti a považují ji za příjemné zpestření povinné rutinní práce s učebnicí, na kterou se soustředí pozornost učitelů při hodnocení.

Skutečnost, že doplňková četba zaujímá takto druhořadé postavení, je dále umocňována tím, že se učitelé při jejím využití v hodinách anglického jazyka u studentů zaměřují z převážné většiny pouze na zlepšování řečových dovedností (poslech, mluvení, čtení s porozuměním a psaní) a jazykových prostředků (převážně gramatiky a výslovnosti). Je to dáno především nešťastnou kombinací faktorů vyučovacího procesu z hlediska času, výchovných a vzdělávacích cílů, jazykové pokročilosti studentů, nároků na učitele, i více či méně vhodných vyučovacích podmínek. Za těchto okolností již nezbývá prostor ani čas na vytyčení jakýchkoli dalších smysluplných a užitečných cílů, ke kterým by výuka četby v anglickém jazyce s využitím doplňkových materiálů mohla směřovat. Při podrobnějším zkoumání přístupů k výuce četby a zamyšlení se nad důvody, proč lidé čtou obecně a proč by mohli mít potřebu číst v cizím jazyce, však začne být zřejmé, že doplňková četba může studentům anglického jazyka nabídnout více, než naznačuje současný způsob jejího využití ve středoškolské gymnaziální výuce.

V souvislosti s orientací české výuky cizích jazyků na trendy udávané evropskými dokumenty a akčními plány pro jazykové vzdělávání a v návaznosti na změny české středoškolské legislativy je u nás v současnosti možné očekávat pozitivní změny směřující k rozšíření pozornosti jazykového vyučování z převážně komunikativních cílů na cíle obecnější a univerzálnější. S těmito posuny souvisí také

nabízející se možnost změny celkového přístupu k výuce čtení na gymnáziích obhajované autorkou této diplomové práce. Cílem předložené diplomové práce bylo navrhnout koncepci výuky doplňkové četby, jež by se u studentů angličtiny zaměřila na postupný rozvoj dovedností s četbou souvisejících. Následně jsme se pokusili zodpovědět otázky, zda a za jakých podmínek by bylo možné tuto koncepci zavést do středoškolské gymnaziální výuky anglického jazyka.

Teoretická část této práce představila obecné přístupy a metody ve výuce cizích jazyků a jejich pojetí disciplíny „čtení". V samotném úvodu bylo zjištěno, že za univerzální metodu výuky čtení v anglickém jazyce není v současné době považována žádná z metod, které vyvstaly z kontextu historického vývoje. Také *Společný evropský referenční rámec pro jazyky* (2001) nepředepisuje při výuce cizích jazyků použití jedné konkrétní metody. Didaktický pluralismus, který je v současné době typický pro výuku cizích jazyků, poskytuje nové možnosti také pro představení nové koncepce výuky doplňkové četby. Jedná se o šest vzájemně propojených oblastí dovedností souvisejících s četbou, na jejichž rozvoj u studentů by se zaměřila výuka doplňkové četby v anglickém jazyce.

První a nejzákladnější oblast, kterou je možné v návaznosti na práci s doplňkovou četbou rozvíjet, představuje již zmíněná četba zaměřená na *rozvoj jazyka*. Jedná se o oblast, jejíž alespoň základní osvojení je u studentů předpokladem pro rozvoj ostatních, tzv. „vyšších dovedností" souvisejících s četbou. Z mnoha důvodů je důležité, aby výuka doplňkové četby nezačínala a nekončila pouze touto oblastí.

Dále by se výuka doplňkové četby měla zaměřit na zprostředkování dovedností přímo souvisejících s četbou textu za účelem porozumění, které by studenti mohli využívat i ve všech dále zmíněných oblastech, a kromě nich také v běžných životních situacích. Dovednosti, které si mají studenti v této rovině osvojit, se dělí do dvou skupin: Jedná se o dovednosti související s tzv. *intenzivním čtením* textu (ty se zaměřují především na komplexnější porozumění vztahům a strukturám v textu a způsobu, jakým vyjadřují hlavní myšlenku, kterou do textu zakódoval autor) a s tzv. *extenzivním čtením* (jehož hlavním cílem je navykat čtenáře na samostatné čtení většího objemu různorodých textů a pomoci jim osvojit si dlouhodobé čtenářské návyky).

Třetí oblastí dovedností souvisejících s četbou, na jejichž osvojení by se měla výuka doplňkové četby v anglickém jazyce také zaměřit, jsou dovednosti *literárně interpretační*. Jejich ovládnutí by studentům umožnilo pojmout literární text v celé jeho šíři a ve všech rovinách, jež s literární slovesností souvisí. V této oblasti již můžeme hovořit o určitém napojení na celkovou sumu zde prezentovaných dovedností souvisejících s četbou. Vnímání a interpretace literárních děl určitého jazykového společenství totiž přispívá k rozvoji kulturního rozhledu i vlastního osobnostního a emočního potenciálu každého jednotlivce.

V návaznosti na interpretaci literárních děl je možné jmenovat další tři oblasti, na které se výuka čtení může zaměřit a které formují důležité cíle současného jazykového vzdělávání u nás i ve světě. Výuku čtení je možné orientovat na jednu z těchto oblastí, zdá se však vhodnější a logičtější pokusit se je integrovat do veškeré práce s doplňkovou četbou a pokud možno i do celé výuky anglického jazyka. Jednou z těchto možností, jak využít text při výuce čtení, je umožnit studentům jeho prostřednictvím osvojit si a procvičovat *kritické myšlení*. V této souvislosti můžeme zmínit snahy mezinárodního projektu Reading and Writing for Critical Thinking, který rozšířil oblast svého působení také o Českou republiku a který usiluje o kritický přístup mimo jiné právě v oblasti četby v cizím jazyce.

Již naznačenou možností, jak využít doplňkovou četbu při výuce anglického jazyka, je rozšiřování povědomí o kulturních odlišnostech. Jeho prostřednictvím se studenti mohou učit respektovat kulturní, společenské i názorové rozdíly, což jim umožňuje zásadním způsobem rozšířit sociokulturní povědomí. Prozatím posledním cílem, k jehož dosažení lze využít materiály doplňkové četby, je *vzdělávání celé osobnosti* studentů. Představuje vrchol a zároveň nedílnou součást celé zde navrhované koncepce; studenti by se v souvislosti s ním učili porozumět nejen sami sobě, ale také kooperativně spolupracovat s ostatními studenty. S tímto cílem úzce souvisejí také stále patrnější snahy zavést do vyučovacího procesu prvky dramatické výchovy a osobnostní a sociální výchovu – předmět, jehož cíle korespondují s cíli vzdělávání celé osobnosti.

Role učitele v jednotlivých fázích výuky doplňkové četby se různí. Je však jisté, že jeho hlavním úkolem je poskytnout studentům vhodný materiál ke čtení a neméně vhodně zvolit oblast dovedností souvisejících s četbou, na jejichž osvojení se četba zaměří. Na učiteli také záleží, do jaké hloubky při osvojování jednotlivých dovedností

souvisejících s četbou bude u studentů zacházet, a je zřejmé, že některé oblasti námi navrhované koncepce jsou předmětem hlubšího zájmu a studia až ve vysokoškolské výuce. Všechny tyto aspekty souvisejí s nutností, aby učitel průběžně vyhodnocoval situaci a činil rozhodnutí na základě důkladného poznání jednotlivých faktorů vyučovacího procesu a jejich vzájemných vztahů. Při volbě správné skladby faktorů vyučovacího procesu je ovšem nutné přihlédnout také k aktuálním potřebám studentů, jejich zájmům, již získaným znalostem a vědomostem o daném tématu, stejně jako k osobním preferencím.

Naposledy zmíněné téma předložená diplomová práce rozvinula v pasáži zabývající se podrobnou charakteristikou cílové skupiny studentů. V centru pozornosti se ocitly především poznatky z oblastí psychologie a sociologie, které mohou učiteli pomoci porozumět vnitřnímu prožívání studentů a jeho vnějším projevům, ale také dynamice vztahů ve školní třídě. Vzdělávání a výchova jsou interaktivní procesy, tudíž jsme se soustředili na oblast motivace a s ní související zájmy, na nejrůznější teorie osobnosti a také na vztah učitele a studenta (ovlivněný autoritou učitele a více či méně vhodným stylem jeho výchovného působení na studenty i na celkové klima ve třídě).

Teoretická část nám poskytla podněty a hypotézy pro pedagogický výzkum, na který se zaměřila praktická část této diplomové práce. Jejím smyslem bylo objasnit cíle a požadavky, které na výuku četby v anglickém jazyce kladou české kurikulární dokumenty a maturitní zkouška, a také zjistit, zda jsou v souladu se zde navrhovanou koncepcí výuky dovedností souvisejících s četbou. Následně jsme si vytkli úkol zmapovat oblast využití doplňkové četby v rámci středoškolské gymnaziální výuky anglického jazyka, zjistit, jakým způsobem učitelé motivují studenty a jaké materiály při výuce doplňkové četby využívají. Ze závěrů mělo vyplynout, do jaké míry námi navrhovaná koncepce zapadá do pedagogické reality české středoškolské gymnaziální výuky a jaké postupy by připadaly v úvahu pro její případnou optimalizaci.

Z analýzy kurikulárních dokumentů vyplynulo, že v současné době není v ČR možné mluvit o jednotné úpravě středoškolského systému vzdělávání. Nově přijetý *Rámcový vzdělávací program pro gymnázia* (2007), který je již na některých gymnáziích uplatňován, vstoupí na všech gymnáziích v platnost v roce 2009; do té doby školy ještě mohou učit podle stávajících *Učebních osnov pro gymnázia* (1995) a *Učebních plánů pro*

gymnázia (2007). Podobně nejednotné se rýsují také snahy zavést státní maturitní zkoušku, jež se nesetkala se všeobecně kladným přijetím, a proto bylo její zavedení odloženo až na rok 2010. V této diplomové práci jsme se však rozhodli analyzovat právě tyto dokumenty a požadavky, jejichž cíle bude dříve či později středoškolská gymnaziální výuka anglického jazyka sledovat.

Rámcové vzdělávací programy stanovují cíle a standardizované výstupy vzdělávání, k nimž má výuka směřovat, jednotlivým gymnáziím pak nechávají prostor pro vytvoření vlastních školních vzdělávacích programů. Jako pozitivní hodnotíme zjištění, že nové rámcové pojetí české gymnaziální výuky je založeno na interdisciplinárních vzdělávacích oblastech a průřezových tématech a u studentů směřuje k osvojení klíčových kompetencí, které korespondují se šesti oblastmi čtenářských dovedností v námi představené koncepci. Je možné říci, že požadavky budoucí státní maturitní zkoušky (pokud se příliš neodchýlí od současné koncepce navrhované *Katalogem požadavků k maturitní zkoušce – AJ 1/2* (2006)) jsou zaměřené převážně na práci s texty směřující ke čtení s porozuměním, a nejsou tudíž v rozporu s naší koncepcí.

Dalším úkolem praktické části byla analýza dat získaných při terénním pedagogickém výzkumu prostřednictvím učitelských a studentských dotazníků distribuovaných na osmi státních a jednom soukromém gymnázium. Podařilo se shromáždit data ze 167 studentských a 27 učitelských dotazníků. Smyslem dotazníků bylo zmapovat současné podmínky výuky doplňkové četby z hlediska faktorů vyučovacího procesu se zaměřením především na zájmy studentů, jejich motivaci ke studiu anglického jazyka, na techniky práce s doplňkovou četbou, na způsoby, které učitelé využívají, aby studenty motivovali, a na konkrétní výukové materiály, které jsou při četbě využívány. Z výzkumu vyplynulo, že zájmy, cíle a preference studentů se diametrálně neliší od témat a druhu doplňkových materiálů, které učitelé při výuce používají. Potvrdila se však naše domněnka, že se učitelé při výuce doplňkové četby zaměřují spíše na oblast rozvoje jazyka a pouze v menší míře a nesystematicky na oblast rozvoje „vyšších dovedností" souvisejících s četbou, např. rozvoj kritického myšlení při diskuzích o textu. Ještě méně bylo využíváno prvků dramatické výuky, přestože si vyučující byli vědomi přínosů, které dramatizace textů v anglickém jazyce má pro rozvoj celé osobnosti studentů. Dále je zřejmé, že při výuce nejsou dostatečně využívány

ani knihy ve zjednodušené angličtině, tzv. gradované čítanky odstupňované podle obtížnosti jazyka. Ty většinou nabízejí velkou variabilitu témat a vhodné aktivity vztahující se k textu – za správného vedení by umožnily rozvinout ve studentech schopnost samostatně číst.

Hlavní příčinou výše popisovaného stavu výuky doplňkové četby je podle učitelů nedostatečná hodinová dotace věnovaná výuce anglického jazyka, časově náročná příprava smysluplných aktivit s doplňkovou četbou, nedostatek vhodných předpřipravených pracovních i metodologických materiálů zaměřených na smysluplnou práci s textem a v neposlední řadě také nízká angažovanost a motivovanost studentů věnovat se četbě i mimo hodiny anglického jazyka.

Námi navrhovaná koncepce výuky dovedností souvisejících se čtením by proto mohla být do středoškolské gymnaziální výuky zavedena za následujících podmínek: Bylo by nutné zvýšit počet hodin věnovaných výuce anglického jazyka na minimálně čtyři hodiny týdně (běžné jsou hodiny tři), z nichž jedna by byla věnována výhradně doplňkové četbě. Dále by bylo vhodné snížit počet studentů ve studijních skupinách na maximálně dvanáct osob (průměr se nyní pohybuje kolem 15). Pro případ, že by nebylo možné tyto podmínky zajistit ve všech ročnících gymnázia, jsme navrhli alespoň alternativní možnost – zprostředkovat zájemcům o práci s doplňkovou četbou specializovaný seminář, s frekvencí jedné hodiny týdně, případně za dva týdny.

Dále jsme dospěli k názoru, že by učitelé měli systematicky využívat techniky a postupy tzv. čtení s vedením, které se většinou zaměřuje na aktivity předcházející, provázející a následující po čtení textu a mohly by pomoci vyřešit problém nedostatečné motivace studentů k četbě. Zjistili jsme, že existují vhodné metodické podklady (z nichž některé jsou dostupné také na internetu), kterými se učitelé mohou při přípravě hodin inspirovat, případně je přímo využít. S tím také souvisí výběr vhodného materiálu pro práci ve výuce i mimo ni. Ne všechny školy dávají studentům k dispozici zásobu materiálů pro čtení v anglickém jazyce – tuto skutečnost by bylo vhodné změnit. Chod knihovny gradovaných čítanek a časopisů v anglickém jazyce by měla finančně podpořit sama škola; v případě, že to není možné, existuje zde možnost zavést systém tzv. třídních knihoven, jež se však jeví poněkud náročné na organizaci. Dalším navrhovaným řešením, které by mohlo přispět ke zlepšení celkové situace, je poskytnout učitelům možnost vzdělávat se v oblasti výuky čtení a s ním souvisejících

dovedností. Zjistili jsme, že nejrůznější kurzy zaměřené na metody výuky jsou dostupné dokonce pod záštitou Ministerstva školství, mládeže a tělovýchovy v *Rámcovém plánu systému kurzů DVPP pro cizí jazyky* (2005) a že učitelé mají možnost vzdělávat se také v oblasti kurzů Čtením a psaním ke kritickému myšlení a v oblasti Osobnostní a sociální výchovy.

Je naprosto zřejmé, že současné pojetí doplňkové četby ve středoškolské výuce anglického jazyka vyžaduje změnu. Možnost zavést ucelenou koncepci výuky dovedností souvisejících s četbou se ukazuje jako vhodná alternativa k současnému stavu; na významu nabývá o to více v souvislosti s rostoucími nároky na obecné výchovné a vzdělávací cíle jazykové výuky v dnešním globalizovaném světě. Pokud by totiž současná situace měla přetrvat, hlavní cíl – celkový osobnostní rozvoj samostatných a kriticky přemýšlejících čtenářů – by nemohl být naplněn. Pokud bude naopak možné navrhované změny do středoškolské výuky anglického jazyka postupně zavést, bude studentům umožněno vytvořit si kladný vztah k četbě v anglickém jazyce a k četbě samotné.

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