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# **Bakalářská práce**



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## **American English in Czech Middle Schools in Relation to Sociolinguistic and Cultural Preferences of the Students**

Americká angličtina na druhém stupni základních škol ve vztahu k sociolingvistickým a kulturním přístupům studentů

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**Prohlášení:**

Prohlašuji, že jsem bakalářskou práci vypracovala samostatně, že jsem řádně citovala všechny použité prameny a literaturu a že práce nebyla využita v rámci jiného vysokoškolského studia či k získání jiného nebo stejného titulu.

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**Abstrakt:**

Tato práce zkoumá vztah mezi lingvistickými a kulturními preferencemi českých studentů angličtiny v 8. a 9. třídách základních škol. Vychází z hypotézy, že dnešní studenti budou stále silně ovlivněni systémem české výuky, která historicky klade velký důraz na britskou variantu angličtiny, a budou tak preferovat britské lexikální formy. Dále se také předpokládá, že díky silnému kulturnímu vlivu Spojených států budou studenti více obeznámeni s americkými kulturními reáliemi a budou je zároveň i preferovat. Součástí práce byl výzkum v podobě online dotazníků, kterého se zúčastnilo 215 studentů. Tento dotazník obsahoval témata jak lingvistická, tak kulturní a výsledky, které přinesl, hypotézu potvrdily. Většina studentů inklinuje k užívání britské angličtiny, zároveň ale prokázali hlubší znalosti kultury americké, kterou i osobně preferují před tou britskou. Rozdíly byly zaznamenány mezi pohlavími; dívky jsou silněji orientovány na britskou angličtinu i kulturu nežli chlapci. Studenti, kteří sami sebe lépe hodnotí a mají lepší vztah k angličtině, naopak tíhnou k angličtině a kultuře americké. Naprostá většina této práce odpovídá dosud publikované literatuře a zároveň poukazuje na nové poznatky, které ještě nebyly v tak velké míře prozkoumány.

**Klíčová slova:** britská a americká angličtina, preference českých studentů, kulturní kategorizace, české základní školy, vliv kultury na jazyk, výuka angličtiny v České republice, amerikanizace

**Abstract:**

This thesis examines the relationship between linguistic and cultural preferences of Czech students in the 8<sup>th</sup> and 9<sup>th</sup> grades of elementary schools. Its hypothesis claims that today's students are still strongly influenced by the Czech education system that places great emphasis on the instruction of British English, and therefore students prefer British lexical forms. However, it is also assumed that, due to the strong cultural influence of the United States, the students will be more familiar with American cultural phenomena and they will prefer them over British culture. As a part of the research for this thesis, an online questionnaire was administered to 215 students. This questionnaire contained questions related to both linguistic and cultural topics and its results confirmed the hypothesis. Most of the students tend to use British vocabulary even though they proved to have a deeper knowledge of American culture, preferring it over the British one. Some differences were recorded between genders; females are more inclined to prefer British English and culture than males. Simultaneously, those students who evaluated themselves as good at English and also have a better relationship with this language seem to prefer American forms and culture. The vast majority of this thesis aligns with the material that has already been published, while it also introduces new phenomena that have not yet been explored as much.

**Key words:** British and American English, preferences of Czech students, cultural categorization, Czech elementary schools, influence of culture on language, instruction of English in the Czech Republic, Americanization

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**List of abbreviations:**

AmE = American English

ATECR = Association of Teachers of English of the Czech Republic

BrE = British English

CZ = Czech

ENG = English

ESL = English as a second language

EU = European Union

IATEFL = International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language

IELTS = International English Language Testing System

MLB = Major League Baseball

NBA = National Basketball Association

NFL = National Football League

NHL = National Hockey League

TESOL = Teaching English as a second language

TOEFL = Test of English as a Foreign Language

UK = United Kingdom

USA = United States of America

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## **1. Introduction**

One needs not to be an accomplished linguist to recognize that English has elevated itself to an unrivaled status among other languages and become a true new-age lingua franca. In today's highly globalized and digitalized world, the ability to speak English has not only been a focus of education but also a skill that is deemed almost automatic and omnipresent. In the environment of the European Union, this view is encouraged by the widespread public instruction of the English language in European schools and the standard use of English in all EU institutions. According to the European Commission, 88% of students in upper secondary schools in the member states were learning English in 2020 – a figure that certainly proves the validity of this statement (Eurostat, 2020).

Yet, the ability to speak a language does not equal being a global modern citizen. The relative ease with which we now share information across large distances has allowed for an unprecedented transmission of cultural phenomena, including the products of the film and music industry, other arts, politics, foods, and sports. The generation of teenagers is the most active in consuming this new global cultural scene, and the present interweaving of culture and our linguistic choices is the topic of much current research. While the instruction of English in the Czech educational system has been traditionally based on the British variant of English, the massive influx of American culture is undoubtedly shaping the identity and communicative abilities of the youth and results in higher exposure to American English. This may be reflected in a relative linguistic and cultural imbalance – ESL speakers use a variety that is incongruous with their cultural preferences, or they are unaware of their mixing of the two varieties.

This thesis will first introduce this issue through a thorough analysis of historical, social, and cultural developments surrounding the instruction of English in Europe and the Czech Republic, and then the results of a questionnaire conducted among 215 Czech students of the 8<sup>th</sup> and 9<sup>th</sup> grades will be presented, examining both their linguistic and cultural knowledge and preferences. Through this, it will be proven that the students display a higher degree of familiarity and preference towards American culture, while, despite the high level of exposure to American English, the students still prevalently use British forms, and their education basis thus holds strong. Special attention will then be paid to individual subcategories, such as gender, linguistic and cultural accuracy, age of start, grades received, or relationship to English. Because of the relatively large number of participants, this research may hopefully function as a small snapshot of the

overarching situation in the Czech Republic and perhaps be inspirational to future research in TESOL.

## 2. Historical overview

In order to properly comprehend the complexities of the issue at hand, it is first necessary to introduce some basic facts from the history of TESOL in the Czech Republic and in Europe. While a highly detailed analysis reaching much farther back into history could certainly be performed, for the sake of keeping this chapter brief and relevant to the topic of the thesis, the key focus will be devoted to the period from the 19<sup>th</sup> century onward, as this is the first historical period marked by the rise of significant international interest in English learning and teaching, and thus can be tied to the current situation.

### 2.1. 19<sup>th</sup> century

Regarding the period prior to the beginning of the 19<sup>th</sup> century, there is a noticeable lack of evidence supporting any major spread of the English language in Europe. Much time and effort was still reserved for the instruction of Latin and Greek as the centerpieces of European education, and it was not until the first half of the 19<sup>th</sup> century that this model began to change. With the increasing importance of functional international economy and trade, more space began to be dedicated to the “living languages” of the European continent, especially French and German (Peprník, n.d.). Moreover, the growing population of English-speaking countries began to demand the attention of Europeans as well. In 1800, the combined population of Great Britain and the United States was recorded to be less than half the population of France, while by 1900, the number of Britons had tripled, and the population of Americans had grown tenfold. By the first year of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, the populations of the United Kingdom and the United States largely exceeded those of France and Germany combined (Howatt & Smith, 2014). Such human force had to be reckoned with.

The situation in the Czech lands was further complicated by the complex political and cultural events that the Czech nation had to face. As a part of the Austro-Hungarian empire, the Czech language was subjected to an intense wave of Germanization, which, thanks to the Czech National Revival movement, was eventually overcome, and the Czech language retained its position of, at first, linguistic existence, and later, importance (Landry & Landryova, 2016). For most Czechs, English was not a language of much significance, a fact exacerbated by the newly emerging pejorative sentiments held against the United Kingdom. Many Czech intellectuals perceived the position of their nation within the Austro-Hungarian empire as a parallel to the Irish, who struggled under the rule of the British (Peprník, n.d.). Another layer of the relatively

ambiguous Czech stance towards the British can be observed in the public disagreement surrounding the very name of the foreign country – some proposed “Angličany,” while others opted for “Anglicko” (Peprník, n.d., pp. 12–13).

Due to these reasons, and despite the geographical proximity between the Czech lands and Britain, more attention was paradoxically paid to the Czech migration to the United States. This was reflected in the origin of the first Czech textbooks of the English language. Most of these first publications were written by returning Czech scholars who had spent extended periods of time in the United States and acquired such proficiency that they were confident enough to pen their own educational materials. It is, however, important to mention that these textbooks were often very Britain-oriented, and even Josef Václav Sládek, who spent 10 years in America, wholly omitted anything related to the United States in his English textbook *Průpravná mluvnice anglického jazyka* (1872). While the reasons for this will probably remain unknown, it is highly feasible that Britain was perceived as the original cradle of the English language, and the majority of the first Czech authors decided to honor such sentiments (Peprník, n.d.).

During the second half of the 19<sup>th</sup> century, the pace of the instruction of English in the Czech lands started to pick up, although English still mostly remained a pastime for those who could afford private tutors and had some interest in British literature (the works of Shakespeare or Byron were particularly popular and gradually started to enjoy their first Czech translations). In 1870, English was first introduced as a subject in Czech German schools, and two years later, in 1872, the same happened for Czech commercial schools. Since English only began to be officially taught at Prague University in 1916, most of these early teachers had no formal education in English (Peprník, n.d.). Culturally, Great Britain enjoyed much more prominence due to its rich history of high art and literature, while the United States was regarded as a cultural backwater until at least the start of the 20<sup>th</sup> century (Damm, 2008).

Overall, the 19<sup>th</sup> century can be seen as a period during which the English language first started to make its way into the Czech lands. While much more attention and resources were still being dedicated to the instruction of German and French, the possibilities to study English began to slowly open up in the last third of the century. Although certain negative connotations toward Britain circulated in the Czech society, a keen interest in British literature managed to alleviate at least some of these. An immigration stream between central Europe and America also contributed to the heightened interest in the English language, though the first published textbooks chose to omit references to American English and culture, most likely because of the perceived prestige of

British English. As Graddol (1997) points out, the 19<sup>th</sup> century was a period during which the foundations for the future world domination of English were laid down, and the events of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, along with the significant rise of American presence, accelerated this process.

## *2.2. 20<sup>th</sup> century*

Due to the relative seclusion that came with being a part of the Austro-Hungarian empire, the situation in the Czech lands remained unchanged until the end of the First World War. In 1918, as the Czechs and Slovaks gained their independence, German stopped being used as the main language of instruction, and much more freedom was enjoyed by the Czech society, both politically and linguistically. After Tomáš Garigue Masaryk helped to fulfill the long-lost dream of founding an independent state for Czechs and Slovaks by signing the Pittsburgh Agreement in 1918, the general sentiments in the society turned very pro-American. The United States was seen as a beacon of democracy and freedom, a blueprint that should be followed by the Czechs as well (Meixner, 1971). Although in the early 1920s, the instruction of English at Czech schools was still somewhat limited, the growing interest in American culture quickly propelled the young generation into the study of this language, which was now being taught at commercial academies and grammar schools (Peprník, n.d.).

On a more public level, American English enjoyed significant popularity and was often intermixed with everyday Czech. American words such as “trapper,” “job,” “jazz,” “boss,” or “cowboy” were among the most popular. Even typical Czech names like “Jeník” or “Mařenka” could not escape this new trend and often turned into “Johnny” and “Mary” (Meixner, 1971, pp. 302–303). The influx of American music, literature, and first films also contributed to the warmth with which Czechs and Slovaks welcomed the English language. Zandvoort (1934) mentions that Czechoslovakia, along with the Netherlands and Germany, was among the more pro-American countries of interwar Europe.

This was, however, not necessarily reflected in the English variety taught at schools. As several period (and more current) sources point to (Eliason, 1957; Modiano, 1996; Zandvoort, 1934) Standard British English, particularly its form used in British academia, was the only acceptable variety used in European education. Received Pronunciation enjoyed an unparalleled level of social and linguistic prestige, and no effort to replace it with other English variants was documented during this period. More interestingly, even some Americans of the time took a self-deprecating stance towards their own variety, perceiving their speech as somewhat lacking in

comparison to the British. This resulted in an interesting duality that will be present for many decades forward: the entire European continent was swayed by the cultural elements of the United States, though, simultaneously, it was avidly learning the British variant of English (Zandvoort, 1934).

The period of Czechoslovak independence in what is now commonly referred to as the “First Republic” did not last long. With the rise of Hitler, renewed efforts to Germanize the Czechoslovak population reemerged. Shortly after the outbreak of the Second World War in 1939, Czech universities were shut down, and in 1940, German was reinstated as the official language of instruction in what became the Protectorate of Bohemia and Moravia. English slowly disappeared from the school curricula, and the pro-American mood in society ended as well (Cigánek, 2009). After the end of the war in 1945, Czechoslovakia enjoyed a brief period of relative freedom, though the instruction of English came back in only small doses and was being actively pushed out by Russian. This process would be fully realized when in February 1948, the communist government took over the country and a new regime started (Cigánek, 2009).

While the majority of non-communist Europe bore witness to the rapid rise of the American economy and cultural influence in the 1950s, Czechoslovakia, as a part of the Eastern Bloc, turned towards Moscow. Russian became a mandatory foreign language taught in all schools, and it was not until the process of destalinization in the mid-1950s that the instruction of a second foreign language was permitted (Bruen & Sheridan, 2016). Nonetheless, this option was not offered universally, and the choice was often restricted to either French or German. English was taught sporadically and often with much fear and/or disdain of the teachers. It was not uncommon for educators to take pride in the fact that English was not taught at their institution (Shleppegrell, 1991), and those who devoted themselves to the study of English at a higher academic level often lived in fear of repercussions. As far as resources go, many textbooks and materials were either lacking or were of dubious origin and quality (British Council, 1996).

On the European level, at least in the non-communist western countries, the situation could not have been more different. For the first time in history, the United States became an economic, political, and cultural behemoth looming over Europe, permeating all aspects of European life. The youth, in particular, were mesmerized by the products of American popular culture, much to the disapproval of their teachers of English. American English was seen as an uncivilized variety that was detrimental to the smooth instruction of Standard British English and Received Pronunciation, which continued to function as the primary and only models for TESOL in postwar Europe

(Eliason, 1957; Nichols, 1957). With some teachers mockingly proclaiming that British and American English are not really the same language, their students were often penalized for using American English (with American pronunciation being particularly scorned). However, this did not stop the incoming Americanisms from spreading to the speech of the European youth (Nichols, 1957). Given the fact that the American cultural presence started to decidedly supplant the British one (Graddol, 1997), this trend was only about to become more prominent in the decades to come.

For the next 20 years, American English steadily continued to make its way into Europe, although still mostly in the form of words that were not officially acknowledged as being grammatically correct or appropriate for use in schools. This began to improve in the 1970s when American English gradually began more successfully permeating the academic sphere. Europeans gradually started becoming more willing to accept the mixing of the two varieties, and this new disposition culminated in the 1980s, when the presence (though still not necessarily a very active use) of American English in Europe became relatively broad and frequent, with some countries even recognizing it as a “valid” model for future learners (Benson et al., 1986). Naturally, the situation was not identical in all parts of Europe. Particularly in regions under the communist rule, the very act of being able to differentiate between the two varieties was problematic. A study conducted in 1987 analyzed this ability in Soviet ESL teachers (in Hungary, Yugoslavia, and Russia), and the results were quite alarming. The teachers – the mentors supposed to impart their knowledge to the few students of English they had – were unable to successfully recognize or differentiate between British and American English (Benson & Benson, 1988). Although no such study was conducted in Czechoslovakia, it is highly plausible that, due to its similar historical and political developments, the situation must have been similar.

The years 1989 and 1990 heralded an enormous breaking point in the history of Europe. With the fall of the Iron Curtain, nations formerly bound by their strict communist governments were once again set free. This was soon reflected in the language policies of the newly independent states, and Czechoslovakia was no exception. Russian was officially dropped as a mandatory school subject in 1990, and a massive wave of students now wanted to be taught English instead (British Council, 1996). The language that for over 40 years was seen as somewhat of a “forbidden fruit” was quickly becoming a high-demand commodity, and the Czech “linguistic market” could not keep up. The number of students calling for the instruction of English greatly exceeded the number of available teachers, and this imbalance could hardly be resolved quickly (Bruen & Sheridan, 2016).



To illustrate just how drastically the situation surrounding the instruction of English in Czechoslovakia had to change, one may look at some of the figures from the early 1990s that perfectly explicate the shortage of English educators. In the period from 1977 to 1990, the Pedagogical Faculty at the Masaryk University in Brno did not graduate a single English teacher (Schlepppegrell, 1991). This might seem like an almost impossible figure, but one must keep in mind that the instruction of English until 1990 was minimal. Even at the brink of the revolution in November 1989, only 1.6% of primary schools in Czechoslovakia offered English classes (Schlepppegrell, 1991). English teachers were simply not necessary. The sudden turn of events resulted in large numbers of university students at pedagogical faculties formerly studying other languages, most frequently Russian, rapidly converting to English, though this effort was often unsuccessful. The demand for requalification courses was too overwhelming, and only a select few were admitted.

Furthermore, the newly independent Czechoslovakia was plagued by another problem – the lack of materials. In 1991, studies (Schlepppegrell) estimated that hundreds of thousands of English textbooks were necessary to accommodate the immediate needs of Czechoslovak students and teachers. The materials used in this period were often authored by the Czech teachers themselves and, for lack of any other option, had to circulate between dozens of schools in need. Such textbooks often did not conform to the general educational standards we adhere to today and lacked information on English-speaking countries and cultures. Severe, and perhaps substantiated, worries about the quality of English education began appearing on the part of the teachers, fearing that the process of making up for the conspicuous unpreparedness to teach English in post-communist Czechoslovakia might take decades (Schlepppegrell, 1991).

However, not all was lost. The British Council, a UK-based educational and cultural organization founded in 1934, was quick to act and provide help to post-communist countries in their efforts to establish a high-quality system of TESOL. It is crucial to mention that, since the British Council hails from the United Kingdom, the supplied materials were based on Standard British English and strongly focused on British culture (more about the methods and approaches adopted by the British Council will be mentioned in the following chapter) (British Council, 1996). While such large-scale changes take long periods of time, we can judge our transition as generally successful. All children at elementary schools in the Czech Republic now learn English as a mandatory foreign language, and their teachers have appropriate materials to do so (although these are often still overwhelmingly Britain-focused). Unfortunately, the Czech Republic, just like many

other post-communist countries, continues to rank relatively low on the European rankings of English proficiency (Soler-Carbonell, 2016). It is thus clear that there is still room for improvement, and we can all work toward a better future for Czech students of English.

On a more cultural level, the 1990s and 2000s were a period of massive Americanization of the Czech society, spurred by the avidity with which the Czechs consumed anything that was formerly suppressed or forbidden. At the same time, American companies began to play a greater role on the Czech market, a trend that still seems to be on the rise and affects our economy in a highly positive manner (Pudilová & Veselá, 2021). Furthermore, the arrival of the Internet in the mid-1990s not only sped up the process of exchanging valuable information but also facilitated the transmission of American cultural trends (Leontovich, 2005). Through a more pragmatic lens, the Czech nation finally started experiencing what the rest of Europe had been casually living with during the previous few decades.

Overall, the 20<sup>th</sup> century can be best described as a highly tumultuous period, both in terms of history and TESOL. Most European countries first instigated the general instruction of English in their schools, though this was later marred by the arrival of communism in some regions. Standard British English was universally introduced as the variant after which TESOL should be modeled, and for most of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, this was not met with much resistance. The general, Europe-wide trend of British culture being supplanted by the American one has been steadily contributing to the acceptance and adoption of certain Americanisms, but British English is still widely used as the primary variant in education. The Czech Republic has a particularly strong proclivity for using British English, capitalizing on the help of the British Council from the 1990s. This chapter expounded on the historical reasons for this preference, however, there are other aspects that have played a role as well. The next chapter will address those issues and shed more light on why British English is still as popular in Czech education despite the strong American cultural influence.

### **3. The dominance of British English in Czech and European TESOL**

As it has been shown in the previous chapter, the history of English education in Europe has been based predominantly on the British variety of English. There are many sources from the past 30 years that show that this preference has not changed, and British English is still used in school on a large scale (Benson, 1989; Modiano, 2006; Soler-Carbonell, 2016; Tottie, 2002; Trudgill & Hannah, 1994). There are, however, other phenomena that have, concurrently with historical development, worked as facilitators of this trend. This chapter will present and analyze these so that a more comprehensive and holistic picture of TESOL in the Czech Republic and Europe can emerge and be commented upon in the latter half of this thesis.

#### *3.1. Geography*

Perhaps the most immediate and logical reason underpinning the use of British English in Czech education is the geographical proximity of the two countries. Separated by only roughly 1.300 kilometers (807 miles), the United Kingdom is a destination much more accessible to continental Europeans (compared to the United States with approximately 6.650 kilometers (or 4.130 miles) (Google Maps, n.d.). The figures regarding employment and tourism serve to prove that. According to the UK's Office of National Statistics, approximately 45.000 Czechs worked or lived in Great Britain in 2013 (The National Archives, n.d.), and in 2019, more than 419.000 Czech tourists visited the British Isles (*Czech Republic*, n.d.).

A direct comparison to the United States is unfortunately uneasy to make, as the US census publishes solely the number of all people of Czech ancestry currently living in the United States, notwithstanding whether they were born in the Czech Republic or they are American-born Czech descendants who do not speak Czech at all. However, some secondary data is available. According to the United Language Group, there were approximately 47.000 speakers of Czech living in the United States as of 2013 (*8 Intriguing Facts*, n.d.), and since Czech is not a popular language to learn in America, it is highly likely that these people are Czech expatriates making their living in the States. This figure is thus comparable to that of the United Kingdom. However, the number of Czech tourists to the United States is considerably smaller, and in 2019, just over 120.000 individuals visited the United States (U.S. Embassy, 2022). It is thus reasonable that, in regard to tourism, the practice of British-based TESOL in the Czech Republic is the preferred option.

### 3.2. *TESOL materials*

Another factor that has been extremely important and influential in Czech TESOL is the range of accessible materials. Peprník (n.d.) points to the large boom in the scope of linguistic studies in the United Kingdom that started after the Second World War and has exerted a major influence over the countries of continental Europe. Admittedly, Czechoslovakia was somewhat sheltered from this development, as the study of English during the communist era was a marginal field. In the meantime, Great Britain was extremely prolific in the production of TESOL textbooks, workbooks, magazines, and other materials similar in nature. A crucial role in this process was played by the already mentioned British Council, an organization whose goal is “the promotion of a wider knowledge of Britain and the English language abroad” (Frank, 2004, p. 85). By all accounts, their efforts have been positively rewarded. As Modiano (2006) states, major British publishing houses such as Oxford University Press, Longman, and Cambridge University Press now supply the entire European continent with ESL learning materials. Even more globally, these publishers are in possession of the majority share of the international market with such materials, extending their influence beyond the borders of Europe (Smith, 2018).

However, for political reasons, the real impact of the British Council in Czechoslovakia could not take place until after the Velvet Revolution. With the ensuing chaos in TESOL that followed the events of 1989, the British Council proved to be an invaluable catalyst in getting English education in post-communist Europe back on track. Funded by the British government, the British Council was able to pour much-needed resources into these troubled regions, and Czechoslovakia, among other states, greatly benefited from this. Through cooperation with local governments and departments of education, this organization immediately provided the desired learning materials, such as (text)books, journals, or videos. By consulting on the plans for the future development of TESOL in Czechoslovakia (and later on in the Czech Republic) directly with Czech teachers and specialists on education, the Council significantly helped with the design of new curricula, methodologies, and academic projects. These were put in place with the intention to be long-lasting and country-wide, not simply focused on immediate help in the most populous Czech cities (British Council, 1996).

On the level of personnel, the British Council took an instant interest in preparing the teachers for their role as modern educators in newly emerging democracies. National teacher training schemes were installed quickly, and the Council also contributed to the work on new teacher education reforms. These changes were realized not only locally but also extended to the

possibility of participating in popular language and university stays in Great Britain, designed specifically for TESOL teachers. The British Council also encouraged the establishment of a new local association, and the Association of Teachers of English of the Czech Republic (ATECR) was officially founded in 1991. The closeness of Czech educators to the British can be seen in the quick process of affiliating ATECR with the British-based International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language (IATEFL), which happened in the very same year (British Council, 1996).

The effort to connect Britain with Czechoslovakia translated into the emergence of new institutions that furthered this process. Many new resource centers and libraries sprung up in the aftermath of the revolution, with the British Council's Research Centre in Prague (1991) among the most prominent. These were to serve as hubs for new conferences, seminars, and courses under the patronage of the Council. The best-known event of this era took place in Brno in 1991 in the form of the Brno English Teaching Conference, a large gathering that was opened by then-Prince Charles and drew much attention. This was followed by many other events, oftentimes even with the presence of guest speakers. In 1992, the Czech regional teacher trainer was appointed, which essentially solidified the leading position of Britain in the development of Czech TESOL (British Council, 1996).

From the information mentioned above, it is clear that Great Britain, through its influential organization of the British Council, played a paramount role in the formation of modern English teaching in Czechoslovakia and the Czech Republic. Reports (Frank, 2004; Modiano, 2006) attest to this, confirming that the impact of the methods introduced by the British is felt in an overwhelming manner in all parts of the Czech Republic and at all levels of the school system – from elementary schools to universities. While we are separated from the early 1990s by more than 30 years, the fact that British textbooks are still massively used and British English is the standard variant of teaching in not just the Czech Republic forces one to admit that the adoption of these early approaches still lingers and is highly relevant.

Furthermore, the global market with English proficiency testing is essentially owned by a single entity – the British testing companies and centers. The popularity of British certificates such as IELTS (International English Language Testing System) or Cambridge English Exams confirms this (Smith, 2018). That is not to say that American testing companies do not exist (the most widely used one is TOEFL, the Test of English as a Foreign Language). However, TOEFL or any other American testing agencies do not enjoy nearly as many customers as their British counterparts.

While TOEFL reports serving roughly 2.3 million test takers a year (Global Education Counselling Centre, n.d.), IELTS is on track to hit 4 million (*IELTS grows*, 2019), and Cambridge English Exams are even more popular, with roughly 7 million customers seeking their certification every year (Cambridge English, 2020). Globally, British certifications are accepted by a larger number of institutions than American ones, despite the fact that 70% of all English-native speakers are American (Murphy, 2018). This extends to higher education as well, and since one of the most important prerequisites for international students wishing to pursue their degrees in English-speaking countries is to take a language proficiency test, this is a highly relevant topic to this discussion. In the academic year 2019/20, there were approximately 1.075.496 international students studying in the US (*International Students*, 2022), while in the UK, there were roughly 556.625 non-British students (*UK International Student Statistics*, 2023). All matters considered, it is clear that the market with ESL materials and language testing is disproportionately governed by the United Kingdom.

When presented with these facts, one must wonder if, why, and how the United States is involved in TESOL operations worldwide. If the United States is such a populous, influential, and economically secure country, how come it does not play a bigger role in the TESOL market? The answer might be twofold. Firstly, the aforementioned success of the United Kingdom in its development of applied linguistics after the Second World War was a crucial factor. The same cannot be said about the United States. The most prominent organization devoting itself to the dissemination of American cultural values and fostering international dialogues, the United States Information Agency (USIA), which also took part in American-based TESOL teaching, discontinued its direct involvement in this endeavor in the 1970s (long before anyone in Czechoslovakia could get involved) (Campbell, 1996) and stopped existing altogether in 1999 (The U.S. National Archives, n.d.). This cleared the path for British TESOL centers and agencies to further flourish.

Secondly, and perhaps more crucially, the reluctance with which the United States operates (or, maybe more precisely, the fact that it does not operate) in the field of international TESOL is caused by the underlying cultural beliefs. Murphy (2018) points to the American lack of interest in exporting their language, presenting a stark contrast to the British approach. Based on the rich history of immigration, Americans often perceive the field of ESL as something that is predominantly applicable to those who relocate to the States and thus stays domestic. To put it simply, the American way of thinking about the teaching of English is based on the assumption

that those who want to speak *like us* will come and learn it (or already know some English because they were taught in their schools), and we do not have to be concerned about those who do not (Smith, 2018). Great Britain embodies exactly the opposite approach, priding itself on the export of its mother tongue to all corners of the world. The director of the British Council's English and Exams, Mark Robson, called English "the UK's greatest gift to the world" (British Council, 2013, p. 2), a statement that perhaps best captures the sentiment with which the British approach their role in global TESOL. On the other hand, Americans just do not seem to have "much interest in proselytizing [their] English" (Smith, 2018, p. 291), a notion that has certainly influenced the form of the teaching of English in Europe and in the Czech Republic.

### 3.3. EU policies

As a member of the European Union, the Czech Republic is, at least to a certain degree, bound by the language policies that this organization has set down. On a more general level, the Czech Republic follows the recommendation of the EU that advises teaching of at least two foreign languages in the school system, one of them preferably English (Office of the Secretary-General of the European Schools, 2022). Although the EU does not directly stipulate which variant of English should be used in the instruction at schools, it does show its preferences in other, non-educational settings. In its *English Style Guide* (a publication serving as a guide to authors and translators in the European Commission) issued in 2021, the Commission directly states that "[for] reasons of stylistic consistency, the variety of English on which this Guide bases its instructions and advice is the standard usage of Britain and Ireland" (European Commission, p. 4). Furthermore, the *Guide* stipulates that "[the use of] Americanisms that are liable not to be understood by speakers of Irish/British English should be avoided" (p. 7).

Such language policies have been in practice for decades now and were initially brought about by the presence of the United Kingdom in the EU. However, as Modiano (2022) points out, the strict retention of this policy in the post-Brexit era does not seem very reasonable, not when the massive influence of the United States permeates into the language of European speakers, and the United Kingdom is no longer a member state. When applying these facts to the issue presented in this thesis, one must assume that European countries, the Czech Republic included, are not very likely to change their British-based instruction as long as the EU uses British English as its preferred variety in its internal communication and simultaneously stays functioning as the most influential organization on the continent, providing funds, safety, and jobs.

### 3.4. *Heritage of negative sentiments and prejudice*

Lastly, it is also important to touch on the stereotypes that have often been associated with the use of American English. The thread of the negative perception of American English has been long (as shown in the previous chapter) and has functioned as a significant factor in the language policy-making of Europe. Early traces of hostility between British and American English can be found even in the period when Americans were barely an independent nation themselves. In 1797, Thomas Jefferson was publicly chastised for his use of “improper” English by the *London Review* when, in one of his letters, he used his invented word “belittle” (Jefferson, 1787, p. 70; Smith, 2018), a verb that was seen as an abomination by the British even in the 1920s (Fowler, 1926) This was just the start of what would become a centuries-long battle for linguistic superiority.

There is a multitude of articles, books, and internet websites devoted to the issue at hand, though one tendency seems to be prevalent: the British are usually the most productive in voicing their concerns about American English, while Americans generally do not seem to give it much thought and retaliate (Modiano, 1996). Especially in the first half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, the voices of critique were amplified and disseminated by the advancement of technology and global communication, and the situation was further worsened by the Americans’ insecurity in their own speech. Many highly educated American intellectuals often deemed the variety of their mother tongue as deficient and lacking and would timidly agree with the mocking commentary of their British counterparts (Smith, 2018). While Americans seem to have gained more linguistic self-confidence over time, Smith (2018) further suggests that their initial aloofness towards their language has perhaps translated into the avid interest with which Americans consume news on the Royal Family or eagerly listen to anybody with a British accent.

However, for the purposes of this thesis, it is important to focus on the impact these perceptions have had on the TESOL area in Europe. The perceived prestige of British English, especially in comparison to American English, has been often quoted as one of the reasons for the introduction of British-based TESOL in Europe and, along with other facts – historical, sociological, and geographical – helped to cement the leading role of British English (Pyles & Algeo, 1993; Tottie, 2002). To briefly describe the complexities and development of this situation, three articles from three different eras will now be mentioned.

In 1975, David Crystal published an article in which he aptly summarizes the perception of American English in Europe as being traditionally pejorative, with undesirable linguistic phenomena automatically ascribed to American English. In terms of education, he confirms the



sole use of Received Pronunciation as a pronunciation model and wistfully hopes that in the future, Europe might “treat the Yankee barbarian with a certain amount of politeness.” (p. 58). Interestingly enough, Crystal is a Briton himself. Moving forward in time to post-communist Europe, Modiano (1996) describes similar attitudes. Despite the high levels of cultural Americanization, he reports that European school systems are deeply prejudiced against the use of American English. He also points to the absurdity of teaching Received Pronunciation when only a few European teachers of English are able to come near this standard themselves. He also proposes that a more liberal system be installed, allowing students to use American vocabulary and pronunciation.

Lastly, in his 2008 article, Marek Vít, a prominent Czech educator and founder of the widely known and used website [HelpforEnglish.cz](http://HelpforEnglish.cz), also points to the frequency with which American variants are deemed inferior or incorrect by Czech teachers. Traces of these sentiments are also observable in more recent scientific papers (Modiano, 2022), and while the situation is steadily getting better, with academic programs such as North American Studies or English and American Studies now present at Czech universities (in this case the Charles University), it is clear that the process of welcoming American English into Czech schools is a long and difficult one, often standing in contradiction to older, anti-American TESOL approaches.

In conclusion, the reasoning behind British English being the preferred variety used in Czech and European TESOL is complex and goes beyond historical developments. While tourism and geographical proximity might be the most conspicuous aspects ripe for consideration, a significant role has been played by such institutions as the British Council. Along with many British publishers and language testing agencies, the strong influence of the Council in the 1990s shaped the Czech instruction of English for many decades to come. The reluctance with which American TESOL companies approached the global market gave the United Kingdom a leading role in the dissemination of educational trends and techniques, and, by extension, British English. The EU has been steady in its use of British English, and not even the United Kingdom leaving the organization in 2016 seems to have caused many changes. The stereotypical negative connotations tied to the use of American English have presumably marred, or at least slowed down, a more extensive adoption of this variety as well.

It is therefore quite clear that in terms of linguistic preferences, the Czech Republic, just as many other countries in Europe, stays markedly British. While the process of intensive Americanization has been working to undo some of these traditions, British English still holds its

primary role in Czech and European TESOL. As this thesis investigates two major phenomena – the use of British English and the knowledge of American culture – it is now time to move to the topic of culture.

#### **4. American culture in contemporary Europe and the Czech Republic**

Over the last century, the United States has played a significant role in the introduction of various cultural trends that have far transcended the North American continent. While the communist regime functioned as a buffer against much of this influence in the period between 1948 and 1989, it perhaps also strengthened the Czech interest in American culture after the fall of the Iron Curtain. Seen as a symbol of democracy, wealth, and social power, the Czechs have been quick to buy American goods, listen to and watch the products of American music and film industry, or explore various aspects of the American social mentality (Pudilová & Veselá, 2021). The next section will analyze the influence of American popular culture on the Czech Republic and Europe and consider its impact (or lack thereof) on TESOL.

##### *4.1. Theoretical framework*

Perhaps the best way to describe the influence that the United States exercises over Europe is through the concepts of “hard” and “soft” power. The United States has been extremely successful at amassing both. In terms of “hard” power, America is now able to have people do whatever it wants them to do, while “soft” (cultural) power makes outsiders want whatever it does. (Damm, 2008). This gives Americans an unprecedented position on the global scene and often results in other, non-American countries succumbing to strong American transculturation. Transculturation, as defined by Pennycook (2007), is the process during which one culture begins to identify with and adopt features of a different, foreign culture. Simultaneously, the younger generation (namely teenagers) is the most susceptible to this phenomenon, and in terms of Americanization (the transculturation related to the United States), they have shown to be extremely welcoming to the newly incoming trends. Crystal (1975) claims that this can be explained by the set of values that teenagers typically look up to the most (such as music, fashion, social networks, or sports) and the fact that American popular culture is built on these as its founding pillars.

On a broader level, many young people perceive the United States as a symbol of hope and material advancement, which propels them further to take an interest in its culture (Graddol, 1997). The rich history of the well-documented and advertised American fight for the rights of minorities is also very appealing, often translating to similar efforts on what many young Europeans see as a “restrictive” old continent (Leontovich, 2005). Lastly, many sources (Damm, 2008; Frank, 2004) point to the simplicity and everydayness of American culture, which makes its spread extremely

easy and effective. In contrast to the older European cultures, American culture is anchored in overt straightforwardness and the sourcing of beauty in the lives of common people. One does not need to have a university degree or a deep knowledge of American history to understand and appreciate the products of its culture. While this may be an issue for high culture pundits, it has undoubtedly contributed to the massive, worldwide adoption of American cultural phenomena, both in the Czech Republic and the rest of Europe and seems to show no signs of stopping.

#### *4.2. American influence exemplified and quantified*

To show just how strong of an influence the United States has had in the last 40 years, one does not need to look far; it is present in all cultural domains. One of the most conspicuous arenas in which the United States has topped all other world countries is the development and improvement of new forms of communication and media (Damm, 2008). With the advent of the Internet in the 1990s, Americans took the opportunity to advance even further by developing new search engines such as Google, Bing, or Yahoo! (Forsey, 2023), the first-named being the number one search engine worldwide. Not long after this, Facebook was established, followed by YouTube, Twitter, and Instagram, all American products used by the entire global population. However, the American presence is felt in other fields as well.

American companies are at the forefront of business, advertising, computing, or technology (globally known companies such as Amazon, Apple, Microsoft, Tesla, or Johnson & Johnson can serve as examples here). The United States also owns two major news agencies – the Associated Press (AP) and United Press International (UPI) – that provide news to the rest of the world, contributing to an increasingly more American point of journalistic view that might not always be desirable (Petrušek, 2007). The world rushes to wear American fashion brands such as Nike, Levi's, or Calvin Klein, which are often seen as a cultural (and linguistic) badge that also signifies material security (Campbell, 1996). Once we are dressed appropriately, we may get a meal at one of the popular American fast-food restaurants (McDonald's, KFC, or Burger King) and top it off with a cup of iced latte from Starbucks. All of this is also readily available in a drive-thru or to be ordered online – just as it would be in any American city.

The United States also has a long history of being highly prolific and successful in the film and music industry. In the second half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, a surge of new American TV genres flooded the rest of the world, and these then became easily accessible with the arrival of cable TV (and nowadays also online streaming). In 1993, the United States already controlled 75% of world

TV (Campbell, 1996), and in 2006, 64% of all movies shown in the European Union were American-made (Damm, 2008). The same can be said for music. During the last century, American musical artists were extremely active in the creation of new genres and trends that have swept the globe, often massively impacting the music of countries far removed. Even Eurovision, a European music competition, has been paradoxically Americanized, with the participants now singing songs in English, markedly resembling those topping American music charts, often in accents identical to American English (Damm, 2008).

The only area in which the American influence has not been able to make a significant impression is sports. The four most popular sports in the United States – American football, baseball, basketball, and hockey – are not universally watched on a global scale, with the first couple being played only sporadically outside of the North American continent (Damm, 2008). In the environment of the Czech Republic, most attention is paid to the NHL (National Hockey League), since the best Czech hockey players often opt to play in the United States for higher salaries. Although the games in the NHL are daily reported on by the Czech media, the news regarding the other three American sports leagues (National Football League (NFL), Major League Baseball (MLB), and National Basketball League (NBA)) appears rarely. However, in recent decades, Czechs have expressed more interest in American football and baseball, with our national baseball association first established in 1992 (Votínská, 2022), and the first American football team, the Prague Lions, founded in 1991 (*O klubu*, n.d.).

#### *4.3. American culture in relation to TESOL*

With such high levels of American cultural influence, American forms of English have been steadily permeating the world's languages, with the highest success rate in the fields of technology, the internet, and popular culture. While European and Czech students are conditioned to learn British English at school, their exposure to American vocabulary and pronunciation in other realms of life is intensive, ceaseless, and, more crucially, often deliberately sought out through the cultural channels that the United States provides. Especially the media seems to affect the acquisition of Americanisms the most, and a study conducted by Axelsson in 2002 confirms this. When analyzing the cultural preferences of teenage Swedish students, she ascertained that 80% of students in her sample group placed TV series and films as the strongest factors shaping their pronunciation. The same study also inquired into the origin of the media the students consume, and overall, 64.7% of the participants claimed to watch primarily American TV series and films, while only 2.9% claimed

to watch British ones. The rest of the students (32.4%) were not sure about the exact origin of their favorite series and films (Axelsson, 2002).

This trend seems to continue at the university level as well. In a 2018 study in which Spanish university students were asked to recognize the accents of British and American speakers, an interesting phenomenon occurred. One of the students used her cultural knowledge as a bridge to connect the accent with the American variety of English. She correctly identified an American speaker by recalling that: “She [the speaker] speaks as most of the TV series I watch, and those are from [the] United States” (Carrie & McKenzie, 2018, p. 322). The same study also points to the generally shared sentiment of all participants, who described American English as more relaxed and unofficial, while British English was perceived as academic and formal. This perfectly shows the divide in today’s TESOL – American English is the “cool” variant of the culture present outside of school, while British English is seen as official and necessary for the advancement in education (Carrie & McKenzie, 2018).

In summary, American culture is a phenomenon that is no longer solely a commodity of the United States. The power that America exudes goes well beyond monetary or material assets, often penetrating the mentality of many other nations. The youth are generally the most likely to adopt American cultural trends and frequently utilize the Internet and social media to do so. The popularity of multibillion-dollar American businesses presents a unique value and desirability to the lives and mentalities of their customers, oftentimes young Europeans. The absolute American domination in the area of media and news favors the American point of journalistic view, further alluring non-Americans. Young Europeans are also intrigued by American fashion brands, food options, or, in some cases, sports. The presence of the United States in the media seems to be a continuous and influential factor in the acquisition and understanding of the English language by European students, despite their learning of predominantly British English.

## 5. Previous research

Moving onto the practical part of this thesis, it is necessary to first mention the work that has already been done on the issue. While not many studies have combined the three elements of English testing, cultural categorization, and personal preferences of the participants, more research has been devoted to the analysis of each aspect individually. At the same time, many of such studies are conducted by university professors and thus target college students, while only a few focus on the target group of this thesis, that is, 13- to 16-year-olds. Nonetheless, some of them will be mentioned, as they directly pertain to the topic of this thesis, and their findings may appropriately accompany the results that will be presented shortly.

Firstly, it is perhaps fitting to mention the work of fellow students of English who explored this issue in their bachelor's and master's theses. In 2016, Nováková presented her work that tested the recognition of lexical and spelling differences between the two varieties, using a short survey and targeting different types of Czech high schools. Jurigová (2011) adopted a similar approach in her bachelor's thesis, focusing on the preferences of 17- to 19-year-old students in Czech grammar schools. Stelzerová (2014) also focused on grammar schools, examining the process of teaching the differences between the varieties, designing and employing her own exercises. All of these theses confirmed that Czech students predominantly use British forms, however, these theses did not focus much on cultural aspects. More internationally, Alftberg (2009) examined the lexical and phonetic preferences of 9<sup>th</sup> graders in the Netherlands, finding that Dutch students show a stronger preference for American English. While these theses are thorough and illuminating, they cannot be considered official academic resources, and they will not function as a further point of reference.

Much work has been done in the field of phonological testing, an area that this thesis does not cover but that is still highly relevant to the issue at hand. In 2018, Brabcová and Skarnitzl conducted a listening perception test, examining the recognition abilities and preferences of non-English majors at the Faculty of Arts at Charles University. The British accent was considered the most prestigious, a sentiment that has appeared in similar studies throughout Europe (Carrie & McKenzie (2018) and their study in Spain). In Norway, adolescent students were tested in a similar manner, however, the results were different. More than 70% of them did not want to acquire the British accent and in general found the American one to be “less snobbish” and more easily adoptable (Rindal, 2013). This may point to the existence of different preferences across countries with high levels of English proficiency (Norway) and those with lower proficiency levels (Czech Republic, Spain).

A study conducted by Queiroz de Barros (2009) examining both phonological and lexical differences between British and American English in Portuguese university students shows that the respondents had more difficulties recognizing lexical and morphological differences (rather than accents). At the same time, the students expressed that American English is “less correct” and not suitable for education. There are, however, other studies that showed opposite sentiments. In 1993, Modiano pointed to the increasing levels of interest and preference for American English among Swedish university students. In short, preferences across Europe seem to vary greatly, especially throughout the last 20 years. Hopefully, more studies will be conducted on the age group between 10 and 15 years of age to shed light on how these preferences develop in earlier stages.

On the level of culture, the study conducted by Solgi & Tafazoli (2018) is definitely worth mentioning. The researchers tracked how the future Iranian teachers of English changed their cultural perspectives during and after they attended a course that focused on the cultures of different English-speaking countries. All participants reported that after attending the course they had gained much insight into the English-speaking world and, perhaps more surprisingly, improved their language abilities. This exemplifies the extremely important link between culture and language learning that this thesis explores and may function as an interesting idea that could be implemented in other parts of the world as well. With previous research on the topic now having been discussed, it is time to introduce the methods of research for this thesis.



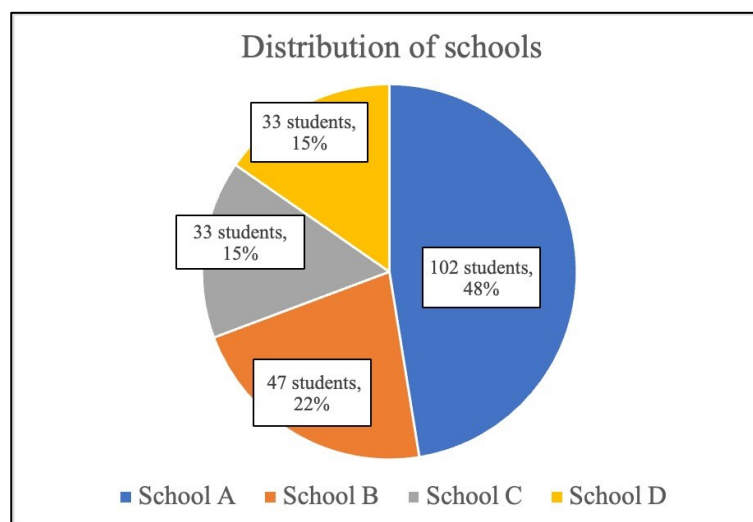
## 6. Methodology

### 6.1. Participants & the questionnaire

To obtain the data necessary for the research, a comprehensive questionnaire was created, spanning all areas relevant to the topic. The questionnaire was transposed to an online form and administered via personal computers. Altogether, 238 students of the 8<sup>th</sup> and 9<sup>th</sup> grades of Czech elementary schools participated. After a thorough cross-examination of each response form, 23 students were eliminated from the sample due to prank answers or copying. The final number of respondents has thus settled at 215 (95 males, 111 females, and 9 individuals who identified their gender as “other”), with an average age of 14.31 years (0.77 standard deviation). The choice to test the oldest children in the elementary school system was deliberate; it is assumed that they have amassed enough proficiency to understand the tasks ahead of them, and they are also the group that is actively consuming large amounts of external cultural products. Overall, 55.81% of students currently study in the 9<sup>th</sup> grade, and the rest (44.19%) study in the 8<sup>th</sup> grade.

The students come from 4 public elementary schools in the Pardubice region of the Czech Republic, and these institutions are all comparable in terms of size, environment, and teaching methods. Coincidentally, all schools used the same textbooks (the *Project* series published by Oxford University Press). The pie chart below shows the number of students attending the individual schools.

Figure 1: Pie chart capturing the distribution of participating schools.



The students were assured that the questionnaire was not a school test, and they were instructed not to look up the answers in any outside resources, talk with others during the completion, or return to the answers they had already submitted. The questions and instructions were formulated in Czech. There was no time limit within which the students should finish the questionnaire. The completion of the questionnaire took place directly at the schools and was supervised by a teacher. No technical difficulties occurred, and the reported time required for completion by all students was approximately 15 minutes. As far as the structure of the questionnaire goes, the 68 total questions were divided into 16 sub-sections. The table below summarizes the aim and focus of each of the sections, and the questionnaire in its entirety is attached to the appendix of this thesis (Attachment 1).

Table 1: Sections in the questionnaire.

Section number	General topic	Number of questions
1	Introductory information	5
2	Exercise 1 – personal choice (BrE x AmE)	9
3	Relationship and grades	2
4	Exercise 2 – translation (BrE to CZ)	9
5	Exercise 3 – translation (CZ to ENG)	11
6	5-10 min. break	0
7	English-speaking countries & culture	4
8	English-speaking countries & culture	2
9	Music and films	2
10	English-speaking countries in school	4
11	Personal cultural preference	3
12	Varieties of English	2
13	Recognizing varieties of English	3
14	Varieties of English	3
15	Translation (AmE to CZ)	9
16	Conclusion	0

As can be seen in the table, the sections seem to be ordered randomly, although this observation would be faulty. Much thought was given to the succession of the questions, as linguistic priming needed to be avoided. The goal of the questionnaire was to obtain the most natural and spontaneous responses without giving away the main goal of the thesis – testing the use of varieties. Therefore, prior to the administration of the questionnaire, the students were

informed that they would simply answer questions “about English and their relationship with this language.” As a result, the students were not aware of being tested in their choice between varieties, and the answers should thus reflect their natural preference for either British or American English and culture.

As can be seen above, Section 1 served as a source of basic information about the students (such as the participant’s age, gender, school, or information about the period when they started to learn English). Simultaneously, it eased the respondents into the questionnaire without starting off with the most difficult task. In Section 2, 9 pairs of spelling and lexical differences were presented to the students, one of them typically used in the British standard, the second in the American one (e.g. “colour” and “color,” “centre” and “center,” “sweets” and “candy” etc.). The students were asked which of the two words they perceived as correct, while also having the option to answer that both words were correct.

Section 3 contained only two questions, investigating the participant’s personal relationship to English and the received grade on their most recent report card. In Section 4, the students were tasked with translating 9 words that are commonly used in British English (such as “biscuit,” “trainers,” or “a lift”) into Czech. The students also had the option to not type in anything in case they did not know the answer. Section 5 was similar in nature, though this time, the participants were given 11 Czech words and asked to translate them into English. These words are frequently lexically (or spelling-wise) different in British and American English (such as the Czech “divadlo” with the British “theatre” and American “theater” as plausible options), and this section is thus the most direct in testing deliberate linguistic choice. It is also the most extensive section of the questionnaire. Again, the students had the option to leave the answers blank if they were not able to translate the words.

In Section 6, the students were advised to take a short break, as the questionnaire is quite complex, and by this point, the participants had already finished 3 vocabulary-related tasks. The supervising teachers were informed of this beforehand and were asked to make sure that the students were not looking up any of the previous questions or going back to the questionnaire. After the break, Sections 7 and 8 followed. These were focused on a mix of topics pertaining to the student’s knowledge about English-speaking countries or the materials they use in their English lessons. These sections also contained two tasks devoted to cultural categorization. In these, the participants were given a list of cultural phenomena and personae hailing from either the United Kingdom or the United States. In each of the two exercises, the students were asked to select those

that are either connected to Great Britain or the United States. The items were selected carefully and always came in pairs, though every pair was always broken up between the two exercises and never appeared as a duo (this can be best seen in the questionnaire itself). To exemplify these tasks, the attached table lists all the used items along with the cultural area to which they belong.

Table 2: Areas tested in cultural categorization.

<b>Area</b>	<b>United Kingdom</b>	<b>United States</b>
Most populous cities	London	New York
Other major cities	Birmingham	Los Angeles
Singers	Harry Styles	Olivia Rodrigo
Other celebrities	Adele	Kylie Jenner
Heads of states	Elizabeth II.	Joe Biden
Sports	cricket	baseball
TV series	The Crown	Euphoria
Sports leagues	Premier League	NHL
Sights	Big Ben	Statue of Liberty
Sports brands	Reebok	Nike
Major companies	Tesco	Apple
Foods and drinks	tea with milk	Starbucks
Movies	Harry Potter	Avengers

In Section 9, students were asked two short questions about their preferences in music and films, and Sections 10 and 11 examined the students’ perception of how school education affects their knowledge about English-speaking countries and whether this aligns with their personal wishes. The next three sections (12, 13, and 14) all focused on how well the students grasped the concept of different English varieties, particularly in connection to Great Britain and the United States. The option “Great Britain and the United States do not differ in their use of English” was always included to avoid coercing participants into second-guessing their previous answers or overthinking their natural predisposition. Lastly, Section 15 functioned as a follow-up to Section 4 and took on the same form, except this time the students were tasked with translating typically American forms. The words were also selected as counterparts to the British words used in Section 4 (meaning that if students had to translate the word “rubber” in Section 4, Section 15 then asked them to do the same for the word “eraser”). The two sections were deliberately placed at opposite ends of the questionnaire, one at the start and the other at the end, so that linguistic priming could

be avoided as much as possible. Section 16 functioned as a goodbye and a conclusion and contained no questions.

### *6.2. Working with the data*

Once all the data has been collected, an appropriate manner of analysis had to be chosen. For some of the less complex questions, simple percentage breakdowns were used (e.g., in categories such as gender or age). However, to obtain a more holistic examination of vocabulary and cultural preference – the pillars of this thesis – a more comprehensive method had to be applied. Naturally, not all of the 68 questions in the questionnaire could be analyzed, as this would have made the thesis extremely long. However, the most important ones showing the overarching trends were selected and used, and the way they have been handled is described below.

As for the approach adopted in determining the overall vocabulary preference of each participant, the following formula was applied. First, the number of correct answers was counted in each English-to-Czech translation task (Sections 4 and 15). The correct answers were stipulated to be those that are present in a dictionary and are generally used. Typos were also counted as correct as long as they did not take away from the clarity and intelligibility of the word (a consideration for students who might be dyslexic or have trouble typing on a keyboard). For example, a student might end up with 4 correct points in the British-to-Czech translation of Section 4 and then 5 points in the American-to-Czech translation of Section 15.

Second, a similar approach was adopted in Section 2, though in this exercise, the students also had the possibility to say that both options (British and American) are correct. In such cases, one point was added to each of the variants (if a student picked 3 British answers, 3 American answers, and 3 “both are possible” answers, they would end up with a score of 6 British answers and 6 American answers). Lastly, in Section 5 (testing the Czech-to-English translation), the number of American-English-based translations and British-English-based translations was calculated as well. Again, typos were accepted as long as they derived from an appropriate word and did not hinder the recognition of the given variety. If a typo made it impossible to recognize which variant the student was using, the answer was discarded as incorrect. After all these processes, the numbers of British and American answers from all sections would be added up, resulting in only two numbers. The table below shows a theoretical example of the entire process.

Table 3: Example progression in counting points.

	Section 2 BrE	Section 2 AmE	Section 4	Section 5 BrE	Section 5 AmE	Section 15	<b>TOTAL BrE</b>	<b>TOTAL AmE</b>
Student X	3	6	5	8	2	3	<b>19</b>	<b>11</b>

In this case, the hypothetical Student X, after all vocabulary exercises have been combined, clearly prefers British English over American English. This process was applied to all 215 participants. However, to make sure that the results were not simply binary, a scale was introduced. The total number of “British answers” (in this case 19), was divided by the total number of “American answers” (in this case 11). The resultant number would either reach over 1.00, signifying preference for British English, or go under 1.00, signifying preference for American English (in the example above, the result would equal 1.72). From now on, this number will be referred to as a “scaled vocabulary score” and will be used in the following chapter to present the results of the research.

In terms of exercises that tested cultural categorization and preference, a similar approach was adopted. The number of cultural items correctly identified as either British or American was first counted. Subsequently, one point was added to either one of these categories for each of the five cultural preference-oriented questions. These questions were: (1) Which country would you like to talk about more often?, (2) Which country would you like to visit?, (3) Which country do you personally perceive as more important?, (4) Who would you rather have as a new friend? (Briton or American), and (5) Which culture do you know more about?.

To make this clearer, let us imagine an example in which a student correctly identifies 6 British cultural phenomena and 8 American ones. After this, they answered 3 of the 5 preference-based questions by showing partiality toward the United States. This adds 3 points to the 8 previously correctly identified American cultural items. The remaining two answers show a preference for Great Britain, and the British category thus gains two points. As a result, the student will end up with a cultural score of 8 British answers and 11 American answers. Similarly to the results of vocabulary testing, these numbers would also be put on the same scale. To stick with this example, 8 divided by 11 equals 0.72, signifying a better knowledge of (and preference for) American culture. Anything above 1.00 would signal the opposite – a preference for British culture. This number will be referred to as a “scaled cultural score.”

As for the software used in the data collection and analysis, two systems should be mentioned. The questionnaire itself was created and administered via Google Forms. Simple

mathematical equations, percentage breakdowns, table summarizations, and graphs were created using Microsoft Excel. Now that the background of the research has been thoroughly described, it is time to move onto the final results.

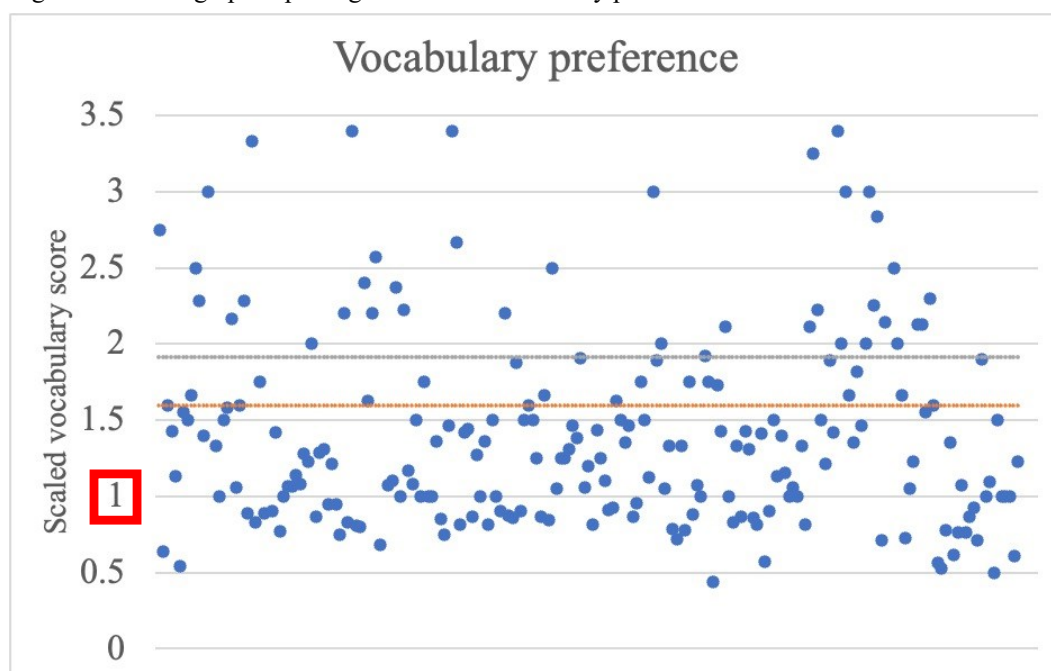
## 7. Results

In this chapter, the results of the questionnaire will be presented and accompanied by various forms of graphs. From some of them (particularly the scatterplots and boxplots), a few outliers scoring unusually high numbers had to be removed so that the data could be converted into coherent graphs. In each instance when this was done, a description of those removed is provided, and they are always included in all other calculations. The scale used is identical to the one described in the methodology: scores above 1.00 signify a preference for British English or British culture, and scores below 1.00 signify a preference for American English or American culture. The Pearson's correlation between the overall vocabulary and cultural preference equals 0.74, pointing to a strong positive relationship between these variables.

### 7.1. Overall vocabulary preference

In terms of the preferred variety, the main hypothesis has been confirmed. As can be seen in the scatter graph below, most students (143 students, 66.98%) scored above 1.00, preferring British English. 15 students (6.98%) scored exactly 1.00, which suggests they do not have a true preference, using both varieties indiscriminately. Lastly, 56 students (26.05%) scored less than 1.00, showing their proclivity for the use of American English. 4 outliers were removed from the graph (scoring at 26, 10, 5.2, and 4.5).

Figure 2: Scatter graph capturing the overall vocabulary preference.



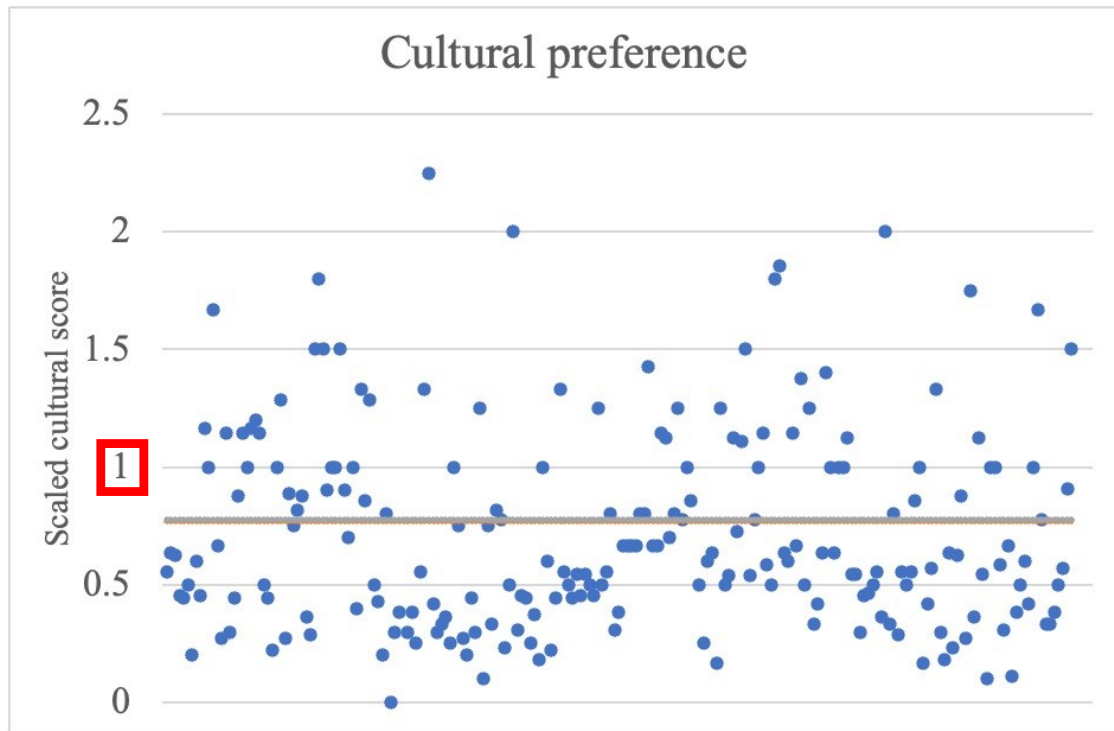
Note: Orange line represents average score (1.59), gray line represents standard deviation (1.91).



### 7.2. Overall cultural preference

Regarding the preferred choice of culture, the students seem to behave in a way predicted by the hypothesis as well, overwhelmingly preferring (and being more familiar with) American culture. In total, there were 153 students (71.16%) scoring below 1.00 on their combined cultural score, which signals their preference for American culture. 17 (7.91%) students scored precisely 1.00, thus showing no one-way preference, and 45 students (20.93%) scored above 1.00, being more familiar with and more inclined towards British culture. On average, the students scored 0.77 (0.77 standard deviation). Two outliers (scoring at 10 and 3) were removed from the graph.

Figure 3: Scatter graph capturing the overall cultural preference.



Note: Orange line represents average score (0.77), gray line represents deviation (also 0.77).

As can be seen in the graphs, the results tend to be quite clustered and centered around the “breaking point” of 1.00, particularly in vocabulary preference. To better understand the detailed preferences of students, several other categories were taken into account, such as gender, age of start, self-evaluation, personal relationship to English, or grades received. These will be described below. Through such an analysis, one may get a better understanding of which groups may be more attracted to a given variety or culture.

### 7.3. Gender

The sample consisted of 111 females (51.63%), 95 males (44.19%), and 9 individuals identifying their gender as “other” (4.19%). From the two boxplots attached below, it is clear that the vocabulary and cultural preferences between genders differ. Females tend to prefer British vocabulary more than males, and the same trend is present in culture as well. The gender category of “other” seems to lead the trend of Americanization in both vocabulary and culture. In the boxplot capturing vocabulary preferences, 4 outliers were removed from the graphs (3 males who scored 26, 10, and 5.2 points, and one female scoring 4.5 points). In the boxplot that captures cultural preferences, two outliers were removed (one male scoring at 10 and one female scoring at 3).

Figure 4: Boxplot capturing the relationship between gender and vocabulary preference.

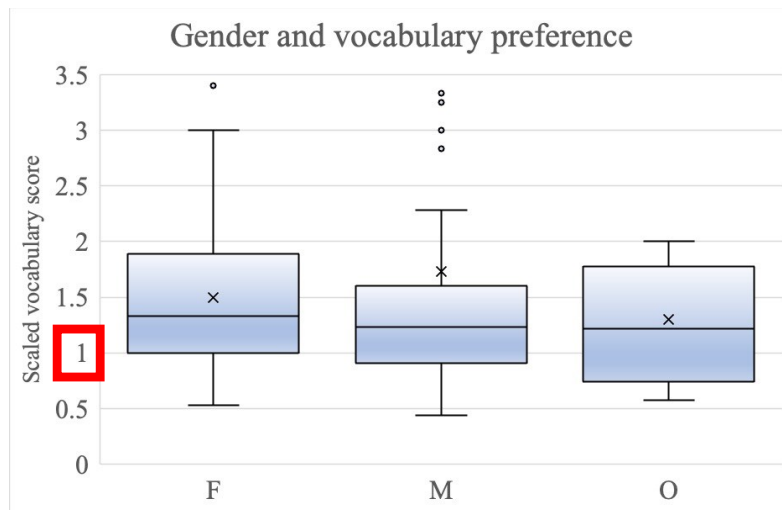
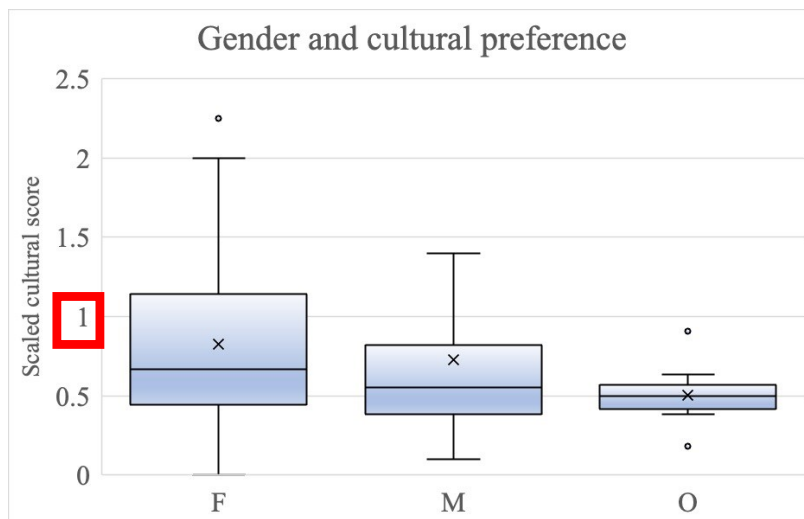


Figure 5: Boxplot capturing the relationship between gender and cultural preference.



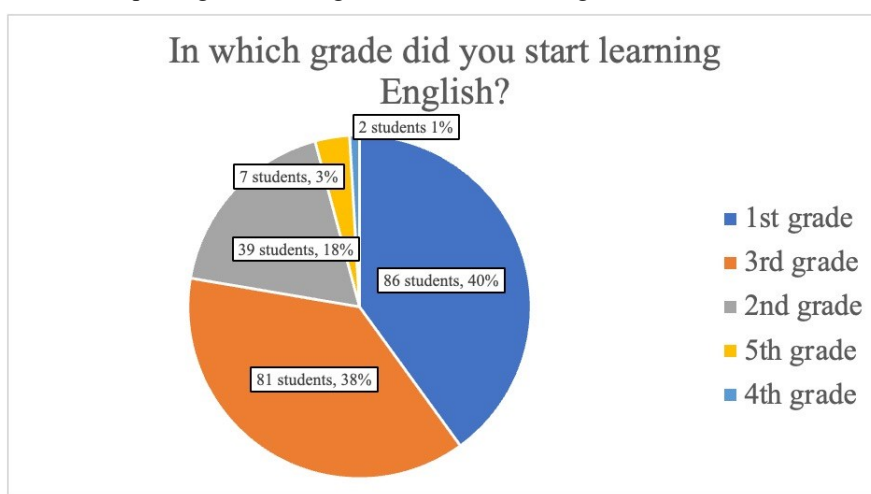
Note: F = female, M = male, O = other.

Other trends observable between the genders include the disparity between self-evaluation and graded performance. While females judge themselves to be worse at English (55.86% of all females self-reported to be “not good” at English, while only 43.16% of males reported the same thing), they received better grades (the average grade of females was 1.68, for males it was 1.93, using the Czech grading scale). At the same time, 63.96% of females reported to “like” English, while only 53.68% of males claimed the same. For those who identified their gender as “other,” 44.44% reported being good at English and also liking it, and their average grade was 2.11.

#### 7.4. Age of start

Among the participants, 5 groups were formed based on when in their education they started learning English, corresponding to the 5 grades in the lower level of Czech elementary schools (grades 1 to 5, from the youngest to the oldest). The two most popular categories were the 1<sup>st</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> grades, accounting for 78% of the sample. The pie chart below shows the distribution of students and the grades in which they started to learn English.

Figure 6: Pie chart capturing the school grade of the start of English education in all students.



Note: The legend is ordered based on the frequency of grades, not the logical succession of numbers.

In terms of vocabulary, those who started learning English in the 2<sup>nd</sup> grade seem to have the widest range of preferences. Those who started the latest prefer American vocabulary the most, but this trend cannot be taken as an irrefutable fact because only 9 students belong to this category. Culturally, all students prefer the United States. The graphs below attest to these facts. 4 outliers were removed from the graph capturing vocabulary preference (two students who scored 26 and 10 points and started in the 2<sup>nd</sup> grade, and two students who scored 5.2 and 4.5 points and started

in the 3<sup>rd</sup> grade). Two outliers were removed from the graph capturing cultural preference (one student who scored 10 points and started in the 2<sup>nd</sup> grade, and one student who scored 3 points and started in the 1<sup>st</sup> grade).

Figure 7: Boxplot capturing the relationship between the age of start and vocabulary preference.

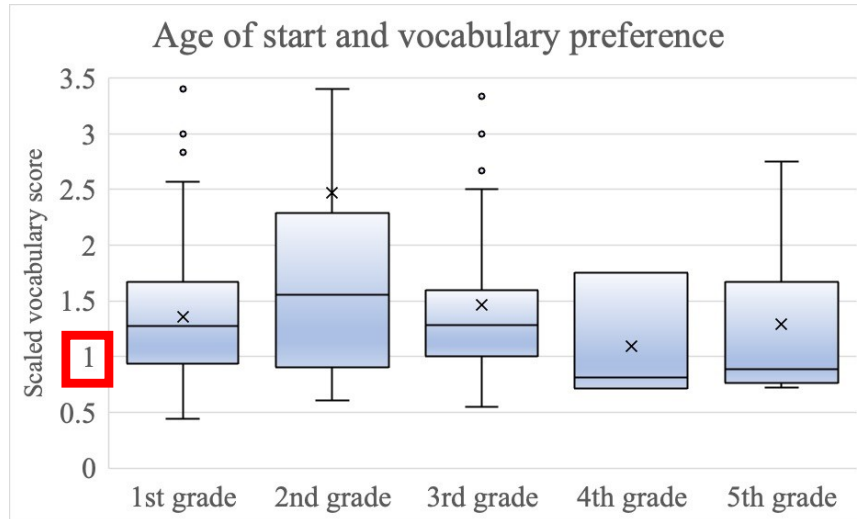
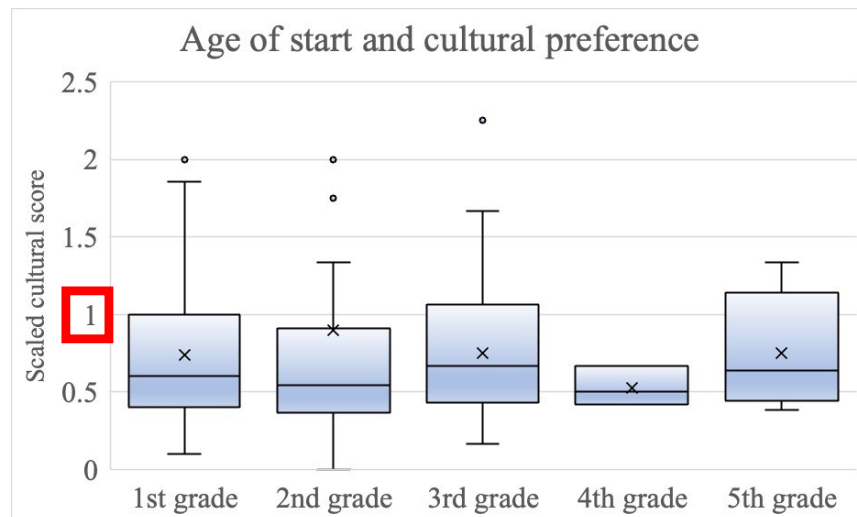


Figure 8: Boxplot capturing the relationship between the age of start and cultural preference.

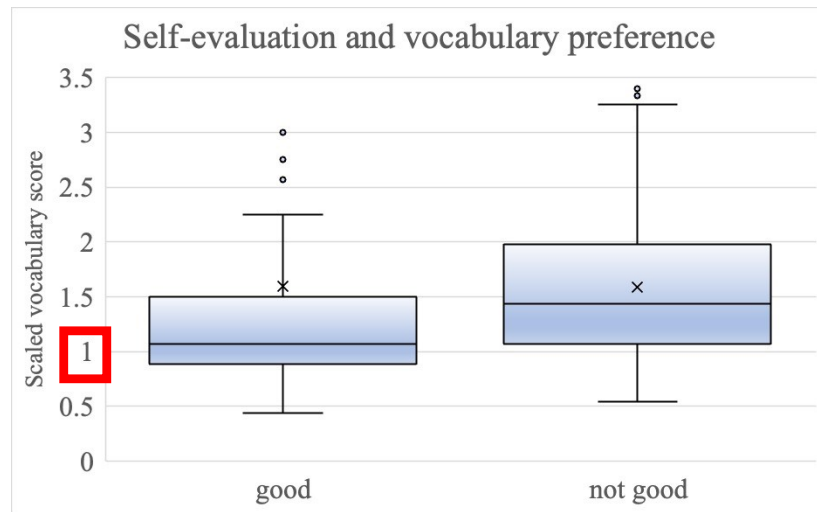


### 7.5. Self-evaluation

Next, students' self-evaluation will be explored. The participants had the opportunity to describe themselves as either "good" or "not good" at English, and this effectively split the sample in half – 108 students (50.23%) claimed to be "not good," while the rest (107 students, 49.77%) claimed to be "good." As might be expected, those in the "good" category had a better average

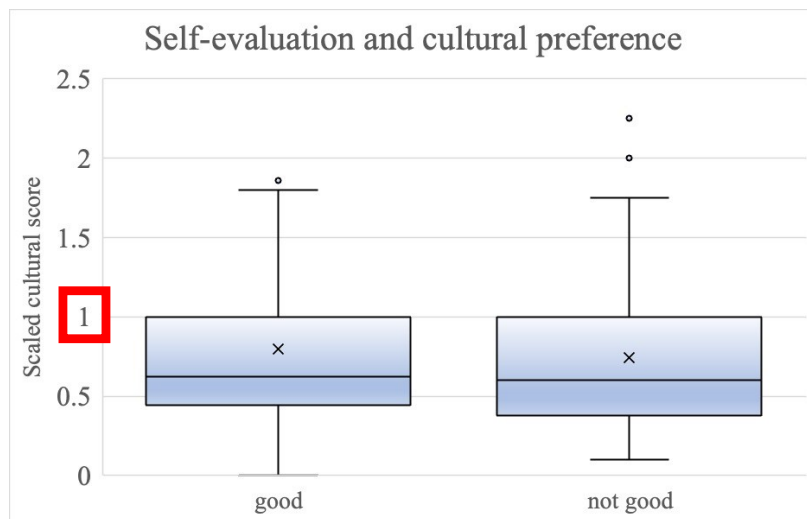
grade (1.48) than those in the “not good” category (2.13). Those evaluating themselves as “good” used British vocabulary significantly less than those who claimed to be “not good,” as seen in the graph below. 3 outliers were removed (3 students reporting to be “good,” scoring 26, 10, and 5.2 points, and one student who evaluated themselves as “not good” and scored 4.5 points.)

Figure 9: Boxplot capturing the relationship between self-evaluation and vocabulary preference.



The following graph shows that no significant differences were recorded in cultural preference, both groups prefer American culture over the British one. Two outliers were removed (one student who evaluated themselves as “good” and scored 10 points, and one student who evaluated themselves as “not good” and scored 3 points).

Figure 10: Boxplot capturing the relationship between self-evaluation and cultural preference.



### 7.6. Relationship to English

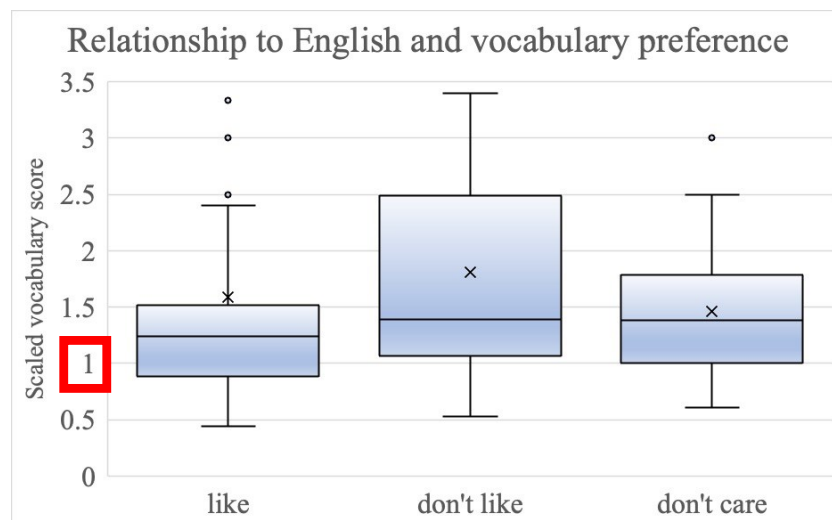
In the questionnaire, the students were also asked about their relationship to English and had the option to answer with sentences “I like it,” “I don’t care about it,” and “I don’t like it.” In general, 126 students (58.60%) claimed to like English, 53 students (24.65%) claimed to not care about it, and 36 (16.74%) claimed to dislike it. The table below summarizes how self-evaluation, received grades, and the students’ relationship to English interplay.

Table 4: Comparison of students’ relationship to English, self-evaluation, and average grade.

RELATIONSHIP	SELF-EVALUATION		AVERAGE GRADE
	I'm good	I'm not good	
I like English	53.60%	46.40%	1.57
I don't care about English	49.06%	50.94%	2.11
I don't like English	36.11%	63.89%	2.17

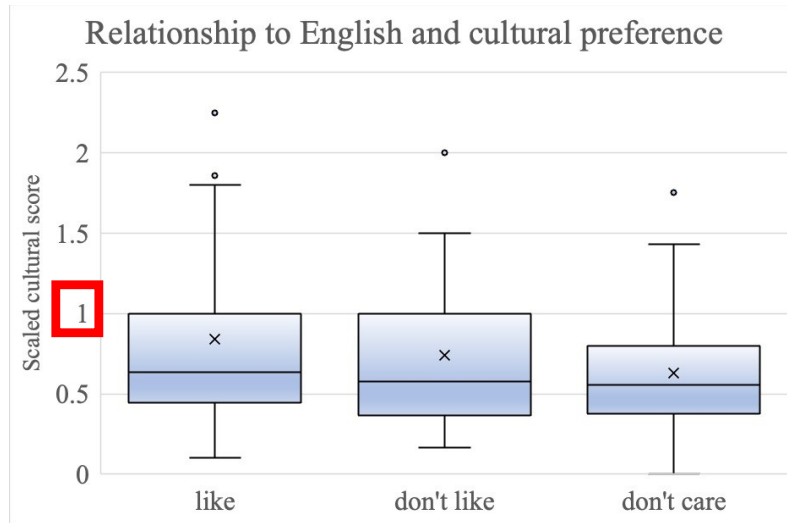
In their vocabulary preferences, those students who like English are more likely to use American forms and those who do not have a stronger preference for British forms. In the graph below, 4 outliers were removed (3 students who like English and scored 26, 10, and 4.5 points, and one student who does not like English and scored 5.2 points).

Figure 11: Boxplot capturing the relationship between students’ relationship to English and their vocabulary preference.



In terms of cultural preferences, only slight differences can be observed, with the “I don’t care” group leading in their preference for American culture. Two outliers were removed (two students who like English and scored 10 and 3 points).

Figure 12: Boxplot capturing the relationship between students' relationship to English and their cultural preference.



### 7.7. Grades received

Lastly, the sub-category of the received grade will be explored. Students were asked about the grade they received on their last report card (in the subject of English language). The Czech grading system works on a numerical basis, with number 1 being the best grade and number 5 being the worst grade. Frequently, these grades are substituted with words (1 = “excellent,” 2 = “very good,” 3 = “good,” 4 = “satisfactory,” 5 = “fail”). These labels were also used in the graphs below. In terms of vocabulary, those who received the grades “excellent” and “good” seem to show the highest propensity for use American vocabulary, although all groups stay markedly British, with the category of “very good” being the most prolific in their use of British forms. 4 outliers were removed from the graph below (two students who received the “excellent” grade and scored 26 and 10 points, and two students who received the grade “very good” and scored 5.2 and 4.2 points).

Figure 13: Pie chart capturing the distribution of received grades.

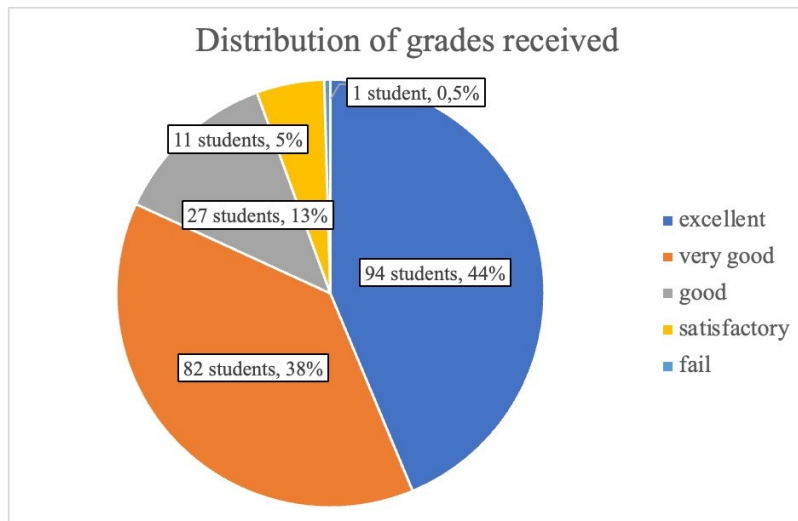
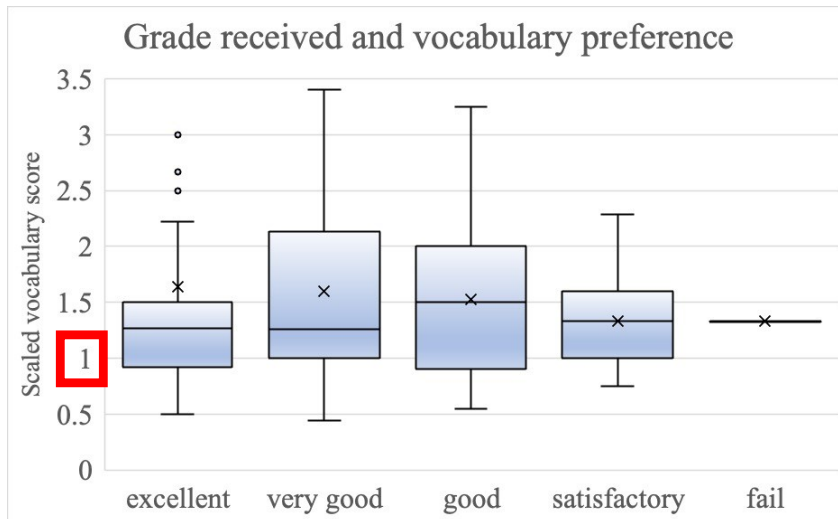


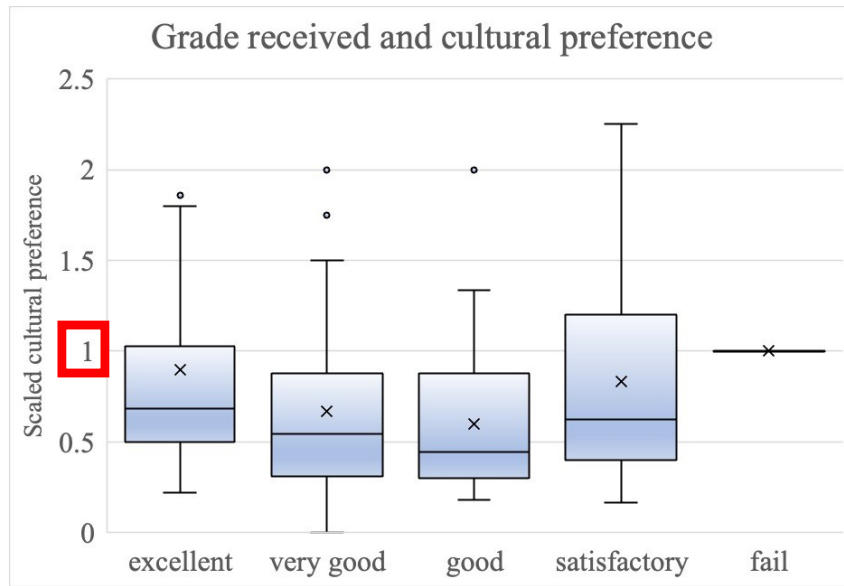
Figure 14: Boxplot capturing the relationship between grade received and vocabulary preference.



Culturally, students in all categories seem to prefer American culture (except for the one student who received the grade “fail”). Two outliers were removed from the graph below (one student who received the “excellent” grade, scoring 10 points, and one student who received the “very good” grade, scoring 3 points).



Figure 15: Boxplot capturing the relationship between grade received and cultural preference.



### 7.8. Other sub-trends

Since the questionnaire contained many questions of varying nature, at least some of them will be presented now to paint an even more detailed image of the participants. Firstly, the two pie charts below show the film and music preferences of the students. These results were not incorporated into cultural categorization and preference calculations because students might not always have a choice. The massive Americanization of the music and film industries does not necessarily leave much space for a preference for solely British forms of media. Yet, the results below may serve as a testament to how “American” the pastime of students has become.

Figure 16: Pie chart capturing film and TV series preferences.

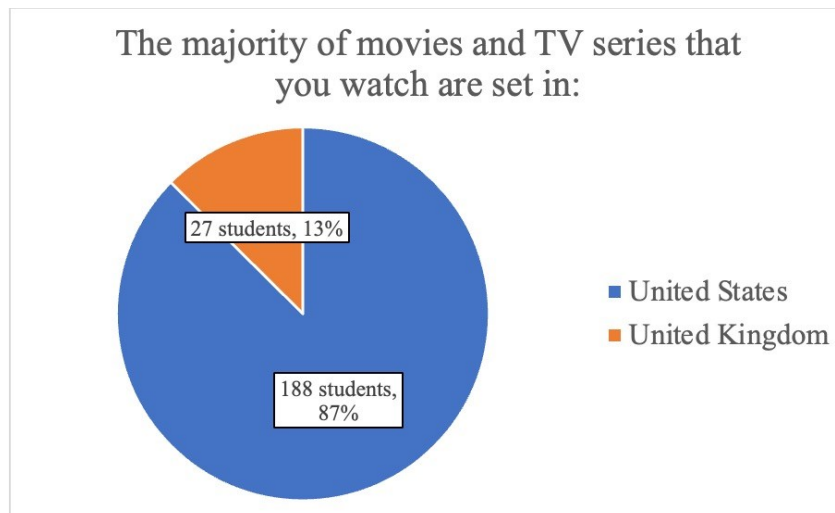
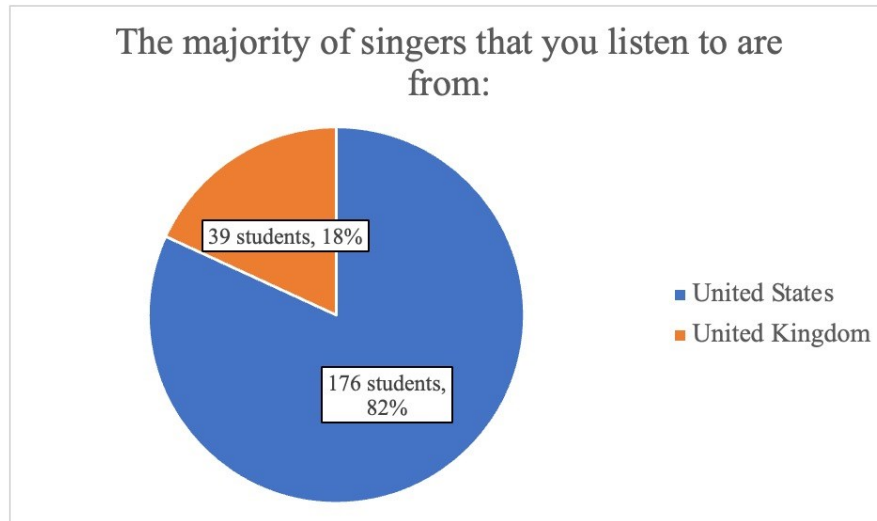


Figure 17: Pie chart capturing music preferences.



Secondly, a few questions touched on the content of English lessons. From the pie charts below, it is clear that the United Kingdom is the country that is primarily spoken about, and almost 65% of students feel as if they have been taught more about Britain.

Figure 18: Pie chart capturing the students' perception of which country they have been taught more about.

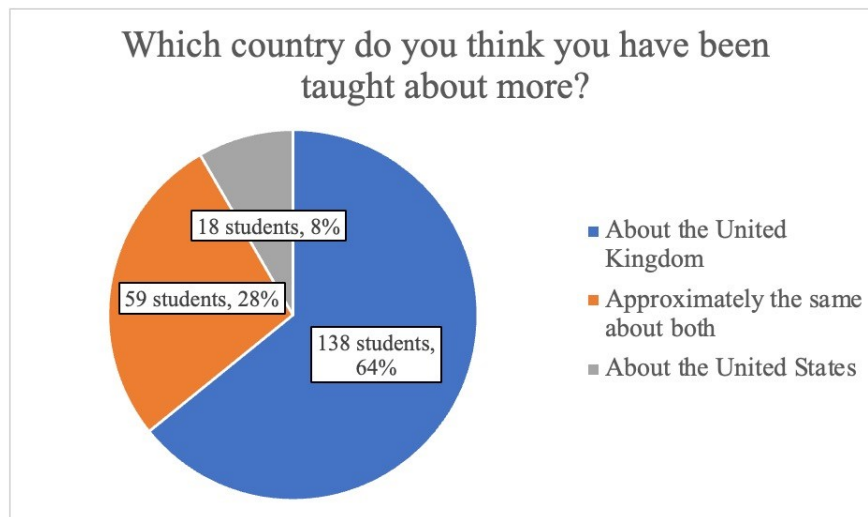
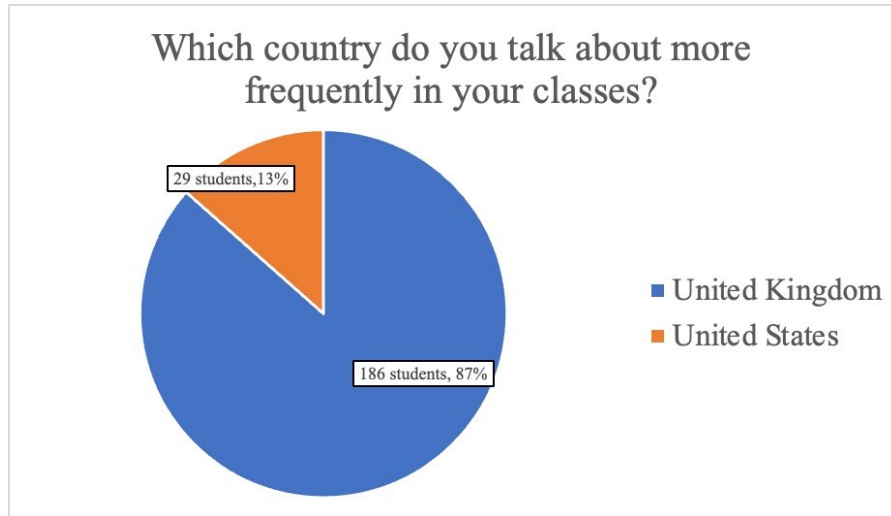
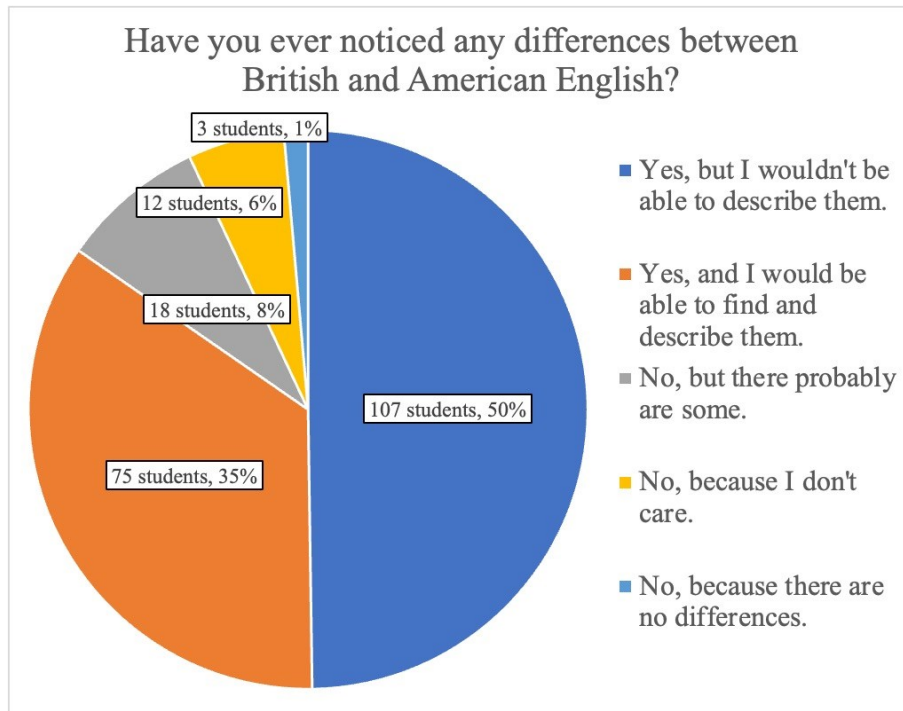


Figure 19: Pie chart capturing the students' perception of the frequency with which the United States and United Kingdom is talked about in class.



Lastly, the most direct question that was included in the questionnaire concerned the students' ability to discern whether British and American English differ. As the graph below shows, the majority of students are aware of the existence of certain differences but do not feel like they would be able to differentiate between varieties. 15% of the students have not noticed any differences, and only 35% of the students feel confident enough to say that they would be able to point them out.

Figure 20: Pie chart capturing students' reported abilities to recognize British and American English.



### *7.9. Students' commentary*

Since some of the tasks in the questionnaire were open-ended and the students could type in their answers, a few of them even included short commentaries. These are very relevant to how the students perceive culture, particularly the American one. When translating the word “sneakers” to Czech, one student first provided the correct translation and then added that “The ones from Nike are the best.” Other entries in the same task included comments such as “the cool shoes you can get in Footshop,” or “stylish shoes.”

One of the students also decided to e-mail the author of this thesis and share her entire journey of learning English. Mentioning that she had been taught by many teachers, she expressed frustration when confronted with a teacher who did not accept American English, which the student now prefers. At this moment, she is taught by a teacher who accepts both varieties, a fact for which she is very thankful. In the past, she used to think that American English was “the second, worse English,” but now, due to extensive contact with native speakers of English, she has realized that no English is inferior. The student also mentioned that other varieties of English, such as the Australian and Canadian ones, are never talked about in schools. The e-mail is attached in the appendix of this thesis (Attachment 2).

## 8. Discussion

The main hypothesis introduced at the beginning of this thesis claimed that Czech students in the last two years of elementary school will be very familiar with the culture of the United States and will prefer it over British culture. At the same time, due to the British-based instruction of English in Czech schools, they will use British vocabulary forms, which will pose an interesting imbalance between linguistic and cultural knowledge. The conducted research has confirmed this hypothesis in all its aspects. This chapter will further analyze the results as they pertain to the hypothesis and tie them to the academic discourse that has been published on this phenomenon.

### *8.1. Vocabulary preference*

As can be seen in Figure 2, most students have scored above 1.00 on their scaled vocabulary score and thus prefer British English. However, many of the students are clustered between 0.5 and 1.5 points. This points to the high amount of intermixing of the two varieties. Indeed, there were no students who used exclusively British or American English, all of the respondents combined both varieties to at least some degree. This trend has been described by several researchers (Mobärg, 2002; Modiano, 1996; Modiano, 2022), who point to the increasing level with which students use both British and American forms, both in pronunciation and vocabulary, seemingly without any system. Modiano (1996) even suggests that the instruction of exclusively British English should be abandoned, and a new variety, the so-called Euro-English, should be instated instead. Euro-English (sometimes also referred to as Mid-Atlantic English) is a variety that combines both British and American vocabulary and pronunciation and is thus more easily understandable for the majority of Europeans (Cenoz & Jessner, 2000). However, considering the logistics of such an endeavor, its application in the near future does not seem likely.

Although making sense of the randomness with which students sometimes seem to choose between British and American English may not seem easy, a few distinct trends appeared. First, the type of vocabulary used for testing seems to matter. Students tend to score differently on words stereotypically used in or tied to the school environment than on those from the “outside” world. This can be seen in the examples “rubber” and “flat”. Students were supposed to translate the word “rubber,” into Czech, while with “flat,” the process was inverted (students were given the Czech word “byt” and tasked with translating it to English). The success rate of these British forms was higher than when students encountered their American counterparts, reaching 84.65% of overall correct answers with “rubber” (compared to 31.63% with “eraser”) and 32.56% with “flat”

(compared to 14.88% with “apartment”). Superficially, this points to the students’ higher familiarity with British English, though the fact that these words are predominantly used in school seems to play a role. If two different examples that are stereotypically connected to popular culture are taken into account, the variety preference shifts. When translating the words “sneakers” and “hranolky” (chips/fries) the students preferer American forms (scoring 56.74% of overall correct answers with “sneakers” and only 33.02% with “trainers,” and 53.95% on “fries” in comparison to 13.95% on “chips”). This shows that students seem to store two different types of vocabulary – the school-related one that is British, and the non-school one that is American (Mobärg, 2002). This can be tied to the concept of language learning and language acquisition presented by Lightbown and Spada (2006) who claim that students learn British vocabulary consciously in their education (language learning), while American words make their way to them in an unconscious way through popular culture (language acquisition).

Secondly, it is important to comment on the differences between the genders. From Figure 4, it is clear that females are more frequent users of British vocabulary than males and others who have a stronger preference for American English. However, it is important to note that all groups use British English more than American English. The trend of males being more pro-American in their vocabulary (in comparison to females) has been well documented in the literature. Several studies testing students’ preferences (Ainasoja, 2010; Axelsson, 2002) confirm this, citing the males’ higher exposure to technology and computers (traditionally American domains) as possible reasons. While these propositions may certainly be valid, there may be another factor that contributes to the male preference for American English.

According to Holmes (1992), females are traditionally very conservative in their language use in the academic environment, where they strive to excel and conform to rules and standards (in this case, British English). Contrary to this, males are less concerned about their language always being correct, and they are more likely to incorporate unsanctioned or unusual forms (in this case, American English). Thus, it is plausible that females are simply more comfortable using the variety they have been taught, while males do not mind an occasional innovation that veers off the standard.

The age of start does not seem to make a significant difference in vocabulary preference (the last two grades cannot be considered, since the number of students who started to learn English in the 4<sup>th</sup> and 5<sup>th</sup> grades is very small and the sample is thus not very representative). It should also be noted that the number of students who reported having started learning English in the 2<sup>nd</sup> grade

is significantly smaller in comparison to those who started in either the 1<sup>st</sup> or 3<sup>rd</sup> grade (39 to 86 and 81 students, respectively). With the most populous categories of the 1<sup>st</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> grades left, no significant difference can be observed, suggesting that the age of start does not influence vocabulary preference much (Figure 7). More interesting differences emerge when vocabulary preference is compared to the self-evaluation of students along with their relationship to English.

In terms of self-evaluation, those students who claimed to be “not good” at English are much more likely to use British vocabulary, while those who report being “good” use British English significantly less (Figure 9). While this phenomenon would probably require its own sub-research, it is possible that those who report being “good” spend more of their free time consuming English media and are exposed to American forms more frequently. Those who are “not good” are presumably not very motivated to examine English outside of school, and their vocabulary thus stays more British. This ties directly to the relationship the students report having with English. Those who “don’t like” it are significantly more likely to use British English than those who “like” it or “don’t care” (Figure 11). The explanation here could be parallel – students who like English spend more of their leisure time reading or listening to English and are thus more likely to encounter American forms. Seemingly no previous research has tapped into these issues, so the explanation provided in this thesis is, as of this moment, only a conjecture.

Lastly, the received grades of the students reveal that all groups use predominantly British English, regardless of their school evaluation (Figure 14). Those who received the grade “excellent” seem to stay within a smaller range than those who received worse grades. Those who received the grades “excellent” or “good” also seem to use slightly more American vocabulary than those who received other grades (although the difference is minimal), and those who received the grades “very good” and “good” show the widest range of preference. All students still seem to overwhelmingly prefer British English, not diverting from the general pattern. Overall, it is clear that despite categorizing the students based on different criteria, the hypothesis seems to hold strong – the majority of students use British English more than American English.

## *8.2. Cultural preference*

Figure 3 clearly shows that the cultural preference of students is distinctly American, with the majority of respondents scoring below 1.00 points. Students also seem to be slightly less clustered, and more of them reach deeper into the American part of the graph. It is thus clear that the omnipresence of American-produced media and goods plays a significant role in the cultural

affinities of the students, and this has been confirmed by other studies as well (Mobärg, 2002). Interestingly, some patterns observed in the vocabulary testing also seem to repeat or slightly echo in the cultural tests.

In terms of gender, females are, once again, more familiar with (and fonder of) British culture, whereas males seem to steadily prefer American culture. Those who identified their gender as “other” are the most pro-American (Figure 5). A clear parallel to the previously mentioned students’ vocabulary scores appears here, with females more likely to prefer British vocabulary and British culture, while males gravitate towards American forms in both respects. At the same time, it should be noted that, despite these differences, all groups still prefer American culture over British culture.

To properly assess the category of the age of start, it should first be said that the 4<sup>th</sup> and 5<sup>th</sup> grades (once again) cannot be relied on because of the small number of students. The rest of the grades, particularly the 1<sup>st</sup> and the 3<sup>rd</sup> grade do not record much variance, although those who started to learn English the earliest seem slightly more attracted to American culture than those who started in the 2<sup>nd</sup> or 3<sup>rd</sup> grade (Figure 8). The sample of those who started to learn in the 2<sup>nd</sup> grade is again smaller and its representation on the graph might not be as precise.

In terms of self-evaluation, practically no differences can be observed. Both groups prefer American culture over the British one, and the self-reported assessment of their English proficiency does not seem to affect it (Figure 10). Similarly close results can be seen in the category of relationship, with those who “don’t care” about English seemingly having the smallest range of difference and those who “like” English being slightly more likely to prefer British culture, however, as it has already been mentioned, all groups still prefer American culture in quite an overwhelming way (Figure 12).

Lastly, even with regard to the grades received, the results do not show much fluctuation. All groups prefer American culture, those with better grades being slightly more inclined to feel fond of the British one as well, though not by much (Figure 15). The 11 students who received the grade “satisfactory” and the one student with the grade “fail” cannot be considered too seriously since their sample is very small and not representative. In summary, students display a decidedly pro-American sentiment in their cultural preferences, regardless of almost any other type of categorization, starkly contrasting their vocabulary-related choices.



### *8.3. Implications*

With the results of the research now having been introduced, it is imperative to comment on how the situation fits into the general context of English varieties in TESOL. The students have clearly shown that the majority of time in their English classes is devoted to Great Britain (Figures 17 and 18) even though their cultural preferences are American, which creates a conspicuous imbalance. As Adorno (1993) claims, language is not devoid of culture, and no culture can successfully function without language. The next section will introduce some of the reasons why students should be better informed about the varieties of English and what benefits they can gain from a more comprehensive approach to their English education.

There are several advantages students could gain if they were better informed about English varieties, particularly the American one. According to Davies (2005), in 2000, there were approximately 4,000 words that differed in their function or meaning in British and American English. Although some of them are certainly marginal in importance, many of them are common words in everyday use. By only being familiar with one variant, a student may then experience communication breakdowns or even embarrassment when confronted with a speaker who uses a different variety (the vastly different meanings of the word “rubber” in British and American English may serve as an example) (Campbell, 1996; Leontovich, 2005).

Secondly, students should be aware that combining the varieties is not always desirable. Many testing agencies or ESL teachers accept both British and American English, but only as long as a single variety is adhered to. Consistency is also generally encouraged in formal and legal documents (Smith, 2018). More information on varieties supplied at school could also help students understand why they are faced with two different options, one in school and one outside of school. Some countries, such as Japan or Sweden, have already incorporated the instruction of different varieties into their school curricula, which essentially means that students of other nationalities might be getting stuck behind (Harumi, 2002; Thörnstrand, 2008).

Lastly, it should also be mentioned that some students (such as the one whose e-mail has been described above) can hold erroneous beliefs about American English. All students should be taught that no variety is inferior or more appropriate than the other (Strevens, 1972). This could translate to the belief that the speakers of a given variety are in some ways inferior to others, and that is altogether undesirable. However, devoting more time to talking about American English is complicated. Many of the current teachers of English underwent their education and training in years where British influence was even stronger, and thus only teach what they themselves had

been taught, often working with materials that are predominantly focused on Great Britain and its English. Changing this cycle will be difficult, and if some changes are implemented, they will probably take many years.

## 9. Conclusion

The main goal of this thesis was to prove that the students of the 8<sup>th</sup> and 9<sup>th</sup> grades of Czech elementary schools use predominantly British vocabulary forms, while their cultural knowledge and preferences are pro-American. A complex questionnaire, including vocabulary-testing tasks, cultural categorization tasks, and cultural preference tasks, was administered in an online form to 215 students from 4 different elementary schools in the Pardubice region of the Czech Republic. The analysis of the results has shown that the hypothesis was correct in both of its propositions. As expected, the students prefer to use British vocabulary forms, most likely due to the focus on this variety that was brought about by several historical and socio-cultural phenomena of the last century. Roughly 67% of all participants use British forms more than American ones, although a high level of intermixing of the two varieties has been observed, as attested to in the literature. Furthermore, gender seems to affect the choice significantly, with females more likely to use British vocabulary than males. This disparity has been described by several researchers as well, pointing to a larger, prevalent trend.

The cultural preferences and knowledge of students have proven to be largely American-oriented. About 71% of the participants know more about and prefer American culture, with their cultural preferences more one-sided than their vocabulary choices. This has been caused by the large wave of Americanization the Czech Republic has experienced in the last 40 years, spurred by the strong presence of (social) media that the age group of the participants is traditionally the most avid user of. Again, gender is a category that divides participants slightly, with females more likely to prefer British culture over American one – a pattern that directly copies the vocabulary scores.

There are several phenomena alluded to in the present thesis that could function as a basis for future research. Firstly, more European studies dealing with the age group of teenagers need to be conducted, as most research focuses on university students and their linguistic preferences. Secondly, separate research examining the relationship between self-evaluation, the relationship to English, and the preferred variety should be conducted, as this thesis could present only a limited picture of these phenomena. Lastly, the phonological preferences of students could also be analyzed and compared to their cultural preferences, and a comparison of such results could be drawn to the current thesis.

Regarding the limitations of this thesis, the geographical scope of the research could be improved upon, with all participating schools coming from a single region. Furthermore, all schools use textbooks from the *Project* series, which speaks to the popularity of this material but could also

skew the results since all students encounter the same theory and exercises. Lastly, the grades received reflect not only the work and effort of the students but also the grading scales of individual teachers and schools, which can differ.

Despite some of the mentioned limitations, this thesis has provided a detailed analysis of the current trends in the linguistic and cultural preferences of 8<sup>th</sup>- and 9<sup>th</sup>-grade students and tied them to the historical, social, and academic discourse surrounding this issue. Apart from confirming its hypothesis, it pointed to other, more subliminal trends that are worth exploring in the future. As such, it may hopefully function as a valuable resource not only for the academic discourse on TESOL in the Czech Republic and Europe but also for current and future educators of English.

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## 11. Resumé

Cílem této práce bylo prozkoumání jazykových a kulturních preferencí u žáků 8. a 9. tříd základních škol v České republice ve vztahu k Velké Británii a Spojeným státům. Vychází z hypotézy, že žáci budou kvůli školní výuce angličtiny, která je v České republice klasicky britsky orientovaná, upřednostňovat lexikální formy britské angličtiny. Díky silnému kulturnímu vlivu Spojených států budou ale zároveň preferovat kulturu americkou (nikoli britskou), o které budou mít hlubší znalosti. Práce obsahuje jak část teoretickou, která se zabývá důvody silného vlivu britské angličtiny v českém a evropském školství, tak i část praktickou, v jejímž rámci byla hypotéza testována.

První kapitola této práce funguje jako úvod do dané problematiky. Kapitola navazující představuje historický vývoj výuky angličtiny na našem území a ve zbytku Evropy v posledních dvou stoletích. Jak Peprník (n.d.) dokládá, 19. století bylo převážně dobou bez vyššího zájmu o angličtinu, s výjimkou několika málo intelektuálů cestujících buď do Spojených států, nebo do Spojeného království. Zde se někteří naučili anglicky a po návratu do vlasti vydali první české učebnice angličtiny. Ačkoli nálada ve společnosti byla v určitých obdobích značně protibritská kvůli paralele mezi útlakem Irů v Británii a Čechoslováků v habsburské monarchii, tyto učebnice se řídily britským standardem, který byl vnímán jako originální forma angličtiny.

Větší zájem o výuku angličtiny Československo zaznamenalo až po získání nezávislosti v roce 1918. Díky podpisu Pittsburské dohody byly Spojené státy Čechoslováky vnímány jako vzor demokracie a svobody, který chtěla nová republika následovat. Americké formy angličtiny začaly pronikat do češtiny, nejčastěji ve formě přímých výpůjček („jazz“, „job“, „car“, atd.), či dokonce užití anglických vlastních jmen („Johnny“, „Mary“) (Meixner, 1971). Angličtina byla nově vyučována na obchodních akademiích a gymnáziích, stále podle britského vzoru. Toto období ale netrvalo dlouho a s nástupem Hitlerova Německa k moci bylo československé obyvatelstvo znovu silně germanizováno. Angličtina přestala být vyučována a hlavním jazykem výuky na všech školách se stala němčina (Cigánek, 2009).

Po druhé světové válce se k výuce angličtiny mnoho škol nevrátilo a tento jazyk byl aktivně vytlačován ruštinou. Po únorovém převratu roku 1948 byla ruština zavedena jako povinný cizí jazyk a až do období destalinizace v polovině 50. let nebyla výuka jiného cizího jazyka obecně povolena. S tímto uvolněním se poté mohli žáci věnovat francouzštině či němčině, ale jen ve velmi omezené míře (Bruen & Sheridan, 2016). Zbytek Evropy se mezitím intenzivně

angličtině věnoval, ať už v rámci vzdělání, či přijímání americké populární kultury. Je třeba zmínit, že až do 80. let byla americká angličtina vnímána jako neformální a nevhodná k výuce, což bylo často reflektováno v negativních postojích učitelů, kteří ji neakceptovali, a obzvlášť výslovnost s americkými prvky byla zavrhována (Benson et al., 1986).

Po sametové revoluci nastala v postkomunistických zemích včetně Československa naprosto nová situace. Ruština byla jako povinný cizí jazyk zrušena a obrovské množství studentů se začalo dožadovat výuky angličtiny. Díky upozadování tohoto jazyka během předchozích 40 let (včetně minimálního množství profesionálních učitelů), bylo téměř nemožné tento nápor řešit. Nejvíce se toto odráželo v nedostatku vhodných materiálů a kvalifikovaných vyučujících, kteří na školách prozatímně působili (Schleppegrell, 1991). Velkou oporou se brzy stal British Council, britská organizace založená roku 1934, která se zaměřuje na výuku angličtiny po celém světě. V Československu začala zakládat výuková centra, pořádat školení pro učitele a v neposlední řadě dodávat velké množství britských učebnic (British Council, 1996).

Tento proces byl úspěšný a jeho vliv je stále silně cítit – britská angličtina je v České republice velmi populární, ve výuce se používá jako primární varianta a mnoho učebnic se jí stále řídí. Se získáním svobody po roce 1989 ale také přišel silný vliv Spojených států, obzvlášť v oblasti populární kultury a obchodu. Češi tento vliv kvůli jejich přechozímu odříznutí od západního světa nadšeně vítali a dnešní česká kultura je silně amerikanizována (Pudilová & Veselá, 2021). Třetí kapitola této práce se potom dále věnuje nehistorickým důvodům pro dominanci britské angličtiny v dnešním školství navzdory zmíněnému silnému kulturnímu vlivu Spojených států.

Prvním takovýmto důvodem je geografická blízkost České republiky a Spojeného království, což vede k vyššímu množství českých turistů. Je ale třeba zmínit, že množství Čechů trvale žijících či pracujících ve Spojených státech a Velké Británii je porovnatelné (zhruba 45 tisíc jedinců). Druhým důvodem je pak dominantní britská přítomnost na trhu s výukovými materiály a jazykovou certifikací, která je s tou americkou neporovnatelná. Toto je způsobeno dlouhodobým britským zaměřením na rozšíření angličtiny do světa, zatímco Američané si toto za cíl nikdy neurčili a soustředí se na svou domácí scénu (Smith, 2018). Mnoho zahraničních studentů tak musí skládat jazykové zkoušky u britských testovacích agentur, i když chtějí studovat ve Spojených státech.

Dalším aspektem je pak členství České republiky v Evropské unii. Ačkoli Velká Británie tuto organizaci dobrovolně opustila v roce 2016, dle příručky *English Language Guide* pro překladatele a tlumočníky vydané Evropskou komisí je doporučeným standardem britská a irská angličtina a té americké je hodno se vyhnout (European Commission, 2021). Vzhledem k vlivu Evropské unie na její členské země je jasné, že toto opatření má silnou váhu. V neposlední řadě je pak také důležité zmínit dlouhou historii evropských předsudků vůči americké angličtině. Tento sentiment se v první polovině 20. století objevoval i u Američanů samotných, kdy někteří jedinci věřili, že jejich angličtina je oproti té britské chudší a neformálnější (Smith, 2018). Ačkoli naprostá většina Američanů už takhle o své mateřštině nesmýšlí, mnoho Evropanů se touto vírou v průběhu 20. i 21. století řídilo a řídí. Několik autorů poukazuje na předsudky vůči americké angličtině ve školství (Modiano, 1996; Pyles & Algeo, 1993; Tottie, 2002), proti kterým se dá ne vždy úspěšně bojovat.

Čtvrtá kapitola se zabývá vlivem americké kultury na evropskou a českou společnost v posledních několika dekádách. Jsou představeny koncepty „tvrdé“ a „jemné“ síly, tedy schopností Spojených států ovlivňovat nejenom to, co ostatní státy dělají, ale také to, že to dělat chtějí (Damm, 2008). Americká populární kultura je velkou součástí této „jemné“ síly, obzvláště pro mladší generace. Pro mnoho mladých Evropanů jsou zároveň Spojené státy symbolem svobody a materiálního bohatství (Graddol, 1997). Americká populární kultura je navíc typická svou přímostí, všedností a relativní jednoduchostí, která přispívá k jejímu mezinárodnímu rozšíření a porozumění (Damm, 2008; Frank, 2004). Americká hudba, filmy, jídlo i módní značky jsou pro české náctileté velkým magnetem, jenž se rozšiřuje pomocí sociálních sítí. Spojené státy zároveň vlastní dvě z největších informačních agentur na světě a jsou také zemí, kde byly založeny celosvětově užívané internetové sítě jako Google, Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, nebo YouTube. Tato země tak kontroluje nejenom obsah, ale i formu populárních trendů (Campbell, 1996).

Toto se výrazně podepisuje i na angličtině jako jazyku. Podle několika studií (Axelsson, 2002; Carrie & McKenzie, 2018) mají typicky americké sociální sítě vliv na slovní zásobu a výslovnost evropských žáků, kteří sice hodnotí britskou angličtinu jako prestižnější pro oblast školství, ale zároveň považují tu americkou jako vhodnější pro každodenní komunikaci a jednodušší k fonetickému napodobení. Tato sekce přímo navazuje na další kapitolu, která krátce představuje studie a výzkum, který byl ohledně těchto témat vykonán. Je důležité zmínit, že mnoho takovýchto studií se odehrává v prostředí univerzit, kde jsou testovány preference



studentů (Modiano, 1993; Queiroz de Barros, 2009). Výzkumů, které by se věnovaly skupině od 10 do 15 let věku, je velice málo, anebo se vyskytují na jiných kontinentech. Více studií se také věnuje fonetice (Brabcová & Skarnitzl, 2018). Mezi důležité kulturní studie se pak řadí Solgi & Tafazoli (2018), která zkoumá vztah mezi výukou kultury a jazyka.

Šestá kapitola představuje metodologii, která byla užita v praktické části této práce. Výzkum byl převeden do formy online dotazníku, který vyplnilo 215 studentů 8. a 9. tříd čtyř českých základních škol s průměrným věkem 14.31 let. Dotazník obsahoval 68 otázek, které byly rozděleny do 16 sekcí a zabývaly se jak lexikálními překladovými cvičeními, tak kategorizací kulturních reálií a celkových preferencí studentů. V překladových cvičeních bylo vždy sečteno, kolik odpovědí britské a americké angličtiny každý student uvedl. Celkové britské číslo pak bylo vyděleno číslem americkým, což převedlo skóre na stupnici. Výsledky nad 1.00 tak znamenaly preference pro britskou slovní zásobu, zatímco výsledky pod 1.00 preferenci pro tu americkou. Obdobný postup byl aplikován pro skóre u kulturní kategorizace, zároveň ale bylo mezi britské a americké kulturní skóre rozděleno pět bodů z otázek zkoumajících kulturní preferenci studentů. Výsledné britské kulturní číslo bylo opět vyděleno tím americkým, a vznikla tak stupnice se stejným hodnocením – skóre nad 1.00 signalizuje větší znalost a preferenci britské kultury, skóre pod 1.00 větší znalost a preferenci americké kultury.

Sedmá kapitola obsahuje podrobné výsledky, které byly převedeny do různých forem grafů a tabulek. Následující kapitola pak tyto výsledky analyzuje a popisuje jejich spojitost s odbornou literaturou. Hlavní hypotéza této práce byla potvrzena; téměř 67% žáků získalo skóre nad 1.00 u lexikálních cvičení a preferují tak britskou slovní zásobu, i když je přítomno velké množství mixování obou variant, což se objevuje i v literatuře (Mobarg, 2002); Modiano, 1996). U kulturní kategorizace a osobní preference žáci v 71% případech skórovali pod 1.00, a upřednostňují tak americkou kulturu nad tou britskou. Určité rozdíly byly zaznamenány mezi pohlavími. Dívky užívají britské lexikální formy častěji než chlapci a také preferují britskou kulturu ve větší míře (i když všechny skupiny prokázaly silnou inklinaci k americké kultuře). Tento fenomén byl již popsán (Ainasoja, 2010; Axelsson, 2002) a dá se odůvodnit větším vystavením chlapců technologii či jejich větší ochotě užívat formy, které nejsou ve školním prostředí standardní.

Další rozdíly byly zaznamenány mezi těmi, kteří uvedli, že mají angličtinu rádi, a těmi, které příliš nezajímá, či ji rádi nemají. Ti, kteří mají k angličtině dobrý vztah, používají britské

lexikální formy ve znatelně menší míře než ti, kteří ji rádi nemají. Dalším kritériem bylo sebehodnocení. Žáci měli možnost uvést, že jsou v angličtině buď dobří, anebo že v ní dobří nejsou. Ti, co se hodnotili kladně, opět užívali britské formy méně než ti, co se hodnotili negativně. Zatímco odborná literatura se tomuto tématu zatím v podstatě nevěnovala, je možné, že žáci, kteří mají k angličtině kladný vztah, tráví více svého volného času s médii, která angličtinu používají, a tak mají i vyšší pravděpodobnost narazit na americké formy, kterými nahrazují ty školní, tedy britské. Žáci, co angličtinu rádi nemají, nejsou pravděpodobně silně motivováni ji objevovat i v mimoškolním prostředí, a tak se drží forem, které se naučili, tedy těch britských. Tento poznatek tedy může fungovat jako oblast nového, relativně neprozkoumaného výzkumu.

Analýza několika dalších otázek z dotazníků prokazuje, že většina času v hodinách angličtiny je věnována Velké Británii, a že většina médií, která žáci konzumují, je amerických. 65% studentů zároveň přiznává, že nejsou schopni rozdíly mezi americkou a britskou angličtinou rozeznat, nebo že si jich vůbec nevšimli. Závěrem tato kapitola také uvádí několik důvodů, proč by měli být žáci o americké angličtině ve škole lépe informováni. Znalost pouze jedné varianty angličtiny může totiž vést ke komunikačním obtížím či ztrapnění, nebo k mylnému závěru, že některá angličtina a její mluvčí jsou nadřazeni těm druhým (Campbell, 1996; Leontovich, 2005; Strevens, 1972). Následující a zároveň poslední kapitola funguje jako shrnutí a rekapitulace poznatků, ke kterým tato práce dospěla, a představuje i její limity či návrhy pro budoucí výzkum.

## 12. Appendix

### 12.1. Attachment 1 – Questionnaire

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#### SEKCE 1

Výzkum – Bakalářská práce (Univerzita Karlova)

V tomto průzkumu budeš odpovídat na otázky o angličtině a o tom, jaký k ní máš vztah. **Dotazník je anonymní a nikdo nebude znát tvé jméno.** Tvé odpovědi budou použity jen pro účely výzkumu a vypracování bakalářské práce na obdobné téma. Tvá data jsou chráněna a bude s nimi nakládáno bezpečně a eticky.

Nejedná se o žádný test a nikdo tvé odpovědi nebude známkovat a neovlivní tvůj prospěch ve škole. Můžeš být tak upřímný/á, jak chceš.

Pracuj na něm, prosím, sám/sama a nerad' se s ostatními nebo od nich neopisuj – potom mi tvůj dotazník nijak nepomůže a je to ztráta času pro nás všechny. Jakmile svou odpověď zadáš, už se k ní nevracej. Pracuj podle svého tempa, na dokončení máš tolik času, kolik budeš potřebovat. Také nepoužívej slovníček nebo jakékoli zdroj na internetu. Když něco nevíš, nic se neděje – není to test, potřebuji jenom tvou upřímnost.

Moc děkuji za tvou pomoc!

*Vypracovatel a kontakt: [author's name and e-mail address]*

---

1. Kolik ti je let?

2. Jak se jmenuje škola, do které chodíš?

3. V jaké jsi třídě?

a. 8. třída

b. 9. třída

4. Jakého jsi pohlaví?

a. ženské

b. mužské

c. jiné

5. V jaké třídě jsi se ve škole začal/a učit angličtinu?

a. 1. třída

b. 2. třída

c. 3. třída

d. 4. třída

e. 5. třída

---

## SEKCE 2

6. Správný způsob, jak anglicky napsat slovo “barva” je:
- a. color                      b. colour                      c. Obě možnosti jsou správně.
7. Minulý čas od slovesa “travel” je správně:
- a. travelled                      b. traveled                      c. Obě možnosti jsou správně.
8. Slovo “sladkosti” se anglicky správně řekne:
- a. candy                      b. sweets                      c. Obě možnosti jsou správně.
9. Slovo “centrum” se v angličtině správně píše:
- a. center                      b. centre                      c. Obě možnosti jsou správně.
10. Slovo “maminka” se v angličtině správně píše:
- a. mum                      b. mom                      c. Obě možnosti jsou správně.
11. Jak se v angličtině správně řekne slovo “obchod”?
- a. shop                      b. store                      c. Obě možnosti jsou správně.
12. Jak bys převedl/a sloveso “dream” do minulého času?
- a. dreamt                      b. dreamed                      c. Obě možnosti jsou správně.
13. Jak se anglicky řekne “motorka”?
- a. motorbike                      b. motorcycle                      c. Obě možnosti jsou správně.
14. Jak se anglicky řekne “podzim”?
- a. fall                      b. autumn                      c. Obě možnosti jsou správně.
- 

## SEKCE 3

15. Jaký bys řekl/a, že máš k angličtině vztah?
- a. Mám ji rád/a a jsem v ní dobrý/á.  
b. Mám ji rád/a, ale moc mi nejde.  
c. Nemám ji rád/a, ale jsem v ní dobrý/á.  
d. Nemám ji rád/a a nejsem v ní dobrý/á.  
e. Je mi to celkem jedno, ale jsem v ní dobrý/á.  
f. Je mi to celkem jedno a moc mi nejde.
16. Jakou známku jsi dostal/a z angličtiny na posledním vysvědčení?
- a. 1                      b. 2                      c. 3                      d. 4                      e. 5
- 

## SEKCE 4

V dalším cvičení zkus přeložit do češtiny ta slova, která znáš. Pokud je neznáš, nic se neděje, do políčka nic nepiš.

17. rubber
  18. handbag
  19. toilet
  20. university
  21. wardrobe
  22. a lift
  23. football
  24. biscuit
  25. trainers
- 

#### SEKCE 5

V dalším cvičení to zkusíme naopak. V této sekci budeš mít české slovo, které zkus přeložit do angličtiny. Pokud slovíčko neznáš, nic do políčka nedoplňuj.

26. hranolky
  27. byt
  28. odpadkový koš
  29. oblíbený
  30. divadlo
  31. dovolená
  32. matematika
  33. kalhoty
  34. svetr
  35. šedá
  36. soused
- 

#### SEKCE 6

Dej si teď malou přestávku, asi 5-10 minut. Pak se vrať k druhé polovině dotazníku.

---

#### SEKCE 7

37. Zkus česky napsat všechny země, o kterých víš, že se tam mluví anglicky.
38. Zaškrtni všechna políčka, o kterých si myslíš, že jsou spojena s Velkou Británií.

- Joe Biden
- Birmingham
- kriket
- seriál The Crown

- Kylie Jenner
- Premier League
- Harry Potter
- Socha svobody
- čaj s mlékem
- New York
- Reebok
- Tesco

39. Když máte v hodinách angličtiny poslechy, řekne vám pan učitel/paní učitelka, odkud (z jaké země) pochází mluvčí z nahrávky?

- a. Ano, vždycky.
- b. Ano, občas.
- c. Spíše ne.
- d. Nikdy.

40. Posloucháte v hodinách občas i nahrávky, co nejsou z vaší učebnice nebo pracovního sešitu?

- a. Ano, hodně.
- b. Občas.
- c. Spíše ne/Nikdy.

41. Zaškrtni všechna políčka, o kterých si myslíš, že jsou spojena s USA.

- Los Angeles
- Harry Styles
- královna Alžběta
- serial Euphoria
- Big Ben
- Avengers
- Adele
- NHL
- Baseball
- Starbucks
- Londýn
- Nike
- společnost Apple



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SEKCE 12

52. Pověděl/a vám pan učitel/paní učitelka **ve škole** o tom, že jsou na světě “různé angličtiny”?

- a. Ano, a ukázal/a nám, jak se liší.
- b. Ano, ale nikdy nám neukázal/a příklady.
- c. Ne, neřekli.
- d. Nepamatuju se.

53. Zaškrtni pole, o kterém si myslíš, že je pravdivé.

- Americká a britská angličtina jsou obě stejné.
- Američané věci jinak vyslovují, ale píšou je stejně.
- Američané věci jinak píšou, ale vyslovují stejně.
- Američané věci píšou i vyslovují jinak.
- Nejsem si jistý/á.

---

SEKCE 13

54. Všiml/a sis někdy nějakých rozdílů mezi britskou a americkou angličtinou?

- a. Ne, protože žádné rozdíly mezi nimi nejsou.
- b. Ne, protože mi je to jedno.
- c. Ne, ale nějaké asi existují.
- d. Ano, ale asi bych je neuměl/a dobře popsat.
- e. Ano, a byl/a bych schopný/á je najít a popsat.

55. Myslíš, že je možné poznat, jestli je někdo z Británie nebo USA na základě toho, jak mluví nebo píše?

- a. Není to možné – píšou i mluví stejně.
- b. Je to těžké, ale asi to je možné.
- c. Určitě je to možné.

56. Kdyby to možné bylo, chtěl/a by ses to naučit?

- a. Ano, určitě.
- b. Je mi to jedno.
- c. Ne, nechtěl/a.

---

SEKCE 14



57. Pokud si myslíš, že se britská a americká angličtina odlišují, zaškrtni, v čem si myslíš, že jsou jiné. Pokud si myslíš, že se neliší, zaškrtni první pole "NELIŠÍ SE."

- NELIŠÍ SE
- výslovnost
- slovní zásoba
- jak se slova píšou
- slovosled (jak jdou slova ve větě za sebou)
- intonace (jak zvyšuješ či snižuješ tón hlasu)
- liší se, ale netuším jak
- jiné:.....

58. Pokud na světě opravdu existují různé angličtiny, které si myslíš, že by to mohly být?

Zaškrtni je.

- australská angličtina
- česká angličtina
- britská angličtina
- německá angličtina
- kanadská angličtina
- americká angličtina
- čínská angličtina
- španělská angličtina
- novozélandská angličtina

59. Koho by sis raději vybral za nového kamaráda?

a. Brita/ku

b. Američana/ku

---

#### SEKCE 15

V tomto cvičení zkus opět přeložit anglická slova do češtiny. Pokud slovíčko neznáš, pole nech prázdné.

- 60. closet
- 61. elevator
- 62. restrooms
- 63. eraser
- 64. cookie

65. sneakers

66. soccer

67. college

68. purse

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SEKCE 16

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Mockrát ti děkuji za to, že jsi dotazník vyplnil/a. Měj se krásně a ať ti angličtina jde co nejlépe!

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*12.2. Attachment 2 – Student's e-mail* – The student's name was kept anonymous, and any information regarding her identity was redacted from the text below. No grammar corrections have been made to the original text.

“Je mi 15 let, jsem žena, byla jsem v Česku celý život a mí rodiče nemluví anglicky.

Můj první styk s angličtinou byl ve školce (kroužek na [REDACTED]), kde nás učili spíše jednotlivá slova, žádné věty, s americkou výslovností. Učili jsme se se zalaminovanými kartičkami vlastní výroby, které byly na zemi a my jsme je pojmenovávali.

Ve škole jsme se začali učit anglicky asi ve třetí třídě. Měli jsme prvnostupňovou paní učitelku, která učila s pomocí učebnic, pracovních sešitů a písniček na youtube. Učila americkou výslovnost, občas míchala britskou, když se na to dívám zpět, nejsem si jistá, jestli angličtině moc rozuměla.

Asi v páté třídě se nám změnila učitelka angličtiny. Rychle zavrhl americkou výslovnost slova "tomato" a každého jiného, které nás doposud učila předchozí paní učitelka vyslovit americky. Učila nás pouze britskou angličtinu, s občasnou zmínkou "možná jste slyšeli/viděli tohle, to je ale v americe". Používala učebnice, pracovní sešity, nahrávky z pracovních sešitů a občas youtube (písničky).

Od šesté třídy jsem se začala bavit s lidmi z celého světa přes internet, sledovat anglická videa, číst anglické knížky a moje angličtina se jen a jen zlepšovala. Díky většímu množství amerických videí jsem si zalíbila americkou angličtinu.

Od sedmé třídy jsem se začala bavit s rodilými mluvčími (hlavně amerika a anglie) přes hlasové hovory na sociálních sítích, začala jsem preferovat angličtinu nad češtinou.

V osmé třídě (opakovala jsem ročník kvůli zdravotním důvodům, tímhle myslím druhý rok) se mi opět změnila učitelka angličtiny - ta, co mám teď. Z toho co jsem viděla, učí pomocí učebnic, pracovních sešitů a poslechů z pracovních sešitů, přijímá i americký přízvuk a americká slova.

Jsem za to velmi ráda, protože v minulých ročnících jsem si vždy myslela, že americká angličtina je "ta druhá" nebo "ta horší" a tato paní učitelka mi také otevřela dveře k různým soutěžím v anglickém jazyce ( [REDACTED] ) a doufám, že mi vydrží až do deváté.

O australské angličtině se sotva kdy mluví, o novozélandské či kanadské už asi vůbec.”