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Thesis

**SCAFFOLDING STRATEGIES IN TEACHING
SPEAKING SKILLS**

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Prohlašuji, že jsem práci vypracovala samostatně s použitím uvedené literatury a zdrojů informací.

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ABSTRACT

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This graduate thesis deals with scaffolding strategies in teaching speaking. The theoretical part presents readers with essential information on speaking skills and issues in teaching speaking. These are followed by introduction of challenges and scaffolding strategies in teaching speaking. Subsequently, the practical part explores the use of selected scaffolding strategies in teaching speaking and collects students' experience from speaking activities without scaffolding compared to speaking activities with scaffolding through the means of questionnaires. The results of the research are presented in graphs with further comments and show how and whom the scaffolding tools helped most. Based on these results, it is concluded that scaffolding forms great asset to most students in class and therefore teachers are recommended to use it to make students speak more and feel successful at speaking activities in class.

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I. INTRODUCTION

Speaking forms one of the competences which must be learnt, practiced and developed when students want to grasp learning L2 thoroughly. Speaking is often said to be the most important skill. Moreover many people judge one's knowledge of L2 according to how one speaks the L2. Therefore it is valuable to explore how teaching speaking in class works and what support it could or should have to improve the success of students speaking L2.

This thesis, as the title indicates, focuses on scaffolding strategies in teaching speaking skills. Teachers teach speaking skills in the lessons, but not all students are able to produce the language to sufficient extent. What might be the problems why student do not speak? Why and what do they worry about? What would help them (and the teachers) improve the speaking skill? This thesis attempts to offer advice and hints on how to help and support students' speaking performance in class.

The first section of the thesis offers the theoretical framework for the practical part of the thesis. Issues in teaching speaking are presented and challenges and scaffolding strategies are introduced; possible problems students might have when it comes to speaking L2 in class are listed.

The next chapter, called Methods, builds on the theoretical background. It presents research questions, introduces the questionnaires, and describes what the speaking activity without scaffolding and with scaffolding looks like.

The following chapter, Results and Commentaries, shows how the data from the students were gathered, presents graphs for better and clearer comprehension, and notifies how students react to scaffolding strategies at speaking activities. Hints and advice that stem from the results are presented in the Implication Chapter. It also includes limitations of the research together with suggestions how to further improve and extend the research. The thesis finishes with the Conclusion Chapter that summarises and highlights the most important findings of usefulness of scaffolding at teaching speaking.

II. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

The theoretical chapter presents an overview of background information on teaching speaking and provides the basic knowledge required for understanding the research of the thesis. Specifically, various issues and challenges in teaching speaking are presented and explained. The core of this chapter lies in the part devoted to challenges in developing speaking skills and implementing scaffolding strategies in teaching speaking.

Speaking

First it should be explained what the term speaking actually means. Literate people who use language possess the four basic language skills of speaking, writing, listening and reading. Speaking and writing are referred to as productive skills as they involve language production. Productive skills code the message on the side of the producer to be decoded on the side of the decoder. Since speaking belongs to the category of productive skills, it requires production on the part of the speaker.

Ur (2012) states that “of all the four skills, speaking seems intuitively the most important: people who know a language are referred to as “speakers” of that language, as if speaking included all other kinds of knowing.” (p. 117). The true fact is that many language learners assess their level of a second language according to the speaking ability and they often evaluate their success in language learning according to the improvement in their spoken language proficiency. Thornbury (2006) emphasizes that the ability to speak a second language seems to equal the proficiency in the language, as in “She speaks excellent English.”

Speaking, often referred to as oral production, should have its receptive counterpart which is the listening. Listening cannot be left to take care of itself. Learners must realize what is said to them otherwise understanding risks to fail. In praxis, oral communication is a two-way process between a speaker and listener. Speaker and listener are constantly changing roles and therefore it is necessary for teachers to ensure that the two skills are integrated through situations that permit and encourage authentic communication (e.g. especially through talk and discussion in small groups) and also that the learners are taught how to keep the channel of communication open in such situations (e.g. asking for repetition and

clarification; by interrupting; by signalling agreement or disagreement etc.) (Byrne, 1986, pp. 9 - 11).

It is not always full proper sentences that speakers exchange. Interaction often contains incomplete and sometimes ungrammatical utterances, false starts and repetition, and prosodic features, such as stress and intonation as well as facial and bodily movements such as gestures (Byrne, 1986, pp. 8 - 9).

The following list clearly shows some features of spoken discourse:

- composed idea units (conjoined short phrases and clauses)
- more vague or generic words than written language
- fixed phrases, fillers, and hesitation markers
- slips and errors reflecting online processing
- reciprocity (i.e., interactions are jointly constructed)
- variations of speech (e.g., between formal and casual speech), reflecting speaker roles, speaking purpose, and the context (Byrne, 1986, p. 19).

Functions of Speaking

We can classify the functions of speaking in human interaction as follows:

- talk as interaction
- talk as transaction
- talk as performance.

Talk as interaction serves to establish and maintain social relations. We normally call it conversation. It is focused on the speakers rather than the message. Talk as interaction is difficult. Students need to learn a wide range of topics to have at their disposal in order to manage it. Initially, students may deal with familiar topics. However, they also need practice in introducing new topics into conversation to move beyond this stage. I agree with Richards that they should practice predicting questions for a large number of topics (2008, p. 24).

Talk as transaction focuses on the exchange of information and on what is said or done.

Talk as performance transmits information before an audience, such as classroom presentations, public announcements and speeches. Meaning is still important, but the emphasis is more on form and accuracy (Richards, pp. 21 – 28).

All four basic language skills are important when learning a foreign language. As we have seen, it is the complex skill of speaking, which is the key to communication. Speaking with listening forms a natural flow of communication.

Issues in Teaching Speaking

Considering what good speakers do, taking into consideration learners' needs and thinking about speaking tasks used in class, teachers can help learners improve their speaking and overall oral competency.

Approaches to teaching of speaking in ELT have undergone many changes. Speaking in traditional methodologies usually meant repeating after the teacher, memorizing a dialog, or responding to drills, all of which reflect the sentence-based view of based methodologies of the 1970th. The emerge of communicative language teaching in the 1980th changed views of syllabuses and methodology, which still influence approaches to teaching speaking skills today. Language experts have focused methodological debates on how best to approach the teaching of oral skills. Teaching speaking skills today comprises communicative approach built around notions, functions, skills, tasks, and other non-grammatical units of organization (Richards, 2008, p.2).

Teaching Speaking Skills

Teachers and textbooks use a large range of approaches. Most common are direct approaches focusing on specific features of oral interaction (e.g., turn-taking, topic management, and questioning strategies) and indirect approaches that create conditions for oral interaction through group work, task work, and other strategies (Richards, 2008, p. 19).

In general, teachers have to lead students from controlled practice, aiming at accuracy, which is the stage where they are mainly imitating a model, or responding to cues, to freer practice, aiming at fluency, where they can use the language to express their own ideas. There are activities which clearly contribute to the mastery of the language system (e.g. chorus work, drill, dialogue) and others (e.g. pair work, gapped, dialogue, flexible pair work, language games, decision-making activities, role play, games), on the other hand, which are clearly designed to promote fluency. From a standpoint of learners they provide the necessary ingredients for communicative adequacy. We cannot communicate unless we know

essential bits of the language system (Byrne, 1986, p. 5). As the course progresses the proportion of controlled speech will usually decrease and the focus on fluency will increase.

Teachers have specific roles to play at different stages of the learning process. These stages are:

- presentation (when teachers introduce something new to be learned)
- practice (when teachers allow the learners to work under their direction; whole class and pair work activities to develop mastery of the language system)
- production (when teachers give students opportunities to work on their own; pair and group activities to develop fluency)

However, there is one other key role that teachers keep across these three stages: namely, the teacher as a monitor. Whatever teacher does in the classroom is crucial. It entails teacher's own performance, their mastery of teaching skills, often dependent on careful preparation, selection and presentation of topics and activities. Last but not least it is the teacher's personality which in language teaching must be flexible enough to allow teachers to have both authoritative and friendly approach at the same time (Byrne, 1986, p.3.).

The following lines take a closer look at each stage separately.

Presentation stage. At the presentation stage teachers function as informants. They do not spend too much time presenting because they want the students to get enough time to practice the language themselves.

Practice stage. Then, at the practice stage the teacher takes the role of a conductor and monitor where again it is the students who do most of the talking. At this stage it is the accuracy that we aim at, e.g. when new language is introduced (Scrivener, 2011, p. 224).

Production stage. Last but not least the production stage comes where the fluency is requested. Fluency can be described as the ability to express oneself intelligibly, reasonably accurately and without too much hesitation (otherwise communication may break down because the listener loses interest or gets impatient) (Byrne, 1986, p. 10). Fluency can be practiced in activities such as information gap and other tasks that require learners to attempt real communication, despite limited proficiency in English. In so doing, learners develop communication strategies and engage in negotiation of meaning, both of which were considered

essential to the development of oral skills, (Richards, 2008, p.2). The teacher becomes a manager and guide who gives the students regular and frequent opportunities to use the language freely, even if they sometimes make mistakes as a result. The teacher's main job here is to provide learners with opportunities to use the language for themselves, which means giving them a chance to say what they want to say. Teachers help students to formulate their ideas, but will not intervene to correct errors of form. The stress here is on spontaneous, exploratory talk and confidence building, within the privacy of small group work. Success in achieving the goals of the tasks helps students' motivation. Students try to express their own ideas and get aware of having learnt something useful to them personally. What is more, students get encouraged to go on learning which is essential for the progress (Byrne, 1986, p. 2). Therefore teachers should be tolerant and overlook shortcomings as students are learning the language and some mistakes or slips of tongue might appear. The main aim is to teach learners to communicate adequately balancing the language both with accuracy and fluency (Richards, 2008, p. 34).

In real life teaching the above listed stages are not taught as three independent units. They overlap and run into one another e.g. practice part of the presentation stage. Mixing some parts of the stages makes the learning process reflecting the teaching needs. Scrivener (2011) adds that there are still activities which aim at accuracy as well as at fluency (p. 224). The important thing is that the teacher realizes these aims and makes the activities in the lesson follow one another in a logical order and to the students' benefit (Hánková, 2011, p. 96).

As mentioned above, teachers hold various roles during various stages. It is because the learner's needs vary throughout the stages. The stages are not separated one from another but can overlap. Students see their biggest progress at the production stage which is the goal for speaking. In order to make the speaking as natural as possible some conversation routines follow.

Conversational Routines

Byrne (1986) highlights the use of fixed expressions, or "routines" as an important feature of conversational discourse because they often have specific functions in conversation and give conversational discourse the quality of naturalness (p. 20). Students have to learn routines for beginning and ending of conversations, for leading into topics, and for moving away from one topic to

another. What should be also included are routines for breaking up conversations, for leaving a party, and for dissolving a gathering. One cannot imagine living life without such routines.

What helps improving L2 speaking is observing how native speakers communicate. One notices very quickly that native speakers have a repertoire of thousands of routines mentioned above and they use them in appropriate situations. This makes conversational discourse sound natural and native-like. The best way to learn these is to learn them as chunks of language or as fixed expressions (Byrne, 1986, p.20) (Ur, 1991, p. 5).

The main teaching aim is clear; teachers make learners gain confidence and zest to communicate. Naturally, there are various learners and have various needs. Therefore it is through activities of various kinds, both those designed to develop accuracy and those designed to promote fluency that the students are able to learn language. And above all they are also able to perceive that they are learning it because they are able to use it.

Conditions for Creating Speaking Lessons

We have seen that many factors influence successful teaching speaking. Teachers should take all these into account before planning teaching speaking to prevent the lesson from moving aside the aim or becoming a complete failure. Most students take speaking for a real challenge, especially the one for fluency, so it is obvious that teaching speaking must be carried out carefully and thoroughly to burst their confidence and zest for speaking.

Language

When students have learnt some particular features of phonology, lexis or structure, they have problems of using their knowledge for actual purposeful verbal communication. Unlike audio-lingual school where students used language in more or less controlled exercises until they have mastered its structures to a high degree, and only then begin to speak freely, it is now favoured that some sort of dynamic, individual and meaningful oral practice should form a part of English lessons right from the beginning. Most courses now stress the importance of fostering learners' ability to communicate in the foreign language rather than their skill in constructing

correct sentences, and therefore the time and energy allotted to communication exercises in the classroom increases (Ur, 1999, p. 2).

i+1. Krashen's input hypothesis $i+1$ says that learners should be exposed to slightly more advanced level of language than their current level. He means that it is simply not sufficient to expose the learners to such samples of spoken language as dialogues or teacher talks which have been simplified for the students' better understanding (Harmer, 1991, pp.36 – 37).

There are two main reasons for that. The first is that the learners' ability to understand needs to be considerably more extensive than their ability to speak (as in their mother tongue). It is impossible to declare exactly how much greater our receptive knowledge needs to be but the rough guess is 3 times greater the reception over production. The other reason is that the samples of spoken language provided in the course book have been skilfully contrived as models for oral production and do not usually contain a sufficiently high proportion of the features of natural speech (including hesitations, false starters and others). What learners really need is a listening comprehension programme which will expose them to suitably varied models of natural speech. All in all learners have to be taught to listen as well as to speak (Byrne, 1986, p. 9).

Content

In designing speaking activities or instructional materials for second-language or foreign language teaching, Richards (2008) emphasizes the necessity to recognize the very different functions speaking performs in daily communication and the different purposes for which our students need speaking skills (p. 20). Informal needs analysis might be the starting point here. Procedures for defining needs include observation of learners carrying out different types of communicative tasks, questionnaires, interviews, and diagnostic testing. (Richards, 2008, p.29)

Learning is even more efficient if the learners are actively involved in the learning process. The degree of learner activity depends on the kind of material they are working on. The students' curiosity can be aroused by various texts or pictures containing discrepancies or mistakes, or by missing or muddled information. This curiosity leads to the wish to find out, to put right or to complete. Further devices to make students more actively involved are games, fun and imagination (Klippel, 1999, p. 5).

Meaningfulness

A speaking lesson is a sort of bridge for learners between the classroom and the real world. It connects the new language learnt and practised in the classroom with the language students use to communicate in real life. In order to build this bridge, speaking activities should include the following three features: provide the learners with *practice opportunities* for *purposeful communication* in *meaningful situations*. It is also recommended that the speaking activity has a goal and the language is used for the purpose of achieving this goal. This mirrors real-life situations very closely, making the activity more motivating and interesting at the same time. There are a lot of different techniques that can be used to create meaningful and purposeful context for speaking practice in English, such as: ask and answer, describe and draw, discussions, guessing, remembering, miming, ordering, and completing a form/ questionnaire, and role play (Hadfield & Hadfield, 1999, pp. 3 - 5).

Communicative situations. Klippel (1999) supports it saying that all situations where real communication occurs naturally have to be taken advantages of and suggests that two devices help the teacher make up communicative activities: information gap and opinion gap because it forces students to exchange information in order to find a solution and requires them to describe their view on these ideas, respectively. Teachers can apply the principles of information gap and opinion gap to suitable traditional exercises and change them into more challenging communicative situations. Information-gap and opinion-gap exercises should have some content worth talking about as students do not want to discuss trivia; the interest which is aroused by the structure of the activity can be reduced or increased by the topic. Many activities are concerned with the learners themselves, their feelings, views and ideas. It is very important for students to experience real communicative situations in which they are taken seriously as people. Meaningful activities on a personal level can represent a step towards this identification which improves performance and generates interest, being eminently motivating for students. (pp. 4 - 5).

Since communicative aims are central to these activities it is useful to choose the activities which offer effective learning situations for a foreign language, and reject the ones where the resultant language practice does not justify

the amount of time and preparation involved. It is top important that the activities teach students to use their knowledge of the foreign language flexibly which means they have to get the meaning across in order to complete the exercise and need to utilise every scrap of knowledge and skill they possess. Training and fostering such flexibility in the foreign language seems as vital as learning to be prepared for all communicative situations that may occur (Klippel, 1999, pp. 6 – 7).

Interest. Student motivation and also performance depend to a large extend on the interest and enjoyment generated by the activity. The task itself should carry a challenge for students; not too difficult as it might discourage the students at the beginning and not too easy as students might get quickly bored. Ideal solution is a combination of challenge and ensured success: the task should be hard enough to require an effort on the one hand, but on the other hand easy enough for it to be clear that success is within their grasp. It is preferred to choose open-ended tasks: they are success-orientated. However much or little students produce, whatever responses are given, it all represents a performance that is more or less successful, but is unlikely to be a failure (Ur, 1999, pp. 15 – 16).

When students get a task to perform through verbal interaction, all speech becomes purposeful and therefore much more interesting for them. Ur (1999) suggests that a part of the success is to bring interesting subjects of conversation to the classroom. Teachers hold topic-centred discussions or debates as a framework for fluency practice which is often successful. Beyond any doubt topic is seen as the central focus of classroom discussions. One should also mention that students need not only know *what* to talk about, but also *why* to talk about it. To prevent the speaking activities from being artificial, the purpose must be set. If it lacks the purpose of genuine discourse, it lacks the interest and motivation and might lead to the “petering out” phenomenon (pp. 5 – 6, 15).

Another element which adds interest is the use of physical focus which helps to keep students’ attention centred on the subject and stimulate ideas. The object can be a picture, graphic representation or relevant written details. Writing down results or ideas by one of the group members keeps the attention focused. When the time-limit is set, it makes the group tasks become group contests, with an immediate rise in tension and motivation (Ur, 1999, p. 16).

Teacher's Role

The teacher has to decide whether to join in the activity as an equal member (in case of an odd number of students, for example) or stay back to help and monitor. Both alternatives have their pros and cons. The advantage of the first one may be the reduction of the psychological distance between the teacher and the students when the students get to know the teacher better. On the other hand, when the teacher remains in the background and does not participate directly, they can judge independently and give advice and help to other groups. Furthermore they can unobtrusively monitor and observe students' performance and note common mistakes for revision at a later stage. Whatever alternative is chosen, the teacher should be careful not to help students without being asked or correct students' errors without having a proper reason for it. Being interrupted and corrected makes the students feel hesitant and insecure in their speech. It is advised to encourage the students to work on their own and to try to overcome their difficulties by finding other ways of expressing what they want to say (Klippel, 1999, pp. 7 – 8).

Many students are used to working on their own. The teacher is here to help them acquire the ability to co-operate in the management of speaking in turns as speaking is an interactive process which takes place in real time, usually with little time for detailed planning. While learners are working together in pairs or groups, teacher uses the opportunity to give students individual attention. There are several roles teacher needs to adopt:

- explainer – helps the learners who have problems with the language or do not know what to do
- controller – makes sure anyone speaks English and quietens the noise down
- evaluator – teacher gets a lot of feedback from listening to students speaking which helps decide whether students have understood and the learning can move on, or whether students need some more teaching (Hadfield & Hadfield, 1999, p. 7).

Classroom Organization

Instructions. It is top important that students know exactly what to do. If they are confused, a lot of valuable speaking time is wasted and nobody enjoys the lesson. It is recommended to start an activity with a demonstration of things the

learners will do later in their groups or as a pair work. However clear the demonstration could have been, it is always advisable to double check that everyone knows what to do. (Hadfield & Hadfield, 1999, pp. 2 - 3). Poor understanding often results in nervousness, which will probably in turn further inhibit the ability to speak.

Cooperation. One of important factors in education towards cooperation is the teacher's attitude. If the teacher favours a cooperative style for teaching generally and does not shy away from a greater workload connected with group work or projects, then the conditions for learning to cooperate are good. The atmosphere within a class or group is often largely determined by the teacher, who – quite often without realizing it – sets the tone by choosing certain types of exercises and topics (Klippel, 1999, p. 6). Ur (1999) supports the cooperation mentioning that learning how to participate constructively and cooperatively in a discussion forms an inseparable part of learning to communicate successfully. The activity in the form of discussion is very productive because as many students as possible say as much as possible. (p. 3)

Feedback. One of the advantages of group work or pair work is that they free the teacher from the usual role of instructor-corrector-controller, and allows them gather some feedback information; to walk around the class and monitor, give help where needed, assess the performance of individual students, note down language mistakes for future remedial work, devote little more time to slower learners. When the activity is over, it is important to bring the class back together again and students report back to the teacher and the rest of the class. Teacher gives feedback on the language practiced for which the notes, being made while monitoring, can be used. If it happens that a large number of learners have made the same mistakes, it is worth to spend some time explaining or clarifying it. The activity might be done again with a different partner or on another lesson at a later time. It is also advised to focus on persistent pronunciation problems at a stage. (Hadfield & Hadfield, 1999, p. 7) (Ur, 1999, p. 8). Thorbury (2005) specifies that it includes not only the individual sounds of the words but also the appropriate placement of prominence (stress) and the meaningful use of intonation (pitch direction) (p. 4).

Mistakes. In general, teachers are recommended to give corrective feedback on errors rarely or not at all during fluency practice. It is best not to interrupt the speaking activity as this can impede fluency and undermine students' confidence. It

is better when the teacher notes down errors and problems on a piece of paper, and deals with them later in the feedback stage (Hadfield & Hadfield, 1999, p. 7) (Ur, 2012, p.119).

It remains to be seen how much to correct and what sort of errors. In respect of the speaking activity different errors are to be corrected than if it had been a listening one. Students should use language that is relevant, easily understandable, and of an acceptable level of accuracy. Teachers cannot expect to hear absolutely correct language. What suffices language free from pronunciation, lexical and grammatical errors that interfere with fluent communication of meanings (Ur, 2012, p. 118). Byrne (1986) agrees and warns teachers about the risk of discouraging students by overcorrection (Byrne, 1986, p. 74).

Some errors could have been avoided if the teacher had dealt with the issues before the speaking activity, as such, started. Some students, especially low-level ones, often rely on a lexicalized system of communication that depends heavily on vocabulary and memorized chunks of language, as well as both verbal and nonverbal communication strategies, to get meaning across. Several steps can be used to help students practice transactional use of language:

- By pre-teaching certain linguistic forms that can be used while completing a task.
- By reducing the complexity of the task (e.g. by familiarizing students with the demands of the activity by showing them a similar activity on video or as a dialogue)
- By giving adequate time to plan the task
- By repeated performance of the task (Richards, 2008, p. 32-33).

Communicative Practice

The type of learner-learner interaction in groups or in pairs provides the learners with far more practice in using the language than the more traditional teacher-learner interaction. The teacher is not the one who needs the practice. Work in twos or small groups gives the learners many more opportunities for practice, asking and answering each other's questions (Hadfield & Hadfield, 1999, p. 4).

Group work. Working in a full class forum is not the optimum for active learner participation. Also worth mentioning is that this might be dominated by a

few fluent speakers, and the rest of the class either listens, or gets bored by being passive bystanders and lose interest completely. The obvious solution is dividing the class into small discussion groups. Some teachers might be afraid of losing control over the class and lack discipline by reorganizing the classroom and decentralize the teaching process. There are ways to overcome these worries. The physical reorganization can be done very easily by asking some students to turn face to face to those behind them. In younger classes where one risks indiscipline, it is best to make the groups semi-permanent and not to change the groups each lesson. It must be noted that the increase participation makes up for the effort being made. If there are 5 groups in the class, the amount of talking is five times higher. Moreover, this heightened participation helps students who are shy of saying something in front of the whole class, or to the teacher, and who find it much easier to talk in front of a small group of their peers. It is also motivation which rises as the physical focus of the discussion is close and directed towards each individual student; that means, whoever is talking is only a small distance away, clearly audible, facing the other group members and addressing them personally. Equally important is that group work lends itself to game-like activities; almost any kind of task-centred activity can be transformed into a game by adding an element of tension (Ur, 1999, p. 7 – 8).

If the learners are new to working in pairs and groups, introduce pair- and group work gradually. At first the activities should be rather short and simple, practising the language that the learners are confident with. It is better and faster to tell students who to work with rather than wasting time until each finds a partner or gets into a group. It is important for students to get a clear signal when to start and stop the activity (Hadfield & Hadfield, 1999, p. 6). Klippel (1999) supports activities in pairs saying that students often take pair work for the least threatening as everybody is talking at the same time and they have only got one listener. (p. 13).

Discussion. Discussion, in its broad sense, is the most natural and effective way for learners to practice talking freely in English as one of its main aims is efficient fluency practice. It is generally known that language is never used (except in the classrooms) for its own sake, but always for the sake of achieving an objective, or to perform a function: to persuade, inquire, inform, threaten, etc. The purpose of the discussion is to be taken seriously as it forms an essential part of the

success. Discussion is motivating for the participants as everyone is fully involved. All those who are not speaking are concentrating their attention on the speaker(s), and react to the humour, seriousness or difficulty of the ideas being expressed. Full participation and high motivation are prototypes of discussion exercises where language is used in a variety of ways in terms of subject-matter and communicative functions (Ur, 1999, p. 3 - 4).

Atmosphere and Speech Conditions

The first essential requirement when using learner-centred activities is, above all, a relaxed and friendly atmosphere in the group. It becomes impossible, even for the most extrovert student, to speak comfortably if the atmosphere is hostile and indifferent, not to mention the risk of being ridiculed or mocked. Only in friendly and supportive environment can the main aims of communicative activities be achieved: cooperation and the growth of understanding. With new classes or the classes taught by a new teacher it may take some time to develop this pleasant kind of group feeling so it is recommended to postpone activities with very personal topics. Needless to say that in order to avoid any kind of embarrassment or ill feeling, teachers should inform their students that anyone may refuse to answer a personal question without having to give any reason or explanation. This way students feel at ease. Teachers cannot help it further as they do not know which activities may take on threatening features for individual students (Klippel, 1999, pp. 7 - 8).

Challenges in Teaching Speaking

As mentioned above, knowing a language and being able to speak it are not synonymous. Thornbury (2005) reminds that research – and common sense – suggests that speaking is much more than just the ability to create grammatically correct utterances and then pronounce them. Being a skill, speaking needs to be developed and practised independently of grammar curriculum (p. iv).

There are many challenges that teachers need to face, and problems, teachers need to solve to create the best conditions for learning, especially learning speaking. Byrne (1986) says that “what teachers need are ways of giving the learners essential items of language economically and enjoyably” (p. 2).

Motivation

Motivation is crucial. Inner, which is much stronger, or outer it pushes learners forward. Teachers sometimes struggle how to select activities which will raise the interest of the learners and make them want to talk. As we shall see, there is not one single answer to this. Byrne (1986) recommends teachers to have a whole range of activities which involve students on an imaginative, cognitive and, above all, personal level. (p. 75). Personalization makes most activities appealing to students as everyone likes talking about themselves and listening to other students' personal experience and opinion.

Any progress is motivating so the development of oral ability is a good source of motivation for most learners. Byrne (1986) suggest teachers some points to pay attention to:

- find ways to demonstrate to the learners that they are making progress in the language all the time
- balance controlled practice, when you monitor and correct the learners' performance, with freer practice with opportunities for free expression
- show the learners how to make it that they can produce the speaking from the little they know (teaching them to paraphrase and use alternative expressions) (pp. 10-11).

Shyness and Inhibitions

Unlike other skills speaking requires some degree of real-time exposure to an audience. Some students are too shy to perform in public. Others are inhibited about saying things in a foreign language in the classroom. The reasons for this are various: worry about making mistakes, scare of criticism, or shyness of attention that their speech attracts (Ur, 2012, p. 118).

Low Participation of Individuals

Any group work cannot provide space for more than one person to talk if they are to be heard. In large groups it means that each student will only have very limited talking time. What often makes the speaking contribution even less equal among the students is the fact that in every class one usually finds at least one active student full of self-confidence and, on the other hand, one timid student with

low self-confidence. So the tendency of strong students is to dominate while others speak very little or not at all (Ur, 2012, p. 118).

Having Nothing To Say

Some students are not shy but they still have a problem when it comes to speaking. They cannot think of anything to say. The reason might be an uninteresting or irrelevant topic or too vague questions. Students need to feel that it is worth making the effort to speak which means they have something relevant or original to contribute to the discussion. It concerns mostly advanced learners whose level of English is quite high, and the topics are more sophisticated. (Ur, 2012, p. 118).

Appropriate Knowledge Level

An important aspect of language learning for the learners is to learn how to make the best use of the little they know. They need to know how to accommodate what they have learnt of the language to the situations in which they are required to use it. It is part of the teacher's job to show the learners how they can do this. Teachers should not let students believe that they will be able to do it at some remote date in the future. Especially the lower-level ones would get discouraged (Byrne, 1986, p. 74).

L1 Use

In many classes, especially non English speaking countries, language courses consist of students who share their L1, which brings the risk they may fall back on it because it is easier for them and they feel more natural to talk to each other in their L1. It happens at the times when using English requires too much effort. It does not mean L1 should not be used at all. Occasionally L1 use is inevitable because it is economical and effective for explanation e.g. when solving specific vocabulary problem (Ur, 2012, p. 118).

Mistakes

Teachers are often hesitant whether or not correcting students' mistakes in speaking. Student errors are evidence that they are making progress because they are experimenting with the language, trying out ideas, taking risks, attempting to

communicate. Teachers should try to think about accepting that learners make mistakes at the production stage. In dealing with errors, teachers are supposed to take into consideration the aim of the activity. The errors should be corrected differently when they rise in an activity aimed at improving learners' accurate use of English or in an activity aimed at fluency (Scrivener, 2011, pp. 285 – 286).

Moving to Production

Some teachers, and also some students, feel safer within the practice stage with activities which are wholly or mainly under teacher's control. That is to say, students work with the whole class together, using drills which give the learners an opportunity to reproduce what they have learned accurately and enable teachers to check whether students are able to do this. Hardly ever do they work on their own, in pairs. Then the transition phase from practice to production comes and some teachers, and also students, start struggling. However the production stage is very important as it will provide the learners with the maximum amount of meaningful practice and it will get them used to working as much as possible on their own, talking to one another directly and not through the medium of the teacher which not all learners accept or do well at the beginning (Byrne, 1986, p.53).

Class Organisation

Last but not least, the challenge with class organisation comes to scene. When teachers teach understanding and speaking, they have to cope with a number of obstacles, such as: the size of the class (often thirty learners), the arrangement of the classroom (which is hardly ever in favour of communication), the little number of hours available for language teaching (which cannot not be all spent on practicing speaking skills) and the syllabus itself. Under these conditions it is a real challenge to provide effective oral practice. Byrne (1989) states that without a clear understanding and firm grasp of the wide range of techniques and procedures through which oral ability can be developed, it is not doable (p. 1).

Now it is generally accepted that speaking does not come naturally from the teaching of grammar and vocabulary, with some pronunciation practice. Therefore many language teachers are hesitant and share similar kinds of worries when dealing with how to teach speaking. They mostly struggle with how to motivate students to speak, how to make everyone speak, how to make students become

more fluent, and what activities to use and how to organize them, and how to teach them to succeed in the production stage. These express some of the common dilemmas teachers have to face trying to address the teaching of speaking. Further I address those challenges which can be supported by various scaffolding strategies.

Challenges and Scaffolding Strategies

Scaffolding

The first thing to consider is the clarification of the meaning of the word ‘scaffolding’ in education: “*Scaffolding* refers to the preparation for an activity provided by the teacher/ materials because without it, learners might find the activity too difficult to do.” (“eltnotebook” n.d., para. 1). The term was originally used for the way an adult might talk to a child in order to help them with an activity. Nowadays the term *scaffolding* is used in ELT terminology to describe any preparatory activity done in the classroom. Some examples of *scaffolding* for speaking activities are as follows: pre-teaching key vocabulary, providing students with time to plan what they want to say, helping students with any vocabulary they think they will need in the activity, making mind maps, drafts, half-made utterances, stimulating schemata with visual support, exposing students to a model (e.g. if it is an anecdote telling activity, the teacher tells an anecdote on the topic), or dividing the activity into smaller stages.

It is also worth mentioning that in Vygotsky’s terms, “scaffolding helps the learners move from their Zone of Actual Development (what they currently do without help) to their Zone of Proximal development (what they are learning to do but can currently only do with help)” (“eltnotebook”, n.d., para. 1). As education researcher Eileen Raymond says, "the ZPD is the distance between what children can do by themselves and the next learning that they can be helped to achieve with competent assistance.” (“eutopia”, n.d., para. 1).

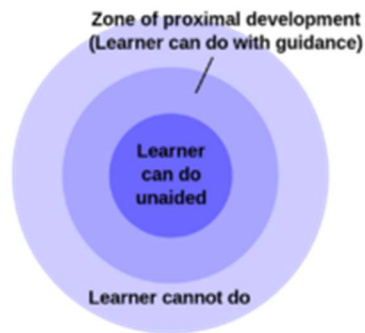


Figure 1: Zone of proximal development (Source: wikisofia.cz, n.d.)

Criteria of Effective Scaffolding

To have scaffolding work effectively, some basic principles must be taken into account.

1. *Student ownership of the learning event.* Task must evoke active participation and contribution from the students' part. It helps support positive motivation aspect mentioned earlier.
2. *Appropriateness of the instructional task.* Task should be of an appropriate challenge and built on the student's temporary knowledge and allowing new learning to occur at the same time.
3. *A structured learning environment.* A natural sequence of thoughts and language should be provided when presenting students with useful strategies and approaches to the task.
4. *Shared responsibility.* Rather than evaluating learners' answers, teachers should be supporting, encouraging, and providing additional props.
5. *Transfer of control.* When students internalize new routines and procedures, they should become more responsible for controlling the learning process.

All these principles provide a new way to think about familiar teaching routines from a different perspective, rather than a wholesale abandonment of the past ("eltj", 1993, p. 1).

Advantages of Scaffolding

English teachers face many challenges in the real classroom scenario. Students come from various backgrounds and their learning styles and needs tend to be various. So English teachers use scaffolding and various strategies to meet students' learning needs. Each teacher has a set of strategies and techniques which

work well when increasing and keeping students' interest and when helping them grasp and use their L2. Tejkalová (2010) feels that scaffolding might be also described as a facilitated support provided to students to be able to become independent and responsible for their own learning (para. 1).

Scaffolding prevents the learning process from possible problems and obstacles and is based on what students do know (knowledge, skills, and approaches). Scaffolding supports creative and critical thinking and tries to endorse students in gaining new knowledge and skills (“rvp”, 2010, para. 1).

Needless to say that scaffolding does not introduce students with ready-made solutions. Its main aim is to enable students to find their own way to solve problems and overcome obstacles. Scaffolding is gradually removed according to students' needs until the moment students just do not need it at all as they become independent and develop autonomous learning strategies (“clil”, n.d., para. 1-3).

Facing Selected Challenges through Various Scaffolding Strategies

Shyness and inhibition. Shyness and inhibition can be lowered by various brainstorming activities (in pairs or as a class). It is important to accept all opinions as valid. No answer is wrong. The aim is to motivate students to speak not to discourage them by rejecting their views. What also helps is allowing students to express some part of the answer in L1. Teachers or other students then translate the L1 part into L2.

Another possible way is modelling the structures requested for the answer. Students are sometimes hesitant how to start. Model answers decrease this stress. Some others are activities with non-verbal answers: such as draw, connect, match, or mime. It is oriented on visual and kinaesthetic learners; it offers a prompt reaction (“clil”, n.d., para. 1-3).

Last but not least is giving students time to talk. All learners need time to digest new ideas and information. Teachers are advised to imply a structured discussion and structured talking time throughout the lesson. It is recommended to include this crucial strategy on a regular basis (“eutopia”, n.d., para. 2 – 4).

Having nothing to say. The problem of having nothing to say can be helped by applying visual support: pictures, graphic organizers, charts, or audio-visual technique. It helps guide and shape the students' thinking so that they can

apply it. It is recommended to use various forms of presentation and accompany visual material by verbal and non-verbal communication (“clil”, n.d., para. 1-3).

Pre-teaching vocabulary is another supportive strategy, sometimes referred to as frontloading vocabulary. A possible interesting way of introducing new vocabulary is introducing it through pictures, as in context to things they already know and are interested in. It is recommended to use metaphors and invite students to create a symbol or drawing for each word and give time for discussion of the words (small and whole groups) (“eutopia”, n.d., para. 2 - 4).

Appropriate knowledge level. A scaffolding tool which works well, is offering students ready made parts of utterances or the beginnings of utterances. It not only helps weaker students a lot but does not limit stronger students either. Similarly, especially for lower-level ones, is choosing yes/ no questions first and using wh question as a later stage. (“clil”, n.d., para. 1-3).

Last but not least, the prior knowledge use is another successfully working the scaffolding tool. It helps students when they share their own experiences and ideas about the content or concept of study, especially when they relate and connect it to their own lives. Teacher may have to offer hints and suggestions, leading them to the connections a bit, but once they get there, they will grasp it as their own. Launching the learning from the prior knowledge and using this as a framework for future lessons is a scaffolding technique which works very well (“eutopia”, n.d., para. 2 – 4).

Misunderstanding instructions. Misunderstanding instructions prevents most students from succeeding in the activity and feeling successful. It is then crystal clear that teachers should never underestimate understanding instructions. “Show and Tell“ is a scaffolding tool which helps understanding. So anytime you can, show or demonstrate to students exactly what they are expected to do. Or ask students to paraphrase the instructions.

Some other techniques are letting a student take notes on the board with individual stages of the activity. It is advised not to use this strategy too often as some students may not concentrate on the oral instructions at all and will wait for a classmate to jot it on the board. One of possible ways how to grasp students’ attention is to ask various students to write various stages.

Another scaffolding tool is “Pause, Ask Questions, Pause, Review”. This is also a good way to check for understanding. How does this strategy work? A new

idea from a discussion or the reading is shared, then pause (providing students with thinking time), then ask a strategic question, pause again. Keep students engaged as active listeners by calling on someone to “give the gist” of what was just discussed, discovered, or questioned.

Last but not least how to double-check understanding is asking students to say it in their L1. Using L1 here also checks if students can express themselves correctly in L1. At the same time it may be much less time-consuming than the options above (“clil”, n.d., para. 1-3).

Scaffolding Strategies Used by Teachers

Alber (2014) reminds that it remains to be seen what the opposite of scaffolding a lesson is. It would be saying to students “Read this nine-page article, write a detailed essay on the topic it explores, and turn it in by Wednesday” (para. 1). Students are provided with no safety net, no parachute, no scaffolding. They may be lost, hesitant, or discouraged. Scaffolding a lesson, on the other hand, as mentioned earlier, means breaking up the learning into chunks and providing a tool, or structure, with each chunk. Students need such support to be able to move forward.

As Larking (2002) mentions it is not necessary to provide scaffolding to all students. Scaffolding should be provided to those students who need it and especially at times when they need it (“vtaide”, 2002, p. 3). Simply put, as mentioned earlier, in order to meet students where they are and approximately scaffold a lesson, teacher needs to know the individual and collective zone of proximal development of the students.

The advice that one would want to offer here is very much the same as has already been given. The main academic goal for students is to become independent lifetime learners who can learn on their own or limited support. Scaffolding helps students apply new skills and strategies independently after being provided facilitated support. As students show more responsibility for their learning, teachers provide less support than when learning new or difficult tasks which required more assistance.

The theoretical framework presented above explains key issues of teaching speaking and discusses challenges teachers have to overcome when teaching this productive skill. Various obstacles on students’ part may be successfully overcome

or prevented by implementing various scaffolding tools which help students to approach speaking L2 with more ease. The main aim of scaffolding is to shift the responsibility for learning from the teacher to the students when they demonstrate task mastery. The following practical part of the thesis converts this theory into practice and explores the value of scaffolding for language learners.

III. METHODS

This chapter describes the practical part of the thesis – the actual research, presents research questions, and shows how the data to investigate the answers to these questions were gathered.

Introduction to the Research

From the theoretical section of this thesis it is clear that the research explores students' attitudes to speaking L2 and how students succeed at speaking activities with and without scaffolding strategies. In other words, the research aims at finding out what students find difficult at speaking L2 in classes, what they think helps them with speaking and what role scaffolding tools play in it. To explore this, two crucial research questions guided the research:

- Is there any difference in students' perception of tasks with and without scaffolding?
- What kinds of students benefit from scaffolding? If any?

Research Tools

Three Questionnaires exploring students' attitudes, approaches and feelings to speaking were built up for the purpose of the research of this thesis. The reason for this was that it is economical of time on one side and enables to gather a large amount of data on the other. With regard to young age of learners, teenagers, all three Questionnaires were written in Czech in order to avoid any possible misunderstanding and hesitations. Blank versions of the three Questionnaires form inseparable part of the thesis and can be found in the Appendices section (Appendix 1, 3, and 5).

General Questionnaire

The general Questionnaire consisted of two parts. The first asked students about personal data, such as their name, respectively first name, the number of years learning English and the number of years learning English at the language school, respectively. The other, main one, was designed to focus on students' attitudes and experiences with speaking L2: with regard to the class, to the teacher

and to themselves. It also concentrated on reasons which might possibly discourage students from speaking L2 in class.

There were 15 statements in the Questionnaire. Students were asked to choose one out of five possible answers which best corresponds to what they think about their speaking in class in general. The possible answers were: I agree, I rather agree, I rather disagree, I disagree, I don't know. To guarantee that the students fully understood how to deal with the format of the Questionnaire a sample answer was provided above the statement table.

Questionnaire # 1

The Questionnaire # 1 consisted of 7 statements. It was of the same design as the general Questionnaire and offered a choice of the same five answers. The Questionnaire was built up to explore students' immediate reactions and feelings to a speaking activity without any support, respectively, without being offered any scaffolding strategies. Students were asked to speak with no further kind of support.

Questionnaire # 2

The last questionnaire kept the same format as the above two ones. It covered 11 statements out of which the first 7 ones were exactly the same ones as in the Questionnaire # 1. It was done on purpose to be able to better detect the changes in students' attitudes. These and the additional 4 ones revealed the possible different approaches and feelings.

Research Participants

In order to find answers on how scaffolding helps students in speaking L2 it was necessary to choose a class of students, carry out speaking activities without any scaffolding and then speaking activities with scaffolding and have these students to reflect on it. The answers were gathered through the above mentioned three Questionnaires which were filled in by the same students on the same day in the same class.

The research was carried out in a language school in Beroun in a class for teen language learners. The same students meet regularly once a week for 90 minutes so they know each other very well and are used to speaking L2 in this group of students. The class follows the books of Oxford University Press

publishers called English Plus, level 3. The speaking activity used reflected page 74 in this textbook. To gain as much observation on students as possible, two teachers were present in this specific speaking lesson: their class teacher to teach the speaking activities without and with scaffolding, and another teacher, the observer, to note down what was happening during the activities and how the students behaved and reacted to it.

There were 9 out of 10 students present on that day. All 9 students participated actively in class as well as worked carefully and thoroughly with the Questionnaires.

There were 3 girls and 6 boys. The various opinions of the two sexes will be not explored more deeply in this thesis. All the students' age ranges from 15 – 17 years of age. They are all of Intermediate level which corresponds to the textbook this class learns from. They have been studying English for 7 – 11 years. They all have, one dare say, positive approach to learning English and are competent to qualify their individual needs to speaking in its various aspects, listed and discussed in the Questionnaires. Therefore their viewpoint on the scaffolding issue helps to provide a fairly representative and reliable set of sample answers from which conclusions can be derived.

Research Procedure

The students were each given a series of three paper based questionnaires, distributed step by step according to the speaking activity stage. The students were asked in Czech by the teacher, observer, to fill in the questionnaires based on their experience, beliefs, opinion and feelings. The general Questionnaire surveying students' general approach to speaking L2 in class was filled in at the very beginning of the lesson before any activity started. Then the speaking activity without any scaffolding took place. Students were talking in pairs and then in groups of four. When the activity was finished, students completed the Questionnaire # 1 asking them about their experience and feelings about this speaking activity. Then the speaking activity with scaffolding strategies took place. The stages of the speaking activity are clearly listed and commented in a table and can be found in the Appendices section (Appendix 7). The students were provided with the visual scaffolding (Appendix 7, stage 1 and 12) to activate background knowledge and offer motivation, scaffolding of pre-teaching vocabulary (Appendix

7, stage 3 and 11) and functional language (Appendix 7, stage 12) including pronunciation practice (Appendix 7, stage 11 and 12) followed, and also some hints on the topic (Appendix 7, stage 4 and 5) were introduced. The tasks instructions were double-checked to assure the students know exactly what to do (Appendix 7, stage 13). The students had the chance to feel how different it is when they get the support which helped them speak with better ease. When the scaffolded speaking was completed, the students were given Questionnaire # 2.

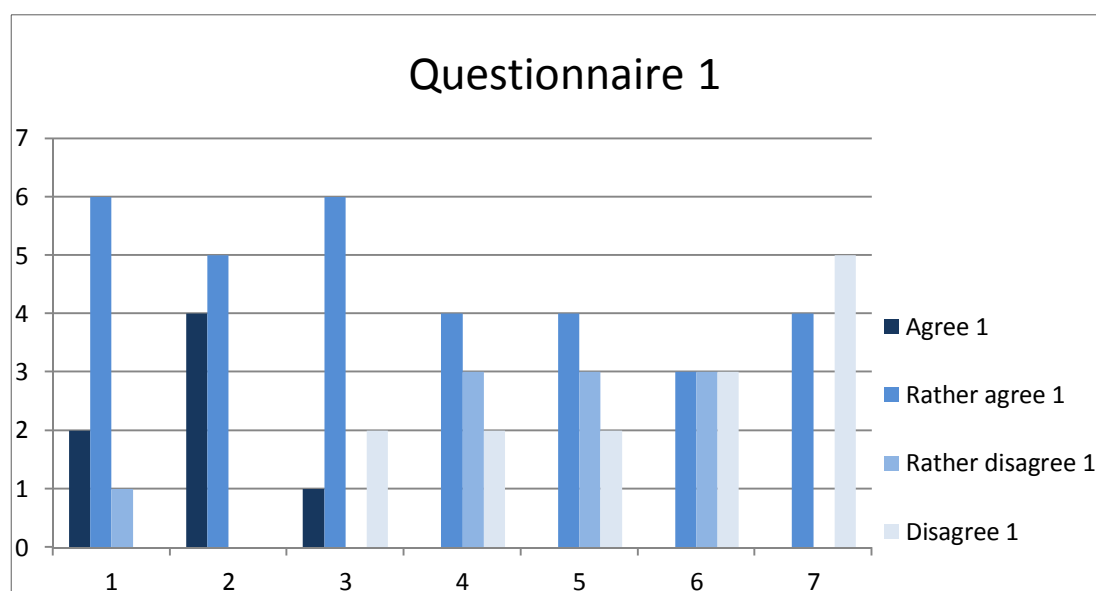
All three questionnaires from all the students were handed in to the teacher observer on spot. Students provided answers to all the statements in all the three questionnaires. It should be mention that none of the students ever used the answer *I do not know* in any of the three questionnaires despite the fact it was one of the options. No answers were left incomplete and no answers contradicted each other. Consequently, all the three questionnaires were analysed and the gained data are presented in graphs and provided with further comments in the next chapter.

IV. RESULTS AND COMMENTARIES

As mentioned earlier in the previous chapter, the thesis aims at exploring differences in students' perception of speaking tasks with and without scaffolding and what kind of students benefit from scaffolding. This chapter focuses on analysing the data gathered from the three questionnaires on the basis of the theoretical background chapter. The results are presented in the form of various graphs that are always provided with commentaries explaining the results to a larger extent.

Students' Attitude and Feelings for a Speaking Activity without any Scaffolding

The seven statements in the Questionnaire # 1 present how the students performed in the speaking activity without any scaffolding, what suited them, how they felt and speculates about reasons for not speaking much during the activity. The following graph shows the results for each of the seven statements.



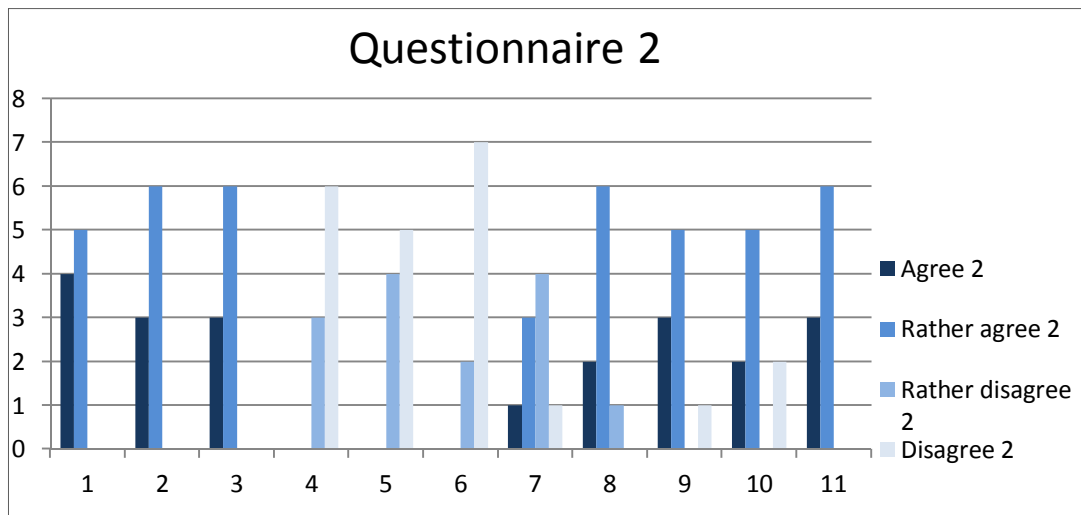
Graph 1. Students' opinions and feelings on a speaking activity without scaffolding.

As it can be seen in the graph above, the results are relatively balanced with the exception of statement 3 and statement 7, understanding the task instructions

and using Czech (L1) in class for further clarification, respectively. Most students agree that speaking in pairs suits them: 6 students rather agree, 3 students agree and one tends to rather disagree. The whole group with no exception likes speaking in a group of four: 4 students agree, 5 students rather agree. The vast majority agrees that understanding instructions did not impede their speaking performance: 1 student agrees, 6 students rather agree and 2 students disagree. Statements 4 and 5 mirror one another with exactly the same results. 4 students admit that they did not speak much as they lacked grammar and vocabulary. 3 students rather disagree and 2 students disagree. Various results appeared for statement 6 regarding the topic of the speaking activity: 3 students rather agree that they did not speak much as they had nothing to say about the topic. On the other hand 6 students disagree, namely 3 rather disagree and 3 disagree. A clear discrepancy of needs is seen in statement number 7 where 4 students rather agree that they had to ask the teacher for clarification in Czech which then helped them succeed in the speaking activity, whereas 5 students rather disagree.

Students' Attitude and Feelings for a Speaking Activity with Scaffolding

This graph shows students' opinions and feelings on a speaking activity where scaffolding strategies were applied. Namely, the teacher pre-taught key vocabulary and grammar (functional language), practiced and drilled pronunciation, double-checked the task instructions, modelled an example, encouraged students to talk regardless of possible mistakes they might make, and brought in various pictures and photos to activate schemata.



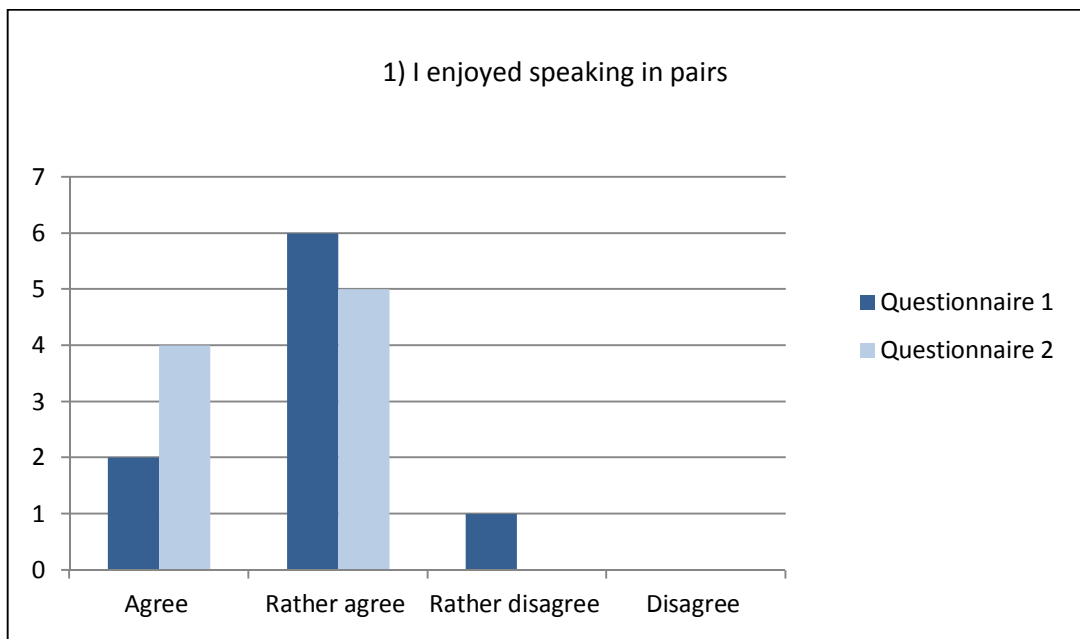
Graph 2. Students' opinions and feelings on a speaking activity with scaffolding.

At first sight, there are compact results in half of the statements. The other half show a large range of opinion and experience. In statement number 7 dealing with clarification in Czech (L1) one can see that the need of L1 is not requested by all the students. The results of statements 1 and 2 suggest that speaking in pairs and the group of four suits the students, where 5 students rather agree with pairs and 6 students rather agree concerning the group of four. Task instructions were understandable for the whole class, where 3 students agree and 6 rather agree. In statement 4 only 3 students rather disagree that they lack grammar to succeed in speaking whereas 6 disagree. Similar results were given for vocabulary in statement 5 where 4 students rather disagree and 5 disagree. The highest concord is seen in statement 7 regarding the speaking topic where 7 students disagree that they had nothing to say with 2 students who rather disagree. Beyond any doubt it is the scaffolding which made the number get so high. Disharmony appears in number 7 with the need of the Czech language where students have completely different needs: 1 agrees that Czech clarification helped them, 3 rather agree, whereas 4 rather disagree and 1 student disagrees. Preparation time listed in statement 8 was found rather helpful by 6 students, helpful by 1 student and for 1 student it makes rather no difference. Visual aid was appreciated by 8 students and only 1 did not find it so useful. Pre-teaching vocabulary mentioned in statement 10 is regarded as rather useful by 5 students and useful by other 2 ones. Just 2 students disagree. Dealing with mistakes in statement number 11, 6 students rather agree that they did not worry about making mistakes when speaking and 3 agree with that.

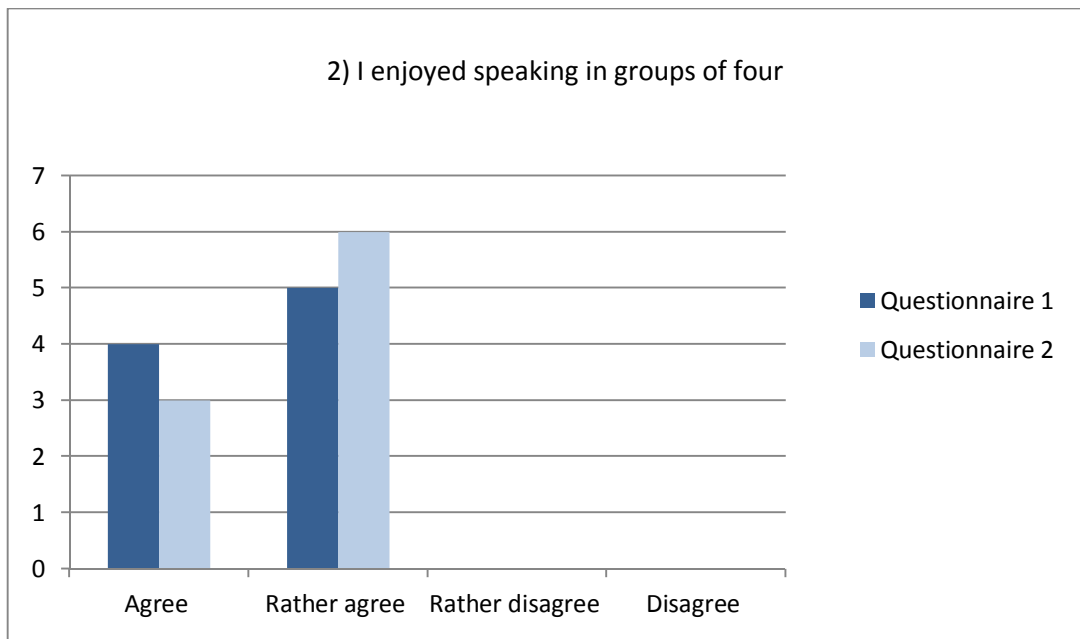
Comparison of Students' Attitude and Feelings Without and With Scaffolding

It is worth reminding that the first 7 statements in both questionnaires were the same. So apart from looking at the graphs separately, it would be for great asset to compare and contrast the answers for the same statements for the activity without any scaffolding and for the activity where scaffolding strategies were involved. It is quite likely that the results will vary. It remains to be seen how much and with which statements. The seven graphs below provide the answers.

Graphs 3 and 4 below represent statements 1 and 2. Here one cannot observe many changes. It is always 8 - 9 students who enjoyed speaking in pairs as well as 8 - 9 students who enjoyed working in a group of four. One student changed his attitude after scaffolded speaking and therefore there is none who would not enjoy it.

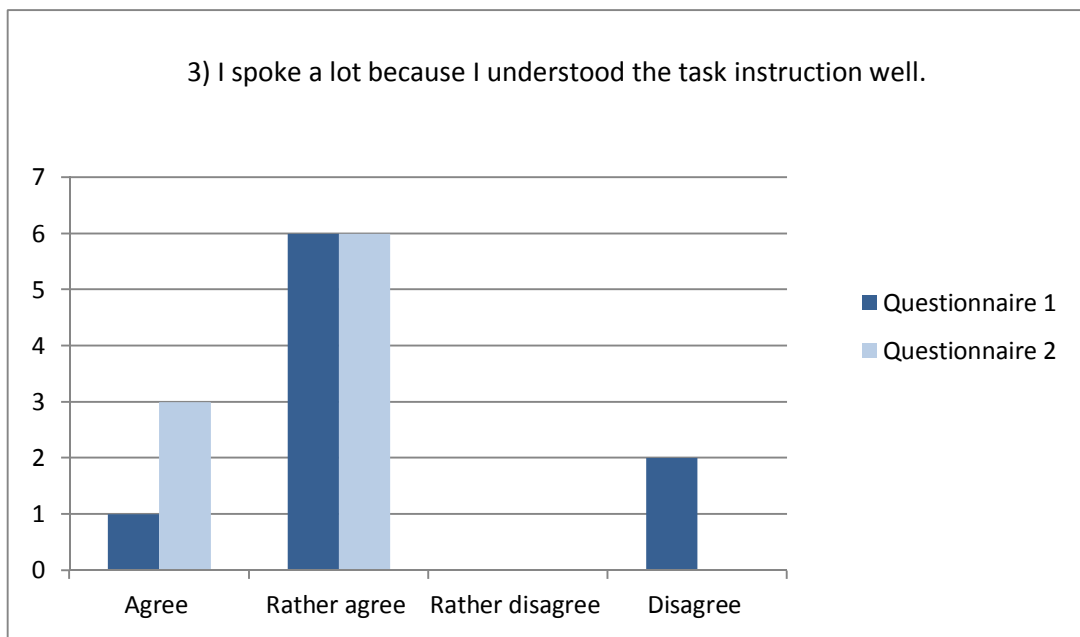


Graph 3. Students' opinions and feelings on a speaking activity without scaffolding compared with a speaking activity with scaffolding – statement 1.



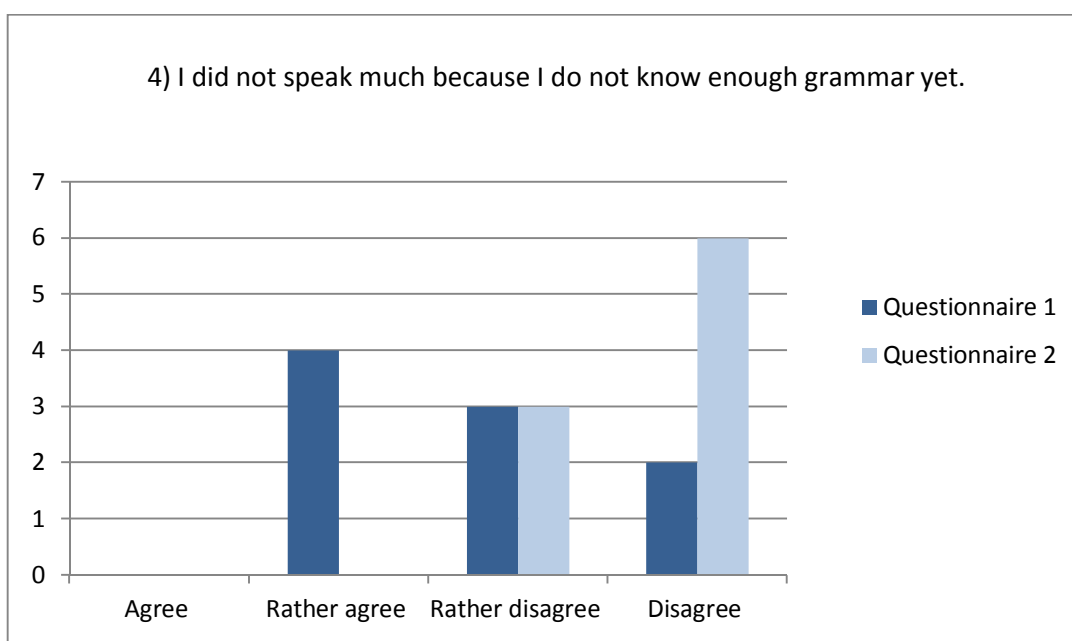
Graph 4. Students’ opinions and feelings on a speaking activity without scaffolding compared with a speaking activity with scaffolding – statement 2.

Double-checking the instructions, by instruction checking questions, and providing a model answer as scaffolding strategies helped students understand the task instructions more thoroughly. As one can observe in the graph below, after scaffolding support all 9 students agree or rather agree that they spoke a lot because they understood the task instruction well.



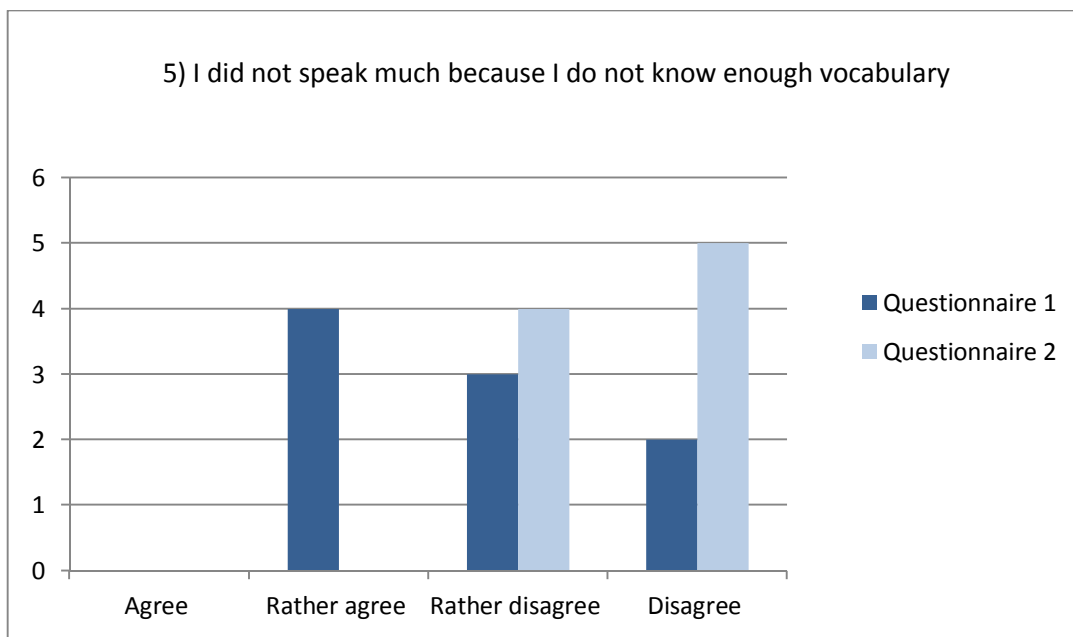
Graph 5. Students’ opinions and feelings on a speaking activity without scaffolding compared with a speaking activity with scaffolding – statement 3.

Looking at the comparison graphs below more closely, needless to say that the main differences are at statements 4, 5 and 6 (graphs 6, 7, and 8, respectively). Here, in regard to scaffolding strategies, the biggest change can be observed. Based on scaffolding strategies most of the students felt greater participation during the speaking activity. As it was said, pre-teaching vocabulary and grammar encouraged students to participate more actively in the speaking activity. With scaffolding nearly every student responded that they did speak. In detail it means that 6 students in statement 4 regarding the possible lack of grammar felt ready for speaking after being provided with scaffolding strategies in comparison with only 2 students in the former activity without scaffolding. See the graph below.



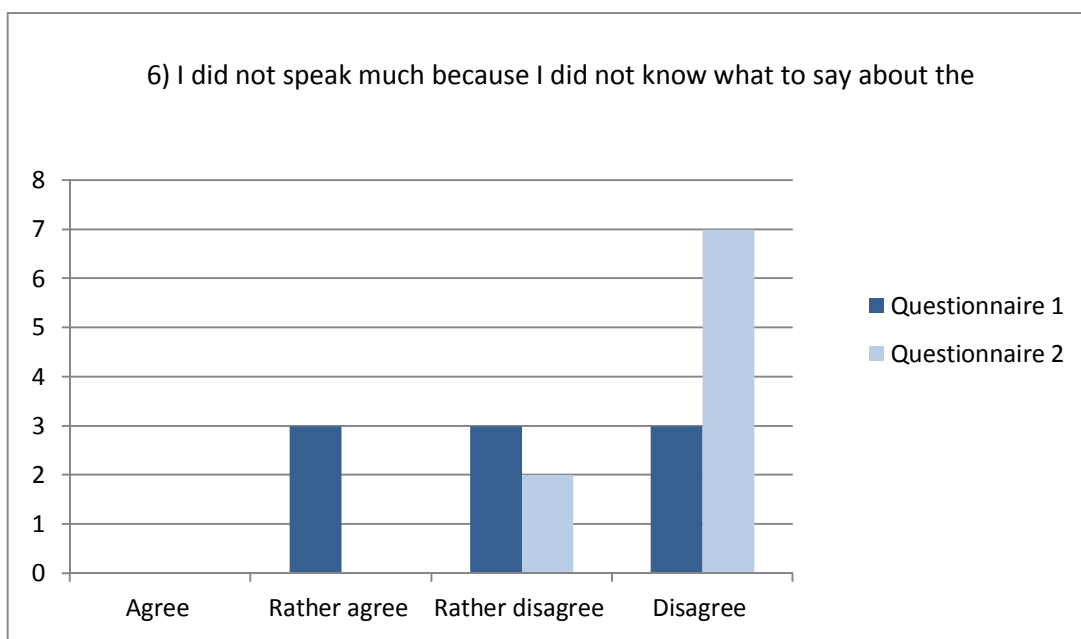
Graph 6. Students’ opinions and feelings on a speaking activity without scaffolding compared with a speaking activity with scaffolding – statement 4.

4 students found the scaffolding of pre-teaching key vocabulary in statement 5 useful and felt more secure when speaking. See the graph below.



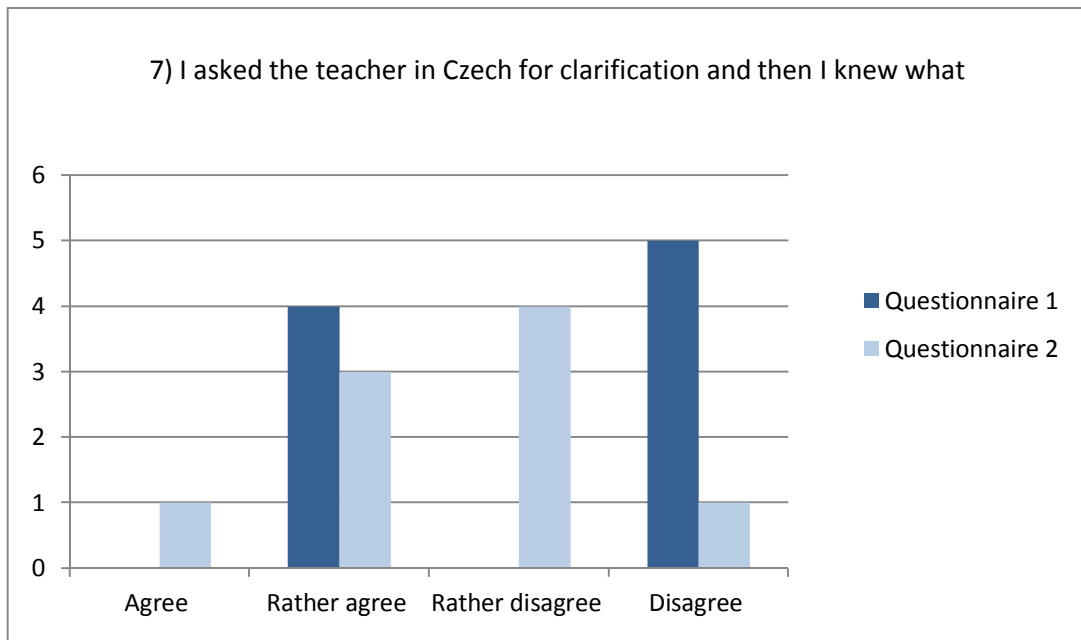
Graph 7. Students’ opinions and feelings on a speaking activity without scaffolding compared with a speaking activity with scaffolding – statement 5.

The greatest change is the topic knowledge in statement 6. First, with no scaffolding provided, just 3 students were sure what to talk about in comparison with the later 7 students after being provided with scaffolding. Unquestionably it is the greatest improvement: 7 students are sure to be able to say about the topic and 2 students are rather sure. To be examined in the graph below.



Graph 8. Students’ opinions and feelings on a speaking activity without scaffolding compared with a speaking activity with scaffolding – statement 6.

On the other hand, a big difference is not observable around the use of Czech language for clarification. The graph shows that some students need it regardless of scaffolding being provided or not. In detail it means that there are always three or four students who need to be reassured by L1 clarification and there are four or five who are independent of L1. See the graph below.



Graph 9. Students' opinions and feelings on a speaking activity without scaffolding compared with a speaking activity with scaffolding – statement 7.

In short, there are clear and remarkable differences. It is worth mentioning that all in all the whole group of students profited from the implemented scaffolding strategies for their better performance during the speaking activity. The questionnaires showed that the most valuable change concerned the scaffolding of pre-teaching vocabulary, grammar and visual materials supporting the topic. This is to say that it also confirms the expectations listed in the theoretical background chapter.

Case Study of Feelings and Experience of individual students

To explore the second research question dealing with what kind of students benefit from scaffolding deeply, feeling, attitude and experience of individual students will be explored and discussed. It emerges that it is sensible to compare

student's general attitude to speaking with the results of their two questionnaires, based on a speaking activity without scaffolding and with scaffolding.

Student A: Based on his general questionnaire he does not have big problems with speaking. He feels confident with his English knowledge. But he mentions that he sometimes does not know what to say on the topic and that he sometimes lacks vocabulary. Therefore it is understandable that with scaffolding he felt more secure at speaking as he well understood the task instructions, knew what to say about the topic and enjoyed the pair work more. And he was not worried of making mistakes.

Student B: His general attitude to speaking in class seems very self-confident. He does not mind speaking English in front of the whole class and he thinks his English pronunciation is good. He does not lack vocabulary or grammar. He is not worried about speaking with mistakes. He hardly ever misunderstands task instructions. The only thing he is not perfectly sure about is what to say about a topic. He seems such an independent learner that scaffolding strategies did not help him with the language but only with the information about the topic as such. His questionnaires show that scaffolding of being given preparation time before speaking, pre-taught key vocabulary and visual materials supporting the topic pushed him even more forward to speaking.

Students C: In general she has positive relation to speaking in class. She feels confident when speaking English. She thinks she knows enough vocabulary and grammar, she is not worried of making mistakes and she understands task instructions. She sometimes does not know what to say about the topic. Her questionnaires, as well as the ones of the student mentioned above, show that scaffolding of being given preparation time before speaking, pre-taught key vocabulary and visual materials supporting the topic helped her. She indicated that also asking for further clarification in Czech (L1) raised her comprehension.

Student D: The general questionnaire shows that he rather agrees with most statements. Namely, he is rather sure about his pronunciation, about vocabulary, about grammar, and about the topic as such. The scaffolding helped this student in many ways: he learnt enough grammar necessary for joining the speaking actively, knew what to say about the topic, profited from visual materials, pre-taught vocabulary and the preparation time before speaking.

Student E: His answers in the general questionnaire show that he is a type of a less self-confident student. Not because of his knowledge because he states that he has got good pronunciation, knows enough vocabulary and grammar. The trouble is that he does not have enough chance to speak, he is worried about making mistakes, he often misunderstands the task instructions, and he does not know what to say about the topic. One can deduce that this student is not self-energetic or active. He benefited from the scaffolding strategies to a large extent: he knew what to say about the topic thanks to preparation time and visual scaffolding, and he asked for Czech clarification to better fulfil the speaking task.

Student F: According to his general questionnaire and minimal difference between answers in the two questionnaires one might guess that this student belongs to the most talkative students in class. Speaking English is pleasure for him. The only thing he profited from scaffolding was the information on the topic discussed. He mentioned that he made some use of the visual materials.

Student G: According to what she filled in in the general questionnaire she is a type of an average student. She likes speaking English but she is not very confident in it. She prefers speaking in pairs rather than as the whole class. She rather agrees that it is the lack of vocabulary and grammar that impede the success at speaking. She sometimes misunderstands task instructions. Most often she knows what to say about the topic. The scaffolding at the second speaking activity helped her to a large extent: She felt supported by pre-taught grammar (functional language) and vocabulary; she profited from the visual support and preparation time before speaking.

Student H: Similarly to the girl mentioned above, he belongs among average students, too. He likes talking in pairs and groups of four but not as the whole class. Being not perfectly sure about pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar, he lacks self-confidence. Scaffolding makes him build his autonomy as a learner. He benefited from most of the scaffolding and showed up as a sufficiently fluent speaker in the end. He used the pre-taught grammar and vocabulary. He knew how to pronounce it as it was drilled in class before the activity started. He did not need clarification in Czech (L1) as he normally does to be able to fulfil the task.

Student I: Answers in the general questionnaire show that she is not worried about making mistakes despite the fact she often lacks grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation accuracy. She appreciates the teacher's support and the possibility of

being explained things in Czech (L2) when she does not understand. She benefited scaffolding to a limited extent as her knowledge is weak and there were too many new things for her. Despite that she wrote down that preparation time helped her as well as pre-taught grammar.

Overall Results

From the above detailed individual profiles of each student and from the research and comparisons of the two questionnaires, reflecting a speaking activity without scaffolding and a speaking activity with scaffolding, respectively, an overall result can be deduced. Similarly as in results from Questionnaires # 1 and # 2, even from individual case studies it is needless to say that students benefit from scaffolding strategies in speaking activities in class. Various students benefit from various kinds of scaffolding. Most of them agreed that the scaffolding of pre-teaching grammar and key vocabulary was very helpful. Learning more about the topic through visual materials or other hints was regarded very useful by the vast majority. Last but not least the model example with double checking task instructions at the task instruction stage was also appreciated. The results in the questionnaire signify that with scaffolding students feel they can succeed. As mentioned earlier the students valued the scaffolding of pre-teaching vocabulary, grammar and visual materials supporting the topic.

Resulting from individual case studies it transpires that every student benefits greatly from scaffolding at succeeding in the speaking activities apart from the strongest and weakest students. These ones who belong to the extreme poles of the group cannot profit from it so much because it is either useless for them or still too challenging, respectively. Strictly speaking, the best ones do not need scaffolding at this point as they have already learnt the issue, and the weakest ones cannot use the scaffolding to full extent as their primary knowledge is very limited. These students might need different forms of scaffolding which would more efficiently support their specific needs. Similarities can be observed in connection with the theoretical background where the Zone of proximal development was mentioned.

This chapter attempted to answer the two research questions by exploring deeply the data gathered through a general questionnaire and two questionnaires reflecting scaffolding. The data showed that scaffolding formed a great asset to

average students in class. Students felt that the scaffolding enabled them to speak more and with ease as it fulfilled the drawbacks they had during the speaking activity without scaffolding.

V. IMPLICATIONS

This chapter consists of three parts: Implications for Language Teaching, Limitations of the Research, and Suggestions for Further Research. The first part highlights what is important based on the research findings for teachers and students to fulfil to reach success in speaking activities. The second part looks at limitations and possible weaknesses of the research. The last part provides suggestions on how the research could be expanded and improved.

Implications for Language Teaching

Based on the information listed in the theoretical background and on results from the research it shows that scaffolding strategies play an essential role in success of speaking activities. One important implication for language classes is that there is a remarkable difference in speaking activities done straight away without any further support or preparation and speaking activities with scaffolding. As mentioned in the theoretical part of this thesis, students often worry when it comes to speaking L2 (English). They do not speak much or at all because of shyness and inhibition, or because they have nothing to say, or misunderstand task instructions. One of other reasons may be that the knowledge level is not appropriate for them. The research Questionnaires helped to reveal how students feel when it comes to speaking L2. The results show that thanks to scaffolding strategies most students felt a greater success at the speaking activity. Students have different needs so different scaffolding helped different students. In general we can say that it was especially the visual scaffolding introducing the topic and supporting background knowledge which was most appreciated. Clear, double-checked task instructions with a model example were welcomed by the majority of the students. Praising students for their effort made them feel successful. From the above result it is advisable for teachers to plan speaking activities carefully and thoroughly, and include scaffolding strategies in the lesson plans. It is obvious that a speaking activity with scaffolding takes more time than a speaking activity without any preparation support but the time is worth it. Scaffolding provides students with all possible hints and knowledge to get a higher chance to be ready for the speaking activity as such. So before the speaking activity as such takes place, teachers should give students prompts, key vocabulary (including pronunciation practice) and

grammar (including functional language if required). Students also need encouragement from teachers and appropriate approach to the mistakes students make. Then ready for the speaking activity, the teachers should give clear instructions about the speaking task and check if students do understand it correctly. Model examples help to make tasks crystal clear. Teachers should keep in mind that scaffolding and proper task instructions bring the speaking activity to a greater success.

Another implication that stems from the research is the appropriate knowledge level. All students in class do not have exactly the same knowledge of L2. There might always be some students who are much stronger, and, on the other hand, some students who are much weaker. These students, as shown in the results, could have benefitted more from different types of scaffolding. In practice, teachers use scaffolding to allow all students to succeed.

Limitations of the Research

The research has its limitations and they are to be addressed in the paragraphs below. It should be taken into account that the results come from a limited number of students. It maps the situation in a typical teenage class. The true fact is, according to my 18 years of teaching experience, that these specific students represent typical students with their common approach to speaking activities of Czech teenagers. Still teachers should take the overall results for a sample guide how scaffolding helps students succeed in speaking activities, not to generalize it too much.

One other possible limitation might be that at this teenage age not all students are capable of judging their attitude and feelings appropriately. Some statements might have been found misleading.

Another obstacle might have been that some statements are negative. Like statement number 6) *I did not speak much because I did not know what to say about the topic*. How would have the students have reacted if the statement would have been worded differently, for example *I spoke a little because I had little to say about the topic?*

Suggestions for Further Research

Beyond any doubt, the research could be extended, widened and improved in many ways. One essential one would be to increase the number of respondents. Having more students to comment on speaking activities with and without scaffolding would offer higher reliability of the research results. It might be interesting to make the survey in a class of a different age – either younger or older students. Many things might be the same regardless of the students' age, but some might vary. Similarly, researching reactions of students of different L2 knowledge might also be rewarding. Elementary students might provide different answers from advanced students. Similarly, the statements in the questionnaires might be changed and accommodated to the students' and teachers' needs.

Comparing how much time of scaffolding is needed for a successful speaking activity might also be one of the topics for further research. To explore how many minutes of scaffolding are to be invested in comparison with the minutes spent with the speaking activity as such might bring interesting data. The speaking activity in the practical part of this thesis took 27 minutes and needed a scaffolding of 15 minutes.

It could be interesting to see how scaffolding strategies work with the other productive skill, the skill of writing. As both, speaking and writing, are productive skills, some scaffolding strategies might correspond and work well with both of them. Again there needs to be a sufficient number of students so that the research offers reliable results.

In any case, despite the fact that the research shows some interesting results and offers hints for teaching speaking, it is important to note that the results cannot be globally generalized as there are still many variations how to improve and expand the research. To conclude, this section on implications showed how the research results can improve teaching speaking activities and what should teachers concentrate on when teaching these. It also offered variations how the research could be expanded. Now the last chapter with the overall summary highlighting the most important points of the thesis follows.

VI. CONCLUSION

As the title indicates, the thesis explores and studies scaffolding strategies in teaching speaking. The thesis starts with theoretical part which provides further information on speaking as such, teaching speaking skills and creating speaking lessons. It also mentions challenges of teaching speaking and matches these with scaffolding strategies. The practical part follows and exploits two main research questions which are:

- Is there any difference in students' perception of tasks with and without scaffolding?
- What kinds of students benefit from scaffolding? If any?

In process of analysing the data and answering the research questions, it was suggested that scaffolding helps students succeed in speaking activities. Various scaffolding strategies helped students overcome challenges such as shyness, or the problems of having nothing to say or misunderstanding task instructions. The research results show that scaffolding was most appreciated by average students of average knowledge of L2. The strongest and the weakest students in class did not benefit from the scaffolding to its full extent as their L2 knowledge was too strong or too weak, respectively. Students take the scaffolding of visual materials, encouragement, and model example in the task instructions, pre-teaching key vocabulary and grammar for ones of the most useful. A vast majority welcomed the preparation time before their turn to speak. Some students benefited from consultation in L1. All in all students felt in the speaking activity with scaffolding more secure and successful than when having to talk without any scaffolding.

Subsequently, limitations of the research and suggestions for further research were acknowledged and it was suggested that it would be interesting to investigate other age groups of students, groups of elementary and advanced knowledge of L2, and try out the same research with the other productive skill, the skill of writing.

Having explored the elements elaborated in this thesis makes teachers see teaching speaking from a different point of view and helps reduce the worries and hesitance they might have when teaching this productive language skill, said to be the most essential one. The scaffolding strategies mentioned here show teachers

how to teach speaking successfully while supporting students' different levels of English.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1

Dotazník na výuku v jazykové škole

Jméno žáka: _____

Kolik let se učím anglicky: _____

Kolik let se učím anglicky zde v JŠ: _____

Udělej křížek k odpovědi, která nejlépe vystihuje tvůj vztah a pocity k výuce v JŠ.

Příklad:

	souhlasí	spíše souhlasí	spíše nesouhlasí	nesouhlasí	nevím
<i>Angličtinu se na výuce v JŠ učím rád.</i>	<i>X</i>				

	souhlasí	spíše souhlasí	spíše nesouhlasí	nesouhlasí	nevím
1. Mluvím v JŠ anglicky rád(a).					
2. Při mluvení v JŠ se cítím nejistý(á).					
3. Nerad(a) mluvím v JŠ před celou třídou.					
4. Nerad(a) mluvím v JŠ anglicky, protože nemám dobrou anglickou výslovnost.					
5. Anglicky bych ve výuce v JŠ mluvil(a) rád(a), ale není na to prostor.					
6. Naše učitelka v JŠ mě podporuje v tom, aby mluvil(a) anglicky během výuky co nejvíce.					
7. Myslím si, že při naší výuce v JŠ je hodně příležitostí mluvit anglicky.					

	souhlasí	spíše souhlasí	spíše nesouhlasí	nesouhlasí	nevím
8. Hodně v JŠ procvičujeme mluvení ve dvojicích a malých skupinách.					
9. Při výuce v JŠ moc nemluvím, protože se nedostanu na řadu.					
10. Při výuce v JŠ moc nemluvím, protože většinou nevím co k tématu říct.					
11. Při výuce v JŠ moc nemluvím, protože ještě anglicky neumím dostatečně dobře.					
12. Při výuce v JŠ moc nemluvím, protože neznám dostatek slovíček.					
13. Při výuce v JŠ moc nemluvím, protože neumím dost gramatiky.					
14. Při výuce v JŠ moc nemluvím, protože mám obavu dělat chyby.					
15. Při výuce v JŠ moc nemluvím, protože často nerozumím zadání a tak nevím, co mám dělat.					

Appendix 2

Questionnaire on lessons in a language school - in English

Student's name: _____

How long have you been learning English? _____

How long have you been learning English here at the language school? _____

Write a cross to the answer which best expresses your relation and feelings for English lessons here at the language school (LS).

Example:

	I agree	I rather agree	I rather disagree	I disagree	I do not know
<i>I like learning English here at the language school.</i>	<i>X</i>				

	I agree	I rather agree	I rather disagree	I disagree	I do not know
1. I like speaking English at the LS.					
2. I feel unsure when speaking English at the LS.					
3. I do not like speaking English for the whole class.					
4. I do not like speaking English at the LS because I do not have good English pronunciation.					
5. I would be happy to speak English at the LS but there is no space for it.					
6. Our teacher at the LS encourages me to speak English in class as much as possible.					
7. I think there are a lot of opportunities to speak English in our class at the LS.					

	I agree	I rather agree	I rather disagree	I disagree	I do not know
8. We practice speaking English in pairs and small groups at the LS a lot.					
9. I do not speak much in class at the LS, because I do not have a turn to speak.					
10. I do not speak much in class at the LS because I do not often know what to say about the topic.					
11. I do not speak much in class at the LS because I do not know much English yet.					
12. I do not speak much in class at the LS because I do not know enough vocabulary yet.					
13. I do not speak much in class at the LS because I do not know enough grammar yet.					
14. I do not speak much in class at the LS because I am worried about making mistakes.					
15. I do not speak much in class at the LS because I do not often understand the task so I do not know what to do.					

Appendix 3

Dotazník 1

Jméno žáka: _____

Udělej křížek k odpovědi, která nejlépe vystihuje tvůj pocit a zkušenost z dnešní výuky.

	souhlasí	spíše souhlasí	spíše nesouhlasí	nesouhlasí	nevím
1. Vyhovovalo mi mluvení ve dvojici.					
2. Vyhovovalo mi mluvení ve skupině 4 žáků.					
3. Mluvil(a) jsem hodně, protože jsem dobře porozuměl(a) zadání.					
4. Moc jsem nemluvil(a), protože ještě neumím tolik gramatiky.					
5. Moc jsem nemluvil(a), protože ještě neumím tolik slovíček.					
6. Moc jsem nemluvil(a), protože jsem nevěděl(a) co k tématu říci.					
7. Zeptal(a) jsem se učitele na nejasnosti česky a pak už jsem věděl(a) co říkat.					

Appendix 4

Questionnaire # 1 - in English

Student's name: _____

Write a cross to the answer which best expresses your feeling and experience from this speaking activity.

	I agree	I rather agree	I rather disagree	I disagree	I do not know
1. I enjoyed speaking in pairs.					
2. I enjoyed speaking in the group of four students.					
3. I spoke a lot because I understood the task well.					
4. I did not speak much because I did not know enough grammar.					
5. I did not speak much because I did not know enough vocabulary.					
6. I did not speak much because I did not know what to say about the topic.					
7. I asked the teacher about some unclear issues in Czech and then I knew what to say.					

Appendix 5

Dotazník 2

Jméno žáka: _____

Udělej křížek k odpovědi, která nejlépe vystihuje tvůj pocit a zkušenost z dnešní výuky.

	souhlasí	spíše souhlasí	spíše nesouhlasí	nesouhlasí	nevím
1. Vyhovovalo mi mluvení ve dvojici.					
2. Vyhovovalo mi mluvení ve skupině 4 žáků.					
3. Mluvil(a) jsem hodně, protože jsem dobře porozuměl(a) zadání.					
4. Moc jsem nemluvil(a), protože ještě neumím tolik gramatiky.					
5. Moc jsem nemluvil(a), protože ještě neumím tolik slovíček.					
6. Moc jsem nemluvil(a), protože jsem nevěděl(a) co k tématu říci.					
7. Zeptal(a) jsem se učitele na nejasnosti česky a pak už jsem věděl(a) co říkat.					
8. Pomohlo mi, že jsem dostal před mluvením čas připravit si, co budu říkat.					
9. Měl jsem k tématu co říci díky vizuálním pomůckám (obrázkům, fotografiím).					
10. Mohl jsem k tématu něco říci díky předem naučeným slovíčkům a frázím.					
11. Nebál jsem se mluvit s chybami.					

Appendix 6

Questionnaire # 2 - in English

Student's name: _____

Write a cross to the answer which best expresses your feeling and experience from this speaking activity.

	I agree	I rather agree	I rather disagree	I disagree	I do not know
1. I enjoyed speaking in pairs.					
2. I enjoyed speaking in the group of four students.					
3. I spoke a lot because I understood the task well.					
4. I did not speak much because I did not know enough grammar.					
5. I did not speak much because I did not know enough vocabulary.					
6. I did not speak much because I did not know what to say about the topic.					
7. I asked the teacher about some unclear issues in Czech and then I knew what to say.					
8. It helped me to have been given preparation time before the speaking.					
9. I could speak about the topic thanks to visual materials (pictures, photos).					
10. I could speak about the topic thanks to pre-taught vocabulary and phrases.					
11. I was not worried about making mistakes when speaking.					

Appendix 7

Stages of the speaking activity

Stage	Time (min)	Procedure (what the teacher will do)	Task (what the students will do)	Interaction	Aims
1	1	T (teacher) asks Ss to work in groups of 4 or 5 and discuss what the pictures show. T monitors.	Each group gets two pictures of two modern films and discuss what they represent	Small groups	Motivate Ss for today's topic
2	2	T writes the titles of the two films on the board and elicits from Ss the topic of today's lesson	Ss guess what the titles mean and some Ss share their experience	T - Ss	Motivate Ss for today's topic
3	2	T draws a spider gram on the board and elicits from Ss film genres	Ss brainstorm film genres	T - Ss	Provide Ss with film genres
4	3	T elicits from Ss what information is needed about a new film and writes it on the board	Ss think about director, main actor, scene, plot, time and tell it to the T	T - Ss	Ss learn what to be found about a new film
5	3	T distributes a DVD cover text about one of the films to each S	S work individually. They look for the information about the film. Reading for specific information.	S	To provide Ss with information about the film to be able to discuss it later
6	5	T asks Ss to share information with a student who read about the same film. Then T gathers Ss into small group to get the information they have not found yet and share further information. T monitors.	Ss share information about the same film	Pairs Small groups	To make Ss discuss the information they just read about. To make Ss develop the discussion and get further speaking practice.
7	3	T regroups Ss into pairs where each student has a different film to talk about T monitors.	Ss talk about their film to a partner who does not know much about the film.	Pairs	To make Ss speak with confidence and ease after they have practice it twice before (now they know <i>what</i> to talk about, <i>what vocabulary</i> to use)
8	2	T groups all Ss of the same film together to share gained information about the other film. T monitors.	Ss share information they received about the other film	Small groups	To make Ss speak about the information they received; to practice reproducing information

9	2	T asks a representative of each group to add new information on the board to the list of important information about a film. T monitors.	Ss cooperate and one of each group writes on the board	Small groups	Ss discuss to get complete information
10	1	T gives positive feedback to all the class for a good job. T makes a short summary of what has been added to the board.	Ss are given a short summary	T - Ss	To give Ss confidence in speaking
11	2	T ask about difficult words on the board. T elicits meaning and pronunciation. T make SS practice pronunciation	Ss get meaning and pronunciation of new words. Ss practice pronunciation.	T - Ss	To learn unknown words Learn to pronounce it correctly
12	3	T shows a picture of a very modern cinema with attractive refreshment and asks Ss if they would like to go there. To make the following discussion more interesting and lively, the T sets the rule for getting <i>free</i> refreshment: Ss have to convince their partner who wants to see the other film to join them <i>to see their film</i> . Ss must add arguments for it. T elicits functional language for invitation T make Ss practice pronunciation	Ss listen to the new task Ss learn and revise functional language necessary for the follow-up discussion. Ss practice pronunciation	T - Ss T -Ss	Motivate Ss for a follow-up discussion Provide Ss with key functional language Learn to pronounce it correctly
13	1	T double-checks the task instructions by asking ICQ (information checking questions). T reminds Ss they have good arguments written on the board (important information about the film).	Ss revise the task instructions	T - Ss	To reassure Ss they know what to do and where to re-find key information
14	3	T pairs Ss so that each has a different film to talk about. T monitors.	Ss try to convince their partner to see their film	Pairs	To make students practice how to invite and persuade the others.

14	3	T pairs Ss so that each has a different film to talk about. T monitors.	Ss try to convince their partner to see their film	Pairs	To make students practice how to invite and persuade the others. To reuse the important information about the film in speaking practice.
15	3	T makes two big groups, each consisting of the fans of the same film. T monitors.	Ss continue with further discussions about convincing new partners, working in 4 or 5 Ss in a group	Small groups	To make students repractice how to invite and persuade the others.
16	1	T praises Ss and provides feedback.	Ss get appraisal and feedback on their work	T - Ss	To appreciate Ss' work and make them feel their success in the speaking activity
17	5	T asks each S what film, if any they would like to see. And why/ why not.	S talk about their real plan to see / not to see one of the two films	T-Ss	Provide Ss with the practice of speaking to the whole class. Personalization.
18	1	T praises Ss and provides an overall conclusion of what the class has come up with.	Ss get appraisal and feedback on their work		To appreciate Ss' work and make them feel encouraged in speaking activities
TOTAL: 42 minutes					
- scaffolding strategies: 15 minutes					
- speaking activities 27 minutes					

SUMMARY IN CZECH

Tato diplomová práce se zabývá podpůrnými strategiemi ve výuce řečové dovednosti mluvení. Teoretická část předkládá čtenáři základní informace o dovednosti mluvení a výuce mluvení. Navazuje přehled výzev, problémů a podpůrných strategií. Následuje praktická část, která zkoumá užití vybraných podpůrných strategií při výuce mluvení a shromažďuje prostřednictvím dotazníků zkušenosti studentů z mluvní aktivity bez podpůrných strategií v porovnání s mluvní aktivitou s podpůrnými strategiemi. Výsledky průzkumu jsou prezentovány formou grafů s doprovodným komentářem a ukazují, jak a komu podpůrné strategie pomáhají nejvíce. Na základě těchto výsledků je vyvozeno, že podpůrné strategie jsou pro velkou většinu studentů přínosem, a proto je učitelům doporučeno používat je, aby jejich studenti mluvili více a cítili úspěch při mluvních aktivitách ve výuce.