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Prohlašuji, že jsem diplomovou práci vypracovala samostatně a zdroje uvedla v seznamu použité literatury.

V Olomouci, dne

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Abstract

This diploma thesis dealt with incidence of American English in the Czech school environment with emphasis on outside influence of this variety of English on language. The theoretical part of the thesis analysed language acquisition, present-day outside influences of American English and differences between these varieties were examined. The first section of the practical part employed content analysis of a British and Czech textbooks to look for signs of American English and to compare the approaches to introducing such content. The Czech series contained significantly more American vocabulary and overall information about the US; the recordings for listening exercise were also more diverse in the accents used. Regarding the incidence of AmE in pupils of lower-secondary schools, vocabulary and grammar showed prevalence of the American variety, with pupils' pronunciation appearing to be an inconsistent blend of both varieties. Spelling was the least affected by American English, in accordance with its incidence in analysed textbooks, yet influence can be still considered significant. Among selected influences, playing games and watching films and series proved to be the most popular. Nevertheless, no relationship between selected language systems and influences could be confirmed due to insufficient sample. Based on the results of a listening exercise, watching US series with English subtitles regularly improved pupils' listening skills. No relationship was found between higher frequency of mistakes and a preferred variety of English, however, sample was too small and further research is needed.

Keywords: language acquisition, American English, British English, contemporary English, slang, varieties, influence, social media, lower-secondary, textbook analysis

TABLE OF CONTENTS

| | |
|--|----|
| ABBREVIATIONS..... | 7 |
| 1 INTRODUCTION | 8 |
| 2 LANGUAGE ACQUISITION..... | 9 |
| 2.1 Second Language Acquisition | 9 |
| 2.1.1 Influence of L1 on SLA | 10 |
| 2.1.2 Learning and acquisition | 12 |
| 2.1.3 Methods and approaches | 13 |
| 3 PRESENT-DAY INFLUENCES | 18 |
| 3.1 Films and TV Shows | 18 |
| 3.2 Books and comic books | 20 |
| 3.3 Social Media | 21 |
| 3.4 Games | 22 |
| 4 DIFFERENCES BETWEEN BRITISH AND AMERICAN ENGLISH | 25 |
| 4.1 Vocabulary..... | 25 |
| 4.1.1 Polysemes..... | 26 |
| 4.1.2 Slang words | 27 |
| 4.1.3 Spelling..... | 27 |
| 4.2 Grammar | 29 |
| 4.2.1 Irregular verbs | 29 |
| 4.2.2 Modal verbs and auxiliary verbs | 29 |
| 4.2.3 Present perfect vs past simple | 30 |
| 4.2.4 Have vs take | 31 |
| 4.2.5 To have got vs to have..... | 31 |
| 4.2.6 Have got to vs have to | 32 |
| 4.2.7 Got vs gotten | 33 |
| 4.2.8 Prepositions | 33 |
| 4.3 Phonology | 34 |
| 4.3.1 Vowels..... | 34 |
| 4.3.2 Diphthongs | 35 |
| 4.3.3 Consonants | 36 |
| 4.3.4 Stress | 37 |
| 4.3.5 Mid-Atlantic accent..... | 38 |
| 5 METHODOLOGY | 41 |

| | | |
|--------|---|------|
| 6 | TEXTBOOK ANALYSIS | 42 |
| 6.1 | Criteria | 42 |
| 6.2 | Results | 44 |
| 6.2.1 | Vocabulary | 44 |
| 6.2.2 | Spelling..... | 44 |
| 6.2.3 | Grammar..... | 44 |
| 6.2.4 | Pronunciation | 45 |
| 6.2.5 | Pragmatics | 45 |
| 6.2.6 | Background studies | 46 |
| 6.2.7 | Accuracy..... | 46 |
| 7 | IN-SCHOOL RESEARCH | 47 |
| 7.1 | Hypotheses..... | 47 |
| 7.2 | Results | 47 |
| 7.2.1 | Vocabulary | 48 |
| 7.2.2 | Spelling..... | 49 |
| 7.2.3 | Grammar..... | 50 |
| 7.2.4 | Pronunciation | 51 |
| 7.2.5 | Mistakes | 51 |
| 7.2.6 | Individual results – overview | 53 |
| 7.2.7 | Listening comprehension | 53 |
| 7.2.8 | Influence of watching American TV Series | 54 |
| 7.2.9 | Influence of playing games | 55 |
| 7.2.10 | Influence of reading books and comic books..... | 55 |
| 7.2.11 | Influence of following English-speaking celebrities on social media..... | 56 |
| 8 | CONCLUSION..... | 57 |
| 9 | REFERENCES | 59 |
| | APPENDICES..... | i |
| | Appendix 1: Differences between AmE and BrE in general vocabulary | i |
| | Appendix 2: Textbook comparison – content analysis..... | i |
| | Appendix 3: Questionnaire – Czech version | v |
| | Appendix 4: Questionnaire – Language systems/skills..... | ii |
| | Appendix 5: Questionnaire – Habits and free time | v |
| | Appendix 6: Questionnaire – Free-time activities vs. language systems | viii |
| | ANOTACE..... | xiv |

ABBREVIATIONS

| | | |
|------|---|---|
| AAVE | - | African-American Vernacular English |
| AmE | - | American English |
| BrE | - | British English |
| CLIL | - | Content and Language Integrated Learning |
| CLT | - | Communicative Language Teaching |
| EFL | - | English as a Foreign Language |
| ELT | - | English Language Teaching |
| ESL | - | English as a Second Language |
| FLA | - | First Language Acquisition |
| GA | - | General American |
| L1 | - | Native Language |
| L2 | - | Target Language, Second Language, Foreign Language |
| MŠMT | - | Ministerstvo školství, mládeže a tělovýchovy České republiky (Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports) |
| RP | - | Received pronunciation |
| SLA | - | Second Language Acquisition |

1 INTRODUCTION

Supported by personal experience, it can be proclaimed internet has made learning and teaching English very different in a relatively short. On one hand pupils come to contact with the language more naturally, on the other, without assistance, the input may be overwhelming and confusing. While some may argue against this trend seeing risk in unguided learning, the globalisation of English appears to be inevitable.

Provided that the assumption that children study the British variety of English exclusively due to influence of British textbooks will be confirmed, any incidence of AmE will be considered the result of outside influence.

The aim of this thesis is to discover whether the exposure to AmE in pupils' leisure time significantly affects their language acquisition. More specifically, the goal is to prove a correlation between free-time activities and dominance of AmE in selected language systems or subsystems. Additionally, the results will be compared with the incidence of AmE in English coursebooks to find out whether their content reflects the current usage. The thesis will try to answer following research questions:

- Are there major differences between selected British and Czech textbooks in their approach to introducing American English to pupils and the extent in which they do so?
- To what extent does the use of British textbooks influence pupils' use of language?
- Which free-time activities have significant impact on higher incidence of AmE in pupils' language use?
- What are the positives of natural language acquisition/ incidental learning?
- What are the negatives of natural language acquisition/ incidental learning?

The thesis is divided into several parts and sub-parts. In the theoretical part, first two chapters will describe and explain the process of language acquisition as well as differences between the two varieties. The last chapter will be dedicated to present-day influences which pupils encounter. This part will be divided into three sections, or sub-chapters: the first chapter will comprise of an explanation of the key terms – *language acquisition*, *second language*, *foreign language* – with an overview of relevant teaching methods; in the second chapter, occurrence of present-day American English outside the school environment as well as its influence on pupils will be analysed. In the final chapter, the selected varieties of English will be compared with regard to each language system.

2 LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

Language acquisition, as defined by APA Dictionary of Psychology (2022), is a “process by which children learn language”. This involves the development of children’s mother tongue (L1) and is, therefore, also referred to as First Language Acquisition (FLA)¹. According to Bolinger (1975), three conditions must be met for one to acquire language: an innate ability to learn any language – a predisposition; a system of said language developed and used by a community; and practical competence resulting from application of the system’s rules. In relation to the last point, Bolinger believes child’s full comprehension of language rules should precede their language production and creativity. In Second Language Acquisition (SLA), this phenomenon is often reversed (see 5.2.5 To have got vs to have).

As for the manner in which children acquire the language, there are two main schools of thought: B.F. Skinner’s behavioralism and Noam Chomsky’s nativist theory. When in 1957 Skinner published *Verbal Behaviour*, which proposed that language is a taught skill, strengthened by habituation, most linguists found the evidence compelling. It was then questioned by Noam Chomsky, whose 1959 destructive review of Skinner’s work – considered one of the “most influential documents in history of psychology” (Virués-Ortega, 2006) – commenced the debate and ultimately led to Chomsky’s work *Language and Mind*.

He proposed the existence of Universal Grammar, an innate ability of children to learn language including its complex grammatical structures that may exceed the input from their parents (Language and Mind, 2003 p. 55; 100)². The assumption that learning languages is natural ability of all humans does not imply that accompanying processes in acquisition of a foreign language cannot be guided and supervised. Approaches which operate on Chomsky’s principles, in other words rely learners’ natural abilities, will be further discussed in this section.

2.1 Second Language Acquisition

Not always has bilingualism been perceived as beneficial to individual’s cognitive development or even to society as whole. In the past, research was conducted to find out “how damaging it is to intellectual growth” rather than the other way round (Stern, 1983, p. 295). Today, studies by Marian & Shook (2012), Kormi-Nouri, Reza *et al.* (2008), Olsen *et al.* (2015) and others show a multitude of positive effects of bilingualism on cognitive abilities, observed from infants to senior adults. In these studies, the term *bilinguals* refers to individuals who

¹ Varshney, 2003:307 in <https://www.iosrjournals.org/iosr-jhss/papers/Vol20-issue8/Version-5/F020855157.pdf>

² Language and Mind, 2003

acquired two languages from birth, simultaneously, as well as to those who learned the second language (L2) later on in addition to L1.

In that regard, when speaking of L2 in this thesis, the distinction between the study of English as a Second Language (ESL) and English as a Foreign Language (EFL) is required. The former deals with (i) learners of English who come to contact with the language outside the school environment naturally due to it being one of the official languages, e.g. French province Québec in Canada (Government of Canada, 2018), Republic of South Africa (South Africa Gateway, 2018) or Singapore (National Archives of Singapore, 1965), or (ii) learners whose families had migrated to an English-speaking country, a typical example being minorities in the USA (Dunsmore, 2019). It can be argued that in such environment English as a communication tool is perceived as equal to L1. A common practice to improve learners' comprehension, for example, is to practice with real-life tasks such as filling out a form or asking for direction (Dunsmore, 2019) and use of authentic materials, such as excerpts from local newspaper (Peng, 2019).

In contrast, EFL is relevant to countries like the Czech Republic where English is a mandatory subject taught at primary and secondary schools, but the language itself is not being used elsewhere by any significant communities. This means there is less “immersion in the language” involved when compared to ESL (ESL speaking, 2019). Teachers of EFL have to face a difficult task of providing pupils with authentic materials that may be also less-accessible in such countries. EFL must take into account learners' limited opportunities and insufficient motivation to practice their skills outside the school environment.

In related literature, however, the scope of L2 includes both; ESL and EFL, as does the term SLA (Eddy, 2019). For these reasons, SLA will be used when referring to acquisition or study of EFL in this thesis as well, unless specified otherwise.

2.1.1 Influence of L1 on SLA

Mostly in the initial stages of language learning, pupils generally base their oral and written language production on L1 to fill in the gaps caused by their insufficient command of L2. The degree of L1 influence on L2 can be observed in learners' *interlanguage* – the current state of their L2 at any given time – which can improve with practice or deteriorate due to lack thereof.

In spite of this phenomenon happening across the nations, learners of L2 do not err in the same manner. For example, Czech learners are more likely to confuse the use of definite and indefinite articles or omit them in a sentence than Spanish or German learners, as the

concept of articles exists in both of these languages but not in Czech. This is defined as a *positive interlingual transfer* and it concerns applying knowledge of L1 when acquiring L2 (Tomášková, 2014, p.5). It facilitates and enhances the process of language learning.

The second aspect, *negative interlingual transfer* or *interference* has an equal if not more substantial role in SLA as it can be harmful to pupils' learning development in terms of fossilised errors if paid little attention to. Odlin as cited in Tomášková (2014, p.6) establishes three categories of error production, of which *calques* are the most frequent amongst Czech learners. These errors stem from literal translations from L1 to L2.

Lack of interferential mistakes in L2, therefore, indicates better language acquisition and comprehension of concepts absent in L1.

In her bachelor thesis, Maděřičová (2010) examined Czech pupils of 8th and 9th grades of primary school to analyse common interferential mistakes. The following categories were the ones most frequently affected by the negative transfer:

- word order
- omission of the subject
- prepositions
- countability
- articles

Tomášková (2014, p. 6) also mentions incorrect translation of existential “there is/are” structures as one of the frequent mistakes.

Special category of negative interlingual transfer is known as *false friends*; here the learners of L2 presume an incorrect meaning of a foreign word based on its orthographic or phonetic similarity. Typical examples are words *actually* and *aktuálně* (currently, as of now) or *affectionate* and *afektovaný* (theatrical, unnatural) (Vít, 2018). False friends analogy between AmE and BrE will be discussed in chapter 5.

The term false cognates – not to be used interchangeably – refers to words which, coincidentally, share the meaning but are unrelated in etymology (Dictionary.com, 2022). This means pupils would infer the meaning of the word based on an incorrect premise with a successful outcome; thus, it appears false cognates should not interfere with L2 learning, and if anything, could have the effect of a positive transfer on a learner.

The existence of interferential mistakes illustrates how crucial influence of L1 on L2 learning is and why error correction should not be omitted from the process of SLA.

2.1.2 Learning and acquisition

When describing SLA, Krashen (2009, p.10) and other linguists differentiate between language learning and language acquisition. The latter is a subconscious, less explicit process, almost equivalent to FLA described by Krashen (ibid.) as “picking up the language”. In contrast, language learning is a deliberate effort of the learner which involves their conscious knowledge about L2. According to Palmer in Harmer (2007b, p. 50)³ spontaneous capabilities were “brought into play” in oral production whereas conscious “studial” capabilities allowed for pupils’ literacy development. In *Fundamental Concepts of Language Teaching* Stern (1983, p. 322) proclaims SLA was generally considered “a process of imitation, repetition, practice [and] habituation” so SLA might seem to be based on learning aspect almost exclusively; however, imitation and repetition are processes that also occur in FLA as well, meaning the key difference lies in learner’s awareness.

SLA can be divided into 5 stages (Foppoli, 2022):

- The Silent Period
- The Early Production Period
- The Speech Emergence Period
- The Intermediate Production Period
- The Advanced Production Period

The initial stage – the silent period – is crucial for correct development of language and can be observed in infants who only start producing the language after having received enough input from parents. This period may differ for L2 learners and as such can be problematic in terms of pupils’ insufficient skills in expected language production according to school’s curriculum.

SLA develops four language skills: reading, writing, listening and speaking. In the Czech Republic, English language classes are usually halved in order to create more opportunities for pupils to practice their speaking skills. However, along with listening skills, it is often evaluated by pupils as the most demanding (Donald, n.d.). Endorsed techniques how to improve these skills involve face-to-face listening, usage of authentic materials with variety of accents and dialects employing formal and informal register, practice of transactional and interactional dialogues or focus on real-life tasks (ibid.).

It can be assumed that written exams are generally preferable to oral examination, especially by more introverted pupils, given it allows an option of self-correction and their thought processes remain private for the duration of the test. The research conducted in the

³ Practice of English Language Teaching, 4th edition

Czech Republic on coping with stress during examination period at university showed students felt stress before oral exam considerably more often than during a written exam (Novotná, 2020). Writing in L2 classes is mostly seen as a means to pupils' error correction via written feedback, rather than space for creative thinking (Polio & Kessler, 2019). Focus on writing is often postponed owing to irregular spelling and English alphabet not corresponding to its phonetic system.

2.1.3 Methods and approaches

In the 21st century textbooks on English language teaching (ELT) offer a prolific number of methods and approaches teachers can choose from to ensure their pupils will find the process of English learning more intuitive and natural yet there is no consensus on which method, or combination thereof, guarantees the most desired results as various factors must be taken into consideration: the age of learners, their abilities, motivation, learning habits or teacher's personality. That being said, teachers and linguists seem to prefer some procedures of language teaching more than the other; Vivian Cook (2008, pp.3-5) labels them "common assumptions of teachers" which she later challenges, although not necessarily disapproves of.

One of them is preference of L2 in lessons, effectively making it the means of communication between the teacher and learners. Naturally, the benefits and oftentimes necessity of L1 in English lessons have been acknowledged, most notably in early stages of learning (V. Cook, 2008; Harmer, 2007a, p.37). Especially since the beginning of 21st century, several opponents who advocate for L1 use in lessons have stepped up, citing building up confidence in learners to talk, checking their comprehension, and feedback as the main reasons (V. Cook, 2008, p.182). Seeing as the essential purpose of the ELT is for pupils to absorb and practice L2, Harmer (2007a, pp. 38-39) believes that creating "English environment" in the classroom should prevail.

The next aspect generally approved by teachers is the focus on spoken language over its written form. Since 1980s, learners' oral production as well as spoken English as learning input have been at the centre of attention in ELT, evident, for example, in the popularity of communicative method (G. Cook, 2003, p.36). The shift, however, first came with the introduction of Direct Method. Krashen (2009, p. 66) believes optimal language input should be comprehensive, relevant and interesting, so much so that "the acquirer may even 'forget' that the message is encoded in a foreign language".

Regarding the grammar explanation, V. Cook (2008, p.5) marks inductive approach to grammar teaching as one of the endorsed ELT procedures. It allows students to infer

grammatical structure or a rule from the presented examples by themselves in opposition to memorisation. There is a link between inductive approach to grammar teaching and pupils' ability of abstract thinking, progress of which heavily influences SLA. This can be observed in *English as a Foreign Language* where Close (1964, p. 23) advises teachers of L2 to “resist the temptation of trying to explain [grammar] in abstract too early” and instead “present pupils with typical and vivid examples” which elicit “direct association”.

Several studies of development of children's abstract thinking support this belief. In the summary of available studies, Dumontheil (2014) refers to Marini and Case (1994) who suggest children first start employing abstract reasoning at the beginning of adolescence, approximately the age of 11 or 12. Although early signs of abstract thinking are detectable in pre-school age already the studied examples point to analogical reasoning based on physical similarities (Dumontheil, 2014). Additionally, Zelinková *et al.* (2020, p.79) mention inductive approach when teaching L2 to pupils with dyslexia.

Naturally, there are exceptions where deductive approach to grammar teaching is required. Scrivener (2010, p. 22) believes aspects of the grammar like irregular plurals shall be taught via what he calls traditional techniques; likewise, he considers drilling, when applied correctly, an effective tool in language learning (Scrivener, 2010, p.130).

Additionally, V. Cook (2008, pp.29-31) asserts acquisition of grammar can be arranged into 6 stages, from understanding only one word to being able to create a subordinate clause. Unaware of this division, textbooks may skip a stage or merge more stages into one to accelerate the learning process, which can eventually result in learners' frustration. Related to the last point is a so-called *teachability hypothesis* of grammar acquisition, which states “an L2 structure can be learnt from instruction only if the learner's interlanguage is close to the point when this structure is acquired in the natural setting”.⁴ In other words, explanation of complex grammar before learners' abilities allow them to comprehend such concept can be harmful to language development.

Based on the presented evidence, it can be inferred that learners would benefit from acquiring/ learning English similarly to speakers of ESL or even FLA. For this reason, the next section will be dedicated to two teaching methods which follow this example: Direct Method and Natural Approach

⁴ (Pienemann, 1984: 201) in Cook 2008 p.28

2.1.3.1 *Direct Method and Natural Approach*

Seeing the insufficient results of the Grammar-Translation Method, many linguists called for reformation in language teaching. They sought a teaching method that would focus on oral language production while simultaneously developing receptive skills; a method that approached the language as a whole unit and used an inductive approach to grammar explanation; a method that would reduce the usage of L1 in lessons to minimum (Richards&Rodgers, 2014, pp. 10-11). From these learning principles arose many so-called natural methods, Direct Method being the most popular one.

Direct Method gained popularity in mid-19th century Europe and in United States, specifically in private language schools of Maximilian Berlitz, where it was recognised under the name the Berlitz method (Richards&Rodgers, 2014, p. 12). Since its conception until now, several core principles of Direct Method have been implemented to ELT in general; most notably the use of L2 as a sole means of communication, and teaching vocabulary in context instead of isolated sentences.

Nevertheless, the use of *Direct Method* had to deal with several shortcomings. Firstly, the implementation of monolingualism in the classroom was too strict; teacher's use of L1 – however minimal – could lead to their dismissal (G. Cook, 2003, p. 34). This method also relied on teachers' very high proficiency in L2, mostly in regard to teaching accurate pronunciation; this was, at the time, seen as problematic, further exacerbated by the lack of methodology support (Richards & Rogers, 2014, pp.13-14). Lastly, it did not take into consideration natural differences between SLA and FLA.

Approximately half a century later, another attempt at transformation of SLA was made. In 1983 *The Natural Approach* was published – a book, which combined theoretical principles and practical examples from the classroom environment (Richards & Rodgers, 2014, p. 261). The book was a result of collaboration between Tracy Terrell, a teacher of Spanish in California, and Stephen Krashen, an applied linguist at the University of Southern Carolina, both of whom had previously proposed their ideas to academia^{5 6}.

Krashen's Natural Order Theory postulated that all learners comprehend and acquire morphological aspects of language in a certain logical and predictable succession. Although this order varied between learners of L1 and learners of L2, "striking similarities" could be observed within the latter, a more diverse group (Krashen, 2009, p.12). The analysis of morpheme acquisition showed that plural -s was acquired sooner than the 3rd person singular -s,

⁵ <https://www.jstor.org/stable/324551>

⁶ http://www.sdkrashen.com/content/books/principles_and_practice.pdf

and learners of L2 struggled with it in a similar manner, regardless of teachers' error correction (Krashen, 2009, p.12) He inferred a longer exposure period was needed for learners to *acquire* the concept, rather than *learn* it, which later became one of the pillars of Natural Approach.

While handful of ideas proposed by Krashen are generally accepted in academic circles (Gvelesiani & Tvaltvadze, 2012), many see a great disparity between the theory underpinned by SLA research and the practical application. Guy Cook (2003, pp.34-35) sees the greatest drawback in Natural Approach's almost exclusive focus on language input, with little to no room for teacher's intervention in terms of error correction or grading. Krashen opines that teachers' overt stress of language accuracy impedes language production and language learning, supported by Harmer (2007b, p.55). It is possible his reasoning may have been based on FLA of native speakers: studies have shown that parents are more likely to correct their child if the utterance was factually incorrect, rather than grammatically⁷. Nevertheless, Krashen's almost militant stance on error correction could not be overlooked. This led to Cook's (2003, p. 35) claim that Natural Approach suggests "learning need not involve hard work" and that this teaching approach was "superficially seductive".

Thornbury (2009) comes to the similar conclusion on his blog where he reflects on the extent of Krashen's influence on his own writing in a special dedicated entry. When he compares Krashen's visions with his personal experience as learner of L2, Thornbury opines that the silent period in which learners receive the language input before they feel ready to speak need not be as long as initially proposed, nor does this length generate remarkably better outcomes in oral language production (Thornbury, 2009). Nevertheless, he acknowledges renaissance of Krashen's proposed ideas in more recent methods such as Total Physical Response (TPR) (ibid.).

From the evidence above it appears that in spite of the fact that Direct Method and Natural Approach are based on natural language acquisition, they seem unable to effectively utilise their findings. Due to this, they may not appear preferable to teachers when compared to methods which result in a more guided learning process, find support in textbooks and school curriculum, and whose outputs are more easily verifiable. As previously mentioned, this perspective on English teaching, Natural Approach in particular, relies heavily on individual teacher's abilities and efforts, and in itself excludes coursebook and syllabus support (Richards&Rodgers, 2014, p.39).

⁷ http://www.sdkrashen.com/content/books/principles_and_practice.pdf Brown et al in Krashen

There are several factors which distinct FLA from SLA that are often overlooked in favour of creating a less unnatural and forced learning. Hickey (n.d.) argues that while FLA is a finite process, the learners of L2 will never cease to expand their knowledge of the language, while, possibly, never achieving native level of fluency. Teachers and linguist differ in their views on the importance of accurate pronunciation. V. Cook (2008, pp.5, 79) claims ability to communicate in L2 should be prioritised as the goal of learning over the focus on native-like pronunciation, an unattainable goal for many learners, seeing as pupils may feel encouraged to speak (at the cost of making mistakes in the process).

Another point that should not be neglected when learning/teaching L2 is the learner's degree of responsibility. For illustration, infants can never not acquire their L1 – neither can they refuse to do so – as it is unintentional and spontaneous process; pupils' learning of L2, on the contrary, is heavily affected by their motivation, or lack thereof. This means “giving input” is not sufficient when pupils' interest is not awakened. V. Cook (2008, p. 13) agrees that however natural the process of L2 learning may be, it cannot blindly follow FLA as the pupils already speak and think in a different language. Thus, it seems reasonable to focus only on the effective elements of FLA verified by practice.

Having said that, several of the core principles of Direct Method and Natural Approach mentioned in the text are present in other, more contemporary methods i.e. TPR, Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) or Whole Language Teaching. It is therefore possible that integrating these elements into pupils' SLA without reliance on school environment to do so may lead to enhancement of language skills. This will be further discussed in chapter 4 Present-day influences.

3 PRESENT-DAY INFLUENCES

It is expected of teachers to provide their pupils with materials that interest them and further motivate them to seek out the target language without their assistance. To achieve that in the heterogenous classroom environment is quite a difficult task; serious attempts in doing so can be observed, however, such as implementation of CLIL in English lessons, accounting for multiple intelligences or the extended use of supplementing teaching materials.

Awakened interest in pupils may have a more substantial role than initially thought. A case study of a Japanese student brought a surprising conclusion in this regard. Over the span of 25 years, the student took an English test (TOEIC) at the beginning and the end of each learning phase to analyse their progress; the accumulated data showed in terms of improving her TOEIC score living with a host family and studying in an English-speaking country was less effective than a combination of self-study, Story Listening and Reading lessons, pleasure reading and watching movies (Mason & Krashen, 2019). This study underpinned Krashen's theory of importance of input-comprehension and input-relevance over the immersion in language (see 3.1.2 Learning and acquisition).

Although this case could be viewed as anecdotal, it further supports the notion that the children should seek out the input on their own volition in their free time. Harmer (2007b, p. 395) even outlines techniques teachers can employ to encourage pupils to take responsibility of their own learning, promoting "learning autonomy". It is as vital for teacher as it is for pupils to acknowledge learners' role in the L2 learning process.

One of the means is creating natural learning conditions by incorporating additional materials relevant to classes' current interests into their teaching. In a survey conducted in 2018, 2,852 Czech children and adolescents were questioned about their internet habits. Aside from their proclivity to connect to the internet via mobile phone (85%) rather than a PC, the results showed that 35% of children and teenagers spend 4 or more hours of their time on the internet on weekdays – when asked about their weekends, the number rose to 51% (Bedrošová et al, 2018). When compared to time spent at school, it can be stated virtual space does not present a marginal influence.

3.1 Films and TV Shows

Since the beginning of Covid-19 pandemic, the cinemas have had to deal with a fluctuating attendance as well as several postponed screenings of new films. Who has benefitted from this situation are streaming platforms – *Netflix*, *Hulu* or *Disney+* – where films and TV

shows can be viewed anytime – oftentimes exclusively – for subscription. For illustration, number of *Disney+* subscribers in the UK and western Europe doubled during lockdown in April, 2020 (Sweney, 2020). The access to films and completed TV series as well as streaming platforms’ practice of releasing new series at once instead of an episode per week may be behind the trend called *binge-watching* i.e. watching a series of films or many episodes or seasons of a TV series at rapid succession. While this can function as a stress-relief, it may have a negative impact on viewer’s mental and physical health (ProCon.org, 2021). Excessive exposition to television appears to be also related to children’s and adolescents’ problems with maintaining their attention span (Daley, 2014).

General stance on watching television appears to be mixed; health care professionals in the USA claim that more time spent in front of the screen equals to less physical activity and thus could be considered one of the causes for higher obesity rates; psychologists are of the opinion that watching television may be responsible for inadequate social interactions with family members, and by extension inhibited social development (Roberts & III, 2014). Norwegian scientists discovered that as the trend of watching TV has been replacing reading books, coincidentally, the nation’s IQ has been dropping (Rothwell, 2019). Concerns have been also raised about the amount of depicted violence and sexual themes present in films and series intended for adolescents as well as about the issue of glamourising drug abuse, proposing parents’ and paediatricians’ intervention (Roberts & III, 2014; Rosenblatt, 2022).

However, positive effects have been also observed. For instance, children who watched *Sesame Street*, a programme with educational content rather than purely entertaining one, performed better in the research, showing enhanced cognitive skills (Rothwell, 2019). The show’s goal was to “develop early literacy, numeracy and emotional skills” and the conducted research showed similar success in other tested countries as well (ibid.).

There is also impact on L2 acquisition. A case study of an Arabic child showed that despite initial dislike of watching cartoons in foreign language, the easy-enough-to-follow content not only awakened his interest, but prompted him to watch other children’s programmes, oftentimes more demanding in terms of comprehension; moreover, the child was motivated enough to practice new vocabulary on an iPad (Alghonaim, 2019).

In addition, it also affects pronunciation. During the pandemic, American children who spent their time at home watching *Peppa Pig*, a UK cartoon, not only developed “British” accent but also started using British expressions such as Father Christmas or mummy (Yang, 2021).

In a study conducted in India participating students claimed they had noticed improvement in their speaking skills thanks to watching TV shows in English or with English subtitles (Muthusamy *et al.*, 2020). They also stated they had understood the correct usage of contracted forms and that they had implemented some of the “catchy expressions” into their vocabulary (*ibid.*). The series mentioned in the research were not only British or American, such as *Friends* or *Sherlock*, but the list also included Japanese anime, namely *Naruto* or *Death Note*, and American-Colombian *Netflix* production *Narcos* (*ibid.*).

Despite the inconveniences of excessive TV watching, films and series are generally deemed a useful tool in ESL as they enable pupils to get accustomed to various accents and dialects and improve their listening skills. Additionally, the usage of short clips at school allows teachers to practice specific vocabulary or speaking and writing skills with the tasks like scene description or creation of plot summary (Bright Hub Education, 2010). It is also a great medium for introduction of (controversial) topics students can form opinions on and have a discussion about.

3.2 Books and comic books

Interest in reading books has been declining worldwide for years (Franklová, 2014; Robinson, 2019). This has been, among other things, negatively affecting children’s comprehension and thereby cognitive skills (Barshay, 2021), underdevelopment of which may cause problems in learning foreign languages. Not only are the texts of various length the dominant medium for introducing and explaining new grammar in textbooks, but reading also strongly impacts other language skills.

Seeing as morphosyntax and vocabulary in authentic texts can be too complex for beginners, adapted versions of novels and short stories are available to children and adults of various proficiencies. One of the most popular publishers of such books is Penguin Readers. These are often found in school (English) libraries, existence of which strongly facilitates pupils’ reading.

It can be assumed that pupils will prefer to read young-adult literature in their late teens over children’s literature given that expected proficiency of children learning L2 who complete their primary education at lower-secondary school is A2 and the education in L2 is viewed as the strong foundation, to be further developed at secondary level (Národní vzdělávací ústav, 2021, p.17). Based on an internet poll from 2012, the most popular young-adult writers were English J.K. Rowling and the American Suzanne Collins (NPR, 2012).

On the field of comic books there are currently two dominant publishing houses: DC Comics and Marvel. Both have created some of the world's most renowned superhero characters, such as Batman or Spiderman, whose stories have been pleasing fans since as early as 1940s and 1960s (Marvel, 2019; DC, 2019). After a slight decline in popularity in early 2000s, comic books saw renaissance after the releases of live adaptations, the change most likely driven by the *Avenger* series (Andrews, 2016).

Another popular branch are black-and-white Japanese comic books called *manga*, usually read from right-to-left. These are often published bi-weekly or monthly in Japanese magazines, with fan-made translations available on websites the day or two after the release. Virtually all popular publishers and distributors who publish manga in English are American, such as Dark Horse Manga, Kodansha USA or VIZ, Inc (Queensborough Community College, 2022).

When speaking of comic books, one must not forget to mention *graphic novels*, a term used synonymously. Graphic novels, in contrast, tend to be longer with complete narratives whereas comic books are usually produced in higher frequency resulting in serialised narratives (Masterclass, 2021). Comic books are also less likely to involve topics outside the superhero genre (ibid.).

Naturally, several differences between the American and Czech market must be taken into consideration. For one, children and young adults in the Czech Republic may prefer local comic books, for example *Rychlé šípy*, to English-written ones. Moreover, those who are fond of manga or regular western comic books may wait for the Czech translation or, conversely, without Czech translation available, readers will be unaware of said comic books' existence. The statistics regarding comic book sales can also be misleading given the consumers have the option to download copies off the internet or read the released issues online, skewing the final numbers of sold items (Andrews, 2016). Nevertheless, the popularity of this genre is without a doubt rising.

3.3 Social Media

Existence of social media is the most recent of all influences but the one growing the fastest. Facebook, Instagram, Twitter and other websites indubitably account for a significant portion. The youth use social media mainly to express their likes and dislikes, share opinions or to communicate with one another.

There are many benefits that stem from using social media – it is fast, cheap and virtually necessary for building networks and maintaining social status among peers (Soni, 2019), and

for some it can be a means of income. During pandemic, it proved to be also an educational tool (ibid.).

However, recently the research has produced alarming results on social media's impact on the youth's development. According to a British study, adolescents feel more comfortable interacting with each other in virtual space rather than in person, one of the reasons being it enables them to control their emotions better. There also appears to be a difficulty with expressing complex sentences, these are often replaced with emojis and abbreviations (Saidu, 2022). On top of that, research has found links between the use of social media and suicidal tendencies caused by cyber-bullying, and negative effects on young people's mental health such as depression and self-harm (ibid.).

As for effects on SLA, a recent study concerning undergraduate students revealed generally positive stance towards learning via social media during the pandemic, citing "writing style", "reading skills" and "lexical variation" as main areas of improvement (Muftah, 2022). In South Africa, a group of teachers proposed utilising mobile phones as a teaching/ learning tool to substitute missing teacher-pupil contact (Ngesi, 2018). Although previously mentioned informal style of writing was present, it was noted that correspondence with teacher concerning school and learning did not lack in that regard (ibid.).

Despite previously stated drawbacks, it can be claimed social media is generally considered a valuable educational tool with great potential.

3.4 Games

The past decade saw a spike in young adults' interest in video games and the market has reacted. Apart from engaging storylines, the shift to LCD screen and advance of realistic graphics brought about the real change.

A lot of research has been conducted on video games' influence on children's cognitive abilities as well as their behaviour. This is where the question 'Are video games good for children?' comes to a moot point; studies have shown the positive as well as negative effects. A number of studies tried to prove correlation between playing and occurrence of aggressive behaviour among players. The study from 2001 (Anderson & Bushman) states violent games elicit aggressive reactions and decrease pro-social behaviour.

It is true such incidents are not rare within gaming community, which is also reflected in the gaming language, with incorporated terms like "ragequit" i.e. disconnecting from a game due to losing, showcasing uncontrolled rage. However, correlation does not mean causation and the direct influence is yet to be proved. Moreover, it has been suggested the games could be

used to educate children on controlling their emotions and teach them healthy coping mechanisms (Granic *et al.*, 2013).

The positive impact of game-playing should not be neglected, either. According to a recent study, occasional and regular video game players showed “higher levels of well-being and less depression” (Ballesteros *et al.*, 2018). Upon playing strategic role-play games, pupils improved their reasoning and solving skills; when they engaged in video games which involved shooting on a target, the study showed a development in spatial perception (Granic *et al.*, 2013). Multi-player games let players communicate with each other orally through a headset or via written messages in chat, affecting speaking and writing skills.

Co-operation with teammates calls for fast communication and clarity of the message being conveyed; thus, to reach maximal efficiency a gaming lingo evolved among players (Bhardwaj, 2021). This consists of many abbreviations, such as AFK (away from keyboard), GG (good game) or OP (over-powered) (Zapal, 2021). Commonly used words like “pwned” (meaning “owned”, originally a typing mistake due to the keys’ proximity) “rekt” (wrecked) and “noob” (newbie) allude to the preference for time-economy over accuracy in spelling. The practical part of the thesis will try to discover whether this aspect of game-playing negatively impacts spelling of Czech L2 learners (Inverse, n.d.).

Regarding other influences on SLA, a Japanese study revealed that learning vocabulary associated with the game and recalling it proved to be more difficult for participant playing the video game as opposed to those observing the gameplay⁸. This phenomenon was explained by the higher investment, or mental load, of the player. Additionally, results from a study in Thailand show that pupils’ skills may be positively affected by being in the virtual space, as children were more eager to engage and confident in communication – oral and written – using L2 than in the classroom environment, despite making spelling mistakes and opting for emoticons and short answers instead of complex sentences⁹.

Not all games or applications inherently influence SLA. For illustration, a study published in 2008 revealed *Guitar Hero*, *Solitaire* and *Tetris* were among top ten popular games played by teenagers aged 12-17¹⁰. Naturally, the taste in games as well as the supply has transformed over the time, but the point remains: the choice of the game matters. For this reason, games pupils spend time on will be shortly analysed beforehand to ensure development of language

⁸ [Video games and second language acquisition: The effect of interactivity with a rhythm video game on second language vocabulary recall, cognitive load, and telepresence - Learning & Technology Library \(LearnTechLib\)](#)

⁹ [\(8\) \(PDF\) A massively multiplayer online role-playing game and its effects on interaction in the second language: Play, interact, and learn \(researchgate.net\)](#)

¹⁰ <https://www.pewresearch.org/internet/2008/09/16/teens-video-games-and-civics/>

skills at least to some degree takes place. Based on the list of most popular games among teenagers, it is safe to say American variety is more prevalent and for this reason, in the research this activity will be regarded as exposure to AmE, not just English in general.

4 DIFFERENCES BETWEEN BRITISH AND AMERICAN ENGLISH

The varieties of English chosen for this diploma project are American and British English, as these are the ones Czech pupils are most likely to come to contact with. While mostly standard variants of the respective varieties will be examined, influences of other varieties – Cockney dialect, African-American Vernacular English (AAVE) or Southern American English – will be considered, especially when comparing present-day vocabulary; the terms British English (BrE) and American English (AmE) will be used throughout the thesis.

Based on the definition produced by British Council a language can be divided into four systems: phonology, grammar, vocabulary and discourse¹¹. These systems will be analysed to outline differences between the varieties and possible problems in SLA. The author of this thesis opted for this division as it creates a suitable basis for data collection from the online questionnaire.

The last language system will not be given further attention despite being of equal importance. This decision has not been made on account of insufficient literature on differences between the varieties; various sources refer to differences in politeness strategies¹², expressing gratitude¹³ or engaging in small talk¹⁴. Unfortunately, sociolinguistic properties are not as easily testable at this level and no direct association regarding influence of AmE and pupils' preferences could be made.

Additionally, for the purposes of this thesis, spelling will be treated as one of the language systems rather than a subsystem.

4.1 Vocabulary

Likely the most tell-tell sign of AmE in written media is the difference in used vocabulary. There are several explanations for this phenomenon. First, encounters of American settlers with other migrants and Native Americans led to the enrichment of their vocabulary¹⁵. Additionally, especially after gaining independence, the influence of BrE in United States started to abate, resulting in a change of already existing expressions (ibid.).

¹¹ <https://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article/systems>

¹² (6) (PDF) [Notions of Politeness in Britain and North America \(researchgate.net\)](#)

¹³ [Routine politeness in American and British English requests: use and non-use of please \(degruyter.com\)](#)

¹⁴ [The English Language User: Small talk - AmE vs. BrE](#)

¹⁵ https://www.grammarly.com/blog/how-british-english-and-american-english-are-different/?utm_source=Facebook_org&utm_medium=social&utm_content=link&fbclid=IwAR3r9cVWitfLBIWJoRT7W893Dg3ImX66YiF-bF4doy883AbhSvEe94RavWA

Words which exist in both varieties but whose meaning has shifted will be discussed in the following sub-chapter. The list of general vocabulary differences between BrE and AmE relevant to lower-secondary schools is available in the Appendix 1, Tables 1.1-1.5.

4.1.1 Polysemes

This section will compare several known words whose meaning differs based on a variety of English chosen. Some authors use the term “interlingual false friends” to describe this phenomenon; however, seeing as most of the meanings of these expressions have evolved from a common root, resulting in shared etymology, the term polysemy will be used instead. The following list was composed from data available at JStore Daily ¹⁶, Roca-Varela (2011)¹⁷ and British and American False Friends¹⁸. All expression were checked for meaning at Collins Dictionary and Cambridge Dictionary.

Table 4.1 Polysemes in BrE and AmE

| | <i>British English</i> | <i>American English</i> |
|-------------------|---|--|
| Chips | <i>(French) fries</i> (AmE) | <i>crisps</i> (BrE) |
| Pants | underwear | <i>trousers</i> (BrE) |
| rubber | <i>eraser</i> (AmE) | a condom |
| football | a game for two teams of eleven players where players kick a round ball into the goal; <i>soccer</i> (AmE) | a game for two teams of eleven players where players carry an oval ball and score touchdowns; <i>American football</i> (BrE) |
| Purse | a small money bag for women; <i>change purse</i> (AmE) | a small bag for women |
| torch | a long stick with burning material at one end / a small electric light; <i>flashlight</i> (AmE) | a long stick with burning material at one end |
| Pissed | drunk | angry, annoyed |
| suspenders | an elastic garment that holds a stocking up; <i>garter</i> (AmE) | a pair of straps that go over someone's shoulders holding the garment in place; <i>braces</i> (BrE) |

¹⁶ <https://daily.jstor.org/friend-or-faux-the-linguistic-trickery-of-false-friends/>

¹⁷ <http://camling.soc.srcf.net/proceedings/rocavarela.pdf>

¹⁸ <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=lzpuzC1XMCQ>

4.1.2 Slang words

Present-day AmE gradually permeates not only BrE, but other languages as well which do not resist this growing influence; considering this, the distinctions between the varieties may not be as accurate anymore.

Aside from newly-coined expressions spreading fast thanks to social media, a trend can be observed in which already-existing expressions – past simple forms of irregular verbs – are used as adjectives, often with a new assigned meaning. This includes words like *broke* (not having money), *shook* or *shook up* (startled, surprised) and *woke* (aware of social injustice). Most of these new meanings originate in AAVE. Some academics believe the use of these and other expressions should be reserved for African-American community, as the common usage by white and non-black people of colour could be perceived as cultural appropriation.¹⁹ However, too many AAVE expressions have become integrated to Generation Z slang, spreading across other continents as well, rendering this request unfulfillable.

4.1.3 Spelling

This section will provide an overview of differences in spelling between AmE and BrE with additional explanation when deemed necessary.

Table 4.2 Overview of spelling alternations

| <i>Spelling difference</i> | <i>British English</i> | <i>American English</i> |
|-----------------------------------|---------------------------------|------------------------------|
| LETTER OMISSION / ADDITION | | |
| our – or | colour, humour, neighbour | color, humor, neighbor |
| ae – e ¹ | paediatric, anaemia | pediatric, anemia |
| oe – e | foetus, oedema | fetus, edema |
| ogue – og | monologue, catalogue | monolog, catalog |
| ll – l ² | traveller, cancelled, revelling | traveler, canceled, reveling |
| l-ll | skilful, fulfil, enrol | skillful, fullfil, enroll |
| ge – g | judgement, ageing | judgment, aging |
| LETTER CHANGE | | |

¹⁹ <https://eu.usatoday.com/in-depth/life/2021/06/17/slang-comes-from-black-lgbtq-communities-not-honoring-that-racism/7639721002/>

| | | |
|------------------------|---|--|
| ise – ize ³ | apolog ise , recogn ise | apolog ize , recogn ize |
| isation – ization | realisat ion , organisat ion | realizat ion , organizat ion |
| yse – yze | analy se , paraly se | analy ze , paraly ze |
| ce – se | offen ce , defen ce , licen ce | offen se , defen se , licen se |
| er – re | metr e , fibr e , centr e , theatr e | metr er , fibr er , centr er , theatr er |
| MISCELLANEOUS | | |
| -- | amongst ²⁰ , whilst, chequ e , grey, jewellery, mould, programm e , pyjama, tyre | among, while, check, gray, jewelr y , mold, program, pajama, tir e |

Source: Adapted from *A to Zed, A to Zee* (Darragh, 2000, pp. 3-8)

[1] In BrE, the word archeology is considered incorrect, while the variant with the British spelling – archaeology – is an accepted alternative in AmE²¹.

[2] This alternation concerns verbs where an unstressed syllable ending with -l is preceded by a vowel [1a]. If the syllable is stressed, the doubling is mandatory [1b]. However, no doubling ensues if the final -l in a stressed syllable is preceded by a consonant [1c] or two vowels [1d] (Murphy, 1994, pp.281-282).

[1a] *to unravel, to mislabel, to fuel*

[1b] *to compel, to excel, to rebel*

[1c] *to drawl, to curl, to howl*

[1d] *to prevail, to heal, to feel.*

[3] Dictionary-makers acknowledge -ize suffix as an approved form in BrE as well. According to Darragh (2000, p.4), considerable part of British population does not agree and neither do spelling checkers of word-processing program, such as Grammarly. It is important to mention some verbs only come with -ize or -ise suffix, for example *to seize* or *to advise*. The latter functions as a distinction between the noun – *some advice* – and the verb. In AmE the words *licence* and *license* or *practice* and *practise* follow the same pattern; BrE on the other hand does not differentiate between the parts of speech and the word retains the suffix -ice in both cases.

²⁰ <https://www.uoc.edu/portal/en/servei-linguistic/convencions/british-american-english/spelling/index.html>

²¹ <https://www.oxfordinternationalenglish.com/differences-in-british-and-american-spelling/>

4.2 Grammar

This section will be dedicated to grammatical differences between AmE and BrE. Since the practical part of this thesis is focused on lower-secondary schools, the grammar differences discussed in this section will be the ones relevant to the research i.e., the use of subjunctive in AmE is omitted, as learners are not likely to encounter this structure at their level or be aware of which variety of English it is typical for, for that matter.

4.2.1 Irregular verbs

In BrE, there are several verbs that have irregular and regular forms whereas in AmE, these verbs are considered regular [2a] (Murphy, 1994, p.283). An original morphological ending of past simple and past participle *-ed* was replaced by *-t* in the UK in 16th century; however, due to American influence, these forms have been re-introduced and are once again becoming popular in the UK.²² In the AmE, the forms *burnt* and *spilt* or are only recognised as adjectives and parts of idioms [2b]²³.

Quite a similar case is the use of *proved* and *proven*. The former is an older variant and for a long time the only acceptable form. The word *proven* is now recognised as an adjective in both varieties, but only in AmE and Scottish English as a past participle²⁴. Generally, *proved* is more popular in BrE, while *proven* is preferable as an adjective in AmE. However, fixed phrases such as *innocent until proven guilty* are used in both varieties²⁵.

[2a] *burnt, dreamt, learnt, spilt* (BrE) *burned, dreamed, learned, spilled* (AmE)

[2b] *burnt* orange; to cry over *spilt* milk.

The next group of verbs faces the opposite problem: their past simple and past participle forms carry a regular *-ed* ending in BrE, while in AmE they have an irregular zero ending [1c], which have been gaining popularity over the regular forms (Darragh, 2000, p. 16).

[2c] *fitted, quitted, wetted* (BrE) *fit, quit, wet* (AmE)

4.2.2 Modal verbs and auxiliary verbs

There are modal and auxiliary verbs present in BrE that appear to be considered outdated and obsolete by American native speakers as they are substituted by other already-existing structures. This involves verbs *shall* and *needn't*. Nowadays, *shall* is not too common in either of the varieties, but is arguably still more prevalent in BrE where it is used to make suggestions

²² <https://grammarist.com/usage/burned-burnt/>

²³ https://www.grammar-monster.com/easily_confused/spilled_spilt.htm

²⁴ <https://www.dictionary.com/e/proved-vs-proven/>

²⁵ <https://www.dictionary.com/e/proved-vs-proven/>

[3a] and offers [3b] both in interrogative mood concerning 1st person singular/ plural; or to express future, usually a promise [3c]²⁶. These are replaced by *should* and *will* respectively. The negative form *shan't* is almost exclusively used in BrE. As for the verb *need not/ needn't*, this has been replaced in AmE by *do not have to* [3d].

[3a] *Shall* we go to the cinema tonight? (BrE)

[3b] *Shall* I help you? (BrE) *Should* I help you? (AmE)

[3c] It *shan't* be long. (BrE) It *won't* be long. (AmE)

[3d] It *needn't* be ready. (BrE) It *doesn't have to* be ready (AmE).

4.2.3 Present perfect vs past simple

Present perfect tense, especially in spoken language, is nowhere near as common in AmE as it is in BrE. Murphy (1994, p.14, 282) explains the tense shall be used when “there is a connection with *now*. The action in the past has a result now.” [4a]. It is also used with words *just* [4b] when the action happened recently or a short time ago; *already* [4c], when the action took place sooner than was expected; *yet* [4d], when expressing the state of action until present time; and *ever* [4e] and *never* [4f] for period which still resumes. AmE allows the use of past simple in these cases. While British textbooks and many Czech teachers would view these sentences as incorrect, they feel very natural to US speakers.

²⁶ <https://grammar.collinsdictionary.com/easy-learning/when-do-you-use-shall-and-will-in-english>

Table 4.3: Differences between AmE and BrE in usage of present perfect tense

| <i>British English</i> | <i>American English</i> |
|---|--|
| [4a] I've lost my key. Have you seen it? | " I lost my key. Did you see it? |
| [4b] I've <u>just</u> had lunch | " I <u>just</u> had lunch |
| [4c] He has <u>already</u> left . | " He <u>already</u> left . |
| [4d] Have you finished your work <u>yet</u> ? | " Did you finish your work <u>yet</u> ? |
| [4e] Have you <u>ever</u> ridden a horse? | " Did you <u>ever</u> ride a horse? |
| [4f] I've <u>never</u> seen her before. | " I <u>never</u> saw her before. |

Source: Adapted from Murphy (1994, p. 282)

4.2.4 Have vs take

Take and *have* both function as delexical verbs²⁷ i.e. their meaning changes when followed by a noun [5a] or noun formed from a verb [5b]. While there are no strict rules of the use between the two, the occurrence of *take* in AmE is far more frequent when compared to BrE, especially when expressing action; not only does it appear in common phrases where it replaces the verb *have*, but also in phrases in which BrE opts for a different verb/ structure altogether [5c]²⁸.

| | |
|--|---|
| [5a] <i>Have</i> a seat. (BrE) | <i>Take</i> a seat. (AmE) |
| [5b] <i>Have</i> a shower. (BrE) | <i>Take</i> a shower. (AmE) |
| [5c] They decided to <i>go for</i> a walk. (BrE) | They decided to <i>take</i> a walk. (AmE) |

4.2.5 To have got vs to have

One of the textbook examples of grammar differences is the usage of the verb “to have got” and “to have” for possession [6a]. While it is true that the latter is a preferred form in the British variety, its presence in AmE is not uncommon, either; in an indicative mood, usually in

²⁷ <https://learnenglish.britishcouncil.org/grammar/english-grammar-reference/delexical-verbs-have-take-make-give-go-and-do>

²⁸ <https://grammar.collinsdictionary.com/english-usage/what-is-the-difference-between-have-and-take>

a contracted form, it is generally used for emphasis [6b]. It is, however, considered less formal an alternative²⁹. The same applies to BrE, where the use of “to have” is usually reserved for writing³⁰.

Morphologically, “to have got” is a past infinitive of a verb “to get” – “have” functioning as an auxiliary verb and “got” being the past participle. This creates confusion in young learners who often encounter this peculiar structure at primary schools prior to present simple tense and from thereon mix up the two forms³¹. Although Murphy (1994, p.34) considers negative sentences [6c] and questions [6d] without the participle to be correct but “less usual English”, among English teachers these forms are generally unaccepted. This is supported by the study from 2010, where one of the common interferential mistakes in Czech-English translations done by pupils was omission of obligatory “got” in negative sentences³². For above-mentioned reason, some textbooks choose to forgo this grammar entirely, teaching only “to have” in affirmative first, for example *New Inspiration* by MacMillan.

[6a] I *have got* a sister. (BrE)

I *have* a sister. (AmE)

[6b] I've *got* a new car.

[6c] I *haven't* any money.

[6d] *Has* she a car?

4.2.6 Have got to vs have to

The meaning of these verbs is almost equivalent – they express an external obligation [7a]. However, “have got to” cannot be used for repeated obligation with adverbs like *always*, *usually* or *never*, and must be substituted with “have to”. Between these two forms, “have to” is used more frequently in AmE, but not exclusively. The contracted form is used in spoken language in both varieties – so much so another contraction was established: “gotta”. This expression has become rather widespread in the US [7b]. Although it is very common in AmE, this form is ungrammatical as it lacks the auxiliary have.

²⁹<https://learnenglish.britishcouncil.org/grammar/intermediate-to-upper-intermediate/british-english-and-american-english>

³⁰ <https://learnenglishteens.britishcouncil.org/grammar/beginner-grammar/have-got>

³¹ <https://www.tefl.net/elt/articles/teacher/how-to-teach-have-have-got/>

³² https://is.muni.cz/th/kifpm/Bachelor_Thesis.pdf

Additionally, the structure “get to” in AmE conveys the meaning of successful attainment of a goal [7c], used synonymously with “manage to” or “be able to”³³; or to express “an opportunity”³⁴ [7d]. Such usage is rather untypical for BrE.

| | | |
|------|--|--|
| [7a] | I <i>have got to</i> do the laundry. (BrE) | I <i>have to</i> do the laundry. (AmE) |
| [7b] | I’ve <i>got to</i> go now. (BrE) | I <i>gotta</i> go now. (AmE) |
| [7c] | | We <i>got to</i> see all the animals. (AmE) |
| [7d] | | At last, people <i>got to</i> elect their own government. (AmE) |

4.2.7 Got vs gotten

As mentioned previously, as far as BrE is concerned, the past tense and past participle of the verb “get” is “got”. However, the participle in its current form is actually a shortened version of the original word “gotten,” which remained preserved in AmE. It is used to express the change of a state, meaning “to become” [8a] or “to receive” [8b]³⁵. For possession, “got” is the only acceptable participle in AmE.

| | | |
|------|----------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| [8a] | I’ve <i>got</i> angry. (BrE) | I’ve <i>gotten</i> angry. (AmE) |
| [8b] | I’ve <i>got</i> a new car. (BrE) | I’ve <i>gotten</i> a new car. (AmE) |

4.2.8 Prepositions

The list of common differences in the use of prepositions was composed from data available in Murphy (1994) *A to Zed, A to Zee* (Darragh, 2000, p. 20) and Blog on Linguistics.³⁶

³³ <https://dictionary.cambridge.org/grammar/british-grammar/british-and-american-english>

³⁴ <https://www.englishcurrent.com/grammar/have-got-to-have-to-difference/>

³⁵ <https://www.englishcurrent.com/grammar/have-got-to-have-to-difference/>

³⁶ <https://blogonlinguistics.wordpress.com/2014/04/10/bre-ame-prepositions/>

Table 4.4 Differences between AmE and BrE in prepositional use

| <i>British English</i> | <i>American English</i> |
|------------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| cater to sb | cater [-] sb |
| write to sb | write [-] sb |
| meet [-] sb | meet with sb |
| at the weekend/ at weekends | on the weekend; weekends |
| in a street | on a street |
| play in a team | play on a team |
| enrol on a course | enroll in a course |
| different from/ to | different from/ than |
| fill in a form | fill out a form |
| from Monday | starting on Monday |
| I'd like [-] you to go now. | I'd like for you to go now. |

4.3 Phonology

In this section standard pronunciations of BrE and AmE will be compared: Received pronunciation (RP) and General American (GA) respectively. It is important to mention these are *standard* variants generally used for learning purposes, but they are rarely represented by speakers in native populace; speakers of RP (also known as Standard British English, BBC English or Queen's English) only make up 2% in the UK.³⁷ As an alternative Cook (2008, pp. 78-79) suggests Estuary English, an accent most common in British TV. There are various attitudes towards accents of English. For example, in a study carried out at a Swedish university, students found RP more arrogant and boring, but also more intelligent; GA on the other hand was deemed more trustworthy and was generally favoured among students.³⁸

4.3.1 Vowels

One of the most distinctive sounds is an open back rounded vowel /ɒ/ present in RP, which appears in words like *hot* or *God*. This sound is very similar to /ɔ/ in Czech language. In GA, it is replaced with /ɑ:/ enunciated with relaxed lips³⁹.

In American accents the /æ/ sound has a distinct quality when preceded by /m/, /n/ and /ŋ/ phonemes. It morphs into a schwa /ə/ and is thus prolonged similar to a diphthong; this can

³⁷ <https://www.theguardian.com/science/shortcuts/2018/may/22/received-pronunciation-may-be-dying-out-but-its-passing-is-long-overdue>

³⁸ <http://su.diva-portal.org/smash/get/diva2:1283648/FULLTEXT01.pdf>

³⁹ <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=LIZ78RwhSPc> – 2.00

be heard in words like *animal* or *damn*⁴⁰. When preceded by /ŋ/ phoneme, the final sound almost resembles /eɪ/ diphthong, for example in words like *anger*⁴¹; in Southern accents (Tennessee, Alabama, Texas and other), this sound replaces /æ/ in all places⁴².

The following table compares pronunciation of certain pairs; it is not, however, a rule where one sound replaces the other.

Table 4.5 Selected differences between AmE and BrE in vowel pronunciation

| RP | GA | Examples |
|------|------|---|
| /ɑ:/ | /æ/ | <i>after, ask, aunt, banana, can't, bath, disaster, fast, nasty, pass, sample</i> |
| /eɪ/ | /æ/ | <i>apricot, patent, template</i> |
| /ɑ:/ | /eɪ/ | <i>tomato, vase</i> |
| /ɪ/ | /aɪ/ | <i>dynasty, semi, vitamin</i> |
| /ə/ | /ɔ:/ | <i>laboratory, mandatory</i> |
| /aɪ/ | /ə/ | <i>futile, missile</i> |

4.3.2 Diphthongs

RP recognises 3 extra diphthongs: /ɪə/, /eə/ and /ʊə/. The first one is a glide from /ɪ/ to /r/ sound, which can be found in a pronunciation of words like *fear*, transcribed in RP as /fiə(r)/ or /fiəʔ/. In GA, the sound is pronounced as /ɪr/.

The second sound is a glide from /e/ to /r/, another diphthong only recognised in RP, and replaced by /er/ in GA. It is present in words such as *hair* and *care*.

The final diphthong is more complicated, but as a rule, its American counterpart in pronunciation is /ʊ/. Typical examples are words *pure* or *during*.

Table 4.6 Difference in pronunciation of /ʊə/diphthong

| | Received pronunciation | General American |
|----------------------|------------------------|------------------|
| pure, during, Europe | /ʊə/ | /ʊ/ |
| Poor | /pɔ:ʔ/, /pʊə(r)/* | /pʊr/, /pɔ:r/* |
| Sure | /ʃɔ:ʔ/, /ʃʊə(r)* | /ʃʊr/, /ʃɔ:r/* |
| Tour | /tʊəʔ/, /tɔ:r/ | /tʊr/, |
| Flower | /flaʊəʔ/ | /'flaʊ.ə/ |
| Our | /aʊəʔ/ | /'aʊ.ə/ |
| | /ɑ:ʔ/ | /aʊr/ |

⁴⁰ <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=GxGWdoau7vc>

⁴¹ <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=GxGWdoau7vc>

⁴² <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=EzkCOnq4kLU> – 1.07

All entries are transcriptions available in online Cambridge Dictionary. The entries with an asterisk are retrieved from online Oxford Dictionary. This is to illustrate not only the differences in pronunciation, but also which forms are recognised as official for each dictionary, as well as variety in the transcription: /ʊə/ and /ʊə(r)/.

For clarity, the chart also contains words where the diphthongs are, in fact, pronounced as triphthongs in RP. In GA, these words are pronounced as two-syllabic, as evident in the transcription from Cambridge Dictionary.

Additionally, there is a diphthong pair /əʊ/ and /oʊ/ that can be found in words *know* or *alone*. In BrE, the sound starts with a schwa at the beginning, meaning the mouth is not as rounded, in AmE the jaw drops during pronunciation.⁴³

4.3.3 Consonants

Likely the most important sound in terms of distinction between the accents is the r sound. The sound is different to the consonant Czech speakers are familiar with in their language. In RP, when the consonant r is preceded by a vowel and followed by a consonant, or when it is the final position, it is omitted. This results in difference between sounds /ɑ:/ and /ɑ:r/ as in *hard* or *car*, /ɜ:/ and /ɜ:r/ as in *reverse*, *birthday* and *fur*; or between sound /ɔ:/ and /ɔ:r/ found in *cordial* or *door*. If the sound following r is a vowel or if the final r is linked to a vowel, the r sound is pronounced, such as in *carry* or *car accident*. In GA, the /r/ sound is always enunciated.⁴⁴ This phenomenon is referred to as *rhoticity*, and therefore one may find claims that BrE is non-rhotic; such statement, however, excludes for example Scottish accents where /r/ is rolled and thus heavily emphasised in speech.

The next difference is a pair of allophones of the /t/ sound. In words like *butter*, *title* or *party* GA employs “flapped t” transcribed as /t̬/. The sound is akin to a /d/ sound pronounced between vowels where there is no stop of air flow. In other languages, such as Portuguese, Turkish or Japanese, this phoneme is equivalent to /r/; however, /t̬/ is a preferred variant in English dictionaries and for that reason this IPA symbol is seldom used.⁴⁵ (Cambridge Dictionary uses /t̬/; Oxford Dictionary, Macmillan Dictionary and Merriam-Webster Dictionary do not differentiate between the allophones at all). As for RP, the /t/ sound is more aspirated than in GA; its over-enunciated form is known as “posh t”.

⁴³ <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=LIZ78RwhSPc> – 1.00 – 2.00

⁴⁴ <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=2nAnT3PASak> 1.35 –

⁴⁵ <https://youtu.be/1FDjhKY8HwM> 0-30

On top of that, the final /t/ is often replaced by a glottal stop /ʔ/ in GA, changing the pronunciation of words like *what* to /wʔ/.⁴⁶ However, glottal stop is also present in various regional accents of BrE, most notably Cockney, where it is often placed the middle of the word; a textbook example is a phrase *bottle of water*. Although this feature may be considered informal, it enhances the natural flow of spoken language, which may explain why it has been observed also in Queen's speech⁴⁷.

The last fact concerning /t/ pronunciation is its omission in the middle of the word when preceded by /n/ in GA, in words like *interview* or *wanted*. This phenomenon is not recognised by dictionaries, where such cases are transcribed with /t/, except for Cambridge Dictionary, which offers /t̩/.

4.3.4 Stress

In RP, the stress is very often on the first syllable, in contrast to GA [1a]. This is most notable in – but not exclusive to – words of French origin. Nevertheless, there are exception where the reverse is true [1b]. Some endings, such as *-ate*, carry stress in one variant, but not in the other. The list below contains all of the examples mentioned and some extra entries which could not be categorised based on a set rule [d]. All phonetic transcriptions come from Oxford Dictionary, except for entries marked with an asterisk (*); those were retrieved from Cambridge Dictionary.

⁴⁶ <http://accenteraser.com/blog/the-5-types-of-t-sounds-in-american-english/>
<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=2nAnT3PASak> – 3.10

⁴⁷ <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=7iIfqstWcX8> – 1.50

Table 4.7 Differences between AmE and BrE in word stress

| | <i>Received Pronunciation</i> | <i>General American</i> |
|-----------------------------|-------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| [1a] adult | /ˈædʌlt/ | /əˈdʌlt/ |
| ballet | /ˈbæleɪ/ | /bæˈleɪ/ |
| cliché | /ˈkliːʃeɪ/ | /kliːˈʃeɪ/ |
| kilometre (BrE) | /ˈkɪləmiːtə(r)/ | /kɪˈlɑːmɪtər/ |
| kilometer (AmE) | | /kɪˈlɑːməˌtɜː/* |
| [1b] moustache (BrE) | /məˈstaːʃ/ | /ˈmʌstæʃ/ |
| mustache (AmE) | | |
| weekend | /ˌwiːkˈend/ | /ˈwiːkend/ |
| [1c] rotate | /rəʊˈteɪt/ | /ˈrəʊteɪt/ |
| | | /ˈrəʊ.teɪt/* |
| donate | /dəʊˈneɪt/ | /ˈdəʊneɪt/ |
| | | /ˈdɒʊ.neɪt/* |
| [1d] address | /əˈdres/ | /ˈædres/ noun /əˈdres/ verb |
| advertisement | /ˌədˈvɜːtɪsmənt/ | /ˌædvərˈtaɪzmənt/ |
| garage | /ˈgærɑːʒ/ /ˈgærɪdʒ/ | /gəˈrɑːʒ/ |

Source: Adapted from <https://blogonlinguistics.wordpress.com/2014/01/27/bre-ame-pronunciation/>

4.3.5 Mid-Atlantic accent

Some authors hold the view that the influence of AmE is vast enough for it to become the leading variety taught in Europe (Akhmedov, 2004; Modiano, 2007). Akhmedov (2004) mentions the transformation of BrE via its users who have been embracing American vocabulary due to popularity of American TV in the UK; a phenomenon not entirely reciprocal when it comes to the influence of British TV in the US⁴⁸. Some predict that the differences in spelling, pronunciation and vocabulary will be absorbed at such a rate that there will soon not be too many (Roca-Varela, 2011)⁴⁹.

The name David Crystal is among the most famous authors who explore the topic of World or Global English, analysing the causes and (potential) impact of mixing English varieties. Among those further developing his ideas for ELT were for example Aya Matsuda

⁴⁸https://www.researchgate.net/publication/343446899_British_And_American_English_Bulletin_of_Gulistan_State_University

⁴⁹ <http://camling.soc.srcf.net/proceedings/roca-varela.pdf>

(2012a, 2012b, 2012c)⁵⁰⁵¹⁵², Baumgardner (2006)⁵³ and others. Seeing as speakers of English as L2 outnumber native speakers of English, Crystal believes that their contribution to the evolution of English as Lingua Franca should be equal⁵⁴. He predicts speakers of EFL and ESL may supply the language with new lexical items exclusive to their country or nationality or add a meaning to already existing expressions (ibid.).

Another interesting take on how the spontaneous merging of English varieties should be given a consideration in ELT was published in 2007 by Marko Modiano⁵⁵. He offered his suggestion on how to deal with the ongoing American influence on BrE, proposing Mid-Atlantic variant as the alternative to “uncontaminated” BrE taught at school. He opined that textbooks do not reflect the current state of the language, given the current form of BrE has adopted American lexicon as well as spelling rules, which Mid-Atlantic English reflects. He defended his proposal with claims that the merging of varieties is inevitable, so teaching a variant that has textbook support would be beneficial.

As for the pronunciation, Mid-Atlantic accent, also known as Transatlantic accent, combines elements of RP and GA. Nosowitz summarises the typical features of this accent as follows: similarly to RP, it enunciates the standard /t/ sound with aspiration and eliminates alveolar tapped t /t̬/ and is, likewise, non-rhotic;⁵⁶ it also contains a sound described as half-way between /ɑ:/ in RP and /ə/ in GA. In Mid-Atlantic accent, glottal stops are prohibited and *wh* sound at the beginning of words such as *what* or *where* is to be pronounced with a voiceless consonant as “hwh” (ibid.).

The origin is ascribed to Edith Skinner and her book *Speak with Distinction*, which taught young aspiring actors how to *speak well* to improve their chances to succeed in Hollywood; understandably, seeing as the accent had become synonymous with names like Kathrine Hepburn or Ingrid Bergman. To this day, this accent, or its variety known as Theater Standard or Eastern Standard, is being taught in American drama schools such as The Julliard School or Carnegie Mellow School of Drama.⁵⁷

This proposal, arguably, does not take into consideration several factors. As there are not many speakers of Mid-Atlantic the learners would not be exposed to this pronunciation outside

⁵⁰ <https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.2307/3588220>

⁵¹ <https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/full/10.1002/9781405198431.wbeal1293.pub2>

⁵² <https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/full/10.1002/9781405198431.wbeal1291>

⁵³ <https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1002/9780470757598.ch36>

⁵⁴ [-4037.pdf \(davidcrystal.com\)](#)

⁵⁵ https://www.researchgate.net/publication/230329085_The_Americanization_of_Euro-English

⁵⁶ [How A Fake British Accent Took Old Hollywood By Storm - Atlas Obscura](#)

⁵⁷ [American Theater Standard by Braiden Todd \(prezi.com\)](#)

the school environment unless they opted to watch Hollywood films from 1950s in their free time. Moreover, they would continue to acquire “pure” AmE from social media and other sources, creating inconsistencies in their pronunciation still, defeating the whole purpose.

5 METHODOLOGY

For the first section of the practical part, content analysis will be employed to compare two sets of English coursebooks. The aim of this analysis is to look for differences in implementation of American vocabulary items, spelling, background studies information or incidence of authentic American accents in listening recordings and incidence thereof.

The second section of the practical part will collect data using two research methods: an online questionnaire intended for 9th grade of lower-secondary schools, and pronunciation analysis conducted at school.

The online questionnaire will be split into several sections. The first part will enquire learners' habits in terms of direct contact with English outside school i.e., their interest in watching English-spoken films and series, reading English-written books, playing games in English or following native English-speaking celebrities on social platforms.

The second part will test learners' preference between language varieties in terms of language systems, particularly grammar, spelling and vocabulary. The respondents will be asked to select an option they would opt for in writing or speaking, and to write a translation for a word or a sentence. To ensure some degree of objectivity, the questionnaire will be prefaced with an appeal to pupils not to use online translators and to skip questions they do not understand. This part's last section will also test their listening comprehension skills to discern differences in comprehensibility between an American and a British speaker in a short dialogue. The video used for this section will be Practical English: Episode 4, from New English File, 3rd edition. Seeing as this material is adapted for elementary level of English learners, and includes both varieties in a spoken form, it was deemed appropriate.

To test whether the incidence of AmE in language systems is related to outside influences explored in the theoretical part a Chi-squared test of independence will be used.

The oral part will be executed in the school environment. Pupils will be asked individually to read a string of sentences to determine which variety of English their pronunciation resembles. The data will be manually entered into a chart with phonetic transcriptions of selected expressions.

6 TEXTBOOK ANALYSIS

6.1 Criteria

Textbooks are an important tool in ELT, and they have a wide impact on pupils' language acquisition. Research from 2017⁵⁸ shows that although English teachers in the Czech Republic acknowledge growing influence of AmE, they would not conduct lessons using this variety, citing using British textbooks and other teaching aids as one of the main reasons. Whether the textbooks reflect on growing influence of AmE – and if so, to what extent – a content analysis will be used.

The Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports (MŠMT in Czech) updates its list of textbooks whose usage at Czech primary schools it endorses approximately every two years; the usage of other, uncertified textbooks, however, is not prohibited nor can it be enforceable⁵⁹. The selection of the approved English textbooks is quite wide, ranging from popular worldwide publishing houses to local low-cost publishers.

Table 7.1: Textbooks approved by MŠMT

| Publishers/distributors of textbooks approved by MŠMT (as of January 2022) | Number of textbooks per publisher | Country of origin |
|---|--|--------------------------|
| <i>Pearson Education Limited</i> | 60 | UK |
| <i>Express Publishing</i> | 48 | UK |
| <i>Macmillan Education</i> | 39 | UK |
| <i>Oxford University Press (OUP)</i> | 29 | UK |
| <i>Cambridge University Press (CUP)</i> | 24 | UK |
| <i>National Geographic</i> | 16 | UK / US |
| <i>MM Publications</i> | 10 | UK |
| <i>Fraus</i> | 12 | Czechia |
| <i>Nová škola, s.r.o.</i> | 10 | Czechia |
| <i>SPN, a.s.</i> | 8 | Czechia |
| <i>Wattsenglish Limited</i> | 7 | UK |
| <i>Klett</i> | 4 | Czechia |
| <i>Angličtina Express</i> | 3 | Czechia |
| <i>Didaktis</i> | 3 | Czechia |
| <i>René Frnka</i> | 1 | Czechia |

⁵⁸ <https://library.upol.cz/i2/i2.entry.cls?ictx=upol&plang=cs&pretty=csg&repo=upolrepo&key=24722962485>

⁵⁹ <https://www.etaktik.cz/casto-kladene-dotazy/schvalovaci-dolozky/>

The official list included textbook by *Bohemian Ventures*, which, upon further analysis, turned out to be a dictionary. Textbooks marked as published by *Bridge Publishing House* and *Infoa* were ascribed to the original publishers *National Geographic* and *Express Publishing*, respectively. Series *Your Space* (1-4) was originally published by *Cambridge University Press*, but since some adjustments in the series have been made by Helena Wdowyczynová and Lucie Betáková for the Czech market, it is ascribed to publisher *Fraus*. As can be seen in the table, virtually all textbooks are either Czech or British.

Two sets of coursebooks have been selected for the analysis: *Project (fourth edition)* by Oxford University Press, and *Bloggers* by Klett. The research carried out by Kundrumová (2017)⁶⁰ shows a strong predilection among lower-secondary English teachers for the series *Project*, meaning it is the textbook pupils are most likely to study from. *Bloggers* has been chosen as a representative of coursebooks issued by Czech publishers. As was discussed in 3.1.1 Influence of L1 on SLA, Czech teachers ought to be aware of interferential mistakes exclusive to Czech pupils, their overall language use and needs when it comes to international communication and the research may show whether this is in any way reflected in the concerned topics.

Among L2 teachers in Europe there is a strong preference of BrE over AmE⁶¹, and this also true in Czech environment as shown in research carried out by Kundrumová (2017)⁶²; while majority of teachers acknowledged ubiquitous presence of AmE, they did not use many aiding materials in their lessons, nor did they have an intention to do so in the future.

The aim of this analysis is to assess the incidence of (contemporary) AmE in terms of vocabulary and grammar, the use of American accents in recordings as well as American background studies. This encompasses information about US geography, history, traditions or world-recognised personalities. Some countries prohibit such content in textbooks proclaiming the purpose of learning English is global communication, not establishing relationship with English-speaking countries (V. Cook, 2008, p.10)⁶³, implying it is redundant or unrelated to language learning; such notions, however, are rather uncommon in the Czech environment and this aspect will be analysed due to its relevance to the thesis research.

⁶⁰ <https://library.upol.cz/i2/i2.entry.cls?ictx=upol&plang=cs&pretty=csg&repo=upolrepo&key=24722962485>

⁶¹ https://www.researchgate.net/publication/230329085_The_Americanization_of_Euro-English p.1

⁶² [i2.entry.cls \(upol.cz\)](https://i2.entry.cls.upol.cz)

⁶³ <https://pdfcookie.com/documents/second-language-learning-and-language-teaching-7rv3g8gnw32d>

6.2 Results

The analysis showed substantial differences in approach to inclusion of AmE and American background studies between the selected sets of textbooks.

6.2.1 Vocabulary

In terms of American vocabulary, the incidence in *Project* series was sporadic. *Bloggers* series, on the other hand, mentioned American lexical items rather frequently. Not only did the textbooks published in the Czech Republic include larger volume of American vocabulary, but in comparison to *Project* series, more attention was paid to highlighting the contrast between the varieties of English and the *Bloggers* textbooks did so repeatedly. The research was oriented on textbooks, but workbooks were also checked to see the difference in presenting vocabulary to pupils. As can be seen in the Appendix 2, Table 2.1-2.4, the textbooks in *Bloggers* series contained minimum of 7 American lexical items.

6.2.2 Spelling

As for spelling, the situation between the two compared series varied to a much lesser extent. Essentially neither of the coursebooks series used American spelling, but in a few rare occasions, it was observed in authentic texts intended for extra reading or in a dialogue transcription where an American speaker was present. These findings accord the research of writer Paul Baker (2017)⁶⁴, who stated that despite United States' growing influence, Britons largely ignore American spelling variety, including verbs with “-ize” ending that are officially endorsed by Oxford dictionary. In *Bloggers* series it may be explained as an effort to maintain consistency.

6.2.3 Grammar

Instances, written or oral, in which grammar used was American were infrequent in both cases, mostly limited to use of “have” instead of “have got”. The tables with irregular verbs in either of the series offered British options, but throughout various *Bloggers* and *Project* textbooks, American alternatives have appeared; specifically, past participle “gotten” in *Project* series and past simple “learned” in *Bloggers* series, which was mentioned along the preferred British variant. Additionally, prepositions “through” and “to” used in enumeration have been used in the Czech series, depending on the choice of speaker narrating the unit's exercises. To “have a shower” and “to take a shower” have also appeared in the *Bloggers* textbooks, this time,

⁶⁴ Paul Baker, *American and British English: Divided by a Common Language?*, 2017

however, separately without an explicit distinction. In comparison to vocabulary, the distinction between the varieties was not as pronounced.

6.2.4 Pronunciation

Regarding variety of accents, all listening exercises in textbooks of *Project* series were narrated by native English (British) speakers. *Bloggers*, on the other hand, alternated between British and American sounding speaker. In general, the recordings in *Project* series rarely allowed for other than English accents, even when the lines were supposedly spoken by foreigners, such as Juraj from Slovakia or Guang from Thailand, whose pronunciation did not carry any traces of a foreign accent (Project, Level 1, p.45). This stood in a stark contrast to *Bloggers* series, where the speakers were bilingual children whose pronunciation was authentic, albeit with minor mistakes. In Project, Level 3 several new accents were briefly introduced, more specifically New Zealand, Welsh, Northern Irish and Scottish. Throughout the *Bloggers* series, children speaking with an American and those with British accent appeared in an equal measure.

6.2.5 Pragmatics

Despite having forgone analysing differences between the varieties in this language system given its complexity and absence in the questionnaire, this topic came to relevance in this analysis. In textbook *Bloggers 4* (pp.89-93, 96-97), a unit was dedicated to British culture and stereotypes, later compared to customs and people's behaviour in the United States and the Czech Republic. The stereotypes did not concern only people's preferences or typical behaviour, but also their manner of speech (politeness versus straight-forwardness, approaches to small talk or the use of sarcasm).

In a subsequent role-play game, pupils were asked to create a dialogue between a local and a tourist. This meant pupils were challenged to actively use the acquired knowledge about the nationalities in question and correspondingly adjust their speech, e.g., via the degree of formality or the choice of vocabulary.

In spite of the fact that the exercises also included Czech stereotypes, and the book appealed to the readers to approach these generalisations critically, such practice could be seen as insensitive or offensive in heterogenous multi-cultural classes. Nevertheless, the differences between the analysed varieties were practiced to an unexpected extent, exceeding the expectations of the author of this thesis of what can be integrated into teaching English to lower-secondary pupils.

6.2.6 Background studies

The contrast was also observed in background studies or general references to anything USA-related. In the first book *Project Level 1*, only isolated pieces of information were dedicated to American background studies. If it did, indeed, mention other countries, it was usually parts of Great Britain or Commonwealth.

In *Bloggers* series, especially textbook *Bloggers 2*, many unit topics either focused on American cities and holidays, customs or referred to popular American figures. Additionally, the section of extra reading in *Bloggers* offered extracts of original works by American writers. Topic of several units included background studies about other English-speaking countries, mainly Canada, Scotland, Ireland.

It is also worth mentioning that *Bloggers* series explained cultural differences between Anglophone countries and the Czech Republic. For instance, an entire section was dedicated to comparison of units (metric vs imperial) or the use of decimal points (*Bloggers 4*, p. 28).

6.2.7 Accuracy

While it was not initially mentioned as a criterion relevant to the analysis, it must be noted that in a few instances the *Bloggers* series contained mistakes in grammar such as “less cars” instead of “fewer cars” (*Bloggers 4*, p.34) – which, paradoxically, appeared in the unit where this grammar had been previously explained – or in vocabulary where pupils learned a term “sledge dog”. This expression could be found neither in Oxford Dictionary nor in Cambridge Dictionary, both offering an entry “sled dog” instead. British and American expressions sometimes appear with the same unit without distinction, such as “fill in a form” and “fill out a form” (see Appendix 2, Table 2.4). Additionally, the recordings for listening exercised contained inaccuracies in pronunciation in a small number of cases. However, seeing as *Bloggers* was released in 2021 and it is the first edition, revisions can be made in future.

7 IN-SCHOOL RESEARCH

Unfortunately, some of the approached teachers did not respond to the e-mail inquiring their participation in questionnaire completion and the follow-up pronunciation testing, most likely due to ongoing problematic situation with Covid-19. As a result, the research only involved two grammar schools: Gymnázium Česká Lípa and Gymnázium, Olomouc, Čajkovského 9. Gymnázium Čajkovského. The pupils attended the 4th grade of 8-year-study programme and the 2nd grade in bilingual 6-year-study programme respectively. Additionally, results from a testing subject, a pupil of the 9th grade, were included. In total, 54 pupils took part in the online questionnaire and 50 in pronunciation test.

7.1 Hypotheses

Based on the research questions, following hypotheses have been formulated.

H1: The use of British textbooks will result in lower incidence of AmE in spelling and grammar.

H2: Watching US series regularly will influence incidence of AmE in selected language systems.

H3: Playing English-written books will influence higher incidence of AmE in selected language systems.

H4: Reading English-written books will influence higher incidence of AmE in selected language systems.

H5: Following English-speaking personalities on social media will influence higher incidence of AmE in selected language systems.

H6: The manner of watching US series influences pupils' performance in a listening test.

H7: Playing English-written books will influence higher incidence of AmE in selected language systems.

7.2 Results

The first question in the questionnaire's asked about pupils' average time spent in contact with English. 24 pupils (44.4%) claimed they spent between 45 minutes to 2 hours (daily) and 20 students (37.0%) stated they spent more than 2 hours with English (see Appendix 5, Figure 5.1). To compare with contact in English at school timetables of both classrooms were checked; each class had three 45-minute-long lessons a week. Although the question emphasised it focuses on pupils' free time (outside the school environment, weekend included), it did not explicitly exclude activities such as studying or doing homework. Nevertheless, it can be inferred that pupils in general spend more time with English outside school.

7.2.1 Vocabulary

The section of vocabulary was divided into two parts; the first one tested unbiased preference and knowledge of common American lexical items among pupils and the second part tried to assess which variety was prevalent in students' present-day vocabulary.

First, the participants were asked to choose from the available options the expression they personally used more frequently. Pupils' preference for the American variety was found in 4 out of 5 expressions.

In Czech-to-English translations the task was to type a word or a full sentence which contained the required expression. Unfortunately, only 2 out of 4 expressions presented results that could be regarded as relevant to the research. With an expression *fronta*, where marked translations were either *queue* (BrE) or *line* (AmE), 14 pupils left the answer blank and other 14 translated this expression into English as a neutral word, mostly entering the word *crowd* or *row*. When translating the sentence with an expression *gymnázium*, 24 opted for the false friend variant *gymnasium* and 5 skipped this question. Having considered the overall input insufficient to unequivocally prove or disprove pupils' preference for one of the varieties, respective percentages have not been included in the final count.

The data showed that American lexicon was favoured by pupils by 64.29% (see Appendix 4, Table 4.1). Specifically, pupils opted for lexical items *pharmacy/drugstore*, *pants*, *elevator* and *closet* more frequently than for their British counterparts. Popularity of the last word could be explained with the rise of LGBTQ+ activism and overall openness to related topics resulting in the expressions "to come out of closet" or "a closeted person" becoming more common on social media.

Out of 52 pupils who had answered minimum of 75% relevant questions 30 (57.69%) showed preference for AmE and for remaining 22 pupils AmE was not proved to be the dominant variety. Comparison of mean value of AmE representation in vocabulary among pupils (52.93%) and median value, which was slightly higher (57.14%), along with the above-mentioned results supports the hypothesis only partially, in that incidence of AmE would be more prevalent than spelling.

It can be observed that pupils were more polarised in usage of AmE and BrE vocabulary – the percentage of only one pupil could be classified as the "grey zone", having scored exactly 50% in AmE preference. This means that more than a half of inquired preferred AmE and the rest favoured the British variety, rather than using both varieties evenly from which it can be inferred that pupils were more consistent in their preference. Nevertheless, AmE dominated in this category.

As for dominance of AmE in present-day vocabulary among pupils, it proved to be even more prevalent. In comparison of 10 informal expressions – 5 per variety – respondents on average selected more American lexical items as part of their vocabulary (65.56% to 32.22%). While 4 out of 5 informal American expressions were selected by more than a half of pupils, in the opposite group only one expression managed to exceed 50% mark – the expression *fit* (55.56%).

From the data collected it can be determined that pupils preferred American variety in both, their general and present-day vocabulary.

7.2.2 Spelling

Despite all efforts, unexpected problems arose with questionnaire completion. Given the medium for completion of the questionnaire which most pupils had opted for was a mobile phone, the default language of auto-correction changed some of the entries without pupils' knowledge. This phenomenon was detected in questionnaires filled in by pupils from bilingual grammar school whose second teaching language was Spanish, as the words that appeared in the translation were Spanish expressions, as well as in grammar school in Česká Lípa where the entries were changed into Czech expressions. Fortunately, there were only a few isolated cases.

Except for one question, pupils were asked to provide their own translation of sentences where their spelling preference could have been detected. As expected, the data showed that although pupils' spelling was affected by AmE, it did not account to more than 50%, more specifically 39.72% (see Appendix 4, Table 4.3). This value was the lowest of all language systems. Nevertheless, pupils were very inconsistent in their spelling; they frequently alternated between the varieties, spelling the words *center* and *theatre* or *favourite color*.

Spelling among pupils of English is seemingly either British or mixed, but rarely distinctly American. Evidence for this claim is provided by the overview chart for individual pupils' results (Appendix 4, Table 4.7). Out of 53 pupils who had managed to answer minimum of 75% questions, 45 (84.9%) achieved less than 50% in AmE preference with only 8 pupils scoring above 50%.

These findings are in accordance with the incidence of American spelling found in analysed textbooks, as this variety was not frequent in either of the series. The expectation that incidence of AmE in spelling would be lower than in vocabulary and pronunciation turned out to be true.

7.2.3 Grammar

The hypothesis predicted that spelling would showcase lower occurrence of AmE provided the schools use British textbooks. Yet grammar, to which the same reasoning had been applied in the hypothesis, has shown predilection for the American variety among pupils.

In 3 cases children opted for American variant by a significant margin. The construction *to take a shower* as opposed to *have a shower* was chosen by 88.89% of pupils (see Appendix 4, Table 4.4). Similarly, the regular past tense of verbs *spill* and *burn* was more often selected than its irregular British counterpart (78.85%). 86.79% of pupils also decided for the verb *have* rather than *have got* when creating English translation for a Czech sentence.

Probably the most surprising result, although not as substantial in contrast to first three cases, turned out to be the preference for the option *has gotten sad* over British *has got sad* (68.00%). Seeing as irregular verbs are a topic practiced at schools and pupils memorise them predominantly from the charts available in textbooks or workbooks, the incidence of the American option to this extent was unexpected.

As for the use of present perfect in translations, the children's preference varied based on the construction required. Pupils were more likely to use present perfect with construction "never [before]" in comparison to "just", where they opted for past simple essentially twice as often (35.56% vs 69.05%). Since pupils used present perfect at least once, it cannot be argued that the second result was influenced by their lack of knowledge or insufficient practice of this tense at school. However, influence of L1

Pupils also checked the box *shall* as being part of their English less often (35.19%), indicating they replace this modal verb with others, presumably with *will* and *should*, as is typical for AmE. This supports the claim this construction appears to be outdated and not too relevant to pupils nowadays.

Apart from the use present perfect, only one example of grammar differences – the use of prepositions in the expression *on the weekend* – received lower score, more specifically 11.11%. Overall preference for AmE was 62.88%, the second highest out of all the language systems. In terms of individual results, 22 pupils preferred BrE (scored less than 50% in AmE preference in grammar) and remaining 32 favoured the opposite variety (see Appendix 4, Table 4.4)

This unexpected outcome of pupils' preference for AmE can be explained by the influence via spoken word, which stands in a stark contrast to spelling which relies solely on the written medium.

7.2.4 Pronunciation

The collected data showed surprising results in pronunciation. The incidence was 49.61%, with the highest standard variation (0.31), meaning there were several differences between certain aspects of pronunciation and the overall usage of both varieties was balanced (see Appendix 4, Table 4.5). For illustration, pupils preferred British /ɑ:/ sound over American /æ/ sound in all cases, except for word *can't* (54.00%), and they likewise opted for phoneme /ɒ/ instead of /ɑ:/ in all expressions, sans one: *Oh my God!* (76.00%); however, all words which contained the letter r were pronounced rhotacized. For the most part, pupils pronounced the aspirated /t/ instead of the flapped variety/t/, again, with one exception: *water* (51.02%).

The first hypothesis that AmE would be favoured in vocabulary and pronunciation over grammar and spelling was revealed to be true only in part, seeing as grammar achieved highest incidence of AmE in individual pupils' results and second highest in overall incidence and pronunciation, conversely, did not cross 50% mark.

Regarding results per individual pupil, the incidence of AmE was distributed evenly; out of 50 pupils who participated in reading of the sentences, 25 read the sentences with an accent akin to RP and pronunciation of other 25 reminded GA (see Appendix 4, Table 4.7). The highest preference for AmE was 81.48% (the lowest top value out of all categories, with spelling and vocabulary having reached 100%). On the other hand, based on their performance, 11 pupils fall into the "grey zone", meaning their score was between 45% to 55%.

It is up to discussion whether the lower incidence of AmE compared to grammar or vocabulary can be explained with insufficient exposure in recordings for listening or pupils' preference for the British-like sound. In the listening test, pupils incorrectly assigned the English variety to the American speaker more frequently than to the British one.

It is also worth mentioning pupils frequently made a choice in pronunciation that would resemble the sound of the specific phoneme in Czech. In other words, pupils may have opted for the same strategy as in reading in Czech language – *o* as /o/, *a* as /a:/ and treat all expressions with /r/ as rhotic. Additionally, in the reading of the word *new* essentially all pupils opted for the phoneme /ɲ/ rather than /nj/, the former being part of Czech phonemic system. Nevertheless, the impact of AmE has been confirmed.

7.2.5 Mistakes

This section was divided into three categories: regular mistakes, spelling mistakes, and interferential mistakes. Unanswered questions or incomplete translations were regarded as

regular mistakes seeing as the aim was to assess “correctness” rather than explicit mistakes pupils had made.

The examination of regular mistakes focused on incorrect use of tenses, their structure, the use articles with uncountable nouns and others. As for incorrect translation of individual expressions, these were likewise part of this analysis, except for interreferential mistakes as these were analysed separately. After applying Chi-squared test to see if there is dependency between the values, no null hypothesis was rejected.

Secondly, incidence of interferential mistakes, or false friends, was analysed. The questions in the questionnaire included 5 expressions that are frequently translated incorrectly between the languages due to orthographic similarities, specifically 1 English and 4 Czech expressions. Results are available in Appendix 6, Table 6.18.

As for the back-translation, the respondents were asked to translate word “apartment” into Czech, and 26 pupils opted for the false friend variant “apartmá” (suite) instead of “byt” (flat). Out of remaining 4 expressions, 3 were part of the vocabulary test, mentioned in the section 8.2.1 Vocabulary.

“Front” – the false friend to the Czech expression “fronta” – overall appeared 4 times in the questionnaire and aside from the expected translations (American “line” and British “queue”), the words “crowd” or a “row” also appeared. However, the expression was relatively unknown as the number of answers given was too low.

The second expression “gymnázium” fared differently. The main aim was to discover which of the two variants would be chosen more often: American “high school” or British “grammar school”. Instead, it was incorrectly translated as “gymnasium” by 21 pupils. This comes as a surprise as both classes which participated in the research were based in grammar schools.

“Guma” – the third Czech expression was translated as “eraser” by 6 pupils, 39 opted for British variant “rubber”, which was the highest number for any British variant in the section (see Appendix 4, Table 4.1). Only 4 pupils had made the interferential mistake and translated the expression as “gum”.

Likewise, the last expression “zkontrolovat” was translated correctly as “check” almost entirely as only 5 pupils entered the expression “control”.

Regarding relationship between incidence of AmE and making interferential mistakes, 4 Chi-squared tests were conducted, none of which rejected the null hypothesis (see Appendix 6, Tables 6.19-6.22).

Lastly, spelling mistakes were analysed. Results are available in Appendix 6, Tables 6.23-6.26. Similarly to above-mentioned results, the sample was too small and the Chi-squared tests did not reject the null hypothesis that the frequencies were distributed arbitrarily.

It could be thus concluded that making mistakes is not dependant on preference in variety of English, however, in light of other conducted tests, the sample is considered too low to make such claims.

7.2.6 Individual results – overview

Appendix 4, Table 4.7 offers an overview of the results of incidence language systems. As has been mentioned in the previous sections, grammar and vocabulary had the highest incidence of AmE among language systems, followed by pronunciation and spelling. In spelling only 8 pupils preferred AmE. It must be noted, however, that threshold value 50% was assigned to BrE; had it been included in the count, the number of pupils whose spelling is predominantly American would rise to 21.

As per individual results, 5 pupils out of 54 did not show preference for AmE in any of the language systems. The preference for least one language system was found in 19 pupils. Preference for AmE in vocabulary and grammar was present in 24 pupils. One pupil showcased dominance of AmE in all tested categories.

Based on the collected data, it is clear influence of AmE is undeniable.

7.2.7 Listening comprehension

This part of questionnaire was logistically most difficult to manage, as it required quiet environment with minimum disruptive elements to allowed for unbiased results. In this section children were asked to listen to a video where two people carried a short conversation, each a native speaker of one variety of English. Upon playing the video, pupils' task was to fill in the gaps based on the recording. After completing the exercise, they were asked to subjectively evaluate comprehensibility of each speaker and, finally, match their accent to the variety of English they believed the speaker was using.

In terms of successful filling in a correct expression by respondents, there was a minor difference between assessing the American and British speaker. Pupils correctly completed the words spoken by the British speaker on average by 93.79% and by the American by 92.41% (see Appendix 4, Table 4.4). Regarding speakers' comprehensibility, pupils rated accent of British native speaker with value 3.98 while their American colleague was given 4.13. The last task, matching the English variety with the speaker, produced a surprising result. Pupils

correctly assessed British speaker by 85.19% of pupils; the accent of the American speaker, on the other hand, was correctly guessed by only 74.07%.

7.2.8 Influence of watching American TV Series

Out of 54 pupils, 35 (64.8%) stated they watch American TV series regularly (Appendix 5, Figure 5.3). When asked about their preference for watching English-spoken films and TV series, the most popular option was “with English subtitles” which amassed 23 answers (42.6%), followed by “with Czech subtitles” chosen 13 times (29.6%), with Czech dubbing receiving the lowest score (see Appendix 5, Figure 5.4).

Unfortunately, none of four conducted Chi-squared tests could reject the null hypothesis, meaning the relation between watching US TV series and incidence of AmE in pupils’ vocabulary, spelling, grammar and pronunciation could not be proved, nor disproved. In other words, the data collected from this questionnaire did not confirm the pre-stated research hypothesis because the hypothesis that the distribution of entered values was arbitrary could not be eliminated (see Appendix 6, Tables 6.1-6.4)

Based on the results from Table 6.17 in Appendix 6, it can be inferred that watching US TV series with English subtitles on regular basis may have a positive impact on pupils’ listening skills. Not only was this group successful with accent matching, but it also achieved highest score in overall fill-in-the-gaps exercise in the questionnaire (92.50%). Surprisingly, those who stated they watch US shows without any subtitles had more difficulties in entering correct words spoken by the American native speaker; on the other hand, their personal rating of accents’ comprehensibility reached the highest value (4.80 for BrE and 4.60 for AmE).

Pupils who claimed they watch US series with Czech subtitles fared the worst in all aspects; they struggled with completing the exercise focused on their listening skills, they rated the accents’ understandability with the lowest marks, and they matched the speaker to their accent variety incorrectly more frequently than the other groups.

The group of pupils who stated they do not watch American TV series regularly was the most numerous and diverse one: 3 pupils stated they watch English-spoken films and series without subtitles, 7 stated they prefer English subtitles, 4 claimed they choose Czech subtitles and 5 admitted they prefer Czech dubbing. Their results were not subpar – they performed better than the pupils who favour watching American TV series with Czech subtitles. When compared to the results achieved by the rest of the respondents it, nevertheless, appears that regular watching American TV shows with English subtitles or without any at all may be beneficial to listening skills.

7.2.9 Influence of playing games

Game playing turned out to be the most favoured English-involving hobby among pupils' leisure-time activities. Out of 54 children, 45 (83.3%) stated they engage in playing games after school (see Appendix 5, Figure 5). In this group, 34 mentioned more than two games they play. The most frequently selected games were Among Us (24), Minecraft (24) and Call of Duty (10); the answer most often added into the list by pupils was the game Valorant (6).

As in other analysed outside influences, the dependency between the variable playing games and the variable higher incidence of AmE in pupils' language systems could not be proved nor rejected (see Appendix 6, Tables 6.5-6.8).

Regarding relationship between playing games and incidence of spelling mistakes, the applied Chi-squared test did not reject null hypothesis, and by extension the independency of values (see Appendix 6, Table 6.26).

7.2.10 Influence of reading books and comic books

Based on the questionnaire results, pupils did not show overt interest in reading English-written books and comic book as 55.6% do not read either. As was expected, reading was the least popular free-time activity related to English analysed in this research. Only 3 pupils (5.6%) mentioned they read comic books as well as books, 10 pupils (18.5%) stated they read comic books and manga exclusively, and 11 pupils (20.4%) claimed they only read English-written books (Appendix 5, Figure 4). From the entered names, 6 out of 11 authors were Americans, with Colleen Hoover appearing 3 times. Among 4 British writers, the author of Harry Potter series J.K. Rowling was, similarly, mentioned 3 times. One entry also included an Irish writer: Sally Rooney. The list consisted of not only contemporary authors, but also classic ones, such as Agatha Christie or Edgar Allan Poe.

Unfortunately, not all answers to this question included pupils' preferred writer as some could not recall their names. Despite thus, the sample of only American authors was too small to infer any conclusive statement regarding incidence of AmE in selected language systems. It is up to debate, whether the results would be different if the question had offered names of some of the popular English-writing authors in a checkbox. Nevertheless, the research questions were transformed due to this to analyse a possible link between said incidence and reading English-written books in general.

To all four hypotheses Chi-squared tests of independence had been applied to, and based on their outcomes, all null hypotheses concerning spelling were not rejected (see Appendix 6, Tables 12-15).

7.2.11 Influence of following English-speaking celebrities on social media

Similarly to reading books, this question was often left without an answer. This may have been caused by both questions being open-ended in contrast to questions about playing games or watching US series, where several options had been provided (see Appendix 3). Only 30 pupils (55.6%) claimed they followed English-speaking people on some of the platforms, and out of remaining 24, only 2 expressed explicit disagreement with the question and 22 left no answer; in the statistics, all have been ascribed to the answer “no” (see Appendix 5, Figure 6).

From the names entered into the questionnaire, 27 personalities were Americans and 12 were British, more precisely English. In the group of non-American and non-English native speakers, the most numerous nationalities in terms of different names mentioned were Canadian (7) and Australian (4). Although various non-native speakers were mentioned rarely – Dutch and Swedish had two entries each – the name of the Swedish celebrity PewDiePie has appeared three times. Pupils’ list of their followed internet personalities often included a mix of nationalities, meaning no direct link between AmE and the influence of following exclusively American celebrities could have been drawn; therefore, the research question was transformed to analyse influence of English-speaking celebrities in general, as had been the case with reading English-written books.

Regarding influence on selected language systems, again, no null hypothesis could be rejected after applying Chi-squared tests (Appendix 6, Tables 13-16), and thus no definite conclusion could be made in that regard.

8 CONCLUSION

Based on the results collected from the analysis it can be concluded that incidence of AmE in series of coursebooks adapted for Czech environment was far more frequent when compared to the British publisher. The most affected areas were vocabulary, where books and workbooks often drew attention to these differences, and pronunciation, where the selected Czech textbooks provided more diversity in accents. Regarding background studies, *Project* series focused mostly on Great Britain, by extension Commonwealth, but references to the US were very limited in comparison to *Bloggers*. Additionally, the differences between American and British speakers were accentuated in discourse as well.

Regarding incidence of AmE in pupils' individual language systems, the results showed prevalence of this variety in vocabulary and grammar. The use of each variety of English in the phonetic analysis was balanced, however, pupils' pronunciation could be described as a hybrid of American and British accent. Expected consistency due to authentic input was thus refuted. The least affected out of tested categories was spelling. Nevertheless, similarly to pronunciation, pupils tended to mix the varieties, often within a rule. The hypothesis that spelling and grammar would show lesser incidence of AmE due to school practise with British textbooks was confirmed only partially, seeing as pupils favoured the American variety in the grammar section more, possibly due to exposure to written and spoken form.

Based on the analysis of incidence of AmE in the *Project* series that turned out to be limited and pupils' result, it can be stated that the influence of AmE has been proved to be substantial despite BrE being taught at school with additional materials. Influence of Czech language, seen for example in translation of present perfect sentences or in interferential mistakes, cannot be overlooked and to ascribe all abnormalities solely to impact of American culture would be a fallacy.

Among the external influences, playing games in English and watching US series regularly were the most frequently selected options; reading English-written books or comic books on the other hand was not popular.

Positive effects of incidental learning were observed in relation to watching US TV series regularly. Pupils who claimed they watched American series with English subtitles performed better than those who had stated they used Czech subtitles.

Negative effects of acquiring English outside the school environment such as making mistakes – interferential, spelling or otherwise – are seemingly unrelated to a language variety. However, on account of a low sample, further research is required. One of the issues that do not

have to necessarily cause problems in communication but may be regarded as such was pupils' inconsistency in adhering to one variety. This mixing of varieties was evident particularly in spelling and pronunciation.

Unfortunately, the sample of 54 pupils turned out to be insufficient for the research and it was likely for this reason why all Chi-squared tests did not reject null hypotheses, hence why almost no direct relationship could be inferred between pupils' use of language and their free-time. What also must be taken into account is the lack of representation of 9th graders from lower-secondary school. Seeing as both schools which participated in the research were grammar schools, where pupils are generally assumed to perform above the average, the results, conclusions and suggestions may concern only a specific type of school.

Upon the data assessment and textbook analysis, the trend of growing influence of AmE or World English can no longer be dismissed. It is in pupils' and teachers' best interest that learning English at school and natural acquisition of the language elsewhere do not clash but complement and support each other. To achieve such symbiotic state, the use of non-British – American, Czech or other – textbooks could be beneficial, and the *Bloggers* series may be the foundation for this change.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Differences between AmE and BrE in general vocabulary

Table 1.1: AmE vs. BrE – Town and Transportation

| TOWN AND TRANSPORTATION | |
|--------------------------------|-------------------------|
| <i>British English</i> | <i>American English</i> |
| car park | parking lot |
| cashpoint/ cash dispenser | ATM |
| chemist(‘s) | drug store/ pharmacy |
| crossroad | intersection |
| flat | apartment |
| garden | backyard |
| lift | elevator |
| lorry | truck |
| pavement | sidewalk |
| petrol | gas |
| shop | store |

Table 1.2: AmE vs. BrE – Food & Cooking

| FOOD & COOKING | |
|---------------------------|-------------------------|
| <i>British English</i> | <i>American English</i> |
| aubergine | eggplant |
| beetroot | beet |
| biscuit | cookie |
| candyfloss | cotton candy |
| chips | (French) fries |
| cooker | stove |
| courgette | zucchini |
| cutlery | silverware |
| ice-lolly | popsicle |
| sweets | candy |

Table 1.3: AmE vs. BrE – School

| SCHOOL | |
|------------------------|-------------------------|
| <i>British English</i> | <i>American English</i> |
| headmaster | principal |
| holiday | vacation |
| mark | grade |
| rubber | eraser |
| timetable | schedule |

Table 1.4: AmE vs. BrE – Clothes

| CLOTHES | |
|------------------------|-------------------------|
| <i>British English</i> | <i>American English</i> |
| braces | suspenders |
| dinner jacket | tuxedo |
| dressing gown | bath robe |
| jumper | sweater |
| trousers | pants |
| swimming suit | bathing suit |
| wardrobe | closet |
| zip | zipper |

Table 1.5: AmE vs. BrE – Miscellaneous

| MISCELLANEOUS | |
|------------------------|-------------------------|
| <i>British English</i> | <i>American English</i> |
| torch | flashlight |
| draw | tie |
| queue | line |
| post | mail |
| postcode | zip code |
| pocket money | allowance |
| Rubbish | trash |
| CV | resume |

Source: (<https://www.britishcouncilfoundation.id/en/english/articles/british-and-american-english>, <https://www.englishclub.com/vocabulary/british-american.htm>)

Appendix 2: Textbook comparison – content analysis

Table 2.1: Project, Level 1 vs Bloggers 1

| | Project 4 th edition, Level 1 | Bloggers 1 |
|---------------------|---|--|
| AmE vocabulary | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • zero (p.8) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>What's up</i> (p.11) • <i>guys</i> (p.11) • <i>eraser</i> (p.18) • <i>last name</i> (p.28) • <i>cab/ taxi</i> (p.40) • <i>backyard/ garden</i> (p.74) • <i>bathub</i> (p.76) • <i>apartment</i> (pp.78,113) • <i>trash</i> (p.80) • <i>fall/ autumn</i> (p.91) • <i>vest</i> [AmE] (p.92) • <i>bookshop/ bookstore</i> (p.94) • <i>mall/ shopping centre</i> (p.94) • <i>sweater</i> (p.97) • <i>man</i> (p.112) • <i>closet</i> (p.112) • <i>cart</i> (p.112) • <i>cookie</i> (p.113) • <i>store</i> (p.115) |
| AmE spelling | | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>neighborhood</i> (pp.112-113) • <i>harbor</i> (pp.113-114) • <i>favorite</i> (p.115) |
| AmE grammar | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>has</i> (p. 87) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>have; do not have</i> (pp.20, 60, 73, 112-113) • <i>burned</i> (p.114) |
| AmE pronunciation | | American accents of teachers (narrators) and children throughout the textbook |
| US Land and Culture | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Atlantic Ocean, North America, Rocky Mountains, Mississippi River (p.25) • baseball, basketball, American football, ice hockey (p.48) • American continent, New York, Hollywood (p. 82) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • An American family – New York (p.41) • L.A. (p.73) • American authors (pp.112, 115-116) • Map of the USA (p.117) • Map of English-speaking world (p.118) |

Table 2.2: Project, Level 2 vs Bloggers 2

| | Project 4th edition, Level 2 | Bloggers 2 |
|---------------------|--|---|
| AmE vocabulary | -- | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Unit 0 – <i>zero</i> (pp.10-23) • <i>soccer</i>/ football (p.24) • <i>cookie</i> (p.43) / gingerbread biscuits (p.106) • <i>crisps</i> and <i>French fries</i> (p.44) • <i>line</i> [queue] (p.50) • a <i>can</i> of beans (p.52) • <i>awesome</i> (p.76) • <i>cab</i>/ taxi (p.79) • film/<i>movie</i> (p.92) • <i>fall</i> (p.112) • <i>principal</i> (p.112) |
| AmE spelling | -- | -- |
| AmE pronunciation | | American accents of teachers (narrators) and children throughout the textbook |
| AmE grammar | -- | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • throughout the book – “options a <i>to/through</i> f” [spoken] • has got vs <i>has</i> (p.66) |
| US Land and Culture | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Independence Day/Thanksgiving – mentioned [spoken] (p.12) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sports in Canada and in the USA (pp.28-29) • New York City (pp.73, 78-79, 120) • Hollywood (p.88) • American actors/actress (p.101) • Thanksgiving (p.104) • Independence Day (p.110) • American writers (short mention) (pp.112-113, 115-116) • Map of the USA (p.117) • Map of English-speaking world (p.118) |
| | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Carl – Czech Rep. mentioned (p.11) • Tales from other countries – extra reading (pp. 82-87) | |

Table 2.3: Project, Level 3 vs Bloggers 3

| | Project 4th edition, Level 3 | Bloggers 3 |
|---------------------|---|---|
| AmE vocabulary | -- | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>movie</i> (p.20) • <i>French fries</i> (p.23) • <i>awesome</i> (p.34) • <i>candies, candy</i> (pp.58, 64, 66,114) • <i>biscuits / cookies</i> (p.58) • <i>gas station</i> (p.95) • <i>food cart</i> (p.106) |
| AmE spelling | -- | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>tire center</i> (tyre centre) (p.95) |
| AmE pronunciation | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • alternating stress in pronunciation of the word <i>weekend</i> (p.11) • American song (p.31) | American accents of teachers (narrators) and children throughout the textbook |
| | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • New Zealand accent (p.8) • Welsh, Scottish and Irish accent (p.40) | |
| AmE grammar | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>has</i> (p.29) • <i>had gotten</i> [spoken] (p.41) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>have</i> (p.114) • <i>learned / learnt</i> (p.45) • <i>taking a shower</i> (p.48) |
| US Land and Culture | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • North America, Central America (p.17) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Presidents of the USA (p. 13) • Mardi Gras (p.57) • Graduation in the US (p.60) • American holidays (pp.62-63) • The Pelican State (Louisiana) (p.72-75,79) • Mojave Desert, Yosemite (p.81) • 50 States – a song (p.115) • Map of the USA (p.117) |
| | | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Canada (p.25) • Canadian artists (p.30-31) • English-speaking countries: UK, USA, Canada, NZ, Australia (pp.104-11) • Map of English-speaking world (p.118) |

Table 2.4: Project, Level 4 vs Bloggers 4

| | Project 4th edition, Level 4 | Bloggers 4 |
|---------------------|--|---|
| AmE vocabulary | -- | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • biscuits / <i>cookies</i> (p.12) • jumper / <i>sweater</i> (p.18) • <i>downtown</i> (p.26) • <i>drugstore</i> (p.31) • <i>bartender</i> • consulting room/ <i>doctor's office</i> (p.81) • <i>pharmacy</i> (p.81) <i>closet</i> (p.105) • <i>truck</i> (p.105) • <i>trash</i> (p.112) |
| AmE spelling | -- | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • mum / <i>mom</i> (p.18) • colour / <i>color</i> (p.18) • neighbourhood / <i>neighborhood</i> (p.26) • programme / <i>program</i> (p.60) • a stomach ache / <i>a stomachache</i> (p. 76) • <i>civilize</i> (p.105) • <i>mom</i> (p.115) |
| AmE pronunciation | -- | American accents of teachers (narrators) and children throughout the textbook |
| AmE grammar | -- | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>take</i> showers (p.34) • fill in (p.61) / <i>fill out</i> (p.64) • I have got a health problem. / I <i>have</i> a health problem. (p.76) • I never <i>had</i> a headache like that before. (p.82) |
| US Land and Culture | -- | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Karl May – Winnetou (p.48) • Jack London – The Call of the Wild • Mark Twain – Tom Sawyer and Huckleberry Finn (p.105) • National Parks in the USA (p.107) • The Weird Kid (p.113) |
| | -- | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Canada, Vancouver (pp.26-30) • Australia vs. New Zealand (pp.106-107) • Monuments in English-speaking countries/ World (pp.110-111, 118) |

Appendix 3: Questionnaire – Czech version

1. Navštěvuji

- 9.třidu ZŠ
- 4. ročník na 8letém gymnáziu
- 2. ročník na 6letém gymnáziu

Angličtina ve volném čase (sekce 2 z 6)

1. Kolik času zhruba trávíte v kontaktu s angličtinou mimo školu (v průměru včetně víkendu)?

- méně než 45 minut denně
- od 45 minut denně do 2 hodin denně
- víc než 2 hodiny denně

2. Jak převážně sledujete anglické a americké filmy a seriály?

- s anglickými titulky
- s českými titulky
- bez titulků
- preferuji dabing

3. Pokud jste v předešlé odpovědi uvedli, že filmy a seriály sledujete v původním znění (s titulky nebo bez), vyberte, prosím, které americké seriály sledujete alespoň jednou týdně.

- Stranger Things
- Flash
- 13 Reasons Why
- Rick and Morty
- Mandalorian
- MCU (WandaVision, Loki, Punisher atd.)
- jiné _____
- Nesleduji americké seriály

4. Čtete anglicky psané komiksy, včetně mangy?

- ano
- ne

5. Čtete pravidelně knihy od anglicky píšících autorů? Pokud ano, uveďte jeho/její jméno.

6. Hrajete hry v angličtině? Pokud ano, vyberte, prosím, příklad(y) nebo uveďte vlastní.

- Minecraft
- Among Us
- Call of Duty
- Resident Evil
- Overwatch
- Cyberpunk 2077
- Fortnite
- The Last of Us
- jiné _____

7. Sledujete na Instagramu, YouTube neb TikToku anglicky mluvící osoby? Jestli ano, uveďte, prosím, jaké.

Výběr z možností (sekce 3 z 6)

1. Cestovali sami.

- They traveled alone.
- They travelled alone.

2. výtah

- lift
- elevator

3. Mary před půl hodinou rozlila kafe a spálila si prsty.

- Mary spilled her coffee and burned her fingers half an hour ago.
- Mary spilt her coffee and burnt her fingers half an hour ago.

4. šatník

- closet
- wardrobe

5. Rob zesmutněl.

- Rob has gotten sad.
- Rob has got sad.

6. o víkendu

- at the weekend
- on the weekend

7. lékárna

- drug store
- pharmacy
- chemist

8. osprchovat se

- have a shower
- take a shower

9. bramborové lupínky

- chips
- crisps

10. bankomat

- ATM
- cash dispenser
- cash machine

Překlad slov a vět (sekce 4 z 6)

1. **apartment (do češtiny)**

2. **pants (do češtiny)**

3. **centrum (do angličtiny)**

4. **organizovat (do angličtiny)**

5. **guma na gumování (angličtina)**

6. **fronta (v Kauflandu)**

7. **Mám dva lístky do divadla.**

8. **Bob ještě nikdy neviděl gymnázium.**

9. **Moje oblíbená barva je šedá.**

10. **Právě jsme zkontrolovali úkol z matematiky.**

Slovní zásoba (sekce 5 z 6)

- y'all
- shall
- bloody (zatracený, sakramentský)
- rubbish (špatný, neschopný)
- guys (lidi, děcka)
- freaking (zatracený, sakramentský)
- mate (kamarád, kámo)
- dude
- sound (vynikající)
- fit (atraktivní)
- My bad! (Moje chyba!)

Poslech (sekce 6 z 6)

1. Doplňte věty na základě poslechu z videa.

“Sorry about the _____.”

“It's not for cars, _____.”

“You sound like a _____.”

“I _____ the _____ last year.”

“_____, I studied too much Shakespeare in _____.”

“Absolutely, it's _____.”

“I'm really _____ from the office right now.”

“What did he want? Anything _____?”

2. Jak dobře bylo rozumět muži ve videu?

velmi špatně (1) (2) (3) (4) (5) velmi dobře

3. Jakou angličtinou podle Vás mluvil?

- britskou
- americkou
- nevím

4. Jak dobře bylo rozumět ženě ve videu?

velmi špatně (1) (2) (3) (4) (5) velmi dobře

5. Jakou angličtinou podle Vás mluvila?

- britskou
 - americkou
 - nevím
-

Test výslovnosti:

Oh my *God!* That's a *disaster*.

A *fast car* drove *past* us.

I'm *not* a *tourist*.

No *adults*, only children.

That's an *advertisement*.

Clean up *after* him, it's *dirty*.

I *can't* see.

That's *fair*.

I *forgot* my *glasses*.

She's *thirty*.

Oh *dear!*

Look! I've got a *new haircut*.

Have no *fear*.

Have some *water*.

Appendix 4: Questionnaire – Language systems/skills

Table 4.1: Incidence of AmE in general vocabulary

| AmE REPRESENTATION – GENERAL VOCABULARY | | | | | | |
|--|--------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|------------------------|----------------------------|------|
| Type | Expression | AmE option | Answers | Relevant answers | % AmE in all given answers | |
| choice | výtah | elevator | 53 (98.15%) | -- | 81.13 % | |
| choice | šatník | closet | 54 (100%) | -- | 55.6 % | |
| choice | lékárna | drug store | 54 (100%) | -- | 12.96% | 100% |
| | | pharmacy | | | 87.04% | |
| choice | bramborové lupínky | chips | 53 (98.15%) | -- | 64.15% | |
| choice | bankomat | ATM | 54 (100%) | -- | 42.59% | |
| translation | pants | kalhoty (trousers) | 53 (98.15%) | 52 (96.30%) | 94.34% | |
| translation | guma | eraser | 49 (90.74%) | 45 (83.33%) | 12.24% | |
| translation | fronta | line | 40 <i>(74.07%)</i> | 26 <i>(48.15 %)</i> | 45.00% | |
| translation | gymnázium | high school | 49 (90.74%) | 26 <i>(48.15 %)</i> | 12.24% | |
| Mean value (AmE preference in general vocabulary) | | | | | 64.29% | |
| Standard variation | | | | | 0.29 | |

Table 4.2: Incidence of AmE in present-day Vocabulary

| <i>American vocabulary</i> | | <i>British vocabulary</i> | |
|----------------------------|---------------|---------------------------|---------------|
| <i>y'all</i> | 48.15% | <i>bloody</i> | 25.93% |
| <i>guys</i> | 96.30% | <i>rubbish</i> (adj.) | 11.11% |
| <i>freaking</i> | 50.00% | <i>mate</i> | 38.89% |
| <i>dude</i> | 62.96% | <i>sound</i> | 29.63% |
| <i>My bad!</i> | 70.37% | <i>fit</i> | 55.56% |
| Mean value | 65.56% | | 32.22% |

Table 4.3: Incidence of AmE in spelling

| AmE REPRESENTATION – SPELLING | | | | | |
|--|-------------------|-------------------|----------------|-------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| Type | Expression | AmE option | Answers | Relevant answers | % AmE in all given answers |
| choice | cestovali | traveled | 54 (100%) | -- | 33.33 % |
| translation | centrum | center | 52 (96.30%) | 42 (77.78%) | 46.15 % |
| translation | organizovat | organize | 48 (88.89%) | 43 (79.63%) | 68.75% |
| translation | divadlo | theater | 48 (88.89%) | 43 (79.63%) | 12.24% |
| translation | oblíbená | favorite | 54 (100%) | 54 (100%) | 24.07% |
| translation | barva | color | 54 (100%) | 52 (96.30%) | 40.74% |
| translation | šedá | gray | 54 (100%) | 53 (98.15%) | 33.33% |
| translation | matematika | Maths | 49 (90.74%) | 44 (81.48%) | 59.18% |
| Mean value (AmE preference in spelling) | | | | | 39.72% |
| Standard variation | | | | | 0.19 |

Table 4.4: Listening comprehension

| Listening comprehension | | | Comprehensibility (assessment) | | Accent match | |
|--------------------------------|--------|------------|---------------------------------------|------|---------------------|--------|
| BrE | AmE | Altogether | BrE | AmE | BrE | AmE |
| 93.79% | 92.41% | 93.10% | 3.98 | 4.13 | 85.19% | 74.07% |

Table 4.4: Incidence of AmE in grammar

| AmE REPRESENTATION – GRAMMAR | | | | | |
|---|--------------------------|--------------------|----------------|------------------|----------------------------|
| Type | Expression | AmE option | Answers | Relevant answers | % AmE in all given answers |
| choice | o víkendu | on the weekend | 54 (100%) | -- | 11.11% |
| choice | osprchovat se | take a shower | 54 (100%) | -- | 88.89% |
| choice | rozlila a spálila | spilled and burned | 52 (88.89%) | -- | 78.85% |
| choice | zesmutněl | has gotten sad | 50 (92.60%) | -- | 68.00% |
| translation | mám | have | 53 (98.15%) | 53 (98.15%) | 86.79% |
| translation | právě jsme zkontrolovali | past simple | 50 (92.60%) | 42 (77.78%) | 64.00% |
| translation | ještě nikdy neviděl | past simple | 53 (98.15%) | 45 (83.33%) | 16.98% |
| choice | shall | no usage | 54 (100%) | -- | 64.81% |
| Mean value (AmE preference in grammar) | | | | | 59.93% |
| Standard variation | | | | | 0.28 |

Table 4.5: Incidence of AmE in pronunciation

| GA | Expression | Percentage | GA | Expression | Percentage |
|---|---------------|------------|---------------|------------|---------------|
| /gɑ:d/ | God | 76.00% | /fer/ | fair | 76.00% |
| /nɑ:t/ | not | 24.00% | /'her.kʌt/ | haircut | 91.67% |
| /fɔr'gʌt/ | forgot | 26.00% | /dɪr/ | dear | 87.23% |
| /gɑ:t/ | got | 34.00% | /'fɪr/ | fear | 91.49% |
| /dɪ'zæ.s.tər/ | disaster | 29.79% | /dɪ'zæ.s.tər/ | disaster | 93.88% |
| /fæst/ | fast | 12.00% | /kɑ:r/ | car | 67.35% |
| /pæst/ | past | 8.00% | /'æf.tər/ | after | 89.80% |
| /'æf.tər/ | after | 2.00% | /'dɜr.tɪ/ | dirty | 84.00% |
| /kænt/ | can't | 54.00% | /'θɜr.tɪ/ | thirty | 80.00% |
| /'glæs.əz/ | glasses | 0.00% | /wɑt.ər/ | water | 67.35% |
| /'tɔr.ɪst/ | tourist | 20.83% | /nu:/ | new | 4.08% |
| /ə'dʌlt/ | adult | 43.75% | /'dɜr.tɪ/ | dirty | 26.53% |
| /,ædvər'taɪzmənt/ | advertisement | 56.52% | /'θɜr.tɪ/ | thirty | 22.92% |
| Mean value (AmE preference in pronunciation) | | | | | 49.61% |
| Standard variation | | | | | 0.31 |

Table 4.6: Prevalence of AmE per student (overview)

| Language system | Number of pupils with AmE>50% | Representation |
|--------------------|-------------------------------|----------------|
| no language system | 5 | 9.26% |
| Vocabulary (V) | 6 | 11.11% |
| Grammar (G) | 5 | 9.26% |
| Spelling (S) | 2 | 3.70% |
| Pronunciation (P) | 6 | 11.11% |
| VG | 7 | 12.96% |
| VS | 1 | 1.85% |
| VP | 1 | 1.85% |
| SG | 0 | 0.00% |
| GP | 5 | 9.26% |
| SP | 1 | 1.85% |
| VGS | 3 | 5.56% |
| VSP | 0 | 0.00% |
| VGP | 11 | 20.37% |
| SGP | 0 | 0.00% |
| VSGP | 1 | 1.85% |
| total | 54 | 100.00% |

Table 4.7: Prevalence of AmE in language systems

| REPRESENTATION OF AME IN LANGUAGE SYSTEMS – OVERVIEW | | | | |
|--|------------|----------|---------|---------------|
| | Vocabulary | Spelling | Grammar | Pronunciation |
| relevant results (min.75% of answers) | 52/54 | 53/54 | 54/54 | 50/50 |
| AmE ≤ 50 % | 22 | 45 | 22 | 25 |
| AmE > 50 % | 30 | 8 | 32 | 25 |
| mean value | 52.93% | 38.89% | 59.25% | 48.48% |
| median value | 57.14% | 37.50% | 62.50% | 50.93% |
| standard variation | 0.17 | 0.19 | 0.17 | 0.12 |

Appendix 5: Questionnaire – Habits and free time

Figure 1: Time spent in contact with English outside the school

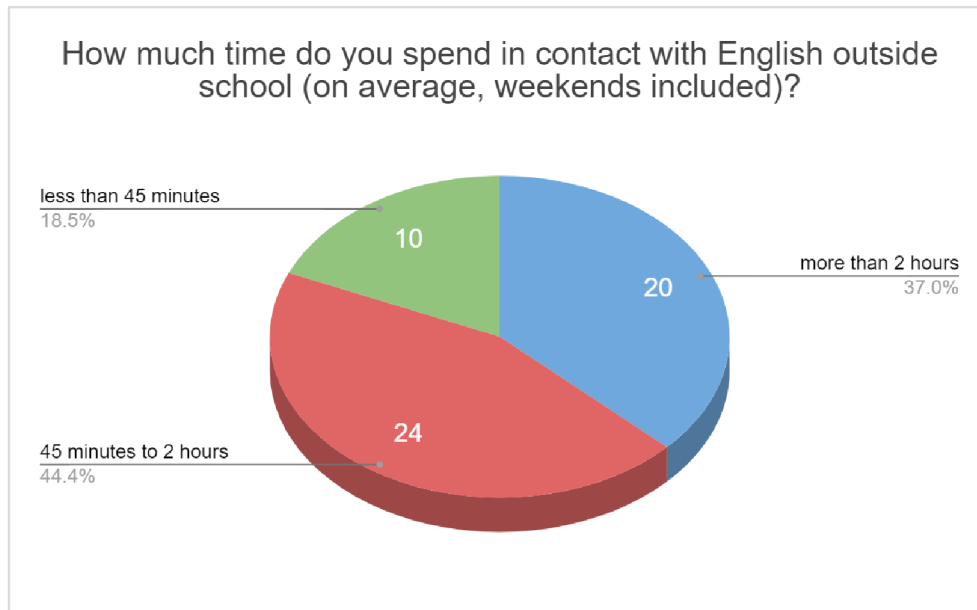


Figure 2: Manner of watching English-spoken series and films

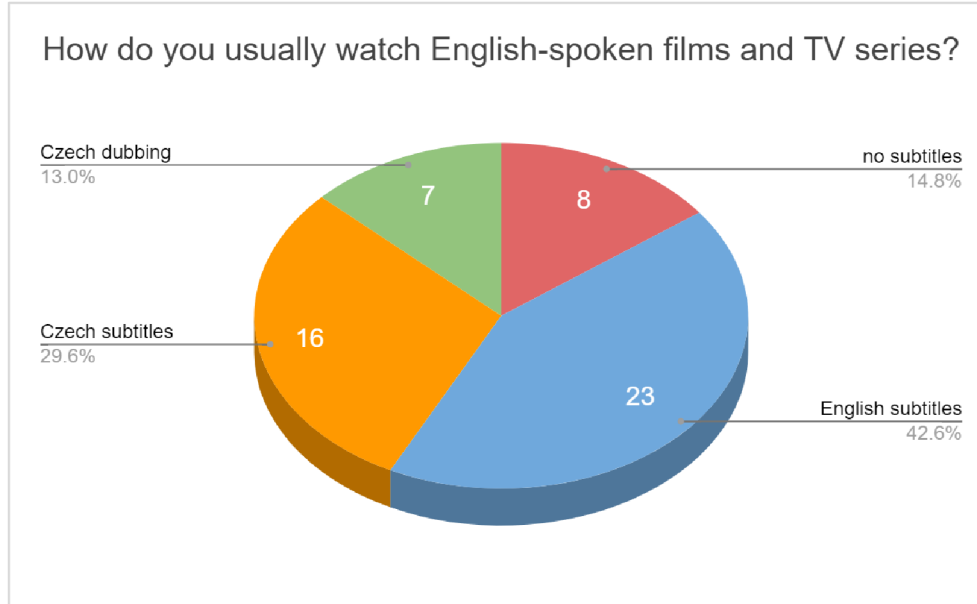


Figure 3: *Watching US series regularly*

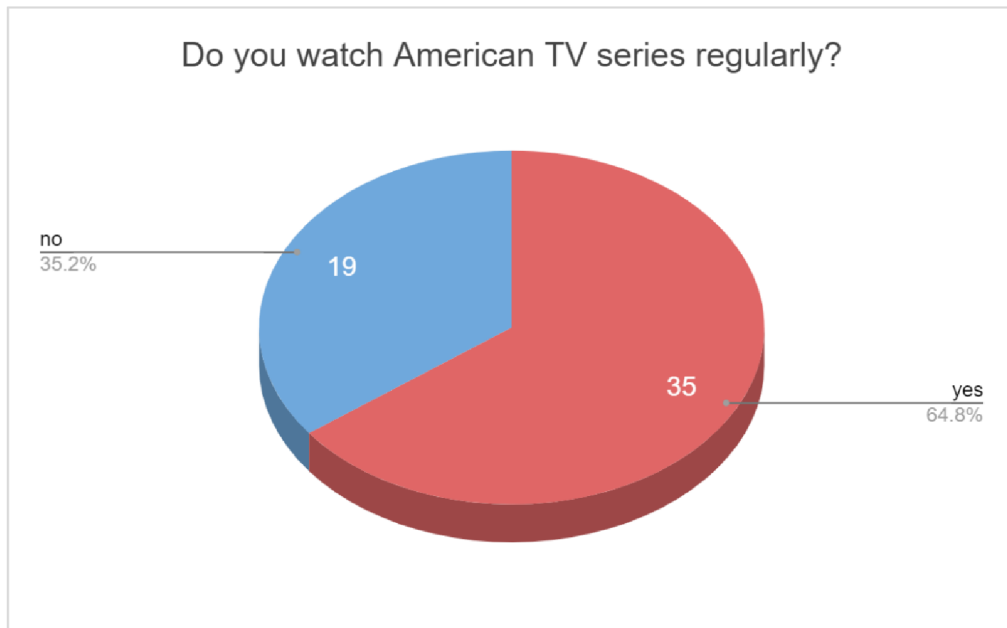


Figure 4: *Reading English-written books and comic books*

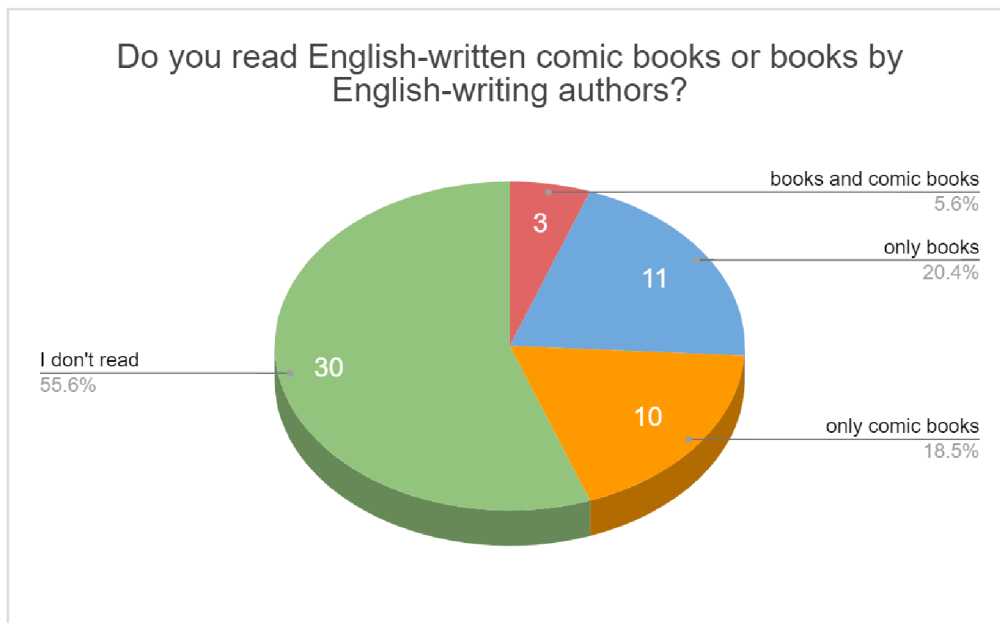


Figure 5: *Playing games in English*

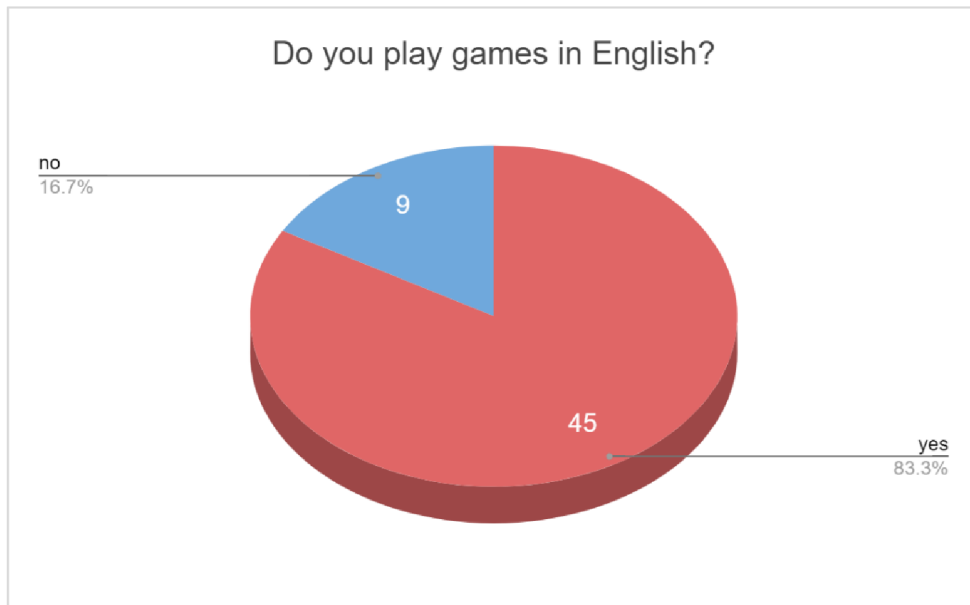
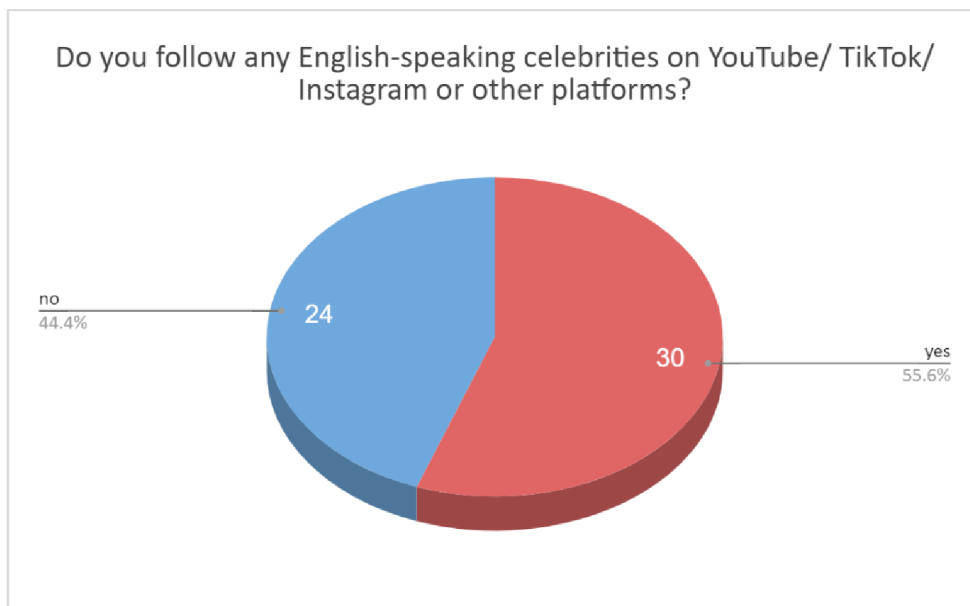


Figure 6: *Following English-speaking celebrities on social media*



Appendix 6: Questionnaire – Free-time activities vs. language systems

Table 6.1: Watching US series vs. AmE preference in vocabulary

| Watching US series | AmE preference in vocabulary (expressions) | | | | | | | total |
|--------------------|--|---|---|----|----|----|---|-------|
| | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | |
| yes | 0 | 1 | 5 | 10 | 13 | 5 | 1 | 35 |
| no | 0 | 0 | 3 | 3 | 5 | 5 | 1 | 17 |
| total | 0 | 1 | 8 | 13 | 18 | 10 | 2 | 52 |

Table 6.2: Watching US series vs. AmE preference in spelling

| Watching US series | AmE preference in spelling (expressions) | | | | | | | | | |
|--------------------|--|---|----|---|----|---|---|---|---|-------|
| | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | total |
| yes | 1 | 3 | 15 | 3 | 11 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 36 |
| no | 0 | 3 | 3 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 17 |
| total | 1 | 6 | 18 | 7 | 14 | 3 | 3 | 0 | 1 | 53 |

Table 6.3: Watching US series vs. AmE preference in grammar

| Watching US series | AmE preference in grammar (expressions) | | | | | | | | | |
|--------------------|---|---|---|---|----|----|----|---|---|-------|
| | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | total |
| yes | 0 | 0 | 4 | 2 | 6 | 11 | 8 | 4 | 0 | 35 |
| no | 0 | 0 | 2 | 4 | 5 | 3 | 4 | 1 | 0 | 19 |
| total | 0 | 0 | 6 | 6 | 11 | 14 | 12 | 5 | 0 | 54 |

Table 6.4: Watching US series vs. AmE preference in pronunciation

| Watching US series | AmE preference in pronunciation (percentage) | | | | | | total |
|--------------------|--|---------|---------|---------|----------|----|-------|
| | 0%-19% | 20%-39% | 40%-59% | 60%-79% | 80%-100% | | |
| yes | 0 | 11 | 26 | 3 | 1 | 41 | |
| no | 0 | 1 | 6 | 2 | 0 | 9 | |
| total | 0 | 12 | 32 | 5 | 1 | 50 | |

Table 6.5: Playing games vs AmE preference in vocabulary

| Playing games | AmE preference in vocabulary (expressions) | | | | | | | total |
|---------------|--|---|---|----|----|----|---|-------|
| | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | |
| yes | 0 | 1 | 8 | 9 | 16 | 10 | 1 | 45 |
| no | 0 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 7 |
| total | 0 | 1 | 8 | 13 | 18 | 10 | 2 | 52 |

Table 6.6: Playing games vs. AmE preference in spelling

| Playing games | AmE preference in spelling (expressions) | | | | | | | | | |
|---------------|--|---|----|---|----|---|---|---|---|-------|
| | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | total |
| Yes | 1 | 5 | 15 | 6 | 12 | 2 | 3 | 0 | 1 | 45 |
| No | 0 | 1 | 3 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 8 |
| Total | 1 | 6 | 18 | 7 | 14 | 3 | 3 | 0 | 1 | 53 |

Table 6.7: *Playing games vs. AmE preference in grammar*

| | AmE preference in grammar (expressions) | | | | | | | | | |
|---------------|---|---|---|---|----|----|----|---|---|-------|
| Playing games | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | total |
| <i>Yes</i> | 0 | 0 | 4 | 6 | 10 | 10 | 10 | 5 | 0 | 45 |
| <i>No</i> | 0 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 4 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 9 |
| Total | 0 | 0 | 6 | 6 | 11 | 14 | 12 | 5 | 0 | 54 |

Table 6.8: *Playing games vs. AmE preference in pronunciation*

| | AmE preference in pronunciation (percentage) | | | | | | total |
|---------------|--|---------|---------|---------|----------|--|-------|
| Playing games | 0%-19% | 20%-39% | 40%-59% | 60%-79% | 80%-100% | | |
| <i>yes</i> | 0 | 10 | 19 | 3 | 1 | | 33 |
| <i>no</i> | 0 | 2 | 13 | 2 | 0 | | 17 |
| total | 0 | 12 | 32 | 5 | 1 | | 50 |

Table 6.9: *Reading English-written (comic) books vs. AmE preference in vocabulary*

| | AmE preference in vocabulary (expressions) | | | | | | | | total |
|------------|--|---|---|----|----|----|----|--|-------|
| Reading | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6+ | | |
| <i>yes</i> | 0 | 2 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 3 | 2 | | 22 |
| <i>no</i> | 0 | 0 | 5 | 6 | 12 | 7 | 0 | | 30 |
| total | 0 | 2 | 9 | 11 | 18 | 10 | 2 | | 52 |

Table 6.10: *Reading English-written (comic) books vs AmE preference in spelling*

| | AmE preference in spelling (expressions) | | | | | | | | | |
|------------|--|---|----|---|----|---|---|---|---|-------|
| Reading | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | total |
| <i>Yes</i> | 1 | 2 | 12 | 2 | 4 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 24 |
| <i>No</i> | 0 | 4 | 6 | 6 | 9 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 29 |
| Total | 1 | 6 | 18 | 8 | 13 | 3 | 3 | 0 | 1 | 53 |

Table 6.11: *Reading English-written (comic) books vs AmE preference in grammar*

| | AmE preference in grammar (expressions) | | | | | | | | | |
|------------|---|---|---|---|----|----|----|---|---|-------|
| Reading | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | total |
| <i>yes</i> | 0 | 0 | 3 | 2 | 5 | 6 | 6 | 3 | 0 | 25 |
| <i>no</i> | 0 | 0 | 3 | 4 | 6 | 8 | 6 | 2 | 0 | 29 |
| total | 0 | 0 | 6 | 6 | 11 | 14 | 12 | 5 | 0 | 54 |

Table 6.12: *Reading English-written (comic) books vs. AmE preference in pronunciation*

| | AmE preference in pronunciation (percentage) | | | | | | total |
|------------|--|---------|---------|---------|----------|--|-------|
| Reading | 0%-19% | 20%-39% | 40%-59% | 60%-79% | 80%-100% | | |
| <i>Yes</i> | 0 | 5 | 6 | 3 | 0 | | 41 |
| <i>No</i> | 0 | 7 | 26 | 2 | 1 | | 9 |
| Total | 0 | 12 | 32 | 5 | 1 | | 50 |

Table 6.13: *Social media vs. AmE preference in vocabulary*

| Social media | AmE preference in vocabulary (expressions) | | | | | | | Total |
|---------------------|---|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|--------------|
| | <i>0</i> | <i>1</i> | <i>2</i> | <i>3</i> | <i>4</i> | <i>5</i> | <i>6</i> | |
| <i>Yes</i> | 0 | 1 | 5 | 10 | 13 | 5 | 1 | 35 |
| <i>No</i> | 0 | 0 | 3 | 3 | 5 | 5 | 1 | 17 |
| Total | 0 | 1 | 8 | 13 | 18 | 10 | 2 | 52 |

Table 6.14: *Social media vs. AmE preference in spelling*

| Social media | AmE preference in spelling (expressions) | | | | | | | | | Total |
|---------------------|---|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|--------------|
| | <i>0</i> | <i>1</i> | <i>2</i> | <i>3</i> | <i>4</i> | <i>5</i> | <i>6</i> | <i>7</i> | <i>8</i> | |
| <i>Yes</i> | 0 | 1 | 8 | 6 | 2 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 19 |
| <i>No</i> | 1 | 5 | 10 | 1 | 12 | 1 | 3 | 0 | 1 | 34 |
| Total | 1 | 6 | 18 | 7 | 14 | 3 | 3 | 0 | 1 | 53 |

Table 6.15: *Social media vs. AmE preference in grammar*

| Social media | AmE preference in grammar (expressions) | | | | | | | | | Total |
|---------------------|--|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|--------------|
| | <i>0</i> | <i>1</i> | <i>2</i> | <i>3</i> | <i>4</i> | <i>5</i> | <i>6</i> | <i>7</i> | <i>8</i> | |
| <i>Yes</i> | 0 | 0 | 5 | 4 | 8 | 5 | 7 | 1 | 0 | 30 |
| <i>No</i> | 0 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 9 | 5 | 4 | 0 | 24 |
| Total | 0 | 0 | 6 | 6 | 11 | 14 | 12 | 5 | 0 | 54 |

Table 6.16: *Social media vs. AmE preference in pronunciation*

| Social media | AmE preference in pronunciation (percentage) | | | | | Total |
|---------------------|---|----------------|----------------|----------------|-----------------|--------------|
| | <i>0%-19%</i> | <i>20%-39%</i> | <i>40%-59%</i> | <i>60%-79%</i> | <i>80%-100%</i> | |
| <i>yes</i> | 0 | 7 | 16 | 4 | 0 | 27 |
| <i>no</i> | 0 | 5 | 16 | 1 | 1 | 23 |
| Total | 0 | 12 | 32 | 5 | 1 | 50 |

Table 6.17: *Manner of watching US series vs. listening comprehension*

| | Listening comprehension | | | Comprehensibility (assessment) | | Accent match | | Total |
|--------------------------------|--------------------------------|------------|-------------------|---------------------------------------|------------|---------------------|------------|--------------|
| | BrE | AmE | Altogether | BrE | AmE | BrE | AmE | |
| Watching TV series (US) | | | | | | | | |
| No subtitles | 96.00% | 88.00% | 92.00% | 4.80 | 4.60 | 100.00% | 80.00% | 5 |
| English subtitles | 93.75% | 91.25% | 92.50% | 4.13 | 4.44 | 100.00% | 100.00% | 16 |
| Czech subtitles | 75.00% | 80.00% | 77.50% | 3.50 | 3.33 | 50.00% | 33.33% | 12 |
| Czech dubbing | 90.00% | 70.00% | 80.00% | 4.00 | 3.50 | 50.00% | 50.00% | 2 |
| No series | 90.00% | 91.58% | 90.00% | 3.95 | 4.32 | 94.74% | 78.95% | 19 |

Table 6.18: *Interferential mistakes (IM)*

| expression | false friend | correct translation | other | no answer | total |
|----------------------|--------------|---|-------|-----------|-------|
| <i>apartment</i> | apartmá | byt | -- | | |
| | 26 | 22 | 3 | 3 | 54 |
| <i>guma</i> | gum | rubber, eraser | -- | | |
| | 2 | 46 | 1 | 5 | 54 |
| <i>fronta</i> | front | queue, line, row, crowd | -- | | |
| | 4 | 32 | 4 | 14 | 54 |
| <i>gymnázium</i> | gymnasium | high school, (secondary) grammar school | -- | | |
| | 21 | 26 | 2 | 5 | 54 |
| <i>zkontrolovali</i> | controlled | checked, revised | -- | | |
| | 5 | 45 | 0 | 4 | 54 |

Table 6.19: *Dominance of AmE in vocabulary vs. correct answers (IM)*

| Dominance of AmE in vocabulary | Correct answers (interferential mistakes) | | | | | total |
|--------------------------------|---|---------|---------|---------|----------|-------|
| | 0%-19% | 20%-39% | 40%-59% | 60%-79% | 80%-100% | |
| <i>Yes</i> | 1 | 3 | 5 | 13 | 8 | 30 |
| <i>No</i> | 2 | 2 | 5 | 5 | 8 | 22 |
| Total | 3 | 5 | 10 | 18 | 16 | 52 |

Table 6.20: *Dominance of AmE in spelling vs. correct answers (IM)*

| Dominance of AmE in spelling | Correct answers (interferential mistakes) | | | | | total |
|------------------------------|---|---------|---------|---------|----------|-------|
| | 0%-19% | 20%-39% | 40%-59% | 60%-79% | 80%-100% | |
| <i>Yes</i> | 0 | 0 | 1 | 4 | 3 | 8 |
| <i>No</i> | 3 | 4 | 10 | 15 | 13 | 45 |
| Total | 3 | 4 | 11 | 19 | 16 | 53 |

Table 6.21: *Dominance of AmE in grammar vs. correct answers (IM)*

| Dominance of AmE in grammar | Correct answers (interferential mistakes) | | | | | total |
|-----------------------------|---|---------|---------|---------|----------|-------|
| | 0%-19% | 20%-39% | 40%-59% | 60%-79% | 80%-100% | |
| <i>Yes</i> | 2 | 3 | 7 | 9 | 11 | 32 |
| <i>No</i> | 1 | 2 | 4 | 10 | 5 | 22 |
| Total | 3 | 5 | 11 | 19 | 16 | 54 |

Table 6.22: *Dominance of AmE in pronunciation vs. correct answers (IM)*

| Dominance of AmE in pronunciation | Correct answers (interferential mistakes) | | | | | total |
|-----------------------------------|---|---------|---------|---------|----------|-------|
| | 0%-19% | 20%-39% | 40%-59% | 60%-79% | 80%-100% | |
| <i>Yes</i> | 1 | 2 | 5 | 9 | 8 | 25 |
| <i>No</i> | 2 | 3 | 4 | 8 | 8 | 25 |
| Total | 3 | 5 | 9 | 17 | 16 | 50 |

Table 6.23: *Dominance of AmE in vocabulary vs. spelling mistakes*

| Dominance of AmE in vocabulary | Spelling mistakes | | | total |
|--------------------------------|-------------------|-----|----|-------|
| | 0-1 | 2-3 | 4+ | |
| <i>Yes</i> | 17 | 8 | 5 | 30 |
| <i>No</i> | 11 | 8 | 3 | 22 |
| Total | 28 | 16 | 8 | 52 |

Table 6.24: *Dominance of AmE in spelling vs. spelling mistakes*

| Dominance of AmE in spelling | Spelling mistakes | | | total |
|------------------------------|-------------------|-----|----|-------|
| | 0-1 | 2-3 | 4+ | |
| <i>Yes</i> | 2 | 4 | 2 | 8 |
| <i>No</i> | 27 | 12 | 6 | 45 |
| Total | 29 | 16 | 8 | 53 |

Table 6.25: *Dominance of AmE in grammar vs. spelling mistakes*

| Dominance of AmE in grammar | Spelling mistakes | | | total |
|-----------------------------|-------------------|-----|----|-------|
| | 0-1 | 2-3 | 4+ | |
| <i>Yes</i> | 20 | 8 | 4 | 32 |
| <i>No</i> | 9 | 9 | 4 | 22 |
| Total | 29 | 17 | 8 | 54 |

Table 6.26: *Dominance of AmE in pronunciation vs. spelling mistakes*

| Dominance of AmE in pronunciation | Spelling mistakes | | | total |
|-----------------------------------|-------------------|-----|----|-------|
| | 0-1 | 2-3 | 4+ | |
| <i>Yes</i> | 17 | 5 | 3 | 25 |
| <i>No</i> | 11 | 10 | 4 | 25 |
| Total | 28 | 15 | 7 | 50 |

Table 6.26: *Playing games in English vs. spelling mistakes*

| Playing games | Spelling mistakes | | | total |
|-----------------|-------------------|-----|----|-------|
| | 0-1 | 2-3 | 4+ | |
| <i>Yes (2+)</i> | 6 | 2 | 1 | 9 |
| <i>Yes (1)</i> | 4 | 4 | 1 | 9 |
| <i>No</i> | 19 | 12 | 5 | 36 |
| Total | 29 | 18 | 7 | 54 |

Table 6.26: *Dominance of AmE in vocabulary vs. general mistakes*

| Dominance of AmE in vocabulary | General mistakes | | | Total |
|--------------------------------|------------------|-----|----|-------|
| | 0-1 | 2-4 | 5+ | |
| <i>Yes</i> | 15 | 13 | 2 | 30 |
| <i>No</i> | 7 | 9 | 6 | 22 |
| Total | 22 | 22 | 8 | 52 |

Table 6.27: *Dominance of AmE in spelling vs. general mistakes*

| Dominance of AmE in spelling | General mistakes | | | Total |
|-------------------------------------|-------------------------|------------|-----------|--------------|
| | <i>0-1</i> | <i>2-4</i> | <i>5+</i> | |
| <i>Yes</i> | 14 | 14 | 4 | 32 |
| <i>No</i> | 8 | 9 | 5 | 22 |
| Total | 22 | 23 | 9 | 54 |

Table 6.28: *Dominance of AmE in grammar vs. general mistakes*

| Dominance of AmE in grammar | General mistakes | | | Total |
|------------------------------------|-------------------------|------------|-----------|--------------|
| | <i>0-1</i> | <i>2-4</i> | <i>5+</i> | |
| <i>Yes</i> | 4 | 3 | 1 | 8 |
| <i>No</i> | 18 | 20 | 7 | 45 |
| Total | 22 | 23 | 8 | 53 |

Table 6.29: *Dominance of AmE in pronunciation vs. general mistakes*

| Dominance of AmE in pronunciation | General mistakes | | | Total |
|--|-------------------------|------------|-----------|--------------|
| | <i>0-1</i> | <i>2-4</i> | <i>5+</i> | |
| <i>Yes</i> | 12 | 10 | 3 | 25 |
| <i>No</i> | 8 | 13 | 4 | 25 |
| Total | 20 | 23 | 7 | 50 |

ANOTACE

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|----------------------------|---------------------------------|
| Jméno a příjmení: | Lívia Masopustová |
| Katedra nebo ústav: | Ústav cizích jazyků |
| Vedoucí práce: | doc. PhDr. Václav Řeřicha, CSc. |
| Rok obhajoby: | 2022 |

| | |
|------------------------------------|---|
| Název práce: | Vliv americké angličtiny na osvojování jazyka žáky 2. stupně ZŠ |
| Název práce v angličtině: | The Influence of American English on Language Acquisition in Lower-secondary School Pupils |
| Anotace práce: | Tato práce pojednává o vlivu americké varianty angličtiny na akvizici tohoto jazyka u žáků 2. stupně ZŠ. Analyzuje přítomnost americké angličtiny ve vybraných učebnicích a v dotazníku zjišťuje její výskyt v jazykové produkci žáků a zkoumá možnou závislost na mimoškolních aktivitách. |
| Klíčová slova: | akvizice jazyka, americká angličtina, britská angličtina, současná angličtina, slang, variant, vliv, sociální média, druhý stupeň ZŠ, analýza učebnic |
| Anotace práce v angličtině: | This thesis deals with influence of AmE on language acquisition in lower-secondary school pupils. It examines the incidence of AmE in selected textbooks via comparative analysis, and its occurrence in pupils' language production via a questionnaire. It also analyses relationship of said incidence with extra-curricular activities. |
| Klíčová slova v angličtině: | language acquisition, American English, British English, contemporary English, slang, varieties, influence, social media, lower-secondary, textbook analysis |
| Přílohy vázané v práci: | 23 s., tabulky, grafy, česká verze dotazníku |
| Rozsah práce: | 59 s. |
| Jazyk práce: | Anglický jazyk |