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**The Place and Practice of Pronunciation Teaching  
in the Context of the EFL Classroom in Thessaloniki, Greece**

by

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*Appendices*

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## **Section 1.1 ‘The Place & Role of Pronunciation in Second & Foreign Language Teaching & Research**

### **Appendix 1.1 ‘The Rise & Fall of Pronunciation: a Historical Review’**

#### Introduction

This section focuses on the main language teaching methods/approaches that emerged from the middle of the nineteenth century and throughout the twentieth century. After introducing each language teaching method or approach, the main learning goal with respect to pronunciation is identified, the main pronunciation teaching techniques are described and, where appropriate, each approach or method is exemplified and critiqued.

“The mastery of the [second language] L2 sound system was considered to be the first priority for teaching and learning during the middle of the twentieth century” (Saville-Troike, 2006: 142). In order to understand why and how pronunciation came to occupy such an important place in the language curriculum at that point in time, I need to take as my point of departure a description of the late nineteenth-century *Reform Movement* in Europe in terms of its origins, principles and implications for language teaching. Thornbury (2006) defines the Reform Movement as “a pan-European initiative aimed at a radical reform of existing language teaching practices in schools” (: 95), namely the *Grammar-Translation* method.

#### Towards the rise of pronunciation

##### *Grammar-Translation*

Grammar-Translation dominated European and foreign language teaching from the 1840s to the 1940s (Richards and Rodgers, 2001: 6). It was traditionally used for the

teaching of Greek and Latin in Europe but continued to prevail as *modern languages*, such as French, German and English, began to enter the school curriculum in the nineteenth century. One of the principal characteristics of the Grammar-Translation method is described by Richards and Rodgers (2001) as follows:

The goal of foreign language study is to learn a language in order to read its literature or in order to benefit from the mental discipline and intellectual development that result from foreign language study. Grammar Translation is a way of studying a language that approaches the language first through detailed analysis of its grammar rules, followed by application of this knowledge to the task of translating sentences into and out of the target language.

Richards and Rodgers, 2001: 5

Since the fundamental purpose of teaching and learning was to acquire a reading knowledge of the target language, grammar and vocabulary were emphasised. The typical grammar-translation lesson included “one or two new grammar rules, a short vocabulary list, and some practical examples to translate” (Howatt, 1984: 136). Textbooks consisted of “abstract grammar rules, lists of vocabulary and sentences for translation” (Richards and Rodgers, 2001: 4). Pronunciation received virtually no attention (Larsen-Freeman, 2000: 16, 18). The primary skills to be developed were reading and writing because literary language was considered superior to spoken language (Larsen-Freeman, 2000: 18). Thus, in the context of the Grammar-Translation method speaking and listening were neglected. The “spoken language was, at best, irrelevant” (Howatt, 1984: 135) and “oral work was reduced to an absolute minimum” (Titone, 1968: 27), mainly confined to learners reading aloud the sentences they had translated into the target language.

Grammar-Translation was severely challenged from the mid-nineteenth century onwards. One of the main factors that contributed to the reaction against and, ultimately, the rejection of Grammar-Translation was the demand for “utilitarian language learning related to practical needs and interests” (Howatt, 1984: 129). For example, developments in transport, that encouraged mobility and brought people into

face-to-face contact over long distances, increased opportunities for communication among Europeans (and not only) and created a demand for practical competence in foreign languages (Howatt, 1984: 139). The need for oral proficiency in the target language could not be met through the use of the Grammar-Translation method as its main goals of language study were reading comprehension and appreciation of the literary language. Moreover, “the industrialisation of the second half of the nineteenth century created a new class of language learner, one that had not followed an academic ‘grammar school’ education and therefore could not be expected to learn foreign languages by traditional methods” (Howatt, 1984: 139). Such factors created a niche for ideas and proposals on how foreign languages could be taught and learnt more easily and effeciently. As Howatt (1984) puts it:

Interest in improved methods of language teaching in the nineteenth century was not confined to the Reform Movement of its last two decades. It rose steadily as the practical need for foreign languages grew in importance, and the failure of the public education system to meet the challenge became more apparent.

Howatt, 1984: 147

Even though the pre-Reform Movement writers devised alternative teaching methods, these did not gain acceptance and were not implemented. The early reformers, namely Jacotot, Prendergast, Gouin and Marcel, are described by Howatt (1984: 147) as “loners” because they lacked the means for dissemination of their ideas and, consequently, their ideas did not receive widespread attention or support. “None of them... attracted a following or founded a school of thought with a potential for further development” (ibid: 147).

### *The Reform Movement*

Conversely, the Reform Movement was a more concerted effort and linguists and teachers worked together to question and reject well established procedures. The reformers laid the foundations for the development of new ways of teaching foreign

languages. This spirit of co-operation among the reformers and the wider dissemination and acceptance of their ideas are apparent in Howatt's (1984) introductory description of the Reform Movement:

The late nineteenth-century Reform Movement is unique in language teaching history. For a period of about twenty years, not only did many of the leading phoneticians of the time co-operate towards a shared educational aim, but they also succeeded in attracting teachers and others in the field to the same common purpose. From 1882 onwards, there was a spate of publications, beginning with pamphlets and articles and, later, more substantial works like Sweet's *Practical Study of Languages* (1899). Professional associations and societies were formed, notably the International Phonetic Association (IPA), and there were new journals and periodicals, of which the best-known was the IPA's *Le Maître Phonétique*, first published under that title in 1899. The Movement was a remarkable display of international and interdisciplinary co-operation in which the specialist phoneticians took as much interest in the classroom as the teachers did in the new science of phonetics. One of the reasons for this was the fact that three out of the four principal phoneticians – Viëtor in Germany, Passy in France, and Jespersen in Denmark – began their careers as schoolteachers, though they went on to other work later. The fourth, Henry Sweet, was the 'odd man out' in the sense that he remained a private scholar for most of his life and his life and his teaching was limited to individual students. He continued to be respected, however, as the intellectual leader of the Movement.

Howatt, 1984: 169

Howatt (1984) illustrates the scope of the Reform Movement by outlining a 'bird's-eye-view' of its achievements "between 1882 when it first attracted attention, and 1904 when Jespersen summarised its practical implications for the classroom teacher in *How to Teach a Foreign Language*" (: 170). Wilhelm Viëtor, one of the pioneers of the Reform Movement, wrote the pamphlet *Der Sprachunterricht muss umkehren! Ein Beitrag zur Uebereuerdungsfrage* (Language Teaching Must Start Afresh! A Contribution to the Question of Stress and Overwork in Schools) and set the Reform Movement alight in Germany in 1882 (Howatt, 1984: 333). In his work he criticised Grammar-Translation by demonstrating its inadequacies. To cite an example of his attack of the method, I include the following quote taken from the second edition of his pamphlet (translated by Howatt, Abercrombie and Buchmann):

When it comes to foreign language teaching, the generally accepted view is that the same mistaken approach based on the written language, the same kind of school grammars, will be able to work miracles and teach a new language. They never have, and they never will. And even if you actually succeeded in stuffing the pupil's heads with the best grammars and the most comprehensive dictionaries, they still would not know the language! As the well-known philologist Sayce (1879) says:... 'We shall never be able to speak a foreign tongue by simply



committing to memory long lists of isolated words. Even if we further know all the rules of the grammarians, we shall find ourselves unable in actual practice to get very far in stringing our words together or in understanding what is said to us in return’.

Viëtor, 1886 quoted in Howatt, 1984: 347

Given the purpose of this section of the thesis, that is, to account for the elevation of pronunciation to the most important area in language teaching and learning, I will adopt a specific and therefore rather limited perspective in my description of the Reform Movement and the consequent developments in the field of language teaching. This brief and selective outline will place emphasis on the reformers’ struggle to promote the spoken element as part of the teaching and learning of languages and will address those developments in the field of linguistics related to phonetics. Throughout the review of the literature it will become clear how the 1940s and 1950s saw the fruition of work that had begun in the 1880s. In a nutshell, the exponents of the Reform Movement reacted to historical linguistics, the analysis of classical texts and the emphasis on the written text, concentrated on the spoken form of language and fought battles to establish a place for pronunciation in the teaching and learning of languages; they won the argument in the middle of the twentieth century.

Howatt (1984: 171) identifies three major principles on which the Reform Movement was founded: “the primacy of speech, the centrality of the connected text as the kernel of the teaching – learning process, and the absolute priority of an oral methodology in the classroom”. Viëtor, Sweet and the other reformers argued for the primacy of the spoken language over the written language as well as for the importance of oral methods in the language classroom. In other words, all the reformers believed that the written language should be relegated to a secondary role and the primacy of the spoken language should be reflected in an oral-based language teaching methodology. Sweet’s (1900) definition of the concept of language serves to

illustrate how speech rather than the written form must be perceived as the fundamental element of language: “Language may be defined as the expression of thought by means of speech-sounds” (cited in Henderson, 1971: 5). The primacy of the spoken language was the overriding theme of Viëtor’s influential *Language Teaching Must Start Afresh* pamphlet. The emphasis on the spoken form in the context of the language teaching lesson naturally led to the consideration of issues relating to learners’ pronunciation of the target language and pronunciation teaching methods. We have already seen that the utilitarian function of modern languages was recognised and the primary purpose of learning a foreign language was to be able to speak it. Pronunciation, which had previously occupied virtually no place in the language curriculum, suddenly became not only relevant but also very important. Sweet (1899) draws attention to how accurate pronunciation was instrumental in successful communication in the target language whereas inaccurate pronunciation would impede it: “even the slightest distinctions of sound cannot be disregarded without the danger of unintelligibility” (: 6). For both Viëtor and Sweet, as well as the other reformers, it was essential that the learner’s pronunciation should be correct before moving on to texts (Howatt, 1984: 172). They also maintained that texts should be printed in a scientifically accurate notation, particularly for languages like English and French where the standard spelling is extremely misleading (ibid: 172).

Before moving on to the reformers’ expectations regarding teaching methods, it is important to examine the role that phonetics, “the science of speech-sounds” (Sweet, 1890 in Henderson, 1971: 28), has played in the Reform Movement. The study of speech both physiologically and acoustically was initiated in the second half of the nineteenth century and revolutionised the field of linguistics. Sweet, who

according to Onions (1885) “taught phonetics to Europe” (Howatt, 1984: 332), elaborates on his definition of phonetics as follows:

From a practical point of view [phonetics] is the *art* of producing speech-sounds and recognising them by ear. It describes the actions and positions of the vocal organs – throat, tongue, lips, etc. – by which speech-sounds are produced, and classifies sounds according to their organic formation. This is the *organic* side of phonetics. The *acoustic* study of speech-sounds classifies them according to their likeness to the ear, and explains how the acoustic effect of each sound is the necessary result of its organic formation.

Sweet, 1890 in Henderson, 1971: 27-28

Viëtor’s *Elemente der Phonetik* (Elements of Phonetics), along with Sweet’s *Handbook of Phonetics* (1877), is one of the founding classics of scientific phonetics (Howatt, 1984: 333). It was first published in 1884 and enlarged and revised in 1893. For Sweet, phonetics was, from a practical point of view, “the art of pronunciation” (1899 in Henderson, 1971: 28). The following quotes all belong to Henry Sweet and are taken from Henderson’s (1971) collection of Sweet’s writings. They serve to demonstrate how phonetics and phonology were seen as the indispensable foundation of all study of language:

The importance of phonetics as the indispensable foundation of all study of language – whether that study be purely theoretical, or practical as well – is now generally admitted. Without a knowledge of the laws of sound-change, scientific philology – whether comparative or historical – is impossible, and without phonetics their study degenerates into a mere mechanical enumeration of letter-changes. And now that philologists are directing their attention more and more to the study of living dialects and savage languages, many of which have to be written down for the first time, the absolute necessity of a thorough practical as well as theoretical mastery of phonetics becomes more and more evident.

Preface to *A Handbook of Phonetics*, 1877: v-vi

The truth is that phonology is not only the indispensable foundation of all philology, but also that no department, from the highest to the lowest, can be investigated fully without it, whether it be accidence, syntax, or prosody, or even the fundamental problem – the origin of language.

Presidential address to the Philological society, 1877

The two main features of Storm’s method are the prominence he gives to the living language, and his vindication of scientific phonetics as the indispensable foundation of all study of language, whether practical or theoretical.

‘The Practical Study of Language’, 1882 in *Collected Papers of Henry Sweet*, 1913: 35

...phonetics alone enables us to analyse and register various phenomena of stress, intonation and quantity, which are the foundation of word-division, sentence-structure, elocution, metre, and, in fact, enter into all the higher problems of language: a psychological study of language without phonetics is an impossibility.

‘The Practical Study of Language’, 1882 in  
*Collected Papers of Henry Sweet*, 1913, 39 – 40

It is now generally recognised, except in hopelessly obscurantist circles, that phonology is the indispensable foundation of all linguistic study, whether practical or scientific – above all, of historical grammar.

Preface to *A New English Grammar*, 1891: xii

Phonetics is to the science of language generally what mathematics is to astronomy and the physical sciences. Without it, we can neither observe nor record the simplest phenomena of language. It is equally necessary in the theoretical and in the practical study of language.

*The Practical Study of Languages*, 1899: 4

A knowledge of sentence stress and intonation is not only an essential part of elocution and correct pronunciation, but is also an integral part of the syntax of many languages. In short, there is no branch of the study of language which can afford to dispense with phonetics.

*The Practical Study of Languages*, 1899: 49

With what has been stated so far, it has been established that phonetics was considered to be the indispensable foundation of all study of language. The reader may, at this point, pose a question as to what this entailed or meant in practice. Phonetics offered both a scientific foundation for the reformers’ zeal in rejecting the appalling teaching methods of the time and a practical technique for bringing about the improvements in the classroom they were looking for (Howatt, 1984: 177). All the exponents of the Reform Movement shared the belief that the “findings of phonetics should be applied to teaching and to teacher training” (Richards and Rodgers, 2001: 10). The message was clear; any teaching or learning methods that did not employ phonetics should be rejected and replaced by ones that did. A notable example of this stance is found in Viëtor’s (1882) pamphlet *Language Teaching Must Start Afresh* to which I have already referred to. Viëtor insisted that reform must begin with the provision of accurate descriptions of speech based on the science of phonetics, and there must be a properly trained language teaching profession (Howatt, 1984: 172). Not only did he direct attention to the value of training teachers in the new science of

phonetics, he also produced work that was aimed at assisting teachers in this respect.

Walter Rippmann (1905) makes this point very clear in the preface of *Elements of Phonetics: English, French and German* which was largely based on Viëtor's *Kleine Phonetik*:

This book will... first be used by teachers of French and German, and to their notice it is especially commended. Of late years, in every serious discussion of the methods of teaching modern languages, it has been urged that a training in phonetics is not merely advantageous, but essential, if the teachers are English men and women, as they undoubtedly should be in the overwhelming majority of cases.

Rippmann, 1905: ix

In a parallel view, Sweet (1899) highlighted the practical applications of phonetics in the teaching and learning of languages in his impressive and classic work entitled *The Practical Study of Languages*. According to Sweet (1899), phonetics provided an analytic framework and a practical methodology for the acquisition of an accurate pronunciation. It also offered a more reliable system of sound-notation than traditional orthography and served as the scientific discipline on which a principled approach to the training of language teachers could be built (Howatt, 1984: 184). Sweet's demand for a scientifically trained profession whose members would know the sound system of their own language as well as that of the foreign language they were responsible for teaching was put very eloquently in his paper entitled 'On the Practical Study of Language' in 1884. He further demanded that the teachers should understand how sounds were produced physiologically and they should be proficient performers themselves (Howatt, 1984: 179). The superiority of the phonetically trained non-native-speaking teacher of the target language compared to the phonetically untrained native-speaking teacher is underscored in his writing:

For teaching Germans English, a phonetically trained German is far superior to an untrained Englishman, the latter being quite unable to communicate his knowledge; and this principle applies, of course, with equal force to the teaching of foreign languages in England.

Sweet, 1884 quoted in Howatt, 1984: 183

As it emerges so far, the importance attached to the mastery of accurate pronunciation made it imperative for both teachers and learners to acquire knowledge of phonetics. Furthermore, Sweet enunciated that ordinary spelling must be discarded and substituted by a purely phonetic one (which would give a genuine and adequate representation of the actual language) in the teaching of pronunciation (1882 in Henderson, 1971: 31). Sweet developed the Broad Romic transcription system using Alexander Graham Bell's notation system called 'Visible Speech' (1867) as a model. Sweet's 'phonetic spelling system' influenced the final shape of the International Phonetic Alphabet (Howatt, 1984: 177).

It would be unjust to leave this brief reference to the International Phonetic Alphabet without stressing the greatness of Paul Passy's contribution to the quest for an accurate transcription system of the sounds of any language. Passy devised his own phonetic alphabet and, impressed by its usefulness in the language classroom, set up the Phonetic Teachers' Association in 1886. Within a few months of its formation, Jespersen as well as Viëtor and Sweet became members. The association was re-named the International Phonetic Association (IPA) in 1897 (Howatt, 1984: 178). The International Phonetic Alphabet was designed by the IPA as a means of symbolising the distinctive sound segments of any language or accent. The aim of the notation was that "there should be a separate letter for each distinctive sound: that is for each sound which being used instead of another, in the same language, can change the meaning of a word" (Phonetic Teachers' Association, 1888 cited in Finch, 2000: 47).

The phoneticians and spoken language enthusiasts of the Reform Movement regarded phonetics as the foundation of all study of language and accurate pronunciation as the foundation of successful language learning. They all shared the belief that training teachers and learners in phonetics would lead to the establishment

of good pronunciation habits. The teaching and learning of pronunciation occupied the most prominent place in Sweet's (1899) graded curriculum which he proposed as part of his contribution to the study of language teaching methodology.

*Sweet's Graded Curriculum*

Stage 1 (Mechanical): the learner concentrates on acquiring a good pronunciation and becomes familiar with phonetic transcription.

Stage 2 (Grammatical): the learner begins to work on the texts, gradually building up his knowledge of the grammar and acquiring a basic vocabulary.

Stage 3 (Idiomatic): the learner increases his/ her vocabulary

These stages complete the basic course.

The following stages are university-level studies devoted to literature and philology.

Stage 4 (Literary) and Stage 5 (Archaic): transition to standard orthography can be now made as there is no risk that the learner's pronunciation may deteriorate.

Adapted from Howatt, 1984: 187 – 188

In addition to Sweet, the other reformers also provided suggestions on how the principles they advocated could be best applied to foreign language teaching and learning. However, none of their proposals assumed the status of a method in the sense of a widely recognised and uniformly implemented design for teaching a language (Richards and Rodgers, 2001: 10). Nevertheless, parallel to the ideas put forward by the reformers, there was an interest in developing principles for language teaching out of naturalistic language learning; such as are seen in first language acquisition. The attempt to duplicate how children learnt their first language led to what have been termed *natural methods*. These ultimately led to the development of what came to be known as the *Direct Method* (Richards and Rodgers, 2001: 12). The Reform Movement served to underpin those new methods in the sense that it advocated innovations at the level of teaching procedures; "it is quite possible that without [it] all 'modern methods' would have been dismissed as 'just another fad'" (Howatt, 1984: 202).

*The Direct Method*

Lambert Sauveur and other believers in natural methods argued that foreign language learning should, in a way, resemble the process by which children acquire their first language. Consequently, the spoken language was to be taught first, translation was not allowed and meaning was to be conveyed directly through demonstration and action. Richards and Schmidt (2002) sum up the principles upon which natural methods were based as follows:

- a. the use of the spoken language
- b. the use of objects and actions in teaching the meaning of words and structures
- c. the need to make language teaching follow the natural principles of first language learning

Richards and Schmidt, 2002: 352

As far as the teaching and learning of pronunciation was concerned, this was given great prominence; indeed, “speaking began with systematic attention to pronunciation” (Richards and Rodgers, 2001: 11).

The natural language learning principles provided the foundation for what came to be known as the Direct Method, which refers to the most widely known of the natural methods (Richards and Rodgers, 2001: 11). One cannot fail to acknowledge the debt owed to Maximilian D. Berlitz for making the Direct Method available to large numbers of learners through his network of language schools. According to Howatt (1984: 204), “without Sauveur, the Direct Method would not have happened when it did; without Berlitz, very few people would have benefited from it”. Berlitz opened his first language school in Providence, Rhode Island in 1878 and by 1914 he had nearly 200 schools in both America and Europe (Howatt, 1984: 203). The Berlitz language school system started at a time when it was much needed; “immigrants were pouring into the United States speaking virtually every language in Europe and all of them needed to learn the language of their adopted country”



(Howatt, 1984: 202). These were poor, ordinary people that had not been scholastically educated and needed to learn the new language in order to survive in the new environment and cope with the problems of everyday life. “They also brought with them their own natural skills as native speakers of their various languages” (ibid: 203). The needs and talents of these people were met and applied in the Berlitz Method, which later became known as the Direct Method. Berlitz was “an excellent systematizer of basic language teaching materials organised on ‘direct method’ lines” (Howatt, 1984: 205) and “the Berlitz Method was simple, systematic, ordered and replicable” (ibid: 206). He developed an extensive series of textbooks for the teaching of all the major European languages and a number of non-European languages from 1882 onwards (ibid: 307). His textbooks provided a framework within which the teachers he employed in his schools could work according to a predictable routine and all Berlitz Schools followed the same basic course patterns (ibid: 204). The main principles and procedures of the Direct Method can be summarised as follows:

1. Classroom instruction is conducted exclusively in the target language. Translation is not allowed under any circumstances.
2. Meanings are communicated ‘directly’ by associating speech forms with actions, objects, mime, gestures and situations.
3. Reading and writing are taught only after speaking and listening.
4. New teaching points are introduced orally.
5. Oral communication skills are built up in a carefully graded progression organised around question-and-answer exchanges between teachers and students in small, intensive classes.
6. Correct pronunciation is emphasised and should be worked on right from the beginning of language instruction.
7. Grammar is taught inductively (no grammar rules are taught to learners).

Adapted from Richards and Rodgers,  
2001: 12; Richards and Schmidt, 2002:  
159; Larsen-Freeman, 2000: 27

The tenets of the Direct Method held that oral work should be strongly emphasised and pronunciation should receive great attention from the beginning and throughout the course. The Direct Method was the first oral-based teaching method that was

widely adopted as a reaction against and a refreshing alternative to Grammar-Translation.

The popularity of the Direct Method began to wane in the 1920s as light was shed on its drawbacks. The strict adherence to Direct Method principles was perceived to be counterproductive by the critics of the method. For example, Direct Method teachers were cautioned against the slightest compromise on the use of translation (Berlitz, 1907: 7). Consequently, they were required to refrain from translation even when a simple and brief definition or explanation in the student's first language would have been a more efficient and quick route to comprehension (Richards and Rodgers, 2001: 13). Moreover, the more academically oriented proponents of the Reform Movement, for example the prolific writer Henry Sweet, pointed to the fact that the Direct Method lacked a systematic basis in applied linguistic theory. Sweet and other applied linguists argued for the development of sound methodological principles that would serve as the basis for teaching techniques. (Richards and Rodgers, 2001: 14). Throughout the 1920s and 1930s, British applied linguists engaged in the systematisation of the principles that had been proposed earlier by the Reform Movement. Their work laid the foundation for an oral-based approach to the teaching of English which, unlike the Direct Method, was thoroughly grounded in applied linguistic theory. The final outcomes of this movement are known as the *Oral Approach* and, later on, *Situational Language Teaching*, which became the accepted British approach to English language teaching by the 1950s (Richards and Rodgers, 2001: 38).

In the United States of America, the Direct Method began to fall from favour following the publication of the Coleman Report in 1929. The results of this study indicated that teaching conversation skills in foreign languages was perceived as

irrelevant for the average American college student. Furthermore, it was impractical to do so due to factors such as the restricted time available for foreign language teaching in American schools and colleges. The Coleman Report identified the acquisition of reading knowledge of a foreign language as a more appropriate and feasible goal (Richards and Rodgers, 2001: 13). The results of the study had a major impact on language teaching in the United States and most foreign language courses concentrated on reading until the Second World War (ibid: 13). Subsequent developments ultimately led to the decline of such ‘reading courses’ and the advent of the *Audio-lingual Method* to the teaching of English and other languages in the 1950s. The case of the U.S.A and the Audio-lingual method will be revisited after our review of the British approach to English language teaching.

*‘English Language Teaching’ as an Autonomous Profession*

This thesis is mainly concerned with the place of pronunciation in *English Language Teaching*, and, thus, at this point, the reader’s attention needs to be drawn to the specific reference to ‘*English language teaching*’ (at the end of the previous paragraph) instead of the more general reference to ‘the teaching of modern or foreign languages’ that has been employed so far. Howatt (1984) accounts for and describes the emergence of the teaching of English as an autonomous profession in the first half of the twentieth century as follows:

The intellectual foundations for this autonomy rested on the fusion of the two reforming traditions inherited from the previous century: the applied linguistic approach of the Reform Movement and the monolingual methodology of the Direct Method. The catalyst was the work of Harold Palmer in the Department of Phonetics at University College, London, between 1915 and 1922, underpinned by the research in theoretical and applied English phonetics of his Head of Department, Daniel Jones.

Howatt, 1984: 212

There is no need here to address any further distinct specialisms such as the distinction between English as a ‘foreign’ and English as a ‘second’ language that the teaching of English spawned in the course of time. These are explored as part of the main thesis. I will now consider the instrumental role that Daniel Jones and Harold Palmer played in the field of English language teaching. Howatt (1984) sums up their contribution very effectively:

The Jones-Palmer association effectively ensured that one of the ‘ground rules’ of English as a foreign language was an applied linguistic philosophy, the amalgamation of Jones’s extension of the Sweet-Viëtor tradition in phonetics and Palmer’s experience as a Direct Method teacher and materials writer.

Howatt, 1984: 214

Daniel Jones, universally known as D. J., studied the subject of phonetics under Paul Passy in Paris and became a professor in the Department of Phonetics at University College London in 1921 (Crystal, 2003: 239). He also served as secretary of the International Phonetic Association from 1927 to 1949 and became its president from 1950 until his death in 1967 (ibid: 239). In his tribute to Daniel Jones on the occasion of D. J.’s eightieth birthday, D. B. Fry (1961: 155) describes D. J.’s establishment of the cardinal vowel system as a landmark in the history of descriptive phonetics; “it introduced into the description and classification of vowel articulations a degree of precision previously unattainable, and has greatly enhanced the value of printed accounts of languages and dialects at the phonetic level”. Fry goes on to praise D. J. for the development of the phoneme theory:

As early as 1916, Jones was using the idea of the phoneme in his research and in his teaching and he employed the term ‘phoneme’ itself in a paper read in 1917. During the succeeding years, he collected a vast store of phonetic observations which served to confirm the usefulness and the soundness of the original concept and did not lead to any major modification in the theory. This material enabled him to extend the idea of the phoneme as a group of variants from the realm of sound-quality, which formed its starting point, to those of length, stress and pitch. Many years of work in the field led to the publication in 1950 of *The Phoneme: its Nature and Use*, which contains not only the full working out of Jones’s phoneme theory but also such a wealth of examples from a wide variety of languages as is not to be found in any other book.

Fry, 1961: 155 – 156

Even though D. J. researched the phonetics of many languages, he is mostly recognised for his contribution in the field of English phonetics. For example, he was the first to codify the properties of Received Pronunciation (Crystal, 2003: 365). Furthermore, not only was he “the first to make a thorough systematic study of the sound system of English for the purpose of teaching pronunciation and intonation” (Fry, 1961: 153), he also made the results of his study available to teachers and students through the publication of *The Pronunciation of English* (1909), the *English Pronouncing Dictionary* (1917) and *An Outline of English Phonetics* (1918). These works “have since served as indispensable source-books for every English language teacher” (Howatt, 1984: 214) and are still used today in revised editions (Crystal, 2003: 239).

Harold Palmer was thoroughly familiar with D. J.’s work; since joining the International Phonetic Association in 1907, he maintained regular contact with D. J. and became a lecturer in spoken English in D. J.’s department at University College London in 1915 (Howatt, 1984: 232). He was a gifted practical linguist and an accomplished phonetician; for example, his first major work, *the Scientific Study of Languages* (1917) is considered to be one of the classics of an applied linguistic approach to language teaching and his *English Intonation* (1922), an important contribution to the subject of English phonetics (Howatt, 1984). Palmer had also had practical experience in Direct Method teaching; indeed, when he embarked on his teaching career in 1902, he did so as a Direct Method teacher at a Berlitz School in Belgium (ibid: 325). As it was pointed out earlier, the emergence of English Language Teaching (ELT) as an autonomous profession was due, to a great extent, to Palmer’s work:

In combining the direct methods of Berlitz with the applied linguistic approach of Sweet and the Reform Movement, Palmer created a solid intellectual and practical foundation for the development of ELT as an autonomous profession.

Howatt, 1984: 231

For example, *The Grammar of Spoken English, on a strictly phonetic basis* (1924) was the first large-scale attempt to provide a detailed description of standard spoken English for pedagogical purposes (ibid: 235).

### *The Oral Approach*

Nevertheless, Palmer should also be credited for his contribution in terms of the development and establishment of the Oral Approach to language teaching; a theoretically well-grounded and systematically ordered language teaching methodology that was practically applicable to any modern language teaching course. For example, in *The Principles of Language-Study* (1921) he demonstrated how a model for the psychology of language learning could serve to underpin the development of practical classroom activities as part of the content of a language course (Howatt, 1984: 326).

Moreover, and, critically in terms of the interests of this thesis, all his methodological handbooks, for example, *The Oral Method of Teaching Languages* (1921), *The Principles of Language-Study* (1921) and *This Language-Learning Business* with Vere Redman (1922) displayed a preoccupation with the teaching of the spoken language based on the science of phonetics. Teachers and students should be phonetically trained and the use of phonetic transcription should be extensive, especially in the early stages of language learning. He maintained throughout his works that teachers and students should be seriously concerned with the mastery of accurate pronunciation. Palmer went as far as to describe students' "bad (or relatively bad) pronunciation" in terms of having a "linguistic disease" (Palmer and Redman,

2<sup>nd</sup> edition, 1969: 106) and attributed its cause to students speaking the foreign language “before they have had adequate opportunities for observing or for imitating the phonetic phenomena of the foreign language” (ibid: 106). This ‘disease’ can be prevented by employing procedures that will “cause our pupils to listen to the foreign language and to enunciate it in the manner of the native listener and speaker” (ibid: 107) before students reach the reading and writing stage. “Intensive and systematic exercises in pronunciation, including ear-training exercises and exercises in articulation” (ibid: 107) form an integral part of Palmer’s ‘prevention’ plan and are the realisation of the principles he proposed in *The Scientific Study and Teaching of languages*:

If the student wishes to do effective work and make effective progress, the initial stage of his study must be devoted to getting into working order the apparatus upon which his success depends. If his aims comprise the use of the spoken language, a sound preliminary knowledge of its sounds is indispensable; no progress is possible until each one has become perfectly familiar. The sounds stand to the spoken language in the same relation as the letters to the written language; in the same way that the capacity of tracing letters is an indispensable preliminary to the study of writing, so also is the capacity of articulating sounds an indispensable preliminary to the study of speaking.

Palmer, 2<sup>nd</sup> edition, 1968: 96

Palmer firmly believed that students’ needs would be met more sufficiently if the spoken form was emphasised in the teaching of foreign languages. In his outline of students’ purposes in learning a foreign language in *The Principles of Language Study* (1921), listening and speaking are followed by reading and writing:

The ultimate aim of most students is fourfold:

- (a) To understand the language when spoken rapidly by natives.
- (b) To speak the language in the manner of natives.
- (c) To understand the language as written by natives (i.e. to *read* the language)
- (d) To write the language in the manner of natives.

Palmer, 2<sup>nd</sup> edition, 1974: 78

This belief of his did not just stem from the desire to meet students’ practical needs for everyday purposes of social survival; for Palmer, the true heir to the Reformers’

legacy in this respect, the primacy of spoken language extended beyond the context of language teaching:

The only true form of speech is spoken speech; it constitutes the living language itself. All languages were spoken long before they were written.... The written aspect of language is artificial; the spoken aspect alone is pursuing the normal course of evolution, and is always freeing itself from archaic and useless encumbrances. The spoken language is a token of life, for dead languages are those which exist but in written form.

Palmer, 2<sup>nd</sup> edition, 1974: 98

Richards and Rodgers (2001) sum up the main characteristics of the Oral

Approach as follows:

1. Language teaching begins with the spoken language. Material is taught orally before it is presented in written form.
2. The target language is the language of the classroom.
3. New language points are introduced and practised situationally.
4. Vocabulary selection procedures are followed to ensure that an essential general service vocabulary is covered.
5. Items of grammar are graded following the principle that simple forms should be taught before complex ones.
6. Reading and writing are introduced once a sufficient lexical and grammatical basis is established.

Richards and Rodgers, 2001: 39

Two important characteristics have been omitted from this list. The first one is the importance attached to the mastery of accurate pronunciation (hence Palmer's detailed program of pronunciation teaching) we have just looked at. The second one is habit-formation, Palmer's core methodological principle. The following quotation, taken from Palmer's *Principles of Language Study*, illustrates very concisely how 'habit-forming' is at the heart of language learning and how it relates to 'accuracy':

Language-study is essentially a habit-forming process; the teacher will therefore not only assist the student in utilizing his previously formed habits but will also cause him to acquire new ones appropriate to the work he is to perform... no form of work is to be adopted which may lead to inaccurate habits of language-using, for habit-forming without accuracy means the forming of bad habits.

Palmer, 2<sup>nd</sup> edition, 1974: 38

Accuracy was indeed essential in terms of the habit-formation process in the context of language teaching. Habit-forming teaching techniques consisted of oral exercises, drills and Direct Method speech-work activities (Howatt, 1984: 239).



### *Situational Language Teaching*

Owing to the work of A. S. Hornby among other applied linguists, further development of Oral Approach teaching techniques led to the emergence of Situational Language Teaching (SLT) and its dominance in Britain and other European countries in the 1950s and 1960s. SLT adhered to the same principles as the Oral Approach and the two terms may even be used interchangeably in the relevant literature. Nevertheless, SLT is to be recognised as an extension of the former mainly due to the fact that it placed greater emphasis on the principle that new language points should be presented and practised through situations (Richards and Rodgers, 2001: 39). The following is an example of a typical SLT lesson plan:

1. pronunciation
2. revision (to prepare for new work if necessary)
3. presentation of new structure or vocabulary
4. oral practice (drilling)
5. reading of material on the new structure, or written exercises

Pittman, 1963 cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2001: 44

It cannot escape the reader's attention that the language lesson began with the focus on pronunciation and drilling formed part of the classroom tasks. In SLT, accuracy in pronunciation as well as grammar was regarded as crucial and the practice techniques employed generally consisted of "guided repetition and substitution activities, including chorus repetition, dictation, drills, and controlled oral-based reading and writing tasks" (Richards and Rodgers, 2001: 43). Richards and Rodgers (2001) describe the theory of language underlying SLT as "a type of British 'structuralism'. Speech was regarded as the basis of language, and structure was viewed as being at the heart of speaking ability" (: 40). They also refer to the theory of learning on which SLT was based, as a type of behaviourist habit-learning theory and recognise Palmer's influence on seeing learning as habit formation (ibid: 41); "speech habits can

be cultivated by blind imitative drill” (French, 1950 cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2001: 41).

### *The Audio-lingual Method*

I will now direct our attention to the Audio-lingual method which dominated the teaching of English and other foreign languages in the 1950s and 1960s in the United States. Its origins can be traced to the involvement of the United States in the Second World War which led to the establishment of the Army Specialized Training Program (1942) in order to meet the needs of military personnel in attaining conversational proficiency in a variety of foreign languages. Despite the fact that it lacked a well-developed methodological basis, the ‘Army Method’ was very successful in meeting the specified objectives. It relied primarily on the intensity of contact with the target language; the highly motivated students studied the target language 10 hours a day and 6 days a week through drills with native speakers and private practice (Richards and Rodgers, 2001: 50-51). During that period, the United States emerged as a major international power and thousands of foreign students entered the country to study in universities. Many of these students required training in English (ibid: 51). Consequently, linguists and applied linguists became increasingly involved in the field of teaching English as a foreign language. The success of the ‘Army Method’, according to Richards and Rodgers (2001), had convinced a number of prominent linguists of the value of an intensive, oral-based approach to the learning of a foreign language (: 51). This last point is an important one to bear in mind because, as we saw before, courses aimed at the acquisition of reading knowledge of the target language were the norm in the United States until the Second World War.

The first American *English Language Institute* was developed by the University of Michigan in 1939 and specialised in the training of teachers of English as a foreign language and the teaching of English as a foreign language. The director of the institute, Charles Fries, and his colleagues rejected approaches such as those of the Direct Method, in which learners were exposed to the language, used it, and gradually absorbed its grammatical patterns (Richards and Rodgers, 2001: 51-52). Their view of language and language learning did not agree with that of the Direct Method. They were structural linguists and as such saw grammar, or ‘structure’, as the starting point rather than the end-point of language learning. I will now provide a brief description of *structural linguistics* as this will lead to a better understanding of what is to follow. Structuralism views “language as a system and... investigates the place that linguistic units such as sounds, words, sentences have within this system” (Richards and Schmidt, 2002: 519). As the dominant linguistic model of the 1940s and 1950s, it placed great emphasis on the description of different levels of production in speech (Saville-Troike, 2006). In the application of structuralism to second language acquisition (SLA), as pioneered by Fries (1945) among other applied linguists, pronunciation was placed at the forefront of L2 pedagogy. In his seminal volume entitled *Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language* (1945), Fries proposed that in learning a new language the primary concern should be “first, the mastery of the sound system” (: 3) and then the mastery of morphology, syntax and lexis. Overall, the syllabus should be characterised by systematic attention to pronunciation right from the beginning as well as intensive oral drilling of the basic sentence patterns of the target language.

As we have already seen, linguists directed their attention to phonetics and phonology towards the end of the nineteenth century. By the middle of the twentieth

century, there was a great deal of attention to and research in phonemes and other phonological units; phonology had become the ‘big issue’ of the 1950s. As far as American linguists were concerned, they stressed the primacy of speech and drew on its origins in anthropological research to create a radically different set of descriptive linguistic procedures that owed nothing at all to a literate tradition (Howatt, 1984: 250). This was a time and “a world of phonemics and speech-sound analyses” (ibid: 250). Robert Lado’s (1957) landmark publication entitled *Linguistics across Cultures: Applied Linguistics for Language Teachers* reflected this preoccupation with phonology. Attention was firstly and more importantly directed towards the comparison of the L1 and L2 sound systems and then to the comparison of the L1 and L2 grammatical structures and vocabulary systems (Lado, 1957). Approximately 50 pages of the book were devoted to phonology and a table of phonetic and phonemic symbols was included. The remaining 80 pages covered all the other subject areas including vocabulary, grammar, cultures and writing systems. Lado’s work is regarded as a classic guide to the *contrastive analysis* approach, “an application of structural linguistics to language teaching” (Richards and Schmidt, 2002: 119), which involved the comparison of the linguistic systems of the L1 and L2 in order to predict, account for and deal with learner problems. Lado was Fries’s successor as director of the Michigan University English Language Institute.

The combination of structuralism with the then dominant theory of psychology known as *behaviourism*, which views learning as the result of habit formation (Osgood, 1953; Skinner, 1957), led to the development of the Audio-lingual method in language teaching. As deBot et al (2005: 77) puts it: “structuralist linguistics provided tools for analysing language into chunks and behavioural theory provided a model for teaching any behaviour by conditioning”. In audiolingualism, language was

primarily identified with speech and, thus, the oral/aural skills received most of the attention (Larsen-Freeman, 2000: 46). The priority of speech in language teaching stemmed from structural linguistics:

An important tenet of structural linguistics was that the primary medium of language is oral: Speech is language. Since many languages do not have a written form and we learn to speak before we learn to read or write, it was argued that language is “primarily what is spoken and only secondarily what is written” (Brooks 1964).

Richards and Rodgers, 2001: 55

The focus was on the mastery of accurate pronunciation and grammar of the target language through drills and practice (Richards and Rodgers, 2001: 67). Pronunciation and grammar were accorded a far more important role compared to vocabulary; “only when [the learner] is thoroughly familiar with sounds, arrangements, and forms does he center his attention on enlarging his vocabulary” (Brooks, 1964: 50). Listening and speaking exercises were designed to concentrate on the area of pronunciation, for example, the discrimination between members of minimal pairs, and “oral proficiency is equated with accurate pronunciation and grammar” (Richards and Rodgers, 2001: 58). Richards and Rodgers (2001) offer a succinct comparison of audiolingualism and the Reform Movement in terms of orientation and objectives:

Like the nineteenth-century reformers, they [the audiolingualists] advocated a return to speech-based instruction with the primary objective of oral proficiency, and dismissed the study of grammar or literature as the goal of foreign language teaching.

Richards and Rodgers, 2001: 58

### *Situational Language Teaching versus Audio-lingualism*

At this point, it is important to compare and contrast, albeit briefly, Situational Language Teaching and the Audio-lingual method. At first glance, they appear to be very similar as they seem to be based on exactly the same theories of language and language learning. Nevertheless, Richards and Rodgers (2001) point to a fundamental difference between the British version of ‘structuralism’ underpinning SLT and the

American one on which audiolingualism was based. Central to the British theory of language, unlike the American one, was the notion of ‘situation’; language was viewed as a purposeful activity related to goals and situations in the real world (ibid: 40). In the SLT classroom, “the oral practice of controlled sentence patterns should be given in situations designed to give the greatest amount of practice in English speech to the pupil” (Pittman, 1963 quoted in Richards and Rodgers, 2001: 40). On the contrary, speech patterns were presented and practised out of context in the audiolingual classroom. As far as the training of good target language speech-habits is concerned, Howatt (1984) underscores the fact that when Palmer wrote *The Principles of Language Study* in 1921, (in which he explored the importance of habit-formation in language learning), the bulk of the research into habit-formation conducted by the leading behaviourist psychologists of the 1920s and 1930s had not been conducted (: 240). Therefore, “to call Palmer a ‘behaviourist’, as is sometimes done, is anachronistic though in all probability it is a label he would have accepted without much of a struggle” (ibid: 240). With all that has been stated so far, it emerges that, despite their similarities, the two methods developed from different traditions. Richards and Rodgers (2001: 67) convey this point very eloquently: “situational language teaching was a development of the earlier Direct Method and does not have the strong ties to linguistics and behavioural psychology that characterize Audiolingualism”.

Even though the two methods developed independently, the reader may wonder why they did not draw from each other. This can be attributed to a large extent to the absence of institutionalised channels of communication between Europe and America during that period. American developments in linguistics and applied linguistics were reported in the Michigan-based journal *Language Learning*. Its

British circulation was limited and American developments were largely ignored in *English Language Teaching (ELT)*, the British journal. This lack of interest was reciprocated across the Atlantic (Howatt, 1984: 220). Fortunately, the situation was rectified in the 1960s and both sides of the Atlantic engaged in the exchange of ideas. A ‘backlog’ of ideas such as the structural syllabus, the language laboratory and programmed learning, all pioneered in America in the 1950s, was suddenly unloaded in Britain in the 1960s (ibid: 220). Nevertheless, and, critically in terms of the interests of this thesis, both methods viewed spoken language as primary and treated pronunciation as central to second language proficiency.

#### Towards the fall of pronunciation

##### *Communicative Language Teaching*

The ‘golden era’ for pronunciation came to an end in the second half of the twentieth century. In the 1960s, developments in linguistics and SLA research discredited structuralism and behaviourism and the view of language and language learning underlying SLT was called into question. Consequently, any approaches to language teaching that focused on accuracy through drill and practice in the basic structures and sentence patterns of the target language, such as the Audio-lingual method and SLT, were rejected. There was a shift in attention from phonology to grammar and syntax and this was largely attributed to Chomsky’s introduction of *transformational-generative grammar* (1965) and his development of the theory of *universal grammar*. The other linguistic frameworks he formulated later on referred to as the *government and binding* (1981) and the *minimalist program* (1995) models, further shifted the attention to lexis. Chomsky’s influential work in the field of linguistics from the 1960s onwards was also instrumental in challenging the view of language learning as

the result of pure habit formation; “he argued convincingly that the behaviourist theory of language acquisition is wrong because it cannot explain the creative aspects of our linguistic ability” (Saville-Troike, 2006: 25).

As the decades progressed, attention was directed towards other areas of language, mainly discourse and pragmatics, owing to a growing interest in the functional and sociolinguistic aspects of language. Dell Hymes (1972) coined the term *communicative competence*, which denotes knowing when and how to say what to whom, and M.A.K Halliday (1970; 1975) delineated the functions of language through the study of language in use. The corollary of such work has been to shift the emphasis away from a preoccupation with the form of language towards the study of the meaning of language. The rejection of the principles upon which SLT and the Audio-lingual method were based, as well as the replacement of the view of language as a system by one that sees it as a means of communication, gave impetus to the emergence of new approaches in the teaching of foreign languages. These culminated in the development of *Communicative Language Teaching* in the 1970s. The tenets of the communicative approach held that “the target language is a vehicle for classroom communication, not just the object of study” (Larsen-Freeman, 2000: 125) and, thus, the emphasis was on the process of communication rather than just the mastery of language forms (ibid: 126). Students concentrated on all four skills, listening, speaking, reading and writing, from the beginning and worked with language at the discourse or suprasentential level (ibid: 131).

The ascendancy of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) pushed pronunciation to the sidelines (Jones, 2002: 178). Jones (2002) attributes the virtual disappearance of pronunciation work in the ‘communicative’ course books of the 1970s to the endorsement of Stephen Krashen’s position regarding the teaching of



pronunciation. Krashen, whose work is considered to be “one of the main driving forces of a CLT” (deBot et al, 2005: 79), insisted that focused instruction on pronunciation is at best useless and at worst detrimental (Jones, 2002: 179). He believed that “the factors affecting second language pronunciation are chiefly acquisition variables, which cannot be affected by focused practice and the teaching of formal rules” (Krashen, 1982 cited in Jones, 2002: 179).

Saville-Troike (2006) cites the general acceptance of the *critical period hypothesis* (Lenneberg, 1967) as another reason that contributed to the marginalisation of the teaching of pronunciation during the second half of the twentieth century (: 142). This hypothesis, which claims that it is not possible to achieve native-like proficiency when the learning of a second language starts after puberty, is most strongly associated with the acquisition of the phonological system of the target language (deBot et al, 2005: 65). Scovel (1988) argues that “late starters may be able to learn the syntax and the vocabulary of a second language, but... attaining a native-like pronunciation is impossible for them” (cited in deBot et al, 2005: 65).

However, even if Krashen’s theory and/or the critical period hypothesis had been refuted or had not been taken into account at the time, the incorporation of pronunciation within the communicative approach to language teaching would have still been problematic. A brief, comparative analysis of some of the main features of audiolingualism and communicative language teaching will serve to illuminate this matter.

Audiolingual

Linguistic competence is the desired goal.

Attends to structure & form more than meaning.

Communicative Language Teaching

Communicative competence is the desired goal.

Meaning is paramount.

Language learning is learning structures, sounds, or words.

The target linguistic system will be learned through the overt teaching of the patterns of the system.

Drilling is a central technique.

Oral/aural drills and pattern practice

Native-speaker-like pronunciation is sought.

Accuracy, in terms of formal correctness, is a primary goal.

Language learning is learning to communicate.

The target linguistic system will be learned best through the process of struggling to communicate.

Drilling may occur, but peripherally.

Information gap activities, role plays games.

Comprehensible pronunciation is sought.

Fluency and acceptable language is the primary goal.

Adapted from Finocchiaro and Brumfit, 1983, cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2001: 156-157

These two approaches are diametrically different as to the philosophy and principles that underlie each of them. According to the proponents of audiolingualism, the creation and subsequent establishment of the students' linguistic competence should be sought by teaching the formal system of the language systematically through rule-learning and habit-formation (drilling) procedures (Efstathiadis, 1993: 74). Language is regarded as an end in its own right and it is the performance of drills, aimed at habit-formation, that lead to the mastery of the sound system, grammar and lexis. On the other hand, the communicative approach is based on a theory of language as a tool to negotiate meanings. "If language is naturally used as an instrument for communication, then it is best learned through tasks in which language is meaningfully used" (Efstathiadis, 1993: 70). Language is viewed as a means to an end and activities based on meaningful interaction are expected to promote learning.

As it has been already demonstrated, pronunciation was considered to be of utmost importance in the SLT and audiolingual curriculum and a great deal of time and effort was spent on the formation of good pronunciation 'habits'. However, when

structuralism and behaviourism become outmoded and discredited in mainstream language teaching in the 1960s, pronunciation lost its unquestioned role as a pivotal component in the curriculum, and class time spent on pronunciation was greatly reduced or even dispensed with altogether (Seidlhofer, 2001: 57). It was communicative language teaching, which was seen as “a reaction away from... the audiolingual method” (Richards and Schimdt, 2002: 90), that played an instrumental role in the considerable reduction of the status of pronunciation in language teaching. “Pronunciation, traditionally viewed as a component of linguistic rather than communicative competence or as an aspect of accuracy rather than conversational fluency, has come to be regarded as of limited importance in a communicatively orientated classroom” (Pennington and Richards, 1986: 207). It seems that researchers and practitioners failed to deal with the role of pronunciation in a model of language teaching predicated upon the attainment of communicative rather than linguistic competence. As Terrel (1989) puts it: “communicative approaches... have not known what to do with pronunciation” (:197).

Fraser (2000) considers the effect that the advent of communicative language teaching has had on the teaching of pronunciation and describes the issues that have arisen very eloquently:

In the 1960s, there was a huge focus on pronunciation – in the form of behaviourist drilling of sound contrasts and word pairs, with a strong emphasis on the articulation of individual sounds, and little attention to rhythm and intonation, the construction of useful sentences, or the practice of realistic conversations... in the 1970s with the development of communicative methods... the focus was on communication and the use of language in real situations. This was in general a good thing, but it had one unfortunate side-effect – the almost complete ignoring of pronunciation. Pronunciation was so strongly associated with the ‘drill and kill’ methods that it was deliberately downplayed, rather than being incorporated in the communicative method. The result was that few if any ‘communicative pronunciation’ methods were developed.

Fraser, 2000: 33

Indeed, traditional pronunciation teaching methods, as utilised in audiolingualism, were heavily criticised by adherents of communicative language teaching: “a mere

parroting of the forms of language, as in an audio-lingual drill, will get the student nowhere” (Prodromou, 1995: 100). Pronunciation drills were considered to be purposeful only in a purely linguistic sense; there was no purpose beyond practising pronunciation forms for their own sake. Instead, it is through the performance of meaningful tasks, activities that involve real communication, that learners could ‘pick up’ pronunciation effectively. In addition to the rejection of audiolingual pronunciation teaching methods, an important idea that can be extracted from Fraser (2000), as quoted above, concerns the virtual non-existence of ‘communicative pronunciation teaching methods’. In a parallel view, Celce-Muria et al (1996) highlight the failure on the part of proponents of the communicative approach to develop “an agreed-upon set of strategies for teaching pronunciation communicatively” (: 8). Indeed, even though “researchers have examined almost every facet of language acquisition in relation to the Communicative Approach, the acquisition of pronunciation has fallen to the wayside and has suffered from serious neglect in the communicative classroom” (Elliott, 1997: 95).

The close link between communicative language teaching and the reduction in the status of pronunciation has been established with what has been stated so far. Now it is important to consider the extent to which CLT has been the dominant methodological approach in language classrooms. The communicative approach was mostly developed by British applied linguists in the 1980s (Richards and Schmidt, 2002: 90). It was adopted rapidly and disseminated worldwide owing to the fact that it “quickly assumed the status of orthodoxy in British language teaching circles [by] receiving the sanction and support of leading applied linguists, language specialists, and publishers, as well as institutions such as the British Council” (Richards, 1985 cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2001: 172). To this day, a huge range of course books

and other teaching resources are based on the principles of CLT (Richards and Rodgers, 2001: 174). Indeed, the communicative approach persists to this day in different parts of the world (Hismanoglou, 2006; Hajati, 2006) and most teachers claim to practise CLT in their classrooms (Gatbonton and Segalowitz, 2005; Kanellou, 2004). Whether or not the teachers do so genuinely, in other words, whether or not they are consistent in their application of CLT throughout the syllabus, is a matter that is not directly relevant to this thesis.

In his consideration of the overall impact of the communicative approach on language teaching, Howatt (1984) asserts that CLT enriched and extended the traditions initiated by the reformers at the end of the nineteenth century. “The spoken language, for example, is promoted with more determination now than at any time since the Reform Movement”, he wrote (ibid: 289). Such a statement needs to be approached with caution. Of course, one cannot deny that the primary importance of learning to speak a language and communicate successfully was recognised in the 1970s and 1980s, perhaps, to a greater extent than ever before. However, and as we have just seen, speaking was divorced from pronunciation in the CLT curriculum in the 1970s; such a ‘divorce’ would have been very difficult for the reformers of the nineteenth century to apprehend, let alone to accept.

#### An exception; The Bilingual Method

I will conclude this section by referring, albeit briefly, to a notable exception; a language teaching method that emerged in the second half of the twentieth century and attached importance to pronunciation. Dodson (1963, 1972) rejected the Grammar-Translation method and the Direct Method and argued that “a new method must be found which lies outside the range of ‘indirect-direct’ methods” (1963: 9). He

developed the *Bilingual Method* and one of its objectives was to get people to speak independently of the teachers and teaching materials; in order for the learners to succeed in this respect, they had to have good pronunciation amongst other things such as good control of grammar and vocabulary. The Bilingual method was accepted in Wales for the teaching of Welsh as a second language and also caught on in India for the teaching of English as a second language. However, this method was not based on the monolingual principle and as such it was not favoured by the British Council. One of the reasons that the British Council did not endorse the use of the mother tongue in the language classroom was a practical one; it was simply not feasible for all teachers of English to be familiar with the local language. Dodson (1963, 1972) did not regard the use of the first language as a hindrance to the learning of the target language and advocated its use in the language classroom. He argued for a different attitude towards the place and function of the mother tongue in the process of learning a second language (Dodson, 1961 cited in Dodson, 1963: 12); “research should be directed towards investigating the advantages that can be gained by making use of the pupil’s possession of a first language” (Dodson, 1963: 12).

## **Appendix 1.2 ‘The Changing Status of Pronunciation: Focus on the Learner’**

### Analysis of learners’ needs, views and desires

Garrett and Shorthall (2002) investigated students’ evaluations of ‘teacher-fronted’ and ‘student-centred’ classroom activities in both meaning transmission and grammar tasks; 103 Brazilian EFL students (beginners, elementary, intermediate) completed and then evaluated different types of learning activities: teacher-fronted grammar (TFG), student-centred grammar (SCG), teacher-fronted fluency (TFF) and student-centred fluency (SCF). The students “were also asked to evaluate these [activities] in terms of affective reactions (enjoyment, anxiety) and perceived learning value, by completing 5-point scales and writing reasons for their ratings” (Garrett and Shorthall, 2002: 25). Garrett and Shorthall (2002) provide an excellent discussion on the reasons why it is important to seek learners’ views as well as on the ‘gap’ that often emerges between teachers’ and learners’ perceptions on pedagogical issues. In order to answer the question ‘why it is useful to study learners’ beliefs about, and attitudes towards, their language learning experiences?’ Garrett and Shorthall (2002) cite interesting examples from the relevant literature as follows:

The important role of learners’ attitudes and motivation in second language acquisition is well-documented (e.g., Gardner and Lambert, 1972; Gardner, 1985; Garrett, Giles and Coupland, 1989; Gardner and MacIntyre, 1993). Gardner’s socioeducational model of second language acquisition (see for example Gardner, 1985: 147; Gardner and MacIntyre, 1993: 8) includes a number of individual differences that influence achievement directly. These include motivation and anxiety. Motivation refers to effort (the drive displayed by the student to learn the language), desire (how much the student wants to learn it), and affect (emotional reactions towards the experience of learning the language; for example, whether the student enjoys it). Its importance lies in influencing how actively individuals seek to acquire the language.

Garrett and Shorthall, 2002: 29

Garrett and Shorthall (2002) state that as part of their study what they wished to show was that “taking account of students’ evaluations of their language learning experience has now become an integral component of some significant recent

developments in language learning” (: 27). They refer to the work of Barkhuizen (1998) who has observed that the shift towards learner-centred approaches has generally led to a greater emphasis on students’ perceptions of classroom aims and events. Barkhuizen (1998) proposed that the teachers themselves should be encouraged to study the students’ perceptions and pointed out that “students’ perceptions are often at variance with those of teachers” (Barkhuizen, 1998: 87 cited in Garrett and Shorthall, 2002: 27). How and by whom learners’ perceptions are to be studied is an issue that will be addressed later on.

Garrett and Shorthall (2002) found that the students in their study were able to report a range of factors that they felt promoted or impeded gains from the specified classroom learning activities when asked for their views and posed the question of ‘what could be done with such views’. The following quotation taken from Garrett and Shorthall’s (2002) paper provides an answer to this question as follows:

To begin with, they [the learners’ views] are useful for teachers, of course. Often teachers find it hard to acknowledge that learners have a contribution to make to the instructional process (Allwright, 1984: 167), and a few doubtless believe strongly that student comment is inherently misguided, and that their own professional judgement alone is unquestionable and paramount. But other teachers soon realize that they have much to gain from being aware and sensitive enough to listen to the voice of their learners, know how their teaching is being received, and take (and be seen to take) students’ views into consideration when planning and implementing their teaching programmes, when designing or selecting activities to balance, if not combine, learning and enjoyment, when considering which student might work best with whom, when judging the optimum degree of error correction, or when trying to understand the silences in their classroom. Such teachers are more likely to foster and protect the enthusiasm, vitality and sustained commitment that their learners need in their efforts to learn a second language well...

It is also useful for learners themselves to be given regular opportunities not just to express evaluative reactions to what they do, but to evaluate, as far as possible, in a reflective, reflexive, reasonably systematic and comprehensive way, to ensure that all or most of the important evaluative dimensions are considered. In terms of learner empowerment in the language learning process (e.g., see Fairclough, 1992; James and Garrett, 1991), and the building of learner autonomy, such evaluation is an essential component. They can weigh up the advantages and disadvantages (to them) of participating in a range of activities, how various kind of participation can help their learning and subsequent language use, how they can maximise and exploit the benefits that can be achieved from their various classroom activities. Ultimately, they may then be better able to make their own decisions about how to develop further their proficiency in their second language.

Garrett and Shorthall, 2002: 48-49



It is interesting to see that, according to the quotation above, the benefits to be gained from seeking learners' views on certain pedagogical matters do not just apply to the teachers (and more specifically to those teachers who are prepared to embrace their students' views) but also extend to the learners themselves.

Horwitz (1999) states that "understanding learner beliefs about language learning is essential to understanding learner strategies and planning appropriate language instruction" (: 557) and observes that "in recent years it has become axiomatic to view the language learner as an active participant in the language learning experience" (ibid: 557).

Peacock (1999) investigated the beliefs about language learning of EFL students and EFL teachers in the Department of English at the City University of Hong Kong, China. The primary aim of the study was to determine if the differences between student and teacher beliefs about language learning affect the students' proficiency in the target language. Peacock (1999) attributed the genesis of his project to Horwitz's (1988: 247-248) suggestion that "if learners have preconceived ideas and negative or unrealistic expectations about how foreign languages are learned – particularly if they differ significantly from teachers' ideas – learner satisfaction with the course, confidence in the teacher, and achievement may be affected". For example, Horwitz (1988) claimed that "if students believe language learning means vocabulary and grammar rules, they will spend most of their time memorizing vocabulary lists and grammar rules rather than doing the tasks their teachers plan for them" (Horwitz, 1988: 289 cited in Peacock, 1999: 248-249). But how was Horwitz (1988) driven to arrive at such conclusions? Horwitz (1988) carried out a large-scale questionnaire survey on the beliefs of a number of first-semester foreign language learners at the University of Texas (80 were studying German, 63 French, and 98

Spanish) and found that the answers on some items seemed to differ from commonly held teacher perceptions. For example, “71% stated that it is important to speak a foreign language with an excellent accent” (Horwitz, 1988 cited in Peacock, 1999: 248). Horwitz (1988) proposed that “these gaps between teacher and learner beliefs probably result in negative [language-learning] outcomes” (: 292 cited in Peacock, 1999: 290). In her final conclusions, she made the following assertion:

Teachers will likely encounter... many unanticipated beliefs, some enabling and some truly detrimental to successful language learning... foreign language teachers can ill afford to ignore those beliefs if they expect their students to be open to particular teaching methods and to receive the maximum benefit for them.

Horwitz, 1988: 292 cited in Peacock, 1999: 248

Peacock (1999) recognizes that others have also given theoretical support to the idea that a gap between teacher and learner beliefs may result in negative language learning outcomes for the learners<sup>1</sup>; for example, Mantle-Bromley (1995) “stresses that teachers need to have a clear understanding of foreign language students’ beliefs, because learners with realistic and uniformed beliefs are more likely to be productive in class, work harder outside class, and (crucially) persist longer with language study” (Mantle-Bromley, 1995: 373 cited in Peacock, 1999: 249). Nevertheless, Peacock (1999) points out that “little effort has been made, however, to test the idea empirically” (: 290) and, to this end, he carried out this project in order to discover whether or not mismatched student and teacher beliefs were associated with students’ lower proficiency levels.

Peacock’s (1999) study did not only demonstrate that student responses differed from common teacher perceptions on some items but also provided evidence that a mismatch between teacher and learner beliefs had a detrimental effect on

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<sup>1</sup> Peacock (1999) cites the following in this respect: Green & Oxford 1995: 265, Oxford & Nyikos 1989: 292; Mantle-Bromley 1995: 380-1; Cotterall 1995: 202-203; Politzer & McGroarty 1985: 118-9 and so on.

language learning: “while previous researchers have theorised that certain learner beliefs negatively affect language learning, little empirical research has so far been done to test this notion. The present findings provide evidence of a link” (Peacock, 1999: 257). Overall, Peacock (1999) considers the findings of his study to be important for two reasons:

First, they provide some evidence – previously lacking – to support Horwitz’s, Kern’s and Manle-Bromley’s suggestions, that some beliefs are detrimental to language learning. Second, they suggest the existence of a need for teacher intervention in the EFL classroom – that is, if misplaced learner beliefs negatively affect achievement, perhaps steps should be taken to correct these beliefs.

Peacock, 1999: 258-259

Furthermore, Peacock (1999) found that a mismatch between teacher and learner beliefs can lead to student frustration and may also affect learner attitudes and motivation. This finding is also supported by other researchers and Peacock (1999) refers to their work as follows:

Learner motivation was defined by Crookes & Schmidt in their influential article (1991: 498-502) as interest plus enthusiasm, persistence, attention, concentration and enjoyment; this definition has gained wide acceptance among researchers and teachers. The long hours that learners spend in EFL classrooms almost certainly make motivation an important factor in language-learning success (Ushioda, 1993: 1-3) adds that enhanced learner participation and enthusiasm are significant outcomes in themselves). Kern (1995: 81) proposes that students are frustrated when classroom methods do not match their expectations, and McCargar suggests (1993: 200-201) that frustrated and disappointed learners may quit a course and look for one that better meets their perceived needs and wishes. Attitudes to motivation are important, and I believe that more teachers should be seeking their learners’ opinions on how they learn and on what they wish to do in class, perhaps incorporating the results in classroom activities and materials (for suggestions in this area, see Yorio, 1986: 761). It is likely that learners whose beliefs about language learning differ from the teachers’ beliefs become demotivated as they lose faith in the teachers’ methods.

Peacock, 1999: 260

Overall, Peacock (1999) draws the following conclusion and makes the following recommendation based on the findings of his project:

I conclude that the gaps I found between teacher and learner beliefs did result in negative learning outcomes for the participating learners; did lead to reduced learner confidence in and satisfaction with the class; and did lead to a reluctance to participate in communicative activities...

The same differences between learner and teacher views may certainly be found in many other classrooms. I therefore suggest that teachers examine their learners’ beliefs and do what they can to reduce learner misunderstanding and dissatisfaction. The questions on how far learner

and teacher beliefs diverge, why they diverge, and how these differences can be removed deserve further investigation.

Peacock, 1999: 262

### Who should study learners' views & how should they be obtained?

Davies (2006) wrote a report on how he encountered the 'teacher-learner' gap problem himself and how he managed to solve it. He begins his paper by stating that EFL teachers seem to rely more often on intuition when making course planning decisions rather than on informed assessment of learners' needs<sup>2</sup> and this is the cause of the conflicting ideas held by teachers and learners in terms of course content and so on. He writes:

Despite the best intentions, it seems that teacher intuition (Tarone and Yule, 1989 cited in West, 1994) often plays a greater role in planning and teaching decisions than informed assessment of learners' actual needs and wishes. The resulting divergence of teacher and learner beliefs and expectations can spell trouble for language courses as the teacher-learner gap widens and becomes increasingly difficult to close as the course progresses.

Davies, 2006: 3

Davies (2006) acknowledges that "over a period of time, it became apparent that my university classes were suffering from this problem" (: 3) and, throughout his paper, he demonstrates how the idea of using short, teacher-designed, class-specific questionnaire surveys in order to obtain course evaluation data from his learners for use in ongoing course planning helped him rectify this. He proposes the use of class-specific questionnaires as a way of greatly improving problematic teaching situations:

This article proposes a more principled alternative to the intuitive approach, based on the use of teacher-designed class-specific questionnaires intended to obtain context-relevant data from learners as an aid to better course provision. The focus is firmly on the local level, on individual teachers and their classes, rather than on institution-wide surveys, since this is where success or failure of courses is ultimately determined, and where plans for action derived from questionnaire data will be acted upon.

Davies, 2006: 3

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<sup>2</sup> This idea is supported by the relevant literature (see Barkhuizen, 1998 and Spratt, 1999 cited in Davies, 2006: 3).

Davies (2006) explains that ‘institution-wide’ surveys are those conducted across all of an institution’s classes and, also, refers to them as ‘global’ questionnaire surveys. Of course, in my view, and, one that would be supported by other researchers in the field, that the term ‘global’ questionnaire surveys can be extended to surveys conducted across all (or a representative sample of ) institutions in one city or in one country and so on. Davies (2006) questions the utility of global questionnaire surveys as he points out that they suffer from two main drawbacks:

First, the results are not always made available to learners or teachers. Second, whilst institution-wide surveys undoubtedly provide essential information regarding the bigger picture of an institution’s language programme, they often reveal little about the teaching/learning context where it matters most – in individual classrooms. Global data obtained across the range of an institution’s programmes cannot easily be matched to the individual classrooms that provided the data, thus reducing the possibility of targeting intervention strategies where they would be most productive.

Davies, 2006: 4

On the other hand, he promotes the use of ‘class-specific’ questionnaires and outlines their advantages as follows:

Class-specific questionnaire surveys, on the other hand, with the narrower focus on the individual teacher and his or her classes, comprise items that are designed to reflect and recall local classroom content and events, and thus provide data that can be acted upon much more effectively. They are more reliable and more relevant to the context in question, and are essential to the goal of reducing the kinds of learner misinterpretations of teacher intentions (Kumaravadivelu, 1991) that can occur on language courses. In this way, personalised, class-specific surveys have a unique ability to capture the essence of particular courses in ways that institution-wide surveys cannot.... Class-specific questionnaire survey data contribute greatly to the aim of achieving more cohesive-long term course development. Over a period of time, data revealing learners’ responses to a variety of tasks, content, materials, and so forth, will naturally reveal patterns of commonality between learners taking the same or similar courses, and contribute considerably to the goal of making the kinds of informed planning decisions needed to close any gaps that may exist between teacher and learner expectations of a course. In addition, the growing body of data, comprising a ‘common core’ of learner perceptions of particular courses, helps ensure a smoother transition between similar course-types and course levels.

Davies, 2006: 4

While it cannot be denied that class-specific questionnaire surveys are associated with certain advantages, I disagree with a few of the points made by Davies (2006). For example, I argue against the view that class-specific questionnaires are more reliable than global ones on the following grounds: the ‘reliability’ of questionnaire results is a very complex matter that pertains to a number of issues such as the researcher’s

expertise in designing a questionnaire that will yield reliable results and, also, it depends on things such as the students' culture, the particular context/teaching situation or even the particular teacher who seeks his or her learners' views; for example, the learners may hesitate to reveal what they really think if they know that it is their teacher who is going to read their answers<sup>3</sup> whereas they may record their answers truthfully if they know that it is the independent researcher who will process the questionnaires and analyse the results. Furthermore, the results of institution-wide surveys can also be made available to the teachers and learners; the researcher(s) and/or institution representatives can ensure that the teachers and learners that have participated in the survey are provided with summarised copies of the results of the survey. For example, this is the practice that is going to be followed by the author of this thesis as part of the research project reported in this thesis.

Davies (2006) presents additional advantages of class-specific surveys and supports these with examples from his experience as an EFL teacher. One advantage of the collection and analysis of class-specific questionnaire data is that it leads to the selection or design of better classroom materials:

Hutchinson reminds us that, '... the selections of materials probably represents the single most important decision that the language teacher has to make' (1987: 37). However, decisions regarding materials are often based on either administrative convenience or teacher intuition (Spratt, 1999) rather than on principled analysis of the needs of the teaching/ learning situation. And yet, as Vincent observes, '... we need to find topics and tasks that will engage learners physically, emotionally, socially and intellectually in learning the new language; (1984: 40). If this is the case, then logic suggest that we first of all need to discover far more about our learners than we might assume we already know and to set about actively involving them in decisions regarding the materials, content and tasks that are selected or designed for them. Class-specific questionnaires elicit learners' views on in-class materials that later, following teacher mediation (Spratt, 1999), lead to the formulation of useful criteria for future selection of published materials and design of teacher-made materials for that class or for similar classes.

Davies, 2006: 4

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<sup>3</sup> For example, I recall an incident that I experienced myself. When I was asked to complete a questionnaire on my views on a particular module I had taken as part of my Bachelor's Degree in Applied English Language & Linguistics, I hesitated providing a truthful account of what I thought about the module fearing that the lecturer who had administered the questionnaire might recognize my handwriting!

For example, Davies (2006) found that his learners' responses to certain survey items led to significant changes in key elements of his courses such as skills focus and task types; "learners have overwhelmingly requested more listening and vocabulary input and this is now well represented on current courses" (: 7). Another advantage of class-specific questionnaires pertains to greater learner-centredness:

Class-specific questionnaires are a tangible reminder for learners that they are regarded as valued participants in the classroom. They give learners a voice and a considerable measure of influence in shaping current and future courses, but they also point to certain beliefs about language and learning may need to be channelled or challenged with suitable teacher intervention strategies (Cotterall, 1999; Kumaravadiveul, 1991).

Davies, 2006: 5

Indeed, Davies (2006) maintains that "survey results confirm that learners do want and appreciate the opportunity to express their views about their course and wish to exercise some degree of control over the way the course proceeds" (: 8). A further advantage of class-specific questionnaires concerns the issue of teacher self-development:

Block's (1991) observation that teacher self-development is a natural and desirable result of engagement in the process of designing and developing teaching materials seems to be equally applicable to the process of designing class-specific questionnaires. Moreover, once the questionnaire has been created, its content can serve as a point of focus for the teacher and a stimulus to observe more consciously during courses those categories identified as important by inclusion as questionnaire items.

Davies, 2006: 5

Davies (2006) considers the positive impact that the analysis of his learners' responses to class-specific questionnaire items has had on his professional self-development as follows:

Survey data consistently reveal that general English textbooks do not inspire my learners, who often find topics, activities, and level do not match their needs or expectations...It was my learners' initial negative reactions to one general English textbook after another that prompted me to consider developing my own materials and tasks. Now, when I look back over my teaching career it is hard to find anything that has been as invaluable to my professional self-development as the complex process of designing materials and tasks for a wide range of teaching situations. Materials development is a multi-faceted and multi-skilled process that requires a wide understanding of all aspects of teaching and learning and it is a process that has guided me towards a far greater understanding of my teaching.

Davies, 2006: 9

It would be unjust to leave Davies's (2006) discussion on class-specific questionnaires without mentioning that he also recognizes that the use of class-specific questionnaires may present certain challenges and difficulties. Moreover, and, even though Davies (2006) maintains that "what is gained from the use of class-specific questionnaire surveys is what is generally most often sought by teachers in their classrooms – a greater and more uniquely personal understanding of our learners, and an additional and reliable means of assessing and effecting change where it is needed most" (: 10), he proposes that class-specific questionnaires may be used in conjunction with global questionnaires. He writes:

A more important problem concerns the issue of prioritizing and balancing the needs and preferences that learners express via the data...

My teaching context is characterized by monolingual university-level students and my application of class-specific questionnaires is unique to this context of use. However, the issue of how far class-specific questionnaire surveys are a valid tool for use in other teaching/learning contexts, such as multinational classrooms, seems to be much a question of *whether* commonalities between learners can be identified, but to *what extent* they can be identified...

In addition, class-specific questionnaires, despite the best efforts of the designer, are clearly more time-consuming than questionnaires administered at institution level by other staff members or teachers sharing the responsibility for creating and developing the instrument. In the end, it might prove more fruitful to regard the global and local information obtained from institution-wide and classroom-level questionnaires as complementary rather than conflicting, taking account of key data from each source according to the needs of the particular teaching/learning contexts.

Davies, 2006: 9-10



## Section 1.2 ‘The Place & Practice of Pronunciation Teaching in Manuals & Handbooks’

### Appendix 1.3 ‘A Review of ‘English Language Teaching’ & ‘Applied Linguistics’ Manuals and Handbooks’

#### ‘Listening’ manuals and handbooks

I will now begin my review by focusing on ‘listening’ manuals and handbooks. The books I will explore are the following:

Flowerdew and Miller’s (2005) *Second Language Listening: Theory and Practice*

Rost’s (2002) *Teaching and Researching Listening*

Buck’s (2001) *Assessing Listening*

Hadfield and Hadfield’s (1999a) *Simple Listening Activities*

Listening is viewed as an essential aspect of communicative competence in **John Flowerdew and Lindsay Miller’s (2005) *Second Language Listening*** and the authors consider their book to be of key interest to both pre-service and in-service teachers who are involved in the teaching or the design of materials for listening. Flowerdew and Miller (2005) regard phonology as one of the main types of knowledge utilised in listening:

In order to comprehend a spoken message, four main types of knowledge may be drawn on: *phonological* – the sound system; *syntactic* – how words are put together; *semantic* – word and propositional knowledge; and *pragmatic* – the meaning of utterances in particular situations.

Flowerdew and Miller, 2005: 30

They go on to delineate the important role that phonological knowledge plays in listening comprehension. For instance, they explain how second language learners, who are not sensitive to intonation patterns and who rely overmuch on grammar, may misunderstand utterances that depend on intonation for their meaning (Flowerdew and

Miller, 2005: 33). Or, how forms of connected speech, such as elision, “may come as a rather nasty shock” (ibid: 34) to a non-native speaker who has been taught to recognise individual words and short sentences in their idealised citation forms. From what has been stated so far, it can be deduced that any manual or handbook that is dedicated to the skill of listening should also address phonology.

Flowerdew and Miller (2005) argue that nowadays language teachers need to concentrate not only on the product of listening but also on the process of listening and propose a new model upon which a new methodology for teaching listening may be based. They explain that the models that have been developed up to this day are insufficient because they do not account for all dimensions that may affect the way spoken messages are perceived and processed. For example, the bottom-up model, which was developed in the 1940s and 1950s, does not take into account the wider context of the spoken message(s) and does not have a cross-cultural dimension. If we approach the pedagogical model of listening they propose from a ‘phonological’ perspective, we can see that one of the aims of the model is to sensitise students to the fact that there are many different accents of English all over the world. Indeed, Flowerdew and Miller accentuate this fact from the beginning of their book:

English has become a world language. The need to be able to understand English is increasing by the day. There is a growing need, therefore, for international citizens to be able to understand not just standard British or American spoken English, but other varieties spoken around the world.

Flowerdew and Miller, 2005: xi

Thus, they suggest that teachers who prepare listening material using the new model should help students become aware of different accents and varieties of English. Finally, they recommend the use of intensive listening practice activities as well as the language laboratory to help students improve their pronunciation. They point out that the materials should be quality materials; not just ‘repetition’ and ‘substitution’ drills (ibid: 170-172).

**Michael Rost's (2002) *Teaching and Researching Listening*** is designed to provide a thorough and practical treatment of both the linguistic and pragmatic processes, that are involved in oral language use, from the perspective of the listener. The target audience consists of language teachers, students and researchers. Pronunciation receives little attention throughout the book compared to other areas of language knowledge such as grammar and vocabulary. The book index provides a good indication of the former; there are thirty page references for vocabulary, eighteen for grammar and only four for pronunciation. In my attempt to determine why phonology receives less attention compared to vocabulary and grammar in this book, I need to consider the place phonology occupies in terms of the listening process, as perceived by Rost. Rost believes that comprehension is one of the goals of listening, not the end goal: "rather than being the goal of listening, however, comprehension is a lower-order goal, one that aids the listener in achieving an appropriate connection or response" (2002: 110). His view of lower-order goals is based on Levelt's (1989) hierarchical structure of listening and includes the understanding of sounds the speaker uses (Rost, 2002: 110). Rost then goes on to list third-order goals (understanding cohesion between utterances, understanding pragmatic conventions and so on), second-order goals (understanding social meaning of input and so on) and first-order goals (responding to relevant aspects of what is heard). He believes that listening exercises and instruction should aim to "help learners automatise 'lower-level' processing of language so that they can devote more attention to 'higher-level' goals" (: 110). It seems that Rost (2002) considers lower-level goals and, consequently, pronunciation, as deserving less attention compared to 'higher-level' goals (and, consequently lexis, grammar and pragmatics) and these views are reflected in the contents of the book.

**Gary Buck's (2001) *Assessing Listening*** is designed to assist language teachers and testing practitioners in the construction of listening tests. In the introduction of the book, Buck (2001) points out that a number of different types of knowledge are involved in listening comprehension; both linguistic and non-linguistic knowledge. "Linguistic knowledge is of different types, but among the most important are phonology, lexis, syntax semantics and discourse structure" (: 2). He defines listening comprehension as follows:

Listening comprehension is the result of an interaction between a number of information sources, which include the acoustic input, different types of linguistic knowledge, details of the context, and general world knowledge, and so forth, and listeners use whatever information they have available, or whatever information seems relevant to help them interpret what the speaker is saying.

Buck, 2001: 3

Throughout the book, phonology receives equal treatment to the other components of linguistic knowledge. Buck demonstrates that paying attention to the phonological features of spoken language, especially stress and intonation, are extremely important aspects of listening comprehension. That is because, for example, in English, intonation patterns are closely related to the structure and meaning of the text; intonation indicates clausal boundaries, marks questions, indicates when it is appropriate for the listener to respond and so on (ibid: 5). Buck (2001) devotes a whole section to the phonological knowledge that he believes students of a second language must acquire in order to succeed in language comprehension and mostly draws on examples from the English language. He addresses phonological modification (for example, assimilation), accent, and prosodic features (stress and intonation). The following statements belong to the relevant section of Buck's (2001) *Assessing Listening* and have been selected to indicate the importance attached to phonology in the context of listening comprehension:

*On Phonological Modification*

The sounds of a language must be learned in order to understand speech. This is obvious; it is not the sounds themselves, however, that cause the most comprehension problems, but the

way they vary in normal speech... The phonological system – the complex set of rules that determine the pronunciation of connected speech – must of course be learned. Any lack of such knowledge is likely to be reflected in reduced comprehension.

Buck, 2001: 32, 33

*On Accent*

L2 listeners sometimes have considerable problems when they hear a new accent for the first time...Accent is potentially a very important variable in listening comprehension... an unfamiliar accent can make comprehension almost impossible for the listener.

ibid: 35

*On Prosody*

Much of the communicative effect of utterances is expressed by the stress and intonation, and listeners need to be able to understand that to construct a reasonable interpretation.

ibid: 38

Buck (2001) formulates a framework that is intended to aid test development by describing the components of listening comprehension. As the reader would expect from what has been stated so far in relation to Buck's (2001) work, phonology is one of the components of this framework for describing linguistic ability (: 104). Buck (2001) clarifies that the framework does not offer the test-developer any guidelines regarding which components are most important, nor which components should be included in a particular test and in what relative proportions; "the purpose of the test should be the major determiner of which components should be included in the test, in what relative proportions, and in what way" (: 103). Nevertheless, he offers specific techniques for testing the knowledge of the sound system (: 133). Moreover, in his examination of professionally designed tests (First Certificate in English and so on), he identifies significant omissions in the listening component of the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL): "the oral features of spoken texts – phonology, hesitations... typical of unplanned spoken language – are almost entirely absent" (: 223). In the concluding section of the book, he states that many tests can be easily improved based on knowledge and techniques available at the moment – especially in regard to phonology (ibid: 257). Buck (2001) sums up the process of listening as follows: "the listener takes the incoming data, the acoustic signal, and interprets that, using a wide variety of information and knowledge, for a particular communicative

purpose” (:29). Since we examine the role of phonology in L2 listening, we can add that, according to Buck, for the particular communicative purpose to be met, the listener must first interpret the spoken message; whether or not this interpretation will be successful depends, to a large extent, on the L2 listener’s phonological knowledge. Consequently, phonology merits attention as part of the listening component of a language course, test or book.

***Simple Listening Activities* by Jill Hadfield and Charles Hadfield (1999a)**

belongs to a relatively new series of short, accessible books for teachers of English who may be unfamiliar with CLT methodology, known as ‘Oxford Basics’. The book contains thirty elementary level listening activities that adhere to CLT principles and each activity comprises three stages referred to as the ‘warm-up’, ‘listen and respond’ and ‘follow-up’ stages. The authors propose the use of the ‘warm-up’ stage to “pre-teach difficult new vocabulary” (Hadfield and Hadfield, 1999a: 2). Vocabulary is the main area of language knowledge that all the activities focus on and there are also a few activities that focus on grammatical structures. As far as pronunciation is concerned, the authors suggest the ‘personal information’ and ‘shopping’ activities to be acted out between the teacher and a colleague because “it is good for them [the students] to have practice in listening to a variety of voices speaking English” (ibid: 3). Nevertheless, no explicit attention is paid to pronunciation in any of the activities throughout the book.

‘Speaking’ manuals and handbooks

I will now move on to books dedicated to the skill of speaking. The books I will explore are as follows:

Bailey’s (2005) *Practical English Language Teaching: Speaking*

Thornbury’s (2005) *How to Teach Speaking*

Luoma's (2004) *Assessing Speaking*

Anderson, Maclean and Lynch's (2004) *Study Speaking: A Course in Spoken English for Academic Purposes*

Baker and Westrup's (2003) *Essential Speaking Skills: A Handbook for English Language Teachers*

Hughes's (2002) *Teaching and Researching Speaking*

Hadfield and Hadfield's (1999b) *Simple Speaking Activities*

**Kathleen Bailey's (2005) *Practical English Language Teaching: Speaking*** explores the teaching of speaking in great depth. It is designed for both experienced and novice teachers and may also appeal to those who are about to join the profession; "it will update the experienced teacher on current theoretical and practical approaches to teaching speaking. The novice teacher will find step-by-step guidance on the practice of language teaching" (Bailey, 2005: vi). According to Bailey (2005: 2), "speaking consists of producing systematic verbal utterances to convey meaning" and her exploration of the fundamental concept of speaking and its components includes "the important subtopic of pronunciation" (ibid: 2). As Bailey (2005: 65) puts it: "one key to success in learning to speak a foreign language is having good pronunciation". She describes and exemplifies all features of pronunciation including segmental and suprasegmental phonemes and reduced speech and accentuates the importance of segmental and suprasegmental phonemes in speaking English: "First of all, since these phonemes carry meaning, speakers who mispronounce them can be misunderstood. Second, production problems can convey unintended meanings" (Bailey, 2005: 13-14). One of the aims of the book is for the teacher to appreciate the important role of pronunciation in helping learners increase their comprehensibility when they speak English.

Bailey's (2005) *Speaking* includes three chapters on the teaching of speaking to beginning, intermediate, and advanced students respectively. Each chapter follows the same format, covers similar topics and includes a section on the teaching of pronunciation. Of course, many of the suggested procedures and tasks can be used at all levels as long as they are adapted appropriately. Bailey (2005) maintains throughout that "it is not at all necessary for students to sound like native speakers... it is important, however, to be comprehensible" (: 65). To help beginners improve their pronunciation, it is essential for teachers to acquire some understanding of how sounds are produced. To this end, Bailey (2005) provides important information regarding the place and manner of articulation of phonemes and so on in the relevant section (: 65-72). Attention is also drawn to pronunciation problem areas for learners of different first languages. For example, for learners whose native language does not use consonant clusters at the end of words, pronouncing the English past tense and other -ed endings can be very difficult; "it will take some practice on the learners' part and some explanation on yours" (Bailey, 2005: 72). As for intermediate level learners, they are in the position to notice variations in the spoken language that they hear and may want to learn about pronunciation differences across varieties of spoken English. Bailey (2005) recommends the use of audio and/or video recordings, guest speakers and so on to expose learners to different varieties of English. As far as learners at the advanced level are concerned, it is "important to learn how to produce reduced forms in casual speech" as well as "to enunciate clearly enough to be understood" (Bailey, 2005: 142). For example, it is important to distinguish between *can* and *can't* – a difficult pronunciation issue in American English, according to Bailey (2005) – because confusing the two can lead to communication breakdowns (ibid: 144). Bailey (2005) places great emphasis on intonation:



Intonation is extremely important in speaking English. Intonation conveys rather basic information (i.e. that an utterance is a question rather than a statement). However, it also gives more subtle information about a speaker's attitude, such as disbelief, disapproval, or sarcasm.  
Bailey, 2005: 145

Thus, she proposes the practice of intonation through pair and group work. All the pronunciation activities she recommends can help advanced learners sound more natural and be understood. And, to reiterate what has been stated already, the overall focus is on increasing learners' comprehensibility. In the concluding chapter of the book, Bailey (2005) explores different ways that teachers can use technology to teach speaking and pronunciation. She focuses on computer technology which offers many new options for the practice of speaking and pronunciation. For example, pronunciation software programs allow students to listen to a model utterance, repeat the utterance, and see a visual comparison of their speech with the model. The visual image can help learners match their pitch and intonation contours with those of the model (Bailey, 2005: 180).

**Scott Thornbury's (2005) *How to Teach Speaking*** is a practical guide for language teachers who wish to improve their knowledge and develop their classroom skills in this area. It belongs to the Longman 'How to...' series whose aim is, according to the series editor, "to build teachers' confidence, knowledge and classroom abilities – and inspire them to try out new ideas" (Introduction by Jeremy Harmer in Thornbury, 2005). All the books in the series are written by teachers and teacher trainers and include *How to Teach Grammar* by Scott Thornbury (1999), *How to Teach Vocabulary* by Scott Thornbury (2002), and, also, *How to Teach Pronunciation* by Gerald Kelly (2000).

In Thornbury's (2005) *How to Teach Speaking*, phonology is recognised as one of the kinds of knowledge required for L2 speaking. Thornbury (2005) outlines all the different areas of phonology, such as the placement of prominence (stress), but

mostly concentrates on intonation because this is the area “where significant choices are available to speakers” (Thornbury, 2005: 24); “Intonation serves both to separate the stream of speech into blocks of information (called tone units) and to mark information within these units as being significant... Intonation also serves to signal the connections between tone units” (ibid: 24). He goes on to give examples of what a fall or rise in pitch in English may imply or suggest and, later on in the book, he proposes techniques for the specific practice of intonation as well as stress. For example, he explains how recordings can be used to highlight the ways stress and intonation are used to signal new or important information, to segment speech into meaningful chunks, and to signal the connections between chunks (Thornbury, 2005: 55-56). He also recommends ‘reading aloud’ activities for the practice of pronunciation; these provide a secure framework within which learners can focus on pronunciation without the added pressure of always having to plan the next utterance (Thornbury, 2005: 70). *How to Teach Speaking* includes a discussion on the relationship between pronunciation and intelligibility; the following quote serves to illustrate the importance attached to intelligibility: “Most adult learners will betray, to varying degrees, the influence of their first language pronunciation when speaking a second language, and this need not be a problem so long as intelligibility is not threatened” (Thornbury, 2005: 36). Of course, phonology is not the only linguistic aspect of speaker knowledge to be applied to second language speaking. Thornbury (2005) explores other kinds of knowledge, such as grammar and vocabulary, in addition to phonology. And, he does so not at the expense of phonology; all kinds of knowledge are given equal treatment with the exception of vocabulary which features slightly more prominently throughout the book.

**Sari Luoma's (2004) *Assessing Speaking*** belongs to the same series as Gary Buck's (2001) *Assessing Listening*. The series is known as the 'Cambridge Language Assessment' series and, very interestingly, in addition to books designed to assist language teachers and testing practitioners in the construction of listening/speaking/reading/writing tests, they include a book on the assessment of vocabulary and one on the assessment of grammar. However, there is no book on the assessment of pronunciation. Of course, one may pose the question as to whether or not pronunciation is dealt with as part of the 'vocabulary' or 'grammar' book of the series? Unfortunately, John Read's (2000) *Assessing Vocabulary* fails to address pronunciation and James Purpura's (2004) *Assessing Grammar*, which is more than three hundred pages long, contains very few brief references to pronunciation. We shall now return to Luoma's (2004) *Assessing Speaking* which, despite being grounded in research and theory, is highly practical and "will appeal both to language teachers who want to assess their students' ability to speak in a foreign language and to researchers of speaking and language assessment" (Preface by Alderson & Bachman in Luoma, 2004: x).

Luoma (2004) begins her discussion of applied linguistic perspectives on the nature of the speaking skill by concentrating on phonology. The native speaker standard for foreign language pronunciation is questioned and a different standard is proposed: "communicative effectiveness, which is based on comprehensibility and probably guided by native speaker standards but defined in terms of realistic learner achievement, is a better standard for learner pronunciation" (Luoma, 2004: 10). Luoma (2004) draws attention to the fact that even though many learners succeed in learning to pronounce the target language in a fully comprehensible and efficient manner, very few achieve a native-like standard. Consequently, it seems more

appropriate for learners to be assessed on the grounds of whether or not they are fully functional in normal communicative situations and not whether or not their speech is native-like. Luoma (2004) distinguishes between the ‘accuracy’ criterion of pronunciation, to which pronunciation standards such as native-like speech relate, and the ‘comprehensibility’ criterion; “comprehensibility is much more than accuracy. It often includes speed, intonation, stress and rhythm, all of which may be more important for the overall comprehensibility of the talk than the accuracy of individual sounds” (Luoma, 2004: 11). She then proceeds to analyse spoken grammar and vocabulary. In the concluding remarks of the relevant chapter, Luoma (2004) makes a particular telling point: “For those who are new to speaking assessment, the most important point to remember from the linguistic description of spoken language is the special nature of spoken grammar and spoken vocabulary. This is especially important in creating rating criteria” (Luoma, 2004: 27). Phonology is not ignored; it features as part of Luoma’s diagnostic rating checklist for a description task (2004: 79), it forms an integral part of ‘structured speaking tasks’ (ibid: 158-160) and the close link between intelligibility of pronunciation and overall comprehensibility is emphasised (ibid: 125). Nevertheless, the attention of those who need to develop assessments of speaking ability is mostly directed towards vocabulary and grammar. Overall, even though phonology, grammar and vocabulary are all explored as components of spoken language, there is a greater emphasis on vocabulary and grammar throughout the entire book.

So far we have looked at books dedicated to the skill of speaking in order to meet general needs of students of English. *Study Speaking* by **Kenneth Anderson, Joan Maclean and Tony Lynch (2004)** is a course in spoken English for academic

purposes<sup>4</sup>. The book, which includes a teacher's guide, is for intermediate level and above students who need to speak English in connection with their academic work and is intended primarily for use on language programs preparing learners of English for study at university or college. The book is organised around four parts: 'Scenarios', 'Discussion Skills and Presentation Skills', 'Class Seminars' and 'Strategies for Success'. *Study Speaking* is designed to improve students' speaking skills in English by "activating and extending their linguistic competence" (Anderson et al, 2004: 8) among other things. As an area of linguistic knowledge, vocabulary features most prominently throughout the book; for example, there is a plethora of 'useful language' expressions to assist students' with the development of discussion skills (ibid: 35-116). On the other hand, no explicit attention is paid to pronunciation in any of the recommended tasks of the book, the only exception being the acknowledgement that pronunciation may cause problems in speaking and the following recommendation:

We would advise focusing mainly on stress. Although students should be aware of which specific phonemes cause their listeners most comprehension problems – and some remedial practice may be appropriate with monolingual groups – the source of real-life misunderstandings of non-native learners' English is often incorrect stress placement, either within a single word or on part of a sentence.

Anderson et al, 2004: 154

Also, it is recommended that students continue to improve their spoken English after they have completed the *Study Speaking* course and have no access to a class or teacher. In terms of pronunciation – the issue is touched upon very briefly – students can either familiarise themselves with the phonetic symbols in order to be in the position to learn the correct pronunciation of a new word when they look it up in a dictionary, or, alternatively, purchase a CD dictionary which will allow them to hear

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<sup>4</sup> The particular book has not been excluded from the list as it is likely that European learners of English may pursue undergraduate or postgraduate study in an L1 English-speaking country (i.e. we will see later on when presenting the results of this research that many Greek learners of English intend to study at a university in the United Kingdom).

the word pronounced (ibid: 130). Of course, attention is drawn again to the correct placement of stress within words.

*Essential Speaking Skills (2003)* by **Joanna Baker and Heather Westrup** is a handbook of practical teaching advice and activities for teachers of English. Its main purpose is to help teachers improve their students' speaking skills, whether they are young or adult learners. Baker and Westrup (2003) state that the book will also be useful to "teacher trainers on both pre-service and in-service courses, curriculum developers and anyone who organises and plans to teach English in schools, colleges or language schools" (: 1). The book is divided into fifteen chapters and a whole chapter is dedicated to pronunciation. The twenty pages long 'Pronunciation' chapter places great emphasis on the concept of intelligibility: "a speaker's pronunciation needs to be good enough to communicate the message so that it is understood by other speakers of English" (Baker and Westrup, 2003: 124). It is recognised that there are many acceptable varieties of English and "what is important is mutual intelligibility: can other speakers of English understand your students' English, and can your students understand the English they hear?" (ibid: 124). The authors distinguish between receptive and productive phonology and, thus, provide sample recognition as well as production activities to help improve students' pronunciation. In addition to the sounds of spoken English, the activities also cover the following pronunciation areas: word stress, sentence stress, sounds in connected speech and intonation. Baker and Westrup (2003) maintain that language learners need practice in all these areas to improve their English pronunciation (ibid: 125). For example, "correct word stress is important, because incorrect word stress can be a major cause of misunderstandings" (ibid: 130). As far as the remainder of the book is concerned, in the 'Testing Speaking Skills' chapter, pronunciation is mentioned as one of the four areas of language to

consider in designing a speaking test; the other three areas are grammatical accuracy, range of vocabulary and use of appropriate functional language (ibid: 146). Also, in the 'Presenting New Language' chapter, suggestions are included in terms of showing the pronunciation of new language items. For example, difficult sounds can be demonstrated "by showing where in the mouth the sound is made, how the lips should be shaped, the place of the tongue, and so on" (ibid: 57)

**Rebecca Hughes's (2002) *Teaching and Researching Speaking*** is intended for classroom professionals or higher degree students who need to have an up-to-date, detailed, and straightforward summary of current research and issues in the field of L2 speaking (: 1). Hughes divides the skill of speaking into three distinct levels: the global or discourse level, the structural level and, the level of speech production. She explains that these levels relate to "fairly stable areas of activity in linguistics of discourse, lexis and grammar, and phonology/phonetics" (: 6). For example, in terms of the interests of this review, phonology relates to the structural level and phonetics, phonemics as well as prosody relate to the level of speech production. According to Hughes, the three levels correspond to three broad areas: discourse and interactions, discourse and grammar and, fluency and pronunciation. Throughout the book, she treats the different 'layers' of speaking – discourse, grammar, and phonology – separately for the purposes of analysis. However, she clarifies that an underlying theme of the book is that "the teacher will ultimately need to help the student bring all these elements together into a new, unified, and appropriate means of communication on the journey from beginner to fluent speaker of another language" (: 9). Hughes shares Florez's (1999) views on what a good speaker does; a good speaker must produce the sounds, stress patterns, rhythmic structure, and intonations of the language, use grammar structures accurately and so on (Hughes, 2002: 71).

Pronunciation issues, clearly, need to be addressed in relation to the development of L2 speaking.

At that point in the book where Hughes deals with pronunciation and the skill of speaking (3.5 'Perspectives on Pronunciation and Fluency'), she draws attention to the fact that pronunciation is neglected in language teaching: "the teaching of pronunciation is something of a 'poor relation' among course components" (2002: 68), she states. In order to support her statement with evidence, she refers to the amount of attention pronunciation has received in three language teaching manuals:

McDonough and Shaw's (1993) *Materials and Methods in ELT* contains only four brief references to the topic [pronunciation]. Don Byrne's (1986) highly influential and much used *Teaching Oral English* contains no material on pronunciation work; and neither does Bygate's *Speaking*.

Hughes, 2002: 68

We did look at Bygate's (1987) *Speaking* at the beginning of this section of this chapter and I have also referred to the lack of attention to pronunciation in Byrne's (1986) *Teaching Oral English*. At a later stage of this section of this chapter, I will examine the new revised edition (2003) of McDonough and Shaw's *Materials and Methods in ELT* to see if any changes have taken place in terms of the book's treatment of the topic of pronunciation. Hughes (2002), in consistency with the views of other writers (see Section 1.1.1, Chapter 1, this thesis) such as that by Fraser (2000), attributes the lack of attention to pronunciation to the emergence of the communicative approach; the emphasis is on vocabulary development whereas phonology and syntax are largely ignored. As far as pronunciation teaching techniques are concerned, she believes that hardly any progress has been made:

Although more holistic or communicative approaches to teaching pronunciation and fluency may have been developed over the past twenty years or so.... this is an area of language pedagogy which has changed remarkably little over the years. The central tools for the teacher remain the phonemic chart, discrimination of minimal pairs and practice based on models. Nowadays the practice may take place via a game rather than a dialogue or a drill, but the fundamentals are barely changed.

Hughes, 2002: 70



*Simple Speaking Activities* by Jill Hadfield and Charles Hadfield (1999b) belongs to the ‘Oxford Basics’ series to which *Simple Listening Activities* by Jill Hadfield and Charles Hadfield (1999a), which was mentioned earlier, also belongs. The book contains thirty speaking activities at elementary level that take place in three stages referred to as the ‘setting up’, ‘speaking practice’ and ‘feedback’ stages. The authors maintain that all speaking activities must have three features: “they must give the learners *practice opportunities for purposeful communication in meaningful situations*” (Hadfield and Hadfield, 1999b: 3). They regard the setting-up stage as “a good time to practise the pronunciation of any words and phrases that you [the teacher] know your learners will find difficult” (ibid: 3) and include suggestions for pronunciation work in each activity. For example, as part of ‘in the market’ activity, which offers the opportunity to learn and practise the ‘food’ vocabulary area, learners are encouraged to practise falling intonation in negative statements such as “no, there isn’t any sugar” (: 50-51). Overall, the main focus is on pronunciation points that they believe learners will find troublesome such as stress patterns, intonation in different types of question and statement and certain individual sounds and various techniques are suggested for the practice of pronunciation.

#### ‘English Language Teaching’ & ‘Applied Linguistics’ manuals and handbooks

In this final part I will look at more general language teaching manuals and handbooks. Wherever previous editions are available, comparisons will be drawn in terms of the treatment of the topic of pronunciation between current editions and previous ones. I will explore the following books and book chapters:

Harmer’s (2007) *How to Teach English*

Ligthbrow and Spada’s (2006) *How Languages are Learned*

Saville-Troike’s (2006) *Introducing Second Language Acquisition*

Thornbury's (2006) *An A-Z of ELT*

Scrivener's (2005) *Learning Teaching: A Guidebook for English Language Teachers*

Seymour and Popova's (2003) *700 Classroom Activities*

McDonough and Shaw's (2003) *Materials and Methods in ELT: A Teacher's Guide*

Riddell's (2003) *Teach Yourself Teaching English as a Foreign Language*

Schmitt's (2002) *An Introduction to Applied Linguistics* – including the chapters:

Burns and Seidlhofer's 'Speaking and pronunciation'

Lynch and Mendelsohn's 'Listening'

Richards and Renandya's (2002) *Methodology in Language Teaching: An Anthology of Current Practice* – including the papers:

Jones's 'Beyond 'listen and repeat': pronunciation teaching materials and theories of second language acquisition'

Hebert's 'PracTESOL: it's not what you say but how you say it!'

Shumin's 'Factors to consider: developing adult EFL students' speaking abilities'

Green et al's 'Developing discussion skills in the ESL classroom'

Tsang and Wong's 'Conversational English: an interactive, collaborative, and reflective approach'

Nunan's 'listening in language Learning'

Cook (2001) *Second Language Learning and Language Teaching*

Harmer's (2001) *The Practice of English Language Teaching*

Carter and Nunan's (2001) *The Cambridge Guide to Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages* – including the papers:

Seidlhofer's 'Pronunciation'

Bygate's 'Speaking'

Rost's 'Listening'

Celce-Murcia and Olshtain's (2000) *Discourse and Context in Language Teaching; A Guide for Language Teachers*

Hedge's (2000) *Teaching and Learning in the Language Classroom*

Wharton and Race's (1999) *500 Tips for TESOL*.

Richards's (1998) *Teaching in Action: Case Studies from Second Language Classrooms*

**Jeremy Harmer's (2007) *How to Teach English*** is part of the Longman 'How to...' series to which Scott Thornbury's (2005) *How to Teach Speaking*, we have already looked at, belongs. *How to Teach English* is a practical guide for teachers who are at an early stage in their careers and for those studying for the CELTA, Certificate in TESOL and TKT exams. In the chapter entitled 'Teaching the language system', Harmer (2007) pays high attention to all three elements of language; grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation. He explores ideas for teaching grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation. As far as the teaching of pronunciation is concerned, he indicates the need to focus on the use of different intonation patterns, the practice of stress in words and phrases, the discrimination between similar-sounding phonemes and so on. (: 90-93). He points out that, in addition to the tasks he describes, there are many other ways to teach all different areas of pronunciation and appropriate textbooks are recommended in relevant sections of his book. Harmer (2007) argues that the most important thing to remember about pronunciation teaching is that "students should have as much opportunity as possible to listen to spoken English" (: 93). His position, as stated in the former quote and as elaborated on in the relevant section, reveals that pronunciation has a clear place in the listening component of the language lesson. Let us move on to Harmer's (2007) 'Teaching listening' chapter to see if that is the case.

Indeed, the effect that listening can have on the students' acquisition of good pronunciation is addressed from the beginning of the chapter:

Listening is good for our students' pronunciation, too, in that the more they hear and understand English being spoken, the more they absorb appropriate pitch and intonation, stress and the sounds of both individual words and those which blend together in connected speech. Listening texts are good pronunciation models, in other words, and the more students listen, the better they get, not only at understanding speech, but also at speaking themselves. Indeed, it is worth remembering that successful spoken communication depends not just on our ability to speak, but also on the effectiveness of the way we listen.

Harmer, 2007: 133

The former quote also serves to illustrate that Harmer (2007) draws a distinction between receptive and productive phonology and endorses the view that perception precedes production in terms of spoken language. For Harmer (2007), the more students listen, the better they get at understanding pronunciation and at using it appropriately themselves. Throughout the chapter he maintains that any listening material can be utilised for studying a range of pronunciation issues. Furthermore, he expresses the need to expose students, through pre-recorded listening extracts, not only to different regional varieties of English in one country (i.e. Britain) but also to different World Englishes. Of course, the teachers will need to exercise judgement about the number (and degree) of the varieties the students will hear; such judgement will depend, to a great extent, on the students' level of competence, and on which varieties and/or accents they have so far been exposed to. Nevertheless, listening tasks provide ample opportunities for hearing speakers of different language varieties (Harmer, 2007: 145). As far as the 'Teaching Speaking' chapter is concerned (Harmer, 2007: 123-132), the focus is on creating speaking activities that are extremely engaging for students (such as the 'photographic competition') and not on how to practise grammar, vocabulary or pronunciation.

**Patsy Lightbrown and Nina Spada's (2006) *How Languages are Learned***, aims "to introduce teachers – both novice and experienced – to some of the language acquisition research that may help them not only to evaluate existing textbooks and materials but also to adapt them in ways that are more consistent with our understanding of how languages are learned" (Lightbrown and Spada, 2006: xv). Lightbrown and Spada's (2006) *How Languages are Learned* follows a similar pattern to that of other handbooks in the area of second language acquisition research; the learning of grammar receives a much greater amount of attention compared to the

learning of vocabulary or phonology (this point will be revisited later on in this section of this chapter of the thesis). Even though the third edition of the particular handbook states that “among the changes, readers will find... sections on the acquisition of vocabulary, phonology, and pragmatics to complement the updated material on the acquisition of grammar” (Lightbrown and Spada, 2006: xiv), grammar receives more attention than pronunciation; in the relevant chapter, thirteen pages are devoted to grammar, five are devoted to vocabulary and only three to phonology. Lightbrown and Spada (2006) write the following in their introduction to the ‘phonology section’:

Grammar has been the focus for second language teachers and researchers for a long time. As we saw, vocabulary and pragmatics have also received more attention in recent years. However, we know less about pronunciation and how it is learned and taught.

Lightbrown and Spada, 2006: 104

In terms of the interests of the particular thesis, Lightbrown and Spada (2006) recognise that “research related to the teaching and learning of pronunciation is gaining more attention” (: 107).

As part of the same section, Lightbrown and Spada (2006) address the issue of segmental and suprasegmental features of pronunciation as well as the issue of pronunciation goals. They cite the findings of studies that support the current emphasis on suprasegmentals in pronunciation classes; for example, two studies carried out by Derwing (1998, 2003) arrived at the following conclusions:

Learners who received pronunciation lessons emphasizing stress and rhythm were judged to be easier to understand than learners who received lessons focused on individual sounds. Even though the learners who received instruction on individual sounds were more accurate in their use of those sounds, this did not seem to increase listener’s perception of the intelligibility of their speech to others.

Derwing (1998, 2003) cited in Lightbrown and Spada (2006: 106)

As for the controversial issue of whether or not intelligibility rather than native-like ability in pronunciation is the standard that learners should strive toward, Lightbrown and Spada (2006) summarise both sides of the debate and demonstrate (in a different

chapter of the same book) that native or near-native pronunciation ability is an accomplishment not experienced by the majority of second language learners.

**Muriel Saville-Troike's (2006) *Introducing Second Language Acquisition***, provides a short but comprehensive introduction to the field and one of its aims is to offer practical help to second language learners and future teachers. The book focuses on the acquisition of second language 'competence' and the construct of 'competence' is considered from different points of view; as 'linguistic competence' (in the sense of underlying knowledge of the specific components and levels of a language such as grammar and phonology) and, as 'communicative competence' (which includes the former but adds notions of requisite cultural knowledge and other knowledge which enables appropriate usage). Saville-Troike (2006) makes a further distinction between two types of communicative competence based on the purposes for which people learn second languages; 'academic' and 'interpersonal' competence. Academic competence includes the knowledge needed by learners who want to use the L2 primarily to learn about other subjects, or as a tool in scholarly research, or as medium in a specific professional or occupational field (Saville-Troike, 2006: 136). Interpersonal competence, on the other hand, encompasses knowledge required of learners who plan to use L2 primarily in face-to-face contact with other speakers (ibid: 136).

Saville-Troike (2006) considers the place that five different components/levels of language knowledge, in particular vocabulary, morphology, phonology, syntax and discourse, have in L2 pedagogy. She states very clearly that "vocabulary (or lexicon) is the most important level of L2 knowledge for all learners to develop – whether they are aiming primarily for academic or interpersonal competence, or for a broader scope of communicative competence that spans the two" (Saville-Troike,

2006: 138). Even though the mastery of vocabulary should be the priority for all learners, Saville-Troike recognises that “(for at least some contexts of use), renewed emphasis is now being placed on pronunciation in teaching second languages” (2006: 142). She then discusses its role as a component of academic competence and as a component of interpersonal competence:

*Pronunciation as a component of academic competence*

Proficiency in phonological perception is required for listening if learners are studying other subjects through the medium of L2, and at least intelligible pronunciation is needed for speaking in most educational settings. A much higher level of proficiency is required if researchers or students are using the second language to teach others or for participating orally in professional conferences, but the relative priority of pronunciation otherwise remains low compared to vocabulary and syntax.

*Pronunciation as a component of interpersonal competence*

Proficiency in phonological perception and intelligible production are essential for successful communication, but a significant degree of “foreign accent” is acceptable in most situations as long as it is within the bounds of intelligibility. Native or near-native pronunciation is usually needed only when learners want to identify socially with the L2 language community for affective purposes, or when their communicative goals require such identification by hearers.

Saville-Troike, 2006: 142-143

Saville-Troike echoes other writers, such as Baker and Westrup (2003), in the sense that she emphasises the importance of intelligibility and its relationship to pronunciation.

As for areas of activity involving language use, these are classified along two dimensions, receptive versus productive, and are conveyed by two different modes of communication, written versus oral. Listening is an oral receptive activity and is critically important in both academic and interpersonal competence (Saville-Troike, 2006: 159). Listening often requires the ability to process pronunciation by speakers of different native and non-native varieties of the language and listening to and trying to understand speakers that have different L2 accents can be very challenging for L2 learners (ibid: 161). Speaking is an oral productive activity and has a higher priority in interpersonal competence than in academic competence. Of course, pronunciation is required as part of the language knowledge involved in bottom-up processes for

speech production (Saville-Troike, 2006: 166). Nevertheless, the focus of the relevant 'speaking' section in Saville-Troike's (2006) *Introducing Second Language Acquisition* is on 'speech acts' and other aspects of 'speaking competence', such as 'knowledge of conversational structure' that relate to the 'discourse' component of language knowledge.

In **Scott Thornbury's (2006) *A-Z of ELT***, which is a fully cross-referenced, alphabetical guide to English Language Teaching and is described by its publishers as the book that "every teacher and teacher trainer needs", pronunciation receives equal treatment to vocabulary and grammar. There is a section on 'Vocabulary Teaching', one on 'Grammar Teaching', and, there is also, a section on 'Pronunciation Teaching'. In the relevant section, Thornbury (2006) recognises that "there is generally less emphasis given to pronunciation teaching nowadays" (2006: 185) despite the fact that faulty pronunciation is one of the most common causes of misunderstandings (ibid: 185).

**Jim Scrivener's *Learning Teaching* (2005)** is described by the publishers as the essential guide for the first years as an English language teacher and an invaluable resource for teacher training courses. It helps teachers understand the basic principles of working in a language classroom and shows how to plan successful activities, lessons and courses. In the first edition, which appeared in 1994 and even won the ARELS Frank Bell Prize, a twenty pages long chapter entitled 'Vocabulary' is devoted to the teaching of vocabulary and a thirty pages long chapter entitled 'Working with language' is devoted to the teaching of grammar. Phonology forms a small part of the 'Working with language' chapter and is dealt with in just six pages. As far as the treatment of pronunciation is concerned, at least in terms of the book's contents, this is not the case in the new (2005) edition which has been expanded,



revised and updated; phonology ceases to be a relatively short section that belongs to the ‘grammar chapter’ and forms a separate chapter entitled ‘Phonology: the sound of English’.

I will now look at the contents of the ‘phonology’ chapter more closely. Scrivener (2005) begins by considering the effect that teachers’ attitudes towards pronunciation may have on the teaching of pronunciation:

Pronunciation can be an overlooked area of language teaching, partly because teachers themselves may feel more uncertain about it than about grammar or lexis, worried that they don’t have enough technical knowledge to help students appropriately. However, when teachers take the risk, they are often surprised to find that it makes for very enjoyable and useful classroom work.

Scrivener, 2005: 284

He proceeds to introduce, albeit briefly, ideas in terms of practising sounds, word stress, intonation and so on that neither require any knowledge of phonemic symbols (on the part of the teacher or the students) nor any detailed background knowledge of phonology. However, he insists on the benefits to be gained if teachers master phonological knowledge and help students master the symbols of the phonetic alphabet. The remainder of the chapter is taken up by ideas and suggestions that require such knowledge. Scrivener (2005) demonstrates throughout the chapter why it is important to pay attention to all elements of pronunciation; for example, the placement of incorrect word stress can “seriously damage your [the student’s] chances of being understood” (: 289) and if learners speak English with a flat intonation, they can sound boring, bored or uninterested; “using the wrong intonation can also give offence” (: 295). He, also, distinguishes between receptive and productive phonology and points out “that receptive awareness comes before productive competence” (2005: 288). He urges teachers to remember that it is vital to teach pronunciation “not just for the students’ own speech production, but to help them listen better” (ibid: 294). As for pronunciation models, he explains that the activities and examples of the ‘phonology

chapter’ are based on using RP as a basic pronunciation model, “mainly because this is what is found in the majority of current international coursebooks (and because it happens to be my own pronunciation variety)” (ibid: 286). However, he recommends adapting the materials to suit the teaching and learning needs of each teaching situation; it is the teacher who needs to consider and, ultimately decide, which pronunciation variety he or she is going to teach.

As far as the ‘Speaking’ chapter of Scrivener’s (2005) *Learning Teaching* is concerned, the emphasis is on developing learners’ conversational fluency and confidence and there is a plethora of recommended ‘discussion’, ‘communicative’ ‘role-play’, ‘simulation’ and ‘genre’ activities to meet this purpose. Pronunciation is mentioned only once as part of a grid that has been devised to assess speech acts, as follows:

*Pronunciation Criteria* (as part of the grid for assessing speech acts)  
 Speaking clearly, with comprehensible sounds  
 Using fluent, connected speech with appropriate word-linking  
 Using stress and intonation to emphasise, draw attention to things, express emotion or attitude  
 Using an appropriate pace

Scrivener, 2005: 167

At this point, I need to note that even though pronunciation is an important skill in terms of speaking competence, it is largely ignored in the ‘Speaking’ chapter of both editions of Scrivener’s *Learning Teaching*. The ‘Speaking’ chapter of the (1994) edition lacks the marking grid for speech acts and contains only a very brief reference to pronunciation as part of the ‘drama and roleplay’ section.

**David Seymour and Maria Popova’s (2003) 700 Classroom Activities** can be used to support any ELT course book from elementary to upper intermediate and beyond. According to its publishers, “it provides a huge repertoire of practical, classroom-tested supplementary activities, all explained and organised in a sensible easy-to-use style” and it is “an invaluable resource for experienced and inexperienced

teachers”<sup>5</sup>. Seymour and Popova’s *700 Classroom Activities* is divided into four sections: ‘conversations’, ‘functions’, ‘grammar’ and ‘vocabulary’ and each section contains activities to cover all the important topics, functions and structures in English (and of English) from elementary to upper-intermediate level. It is striking that there is no section devoted to phonology or pronunciation; pronunciation does not even feature as a sub-section of any of the sections already mentioned above.

We have already seen that the first edition of **Jo McDonough and Christopher Shaw’s *Materials and Methods in ELT***, which appeared in 1993, contains only four brief references to the topic of pronunciation. *Materials and Methods in ELT* (1993) offers a comprehensive and practical introduction to central themes in the principles and practice of teaching English as a foreign/ second language and is written for both classroom teachers and those taking a professional course in ELT. I will now direct our attention to the second edition (2003) of this popular textbook for teachers of English as a foreign language. The second edition has retained the same rationale as the first edition and, also, the general format of the existing chapters. However, the new edition “has been extensively updated to provide teachers of English as a foreign language with a contemporary account of major trends in ELT materials and methodology” (McDonough and Shaw, 2003, viii). The authors explain that all modifications to the text are within the chapters themselves and cite the incorporation of a new section on the teaching of pronunciation in the ‘Speaking Skills’ chapter as one of the main changes in this new edition (McDonough and Shaw, 2003, viii).

This new, albeit only one page long, section on pronunciation addresses the fact that pronunciation is taught in many different ways and for different reasons. For

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<sup>5</sup> The book belongs to the ‘Macmillan Books for Teachers’ series (see Seymour and Popova, 2003: 5).

example, “some teachers like to ‘drill’ correct pronunciation habits, others are more concerned that their students develop comprehensibility within fluency” (McDonough and Shaw, 2003: 136). McDonough and Shaw (2003) believe that the perceived gap between accuracy and fluency can be bridged in language courses and consider a number of key aspects of pronunciation and the English sound system that a teacher can in principle attend to in order to strike a balance between ‘accuracy’ and ‘intelligibility’. For instance, they look at intonation, which “is significant in conveying messages about mood and intention” (McDonough and Shaw, 2003: 137) as well as at individual sounds and minimal pairs and recommend ear training and teaching students the phonemic alphabet. The latter will be “useful of course for dictionary work” (ibid: 136). The remainder of the chapter ‘Speaking skills’ examines various types of activity that promote speaking skills; none of these include any attention to pronunciation.

Before moving on to the latest editions of other widely adopted ELT handbooks, let us briefly examine the treatment of pronunciation in McDonough and Shaw’s (2003) ‘Listening skills’ chapter. McDonough and Shaw identify “processing sound, organising meaning, and using knowledge and context” (2003: 127) as the components of listening and clarify that pronunciation is relevant not only in terms of ‘processing sound’ but also in ‘organising meaning’. They state that the micro-skills of listening (segmenting the stream of sound, recognising word boundaries, stress patterns and so on) are not used in isolation and “merge into the second major processing category, the processing of meaning” (ibid: 121). For example, intonation is important as far as organising the incoming speech into meaningful sections is concerned; “a change in direction or topic may be indicated by intonation” (ibid: 121).

Furthermore, McDonough and Shaw (2003) recommend the practise of pronunciation to take place as part of post-listening activities (: 129).

**David Riddell's (2003) *Teaching English as a Foreign Language*** is a practical guide to teaching English and is aimed at those who have recently trained to teach English as a foreign language or are currently on a training course. According to the publishers, it offers invaluable advice and tips on effective teaching techniques, lesson planning, using coursebooks, teaching different kinds of lessons and so on<sup>6</sup>. Throughout the book, the three traditional components of language knowledge, vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation, receive equal treatment. The 'pronunciation' chapter offers ideas as to how pronunciation can be incorporated into English language lessons and presents a number of activities for the practice of pronunciation (Riddell, 2003: 76-85). Drilling is recommended because it "provides students with safe, controlled practice of new language" (Riddell, 2003: 85). Riddell (2003) acknowledges that "there are teachers who don't like drilling, or don't believe in it" (: 80) but, nevertheless, insists that drilling is one way to help students gain confidence in pronunciation; "in my experience, students who are not confident about pronunciation welcome the controlled opportunity to have practice saying a new piece of language" (ibid: 80). Riddell (2003) considers all areas of pronunciation throughout the relevant chapter; the sounds of English (vowels, consonants and diphthongs), stress (both at word and sentence level), intonation and connected speech. He maintains that sentence stress can affect meaning to a greater extent than other areas of pronunciation and, also, points out that "sentence stress goes hand in hand with intonation" (Riddell, 2003: 84). For example, "very often, someone we are speaking to may appear rude because of their intonation patterns. It is quite easy to make "

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<sup>6</sup> <http://www.teachyourself.co.uk/ltefl.htm> accessed on 16.07.2007

‘Thank you very much for your help’ sound rude or sarcastic” he explains (Riddell, 2003: 84). He urges teachers to concentrate on pronunciation work on two occasions: “do not neglect this part of language learning” (ibid: 85) and “we should not ignore pronunciation work – we can have specific parts of a lesson devoted to it or deal with issues as they arise” (ibid: 85). According to Riddell (2003), teachers need to teach phonetic transcription (so that students can look up a word in a dictionary and work out the standard pronunciation of that word) and should also expose students to different varieties of pronunciation. As a final note, it is interesting to see that Riddell (2003) distinguishes between receptive and productive phonology in the following statement “students need to get the chance to hear a sound within a word before being expected to try and repeat it” (: 79). In other words, it is clear that, according to Riddell (2003), perception should precede production in L2 phonology.

The volume *An Introduction to Applied Linguistics* (2002), edited by **Norbert Schmitt**, provides an introduction to the field of applied linguistics and second language teaching and learning for researchers, students as well as practising teachers. The fifteen chapters are organised in three parts: Part 1; Description of Language and Language Use, Part 2; Essential Areas of Enquiry in Applied Linguistics and, Part 3; Language Skills and Assessment. It is interesting to note that Part 1 includes a chapter on ‘Grammar’ and another one on ‘Vocabulary’ but no chapter on ‘Phonology’. The remaining three chapters that belong to the same part are ‘Discourse Analysis’, ‘Pragmatics’ and ‘Corpus Linguistics’.

Fortunately, this is not the case in Part 3 of *An Introduction to Applied Linguistics* (2002) where we find a chapter entitled ‘Speaking and Pronunciation’ by Anne Burns and Barbara Seidlhofer. In the introductory section of their paper, Burns and Seidlhofer (2002) elucidate how speaking and pronunciation are inextricably

linked and claim that “for language teaching this means that every lesson involving the spoken language is (also) a pronunciation lesson” (2002: 212). They also emphasise the close link between pronunciation and intelligibility: “our pronunciation is also responsible for ‘intelligibility’ – whether or not we can get our message across” (: 212). Thus, they proceed to analyse speaking at the level of ‘pronunciation’ and, specifically in terms of the role pronunciation plays in conveying speakers’ meanings both transactionally and interactionally. In doing so, they mostly focus on those elements of pronunciation that extend over entire utterances (whether these are long texts or just one word) referred to as ‘suprasegmental’ or ‘prosodic’ features of pronunciation. For example, they demonstrate how the prosodic feature of ‘pitch’ (perceptual label for ‘high’/‘low’), can be used to foreground what is important and how dramatic pitch movement often indicates strong emotional involvement (ibid: 220, 221). In their exploration of pedagogical implications in terms of speaking and pronunciation, Burns and Seidlhofer (2002) illustrate how pronunciation teaching procedures can range on a continuum from either fairly mechanical or analytic/cognitive exercises, that draw attention to specifics of the language code (i.e. ‘listen and repeat’ and ‘phonemic script’ activities), at one end of the continuum to communication tasks (i.e. ‘mini-plays;’) at the other. Nevertheless, they point out that is “the teacher’s decision as to what kind of activities to use in any specific context” (: 226) and such a decision should depend on an analysis of learner needs and a consideration of variables such as learning purpose and learners’ age.

The topic of pronunciation is, also, addressed in the ‘Listening’ chapter of the same volume. Lynch and Mendelsohn’s (2002) conceptualisation of the listening process includes attention to pronunciation:

We conceive of it [listening] as a bundle of related processes – recognition of the sounds uttered by the speaker, perception of intonation patterns showing information focus, interpretation of relevance of what is being said to the current and so on.

Lynch and Mendelsohn, 2002: 193

They draw great attention to the unique features of listening especially in terms of phonology. For example, they point out the presence of rich prosody (stress, intonation, rhythm, loudness and so on) as well as the characteristics of natural fast speech, such as assimilation (ibid: 194). Teachers need to include practice-focused listening skills work to ensure that learners achieve a certain level of linguistic proficiency. In terms of phonology, learners need to master not only the sound system of the target language but should also learn to discriminate between similar sounds, cope with ‘fast speech’ and process any differences in stress and intonation (ibid: 207).

The volume *Methodology in Language Teaching: An Anthology of Current Practice* (2002), edited by Jack Richards and Willy Renandya, provides an overview of current approaches, issues, and practices in the teaching of English to speakers of other languages. It contains a broad collection of articles written by well-known teacher trainers and researchers. There is a section on the teaching of grammar, one on the teaching of vocabulary, and, also, one on the teaching of pronunciation. A definition of pronunciation, that addresses both its segmental and suprasegmental features, is provided in the introduction of the ‘Teaching pronunciation’ section. The section comprises two articles; “Beyond ‘listen and repeat’: pronunciation teaching materials and theories of second language acquisition” by Rodney Jones and “PracTESOL: It’s not what you say, but how you say it!” by Julie Hebert. Jones (2002) reviews past research into the acquisition of L2 phonology and examines if and how recent research findings are reflected in currently used pronunciation teaching materials. He recommends the development of materials that



“incorporate activities more fully, addressing the communicative, psychological, and sociological dimensions of pronunciation” (Richards and Renandya, 2002: 176). He concludes the paper by making the following prediction for the future of pronunciation teaching: “pronunciation will, whenever possible, be taught in concert with other skills, not as a separate entity, but as another string in the communicative bow” (Jones, 2002: 185).

Hebert (2002) begins by exploring the concept of intelligibility. She explains that intelligibility entails more than simply using appropriate lexical items and correct word order; words and phrases stressed incorrectly or with inappropriate intonation will impede the learner in getting the intended message across. Thus, phonology should form an integral part of any ESL lesson/syllabus (Hebert, 2002: 188). Nevertheless, Hebert (2002) recognises that even though most learners understand the need to focus on grammatical structures or lexis, the role that phonology plays in ESL “is not so obvious and needs to be explained” (Hebert, 2002: 189). However, if learners are introduced to the prosodic features of English and the role they play in conveying meaning, she believes that they will understand the reasons that warrant the inclusion of pronunciation activities in the classroom. Hebert (2002) demonstrates how teachers can construct a diagnostic profile of their learners’ pronunciation difficulties as a basis for providing feedback and for planning instruction. She argues that learning is enhanced when learners are involved in the decision making process and the content of courses is directly relevant to their immediate needs and contexts. For these reasons, she believes “it is prudent to not only diagnose the learners’ phonological problems, but also the communicative contexts in which they use English outside the classroom” (Hebert, 2002: 192). Overall, she presents a procedural approach for incorporating phonological elements into an ESL syllabus

and provides detailed examples of how the approach may be applied to different ESL contexts. Throughout the paper, the focus is on the suprasegmental level of pronunciation because “this area causes the most communication breakdowns between ESL learners and native speakers” (Hebert, 2002: 199). Moreover, the paper explores ways of incorporating pronunciation in speaking activities; for example, the practice of intonation through question-answer activities (Hebert, 2002: 190).

Even though Hebert (2002) includes suggestions on how to incorporate attention to pronunciation in speaking tasks, none of the papers that belong to the ‘Teaching speaking’ section of the same volume do so. The first paper entitled “Factors to consider: developing adult EFL students’ speaking abilities” by Kang Shumin recognises that competence in pronunciation is needed for speaking; EFL learners “must understand how words are segmented into various sounds, and how sentences are stressed in particular ways” (Shumin, 2002: 207). However, the focus is on developing students’ ability to communicate fluently and all the classroom activities featured in the paper can be used to practise different aspects of conversational fluency. No activity concentrates on pronunciation. The second paper “Conversational English: an interactive, collaborative, and reflective approach” by Wai King Tsang and Matilda Wong presents a study which sought to demonstrate the effectiveness of teaching university students in Hong Kong a set of conversational microskills and a working vocabulary to handle everyday conversations (Richards and Renandya, 2002: 202). The reader can rightly assume that the focus of the paper is on the development of conversational fluency. Pronunciation is overlooked. The third and final paper of the section explores discussion skills and how these can be developed in the English language classroom. The paper, written by Christopher Green, Elsie Christopher and Jacqueline Lam, represents an attempt to “provide a

rationale to support an experiential and process-oriented approach to the development of discussion skills in a second language” (2002: 231). Pronunciation is referred to very briefly. Overall, the papers in the ‘Teaching speaking’ do not concentrate on pronunciation but explore other aspects of speaking proficiency such as conversation and discussion skills; the emphasis is on fluency and being pragmatically right.

As for the ‘Teaching listening’ section of the same volume, pronunciation does not play an important part in any of the three papers that comprise the section and is treated rather contingently. For example, it is referred to briefly in David Nunan’s “Listening in language learning” as part of the definition and explanation provided for the bottom-up processing model of listening in language pedagogy; “the bottom-up processing model assumes that listening is a process of decoding the sounds that one hears in a linear fashion, from the smallest meaningful units (phonemes) to complete texts” (Nunan, 2002: 239). Nunan (2002) goes on to describe the alternative, top-down view which suggests that the listener reconstructs the original meaning of the speaker using incoming sounds as clues; to make sense of what he or she hears, the listener draws on prior knowledge of the context and situation within which the listening takes place. Nunan (2002) proposes the design of activities that teach both bottom-up and top-down processing skills because they both play important but different roles in listening.

**Jeremy Harmer’s *The Practice of English Language Teaching*** is another essential guide for teachers of English whose latest edition (2001) has been completely revised and updated. The third edition is the newest one and, very interestingly in terms of the interests of this thesis, it contains a whole new chapter on pronunciation. The fifteen pages long ‘Teaching pronunciation’ chapter is not present in the second (1991) edition. In terms of language areas, the (1991) edition includes a

chapter on the teaching of vocabulary but no chapters on pronunciation or grammar. In the ‘Teaching pronunciation chapter’, Harmer (2001) convinces the reader that pronunciation instruction will benefit not only students’ production, but also their understanding of spoken English (: 183). As far as pronunciation features are concerned, Harmer (2001) notes that many teachers consider intonation to be the most problematic area in terms of teaching and learning (: 185). He proceeds to suggest various activities in order to practise sounds, stress and intonation and assumes, throughout, that knowledge of the phonemic script is of benefit to learners. Harmer (2001) recognises that “pronunciation lessons may be an unaffordable luxury for classes under syllabus and timetable pressure” (: 187) but explains that there are various ways to incorporate pronunciation instruction in language lessons. After all, “pronunciation is not a separate skill; it is part of the way we speak” (ibid: 186).

I shall now turn to Harmer’s (2001) ‘Speaking’ chapter to explore what the former statement entails in terms of the relationship between pronunciation and speaking. For him, “the ability to speak fluently presupposes not only a knowledge of language features, but also the ability to process information and language ‘on the spot’” (Harmer, 2001: 269). Among the elements necessary for spoken production, Harmer (2001) concentrates a great deal of attention on pronunciation:

Effective speakers of English need to be able not only to produce the individual phonemes of English... but also to use fluent ‘connected speech’... In connected speech sounds are modified (assimilation), omitted (elision), added (linking *r*), or weakened (through contractions and stress patterning)... It is for this reason that we should involve students in activities designed specifically to improve their connected speech.

Native speakers of English change the pitch and stress of particular utterances, vary volume and speed... the use of these devices contributes to the ability to convey meanings. They allow for extra expression of emotion and intensity. Students should deploy at least some of such suprasegmental features and devices in the same way if they are to be fully effective communicators.

Harmer, 2001: 269

Of course, Harmer (2001) goes on to demonstrate the importance of other elements too, such as lexis and grammar. Nevertheless, it is clear from his writing that

pronunciation deserves an important place in speaking activities; for example, in the recommended ‘acting from a script’ activity, the teachers can go through the script as if they were theatre directors and draw attention to appropriate stress and intonation (2001: 271).

The *Cambridge Guide to Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages* (2001), edited by **Ronald Carter and David Nunan**, is an up-to-date guide to the central areas of teaching English to speakers of other languages (TESOL). According to the publishers, it provides an excellent introduction to TESOL for future language teaching professionals and is essential reading for students on undergraduate and postgraduate courses. Throughout this volume, which comprises thirty chapters written by internationally recognised teaching professionals and applied linguists, pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary receive equal treatment in terms of the mastery of potential resources of the English language. There is a chapter on the teaching and learning of vocabulary, one on grammar, one on discourse and, also, one on pronunciation.

The ‘Pronunciation’ chapter, written by Barbara Seidlhofer (2001), provides useful insights into the theory and practice surrounding pronunciation in the realm of language teaching. Seidlhofer (2001) examines, albeit briefly, the place that pronunciation has occupied in language teaching from the nineteenth century onwards and arrives at the conclusion that the teaching of pronunciation has become a very complex issue nowadays for a number of reasons: 1. the role of pronunciation has not been dealt with adequately in the CLT context and no agreed-upon set of strategies has been developed to teach pronunciation communicatively, and, 2. the reconceptualisation of the role of English as a world language, a view accompanied by a broadening of attitudes towards different native and non-native accents. “These

developments have increased the complexity of pronunciation teaching enormously, and with it the demands made on teachers' awareness and knowledge in this area" (Seidlhofer, 2001: 57). Thus, and consistent with Hedge's (2000) and other writers' outlook, Seidlhofer (2001) proposes that a consideration of factors such as learners' needs should determine the contents of the pronunciation syllabus in any teaching situation (2001: 59). She also recommends a number of accessible introductory textbooks to help teachers acquire an understanding of phonetics and phonology (: 60-61).

Seidlhofer (2001) emphasises that "pronunciation is responsible for intelligibility: whether or not we can convey our meaning" (: 56) and believes that the great importance of pronunciation for successful communication is now widely accepted. She explains that pronunciation pedagogy is currently undergoing "a move from sound manipulation exercises to communication activities" (: 64) and, thus, outlines a number of communicative tasks for the practice of pronunciation. She also believes that the links between pronunciation and other areas of language use have been strengthened. The following quote represents her views:

Another important consideration to bear in mind is the relationship and mutual dependency of pronunciation and other areas of language use and language learning, in particular listening, speaking, grammar and spelling. The focus on meaningful practice advocated by CLT has encouraged a view of pronunciation that recognises its embeddedness in discourse and invites the use of materials and techniques that involve learners in contextualised and motivating activities which are suited to integrated pronunciation work. To mention a few examples, Bygate (1987), ... and Nunan and Miller (1995) offer an overview of theoretical background and teaching techniques for the areas of listening and speaking, respectively, and make it easy to see how these abilities are inextricably bound up with pronunciation.

Seidlhofer, 2001: 60

The reference to Bygate's (1987) *Speaking* in order to exemplify the point she is making is inappropriate. Indeed, Bygate's (1987) *Speaking* is an unfortunate example because, as we have already seen in Section 1.2.1 (main thesis) it contains no material on pronunciation work. Nevertheless, it will be interesting to see if pronunciation

receives any attention in the 'Speaking' chapter that has been written by Martin Bygate (2001) and belongs to the same volume as Seidlhofer's (2001) 'Pronunciation' chapter.

Bygate's (2001) 'Speaking' chapter explores the place of speaking in oral methodology and the conceptual issues involved in oral language pedagogy and reviews relevant research and pedagogical implications. Pronunciation receives hardly any explicit attention throughout the chapter; however, Bygate (2001) states that a key direction for future development in terms of oral language syllabuses is "to explore further how fluency, accuracy and complexity can be integrated, in particular through the use of different combinations and sequences of activity types" (2001: 19). Bygate (2001) is, also, concerned with the approach of speaking from a discourse perspective: "study into the discourse patterns generated by different task type... is an area for further study" (: 19) and "there is considerable scope for exploring the role of routines in developing discourse skills" (: 19), he states.

On the other hand, pronunciation receives considerable attention in the 'Listening' chapter of the same volume. The chapter has been written by Michael Rost and emphasises that "the role of phonology in L2 listening is beginning to receive attention" (Rost, 2001: 12). For instance, Rost (2001) cites a number of recent and relevant studies that demonstrate "the kind of specific phonological strategies needed to adjust to an L2" (2001: 13). Rost (2001) recognises four areas that affect how listening is integrated into L2 pedagogy; one of them is 'speech processing'. In his discussion of the 'speech processing' area he explains how several factors are activated in speech perception, for example prosodic patterns, and that they all influence the comprehensibility of input. He identifies four components in utterance recognition: the phonological system, phonotactic rules, tone melodies and, the stress

system and considers the implications for L2 listening pedagogy. He points out that “stress is often reported to be the most problematic in L2 listening” (Rost, 2001: 10).

**Cook’s (2001) *Second Language Learning and Language Teaching*** is intended for language teachers and trainee teachers and its main aim is “to tell those concerned with language teaching about ideas on how people acquire second languages coming from second language acquisition (SLA) research and to suggest how these might benefit language teaching” (Cook, 2001: 1). Much of the discussion in the book “concerns the L2 learning and teaching of English as a foreign language (EFL), mainly because this is the chief language that has been investigated in SLA research” (Cook, 2001: 2). Overall, the book pays a great deal of attention to grammar; the whole second chapter of the book is devoted to grammar whereas the third chapter addresses pronunciation and vocabulary as well as writing. Cook (2001) accounts for the former by stating that grammar is “the area most SLA research has concerned itself with” (: 2). Such a statement provides further evidence, albeit indirectly, that pronunciation has been a rather neglected area within SLA research. In his introduction of the third chapter of his *Second Language Learning and Teaching* book, Cook (2001) writes:

This chapter looks at some components of language – pronunciation, vocabulary and writing – and presents ideas about the learning of these components that can be related to language teaching. While the L2 acquisition of grammar has been exhaustively studied, these other components have been covered more patchily and are hardly referred to in most standard introductions to SLA research. Nor, despite their obvious relevance to teaching, has much yet been done to apply them to actual teaching. While there are many useful books on teaching pronunciation and vocabulary, few of them are linked to SLA research.

Cook, 2001: 46

As part of the ‘Teaching Pronunciation’ section within this third chapter Cook (2001) reviews the standard techniques for teaching pronunciation in the light of past and current SLA research. He points out that advanced level students “are sometimes helped by looking at phonetic transcripts of spoken language or by using transcription themselves” (Cook, 2001: 55) and, also, “at the more practical level a familiarity with



phonetic script enables students to look up the pronunciation of individual words” (ibid: 55). As far as ‘imitation’ as a pronunciation teaching technique is concerned, he recognises that “repetition of words or phrases has been the mainstay of pronunciation teaching” (Cook, 2001: 55) but argues that “sheer imitation is not thought to be a productive method of language learning” (ibid: 55). As for ‘discrimination of sounds’ exercises, he believes that activities involving minimal pairs of phonemes are useful if they are treated as “building up the overall pronunciation system in the students’ minds, not as learning the difference between two phonemes” (Cook, 2001: 55-56). Cook (2001) concludes the ‘pronunciation’ section by exploring the ‘teaching and learning of intonation’ as dealt with in handbooks that focus exclusively on intonation such as *Using Intonation* (1979) by Cook himself.

**Marianne Celce-Murcia and Elite Olshtain’s (2000) *Discourse and Context in Language Teaching*** is a guide for language teachers and one of its main themes is how a discourse perspective can enhance the teaching of traditional areas of linguistic knowledge; pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary. The three main resources of language, phonology, grammar and vocabulary are each discussed in a separate chapter. Even though each language resource performs its own functions within the language knowledge framework, they all overlap and interact in many different ways; the interrelationships among language resources are explored in a separate section of the book. The ‘Phonology’ chapter focuses on “the intelligibility of a speaker’s oral discourse” (Celce-Murcia and Olshtain, 2000: 30) and places great emphasis on the suprasegmental features of pronunciation; “we take the position that effective oral communication requires control of prosody perhaps as much as (if not more than) control of the target language’s vowel and consonant sounds” (ibid: 31). Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000) go on to demonstrate how inappropriate prosody

can lead to instances of miscommunication and describe the functions of prosody in terms of information and conversation management. They insist that it is the teacher's responsibility to help learners develop an intelligible pronunciation in the target language. The teachers must also ensure that learners are in the position to comprehend a variety of speakers and dialects (ibid: 35).

The 'Listening' chapter of the same handbook includes attention to phonology, among other areas of language knowledge, because phonology is critical in signalling information to the listener. The current model of listening is an interactive one which comprises bottom-up and top-down listening skills and phonology plays an important role in both dimensions of the model. Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000) explain how listeners make use of prosodic knowledge – specifically stress and intonation – in combination with top-down processing to identify main ideas, while they use knowledge of sound segments in ways that are more closely related to bottom-up processing to identify words or grammatical inflections and so on (: 107). Consequently, both bottom-up and top-down listening skills need to be integrated and explicitly treated pedagogically to improve L2 listening comprehension (Celce-Murcia and Olshtain, 2000: 105).

The 'Speaking' chapter of the same handbook approaches the skill of speaking from a discourse perspective which implies shifting the focus from linguistic performance to pragmatics in terms of pedagogy; “contextual and situational features of spoken interaction must become an integral part of classroom activities” (Celce-Murcia and Olshtain, 2000: 178). Even though phonology is addressed briefly in this chapter, “the ability to use the basic intonation – or tone – patterns of the language” and the “ability to use proper rhythm and stress in the language and to make proper pauses” among other linguistic, sociocultural and discourse competencies are all part

of discourse knowledge (ibid: 175). Thus, even when a discourse perspective is adopted to enhance the teaching of speaking or listening, phonology still has an important part to play and should not be overlooked.

**Tricia Hedge's (2000) *Teaching and Learning in the Language Classroom*** is designed to provide a source of reference for both language teachers and teacher trainers. According to its publishers, it involves teachers in their own professional development by encouraging them to reflect on their practice, and aims to develop insights into issues, problems, and possibilities in English Language Teaching (ELT) methodology. It is divided into four parts: 'A framework for teaching and learning', 'Teaching the language system', 'Developing language skills', and 'Planning for learning'. Hedge's (2000) treatment of pronunciation, at least in terms of the contents of her book, echoes that of Richards (1998) and Schmitt (2002); Part 2 'Teaching the language system' comprises a chapter on 'Vocabulary' and a chapter on 'Grammar'. However, it does not include a chapter on 'Pronunciation'. At this point, the reader may pose the question as to whether or not pronunciation is dealt with as part of the 'Vocabulary' or 'Grammar' chapters. Pronunciation is referred to only in the 'Vocabulary' chapter and out of the thirty-four pages that deal exclusively with the teaching of vocabulary (Hedge, 2000: 109-143), there is only one short paragraph on pronunciation (ibid: 119).

Nevertheless, pronunciation is dealt with as part of the 'Listening' and 'Speaking' chapters that belong to Part 3 'Developing language skills'. In the 'Listening' chapter, the focus is on the current model of listening which is "an interactive one in which linguistic information, contextual clues, and prior knowledge interact to enable comprehension" (Hedge, 2000: 235). In terms of phonology, Hedge (2000) urges teachers to bear in mind that in the real world English is spoken by first

language speakers with a variety of accents and, also, by second language speakers who present an even wider range of phonological features such as stress and intonation patterns (: 238). Also, she draws attention to the fact that the recordings made for English language learners to be used in listening tasks often include exaggerated intonation patterns, carefully articulated pronunciation and Received Pronunciation (RP) (: 240). She argues that if teachers wish to prepare the learners to manage real listening situations, they need to “build their confidence in dealing with authentic speech” (: 238). She proceeds to offer suggestions in terms of selecting listening texts; for example, these can be unscripted, spontaneous conversations between native speakers or non-native speakers. According to Hedge (2000), it is important that students become aware of a variety of accents, natural intonation patterns and natural features of connected speech through listening activities.

As part of the ‘Speaking’ chapter of the book, Hedge (2000) directs sufficient attention to pronunciation and devotes two sections to the topic and its relation to L2 speaking. One section is more theoretical; it considers issues in teaching the phonological aspects of English such as the choice of pronunciation models. The other section is more practical and deals with pronunciation activities. Hedge (2000) points out that “one of the first decisions a teacher has to make in teaching pronunciation is which variety of English to take as a model for production” (: 269) and proceeds to explain how and why choosing an appropriate model has become a very sensitive issue nowadays:

Traditionally, this [the pronunciation model] was based on the speech of an educated native-speaker in one of the ‘inner circle’ (Kachru 1985) of the long-established English speaking-countries, such as Britain or the USA. Now the picture is not so clear. There are political tensions surrounding the use of terms such as ‘standard’ and ‘native speaker’ as these imply ownership by the inner circle... Should a Zairean teacher choose British or American English? Both countries supply Zaire with ELT textbooks. Or, alternatively, should neighbouring varieties of English in West Africa play a role? And to what extent is the teacher limited by his or her own accent?

Hedge, 2000: 269

The issue of pronunciation models and the controversies surrounding the particular topic will be discussed in-depth in a separate section as part of the main thesis (see Section 2.2 ‘Pronunciation Models & Performance Targets’, Chapter 2). However, I have included the relevant quote from Hedge’s (2000) language teaching handbook because she states that these difficulties in relation to pronunciation models are “one reason why so many textbooks produced for the international market avoid explicit reference to phonology and leave it to the teacher’s discretion and knowledge of local needs” (2000: 269). As we have already seen, Hedge does not avoid referring to pronunciation explicitly. However, she also recommends that teachers take into consideration students’ needs in selecting the content of the pronunciation element of a course and discusses the issue in a section that forms part of the ‘Speaking’ chapter (ibid: 270).

According to Hedge (2000), the development of communicative approaches shifted the emphasis from segmental to suprasegmental elements in the teaching of pronunciation. However, she believes that a truly holistic approach should include attention to both and, should, even “incorporate ideas about voice quality and articulatory setting” (: 269). Furthermore, she discusses accuracy and fluency and explains how segmental features of pronunciation can be practised meaningfully and, also, how suprasegmental features can become a specific focus in accuracy-based activities. Overall, she maintains that there are usually ample opportunities to integrate work on both segmental and suprasegmental features into lessons which focus on speaking. For example, pronunciation can be practised in activities which prepare for speaking tasks or through follow-up activities (Hedge, 2000: 286).

Like Scott Thornbury’s (2006) *A-Z of ELT*, **Sue Wharton and Phil Race’s (1999) *500 Tips for TESOL (Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages)***

gives equal emphasis to pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary. *500 Tips for TESOL* is primarily intended for those at the beginning of their career in TESOL and consists of practical advice and clear examples of best practice to help improve the planning, delivery and assessment of TESOL. However, the authors believe that it will also be helpful to experienced teachers who wish to move into new areas such as course design and teacher training. Chapter 3 is the most substantial part of the book and deals with a range of language activities (Wharton and Race, 1999: 1). The chapter includes a section on ‘Teaching vocabulary’, a section on ‘Teaching Grammar’ and, also, one on ‘Teaching Pronunciation’. Wharton and Race (1999) acknowledge that pronunciation is an important area of language use for all learners. For example, for beginners, poor pronunciation can be an obstacle to being understood and, for more advanced learners, inappropriate intonation may mean that they ‘give the wrong message’ when they speak (Wharton and Race, 1999: 40). They also note that “the importance of pronunciation work is being increasingly recognised in coursebooks” (ibid: 40). Wharton and Race (1999) recommend explicit pronunciation teaching. We have included below a few of the suggestions they offer to assist the teacher in terms of explicit pronunciation work:

1. Familiarize yourself with the phonemic symbols for English, and with a system for describing some basic intonation patterns.
2. Teach some phonemic symbols; once they know the symbols you have a very useful metalanguage available for talking about pronunciation.
3. Work on learners’ perception of target sounds. ‘Minimal pair’ exercises can be useful here.
4. If learners have trouble with a sound, an explicit description of the voice, place and manner of articulation can be useful. You can use a diagram of the mouth to help you here.
5. Work on learners’ perception of intonation; English intonation is very significant for meaning.
6. Talk to students about different accents and emphasise that there is more than one acceptable model.
7. Consider which of your learners’ difficulties are most significant; which are likely to form a barrier to communication

Adapted from Wharton and Race, 1999: 40-41

A few of those tips allude to the Reform Movement era which placed great emphasis on phonetically trained teachers and learners. However, Wharton and Race (1999) place great emphasis on intelligibility and embrace the presence of various accents of English. In the ‘Teaching listening’ section of the same chapter, they reiterate that learners must become aware of a variety of accents:

You [the teacher] will probably want to do most of your listening work with the accent(s) your learners are most likely to experience. But it is helpful to sensitize them to the existence of a wider range of accents, and to the fact that an unfamiliar accent is more difficult to understand.

Wharton and Race, 1999: 43

***Teaching in Action (1998)*** is a collection of short case studies that describe how second language teachers respond to problems they encounter in their classrooms. It contains 76 case studies from a wide variety of settings and contexts in different parts of the world. The book, according to its editor, can be used as a source of ideas for teachers and teacher educators in pre- and in-service teacher education programs (Richards, 1998). If we look at the table of contents, we will notice that the book is divided into eleven parts. Very interestingly, whereas there is a part entitled ‘Teaching Vocabulary and Grammar’ which includes four case studies, there is no ‘Teaching Pronunciation’ part. There is also a ‘Teaching Speaking’ part which includes eleven case studies; only one out of the eleven case studies deals with the issue of pronunciation. Overall, it is interesting to note that out of the seventy-six studies in the book, only one deals with pronunciation and out of the four hundred pages, only four deal with pronunciation. The only study that explores the topic of pronunciation is entitled ‘Teaching English Pronunciation’ and the author, W. Lang, considers the issue of providing opportunities for learners to use their acquired pronunciation/speaking skills to interact in meaningful and interesting ways.

## **Appendix 1.4 ‘A Review of English Language Teaching Pronunciation Manuals & Handbooks’**

Further information, quotes and examples for each of the themes in the main thesis

### ***Theme 1***

#### ***Knowledge of Phonetics/Phonology & Awareness of a Variety of Techniques for Teaching Pronunciation***

Dalton and Seidlhofer (1994) insist on the need for teachers “to have an understanding of both how sounds are articulated (phonetics), and what the significant sounds are in the relevant languages (phonology)” (: 128) and Pennington (1996) views a solid knowledge base for phonology as “the minimum requirement for effective teaching” (: 6).

### ***Theme 2***

#### ***Phonological Perception & Production***

Fitzpatrick’s (1995) approach to ‘sound work’ also involves reception tasks being followed by production tasks. As he puts it:

It may help learners to be able to produce the sounds of English if they are first able to recognise them. This will entail listening intensively and trying to distinguish closely-related sounds. Also, a certain amount of mechanical drilling, involving repetition and imitation, may help learners produce sounds more accurately.

Fitzpatrick, 1995: 11

Gilbert (2005a) directs particular attention to ‘vowels’ which she states are initially learned best through ‘listening’ tasks rather than through ‘repeating aloud’ tasks:

The problem with having students say the words aloud too soon is that they are likely to give themselves a misleading acoustic image. This acoustic image that they hear themselves saying is then likely to become fossilized as a fixed habit of speaking. For this reason, it is better to begin vowel study with tasks that give students the opportunity to listen without having to produce the sounds.

Gilbert, 2005a: 12



### *Theme 3*

#### *Suprasegmentals versus Segmentals*

Here, there are two questions that need to be answered; first, which level of pronunciation is more important, and, second, which level of pronunciation should be taught first. As far as the first question is concerned, traditionally, pronunciation handbooks focused on the segmental level of pronunciation and included activities on the practice of individual sounds (in isolation or at word level) or the practice of words (in isolation or at sentence level) in very controlled conditions. Nilsen and Nilsen's (1973) *Pronunciation Contrasts in English* and Trim's (1975) *English Pronunciation Illustrated* are excellent examples of this approach to the teaching of pronunciation. Attention was shifted from the segmental level to the suprasegmental level of pronunciation when the Communicative Approach to language teaching began to dominate the scene of language teaching in the mid-to late 1970s<sup>7</sup>. As Gilbert (1994) put it in the paper she contributed to Morley's (1994) volume on pronunciation research and pedagogy: "by teaching linking, rhythm, stress and intonation, teachers can place pronunciation teaching within a communicative setting" (: 47). The mastery of suprasegmental aspects of pronunciation was given priority as they were seen as more important for the comprehensibility of the learners' spoken language. Brown (1992) acknowledged that "most modern writers... are agreed that suprasegmental features are, if anything, more important than segmental in terms of intelligibility and the acquiring of a quasi-native accent" (: 11). He went on to quote Kenworthy (1987) who noted that "in general, the areas of rhythm, word stress, and sentence stress are *high priority* areas for *all learners*" (Kenworthy, 1987: 123 cited in Brown, 1992: 11). According to Celce-Murcia et al (1996), Gilbert's (1993a) *Clear*

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<sup>7</sup> The reader may wish to consult Celce-Murcia et al (1996: 10-11) for a discussion of this matter.

*Speech* is one of the best-known manuals that follows this line of thinking. Indeed, the emphasis in *Clear Speech* (1993a; 1993b) is on the ‘musical’ aspects of English; that is, rhythm, stress and intonation. As Gilbert (1993b) puts it in her introduction of the student’s book:

*Clear Speech*, Second Edition, concentrates on rhythm, stress, and intonation because improvement in these aspects of pronunciation can do the most good in improving both listening comprehension and clarity of speech. Sounds are taught as part of rhythm and stress... Students believe that they will improve their pronunciation if they work hard on individual sounds. However, improving *rhythm* [her emphasis] will do more for clarifying sounds than any amount of practice on the sounds themselves. That is why rhythm is introduced early into the unit on sounds. It is recommended that you do not allow the class to be trapped in an effort to perfect individual sounds before moving on. The later units are much more important for increasing the clarity of your students’ speech and listening comprehension.

Gilbert, 1993b: vi

In the third editions of the *Clear Speech* teacher’s manual (2005a) and student textbook (2005b), Gilbert maintains her position that the suprasegmental features of pronunciation should be given priority but also recognises the importance of segmental features of pronunciation:

*Clear Speech*, Third Edition, concentrates on rhythm, stress, and intonation because improvement in these aspects of pronunciation can do the most good in improving both listening comprehension and clarity of speech. Individual speech sounds, however, are also significant, and are therefore covered throughout.

Gilbert, 2005b: x

Indeed, throughout the *Clear Speech* teacher’s resource book (2005a) and the *Clear Speech* student’s book (2005b), the reader can see that despite the focus on rhythm, stress and intonation, a great deal of attention is directed to individual sounds. For example, an important change of the third edition of *Clear Speech* is that “vowel quality has been upgraded to high-priority status” (Gilbert, 2005a: x) and, thus, a lot of ‘vowel work’ activities have been included in the third edition of *Clear Speech*.

So what is the situation today? Celce-Murcia et al (1996) believe that “pronunciation instruction is moving away from the segmental/ suprasegmental debate and toward a more balanced view” (: 10). They sum up this view as follows:

This view recognises that both an inability to distinguish sounds that carry a high functional load (such as /l/ in *list* and /iy/ in *least*) and an inability to distinguish suprasegmental features (such as intonation and stress differences in yes/ no and alternative questions) can have a negative impact on the oral communication – and the listening comprehension abilities – of nonnative speakers of English. Today’s pronunciation curriculum thus seeks to identify the most important aspects of both the segmentals and the suprasegmentals, and integrate them appropriately in courses that meet the needs of any given group of learners.

Celce-Murcia et al, 1996: 10

At this point, I would like to bring to the reader’s attention that all of the pronunciation handbooks included in the list of this section of the thesis address both segmental and suprasegmental features of pronunciation. So, it seems that the ‘balanced view’ as described by Celce-Murcia et al (1996) is predominant nowadays.

Moving on to address the question regarding which level should be taught first, Brown (1992) observed that, as far as books on pronunciation teaching and phonetics are concerned, “typically, consonant and vowel pronunciation is introduced first, with stress, rhythm and intonation trailing in behind almost as afterthoughts” (: 11). However, with the emphasis placed on suprasegmental features, mainly owing to the emergence of CLT, writers in the field of ELT have questioned the traditional sequence for pronunciation teaching and expressed the view that teachers should first start working on suprasegmental features and then move on to segmental features. For example, Haycraft (1992) wrote:

Many teaching programmes begin by examining the vowel and consonant sounds, then going on to contractions and weak forms, and then, time permitting, to stress and rhythm. To me, this seems back-to-front, since it is the sentence stress that determines which words are unstressed and the speaking speed that dictates just how they are contracted, the vowel and consonant sounds changing accordingly. How is the foreign learner to know which the unstressed words are, without establishing the stresses first? Psychologically, it also makes sense to start with sentence stress, as students have far less difficulty with it than they have with the sounds. No tears are shed over the correction of stress. Unlike the sounds, it is something they can try out at once in a conversation. And if they are complimented on their good English, it will be because of their sensitive sentence stress rather than their perfect sounds.

Haycraft, 1992: 71

The redirection of priorities within pronunciation instruction to a focus on the importance of suprasegmental features as well as the importance of segmental

features has already been noted in this section. Let us now see if the order in which pronunciation features are introduced in pronunciation manuals has changed. My review of the books included in the list presented in this section revealed that the majority of pronunciation manuals (see Hancock, 2003; Kelly, 2000; Hewings and Goldstein, 1999; Celce-Murcia et al, 1996; Pennington, 1996; Fitzpatrick, 1995; Bowen and Marks, 1992) introduce segmental features first. For example, in Kelly's (2000) *How to Teach Pronunciation* the chapters that deal with the segmental and suprasegmental features of pronunciation appear in the following order: 'Vowels', 'Consonants', 'Word and Sentence Stress', 'Intonation' and 'Other Aspects of Connected Speech'. The only pronunciation manual that begins with attention to suprasegmental features of pronunciation and then moves on to segmental features of pronunciation is the one by Dalton & Seidlhofer (1994)<sup>8</sup>. It is interesting to note that the section of Dalton & Seidlhofer's book that deals with the pedagogy of pronunciation teaching begins with a sub-section entitled 'Focus on Intonation' followed by a 'Focus on Stress' sub-section, a 'Focus on connected speech' sub-section and, finally, ends with a 'Focus on Sounds' sub-section. As for Gilbert's (2005) *Clear Speech*, the order in which segmental and suprasegmental features are introduced is not clear as, for example, she begins with attention to vowels, moves on to word stress and intonation and ends with consonants.

#### ***Theme 4***

##### ***Traditional versus Modern Activities***

Pennington (1996) discusses how various activities could be placed under 'communicative' language practice even though they may not all represent communication in any true sense of the word. She explains:

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<sup>8</sup> See 'Section Two: Demonstration' in *Pronunciation* by Dalton & Seidlhofer (1994).

Meaningful practice signifies language activities which require knowing the meaning of the items in order to complete the activity. “Meaningful” in this sense does not necessarily imply “realistic” or “communicative”. For example, a meaningful pronunciation activity might require a student to decide whether one out of a minimal pair of words has been used correctly in a sentence. While practice of this sort involves meaning, and is in that respect an advance on repetitive mechanical practice, it does not represent communication in any true sense of the word.

Pennington, 1996: 227

As far as ‘traditional’ pronunciation exercises are concerned, they have not ceased to exist in pronunciation manuals. Hewings (2006) concludes his paper on the developments in pronunciation teaching materials since 1987 by stating that:

It has not been my intention here to suggest that there is no place in pronunciation teaching for ‘context-free’ activities, such as work on isolated minimal pairs. It is clearly important to give students the opportunity to articulate problematic and unfamiliar sounds, and at times it is probably most effective to do this without the possible distraction of context. However, my view, as I hope has become clear in this paper, is that efforts should be made to contextualise work on pronunciation in order (to paraphrase Celce-Murcia) to make practice as authentic as possible, to motivate, and to facilitate the transfer from classroom practice to natural communication.

Hewings, 2006: 9

Celce-Murcia et al (1996) also believe that “there is room for both types of practice in the communicative classroom as students move from structured to free production” (: 36). A similar position is taken by Hewings and Goldstein (1999); they write the following in their introduction to the *Pronunciation Plus – Practice Through Interaction* teacher’s manual:

A traditional approach to teaching pronunciation uses a three-step procedure: discriminate+repeat+correct. So, for example, students are asked to discriminate between target sounds and then to repeat words or phrases that contain these sounds, with the teacher correcting where necessary. *Pronunciation Plus* includes these tasks, but also varies the approach and tries to move on quickly to more communicative practice. Students are asked to predict, identify, sort, match, discover rules, and exchange information. The activities are intended to help students become more aware of their own English pronunciation and the pronunciation of native English speaker, to analyze pronunciation, and to produce various features of pronunciation in relevant contexts.

Hewings and Goldstein, 1999: vii

Pennington (1996), as part of her ‘teaching ideas’ for various aspects of pronunciation as presented in *Phonology in English Language Teaching*, first proposes the use of traditional tasks such as ‘repetition’ and ‘discrimination’ practice for minimal pairs

and then moves on to the use of communicative activities. Pennington (1996) defends the utility of communicative activities for the practice of pronunciation as follows:

Like other forms of active, productive behaviour, pronunciation can be expected to improve through practice, in particular, through the kinds of pair and group activities that are at the heart of modern, communicative and learner-centered methodology for language teaching.

Pennington, 1996: 219

## ***Theme 5***

### ***IPA Symbols***

Kelly's (2000) position is made clear in the following quotation taken from his *How to Teach Pronunciation* handbook:

Teachers should therefore get into the regular habit of using phonemic symbols in combination with a written record of the language being practised, and make a point of drawing students' attention to the most important spelling/ sound relationships. Regular dictionary work is also encouraged, and students should be enabled to use a good dictionary which used phonemic symbols. Teachers can do work in class to help students become more familiar with the dictionary, and to gain confidence in working out pronunciations from phonemic script.

Kelly, 2000: 126

The advantages of using a phonemic alphabet as a tool for the teaching of pronunciation (and not only) are outlined by many other authors of ELT PRON handbooks as demonstrated below:

A [phonemic] chart can function as a 'pronunciation syllabus' for the learners. It provides a visual representation of the sounds of English and can thus help them, with the aid of the teacher, to recognise which sounds they can already produce well and, more importantly, to determine which sounds they need to work on. As such a phonemic chart is a valuable tool because it can help to provide the learner with a finite goal – the 7 sounds they particularly need to work on, for example.

Using a phonemic chart presupposes a need on the part of both teachers and learners to learn phonemic script. The advantages of doing so are that phonemic script provides a convenient (and quick) reference point. It is also much more concise than the countless spelling combinations that can represent the sounds of English. It is also a good deal more systematic and accurate than take the learners' mother tongue as the model for the sounds of English.

Bowen and Marks, 1992: 5

...phonemic transcription can be indispensable as a means of separating students' perceptions of English sounds from their orthographic representations... the ability to read phonemic transcriptions will enable the students to comprehend the elements of pronunciation visually as well as aurally. Moreover, students will be better equipped to check pronunciation autonomously in their dictionaries.

It is our experience that a separate phonemic alphabet is a useful tool not only for teaching pronunciation but for creating some psychological distance between the sound system and the writing system. Such a separation helps both in teaching pronunciation and in

presenting the correspondences between the English writing system and the English sound system. It is also useful for presenting some of the conventions of English spelling, which has many rules that are based in part on sounds.

Celce-Murcia, 1996: 40, 270

... a knowledge of transcription *can* [his emphasis] can give learners a considerable measure of independence when confronted with new words or when they have doubts about how to pronounce a word they already know, since they can consult a dictionary and see how words are pronounced.

Fitzpatrick, 1995: 9

## ***Theme 6***

### ***Phonological Rules of English***

Celce-Murcia et al (1996) devote a whole chapter on the relationship between English phonology and orthography and address the need for English language teachers to teach their learners “(1) how to predict the pronunciation of a word given its spelling and (2) how to come up with a plausible spelling for a word given its pronunciation” (: 269). In the same chapter they present some very useful spelling to sound rules. Of course, there are different ways through which students may be introduced to phonological rules. For example, Kelly (2000) notes that as far as the pronunciation of regular past tense endings is concerned, even though the words *walked*, *lived* and *started* all have *-ed* at the end, they all have different pronunciations (/t/, /d/ and /ɪd/ respectively). He goes on to suggest that learners should learn the rules governing this phenomenon through *explicit instruction* (Kelly, 2000: 23). Interestingly, Pennington (1996) also refers to the phonological rule for *-ed* endings but recommends an activity that will help learners *figure out* the phonological rules that determine the pronunciation of the past tense ending (: 72-74). Hewings and Goldstein (1999) explicitly present some rules that connect sounds and spellings in English but, also, describe tasks through which students are asked to predict, identify and discover phonological rules for themselves. Fitzpatrick (1995) takes the position that whether or not to present students with definite rules will depend on the specific requirements

of each learning situation. Nevertheless, he believes that exposure to spelling patterns in English in a systematic way will help learners understand the relationship between spelling and pronunciation and thereby give them more confidence when confronting new words. He goes on to propose a number of strategies that the teachers can use to achieve this; for example, ‘pattern spotting’ may be sufficient to reveal a simple rule, such as the internal or ending modifiers. For this, students can simply be presented with a group of words that contrast two patterns and asked how the different spellings affect the words’ pronunciation: *cap – cape, scent – scene, win – wine, hop – hope, us – use*. As a follow up, students can list as many examples as they can think of, although the teacher needs to be prepared for possible exceptions to the pattern (Fitzpatrick, 1995: 31). He concludes by writing that:

In general... spelling and sound work need not mean learning endless complicated spelling rules. Exposing learners to carefully presented patterns, and involving them in discovering and working with them in an enjoyable and meaningful way, will help them to internalise the patterns with little effort.

Fitzpatrick, 1995: 33

In addition to spelling to sound rules, the category of phonological rules may also expand to include other rules such as stress placement rules; for example, Celce-Murcia et al (1996) argue for the explicit teaching of word stress rules, as follows:

...stress placement in English words is for the most part a rule-governed phenomenon and explicit teaching of word stress patterns should be a part of the ESL pronunciation curriculum. When addressing this in the classroom, it is the teacher’s task to minimize students’ frustration and to clarify the systematicity of stress placement in words... because of the complexity of word stress rules in general, we encourage teachers to reinforce classroom explanation of specific word stress rules with both in-class and out-of-class opportunities for students to make predictions about stress placement and apply any new rules they have been exposed to in class.

Celce-Murcia et al (1996: 143, 144)

Celce-Murcia et al (1996) go on to present guidelines and activities concerning sentence stress as well as rules governing connected speech features. Dalton and



Seidlhofer (1994: 99 – 105) present a collection of activities that aim at developing learners' prediction skills for word-stress in English.

### ***Theme 7***

#### ***Exposure to Authentic Spoken English***

Dalton and Seidlhofer (1994), for example, recommend getting the learners to listen to extracts from radio news broadcasts and asking them to focus on those instances/phrases where 'elision'<sup>9</sup> happens; according to the recommended task, learners must pay attention to how the ends of the words are pronounced and how one word is joined to the next in the particular phrases before they are asked to say those phrases themselves<sup>10</sup>. Other authors of ELT PRON handbooks also recognise the importance of exposing learners to authentic spoken English but, nevertheless, direct attention to the problems often associated with this approach to pronunciation teaching and practice; as Kelly (2000) puts it:

While authentic materials (i.e. printed, broadcast or taped material not produced with the classroom in mind) are valuable, it is impractical for teachers to use such material all the time, as one not only has to find suitable materials, but also design tasks to go with them.

Kelly, 2000: 21

### ***Theme 8***

#### ***The Language Laboratory & Computer Technology***

Celce-Murcia et al (1996) recommend the following controlled practice technique, known as 'mirroring' or 'shadowing', provided that a language laboratory is available:

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<sup>9</sup> Roach (2000) defines elision as follows: "The nature of elision may be stated quite simply: under certain circumstances sounds disappear; one might express this in more technical language by saying that in certain circumstances a phoneme may be realised as zero, or have zero realisation or be deleted. As with assimilation, elision is typical of rapid, casual speech." (: 142)

<sup>10</sup> This 'elision' exercise is taken from Swan and Walter (1987: 53) and reproduced in Dalton and Seidlhofer (1994: 122).

To begin, learners read over the written text of a speech sample – be it a conversation or monologue – several times making sure that they understand it well. Then learners listen to the tape several times while reading along silently until their eyes follow the text in coordination with the speaker. Using a two-track tape system, learners record their voice while reading along with the speaker trying to maintain the same speed, rhythm, stress, and intonation. Finally, learners can play back the two simultaneous recordings and compare them.

Celce-Murcia et al, 1996: 199

Bowen and Marks (1992) suggest that prior to ‘reading aloud’ tasks the teacher records his or her reading of a text so that the learners are provided with a constant and consistent model and, also, so that the learners can listen to it in their own time in a language laboratory.

### ***Theme 10***

#### ***‘Production’ Activities (imitation, reading aloud, choral & individual responses)***

For Kelly (2000), drilling is “one of the main ways in which pronunciation is practised in the classroom” (: 16) and “being able to drill properly is a basic and fundamental language teaching skill” (: 16). He points out that even though drilling has its roots in behaviourist psychological theory and the ‘audio-lingual’ approach to language teaching, it “has stayed with us as a tried and tested classroom technique” (16) because it helps learners achieve better pronunciation of new language items. Nevertheless, he recognises that “successful repetition during drilling will not necessarily lead to continued accurate production during other practice activities, or outside the classroom” (Kelly, 2000: 75).

Gilbert (2000a) includes many activities that require the teacher reading the sentences in the ‘Music of English’ boxes several times at a near-native, normal speed (or, alternatively, getting the students to listen to the tape) and then directing the students, as a class, to say the sentences along with the teacher.

(Kelly on 'reading aloud' techniques). The teacher should encourage learners to pay attention to the way in which stress and intonation affect the message of whatever is being read out and, also, the learners should pay attention to how variations in stress can change the meaning of utterances (for more information, see Kelly, 2000: 81, for more information).

## Section 2.1 'Pronunciation Status & Role'

### Appendix 2.1

#### The studies

##### *Willing (1988)*

In a major study of the learning styles of adult ESL students, Willing (1988) investigated the learning preferences of 517 learners in Australia. Willing (1988) justifies this research by stating that “following requests from many teachers, and in accordance with a recommendation of the advisory group<sup>11</sup>...it was decided to carry out a major empirical survey relating to the learning modes preferred by the current AMES<sup>12</sup> clientele” (: 99) and introduces it by writing that it was “the first attempt to discover the learning-modality preferences of the AMES clientele population generally” (: 99). The survey was a large scale project which adopted a questionnaire format and its principal aim was “to collect, in an unprejudiced way, a large amount of information in several areas of possible learning-mode preference” (Willing, 1988: 101). It was assumed that the learners would be able to express individual preferences in the following six areas: 1) different sorts of classroom activities, 2) different modes of teacher behaviour, 3) different ways of being grouped for learning activities, 4) different aspects of language which need emphasis, 5) different sensory-modality preferences, 6) different modes of learning on one's own outside class (Willing, 1988: 101). The final questionnaire consisted of 30 items and, in terms of the interests of this thesis, three of them were concerned with which aspect of language the learners

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<sup>11</sup> Please see 'Outcomes of the Advisory Group Decision-making meeting' (: 34) of the 'Learning Styles in Adult Migrant Education' edited by David Nunan (1988).

<sup>12</sup> AMES = Adult Migrant Education Service.

see as the most in need of emphasis. These three items appeared in the questionnaire as follows:

I like to study grammar	no	a little	good	best
I like to learn new words	no	a little	good	best
I like to practise the sounds and pronunciation	no	a little	good	best

Willing, 1988: 106-107

The remaining 27 items related to class activities, teacher behaviour, learning group, sensory-modality options and ‘outside class activities’.

Overall, 517 learners completed the questionnaire. The data obtained were analysed as follows:

For each of the learning-preference questions (1-30), a general result was calculated by assigning the value 1 to the response ‘No’, 2 for ‘A little’, 3 for ‘Good’, and 4 for ‘Best’. An average level of ‘preference’ on each question was then calculated, based on all 517 respondents.

Willing, 1988: 112

It must be noted that the study did not just focus on the overall average rating for each of the ‘learning-preference’ questions but also examined any departures from this averaged based on the different characteristics of the respondents; the respondents were divided into groups according to the following variables –ethnic group, -age group, -sex, -level of previous education, -length of residence in Australia, -level of proficiency in English, -program of study. Out of the thirty ethnic groups represented in the survey, “only five (Vietnamese, ethnic Chinese, Arabic speakers, South Americans, and Polish/ Czech speakers) were large enough to permit analysis having statistical validity” (Willing, 1988: 109-110).

It is striking that the ‘pronunciation’ item of the questionnaire (‘I like to practise the sounds and pronunciation’) was not only rated more highly compared to the ‘vocabulary’ and ‘grammar’ items but had the highest rating of *all* questionnaire items (see Willing, 1988: 116-117). More specifically, the ‘pronunciation’ item “received an overall score of 3.54 and 62% of all learners marked this as ‘best’”

(Willing, 1988: 116). Willing (1988) discusses this finding and the implications of such findings as follows:

In the case of questions rated extremely high, responses may be indicating a perception of inadequately met needs (rather than simple personal 'preferences'). There is little doubt, for instance, that 'sounds and pronunciation' constitutes an area of serious concern to learners at present, in AMES. Learners quite uniformly rated this learning need very highly, to such an extent that it had the highest average of all items on the survey. There is certainly a *prima facie* case, following the survey data, for AMES to re-examine its emphases and methods of dealing with pronunciation, rhythm, stress and intonation. (It is true that the survey consulted particularly large numbers of Southeast Asians and On-Arrival clients, both of which are often said to want, or need, special emphasis on pronunciation. However, cross-tabulation did not show either of those two groups as significantly higher than the general average for this question.)

Willing, 1988: 113

The 'vocabulary' item ('I like to learn many new words') received a score of 3.38 and 47% of learners rated it as 'best'. Willing (1988) discusses this finding as follows:

The relative low priority assigned to vocabulary development stems from the audio-lingual period, when the internalization of sentence patterns was everything, and it was thought that vocabulary would develop of its own accord. The low status of vocabulary has not been widely re-examined, even though the need for a reconsideration is increasingly apparent. Where the ultimate objective is successful interaction with the English-speaking community, vocabulary development soon becomes of crucial importance. This was clearly perceived by respondents to the survey, who gave Q19 ('I like to learn many new words') a very high rating. This need opens on to uncharted territory: vocabulary development has been quite neglected, and appropriate and effective new methodologies have not been adequately addressed. The survey result on this question indicates, that in the AMES context this is a subject worthy of attention.

Willing, 1988: 120

The 'grammar' item ('I like to study grammar') received a score of 3.10 and only 39% of learners rated this as 'best'<sup>13</sup>; "grammar as such was not, in fact, of highest concern to the majority of learners" (Willing, 1988: 118) and, "overall, not quite as popular as is commonly believed" (Willing, 1988: 129). Nevertheless, Willing (1988) points out that this result must be interpreted with caution; "learners do seem to favour an 'organised' or clearly structured sequence in their learning" (: 129) but "are less enthusiastic about 'formal grammar', in general." (ibid: 129).

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<sup>13</sup> Arabic speakers were a very noticeable exception; 65% ranked this as 'best' (Willing, 1988: 129).

*Peacock (1999)*

The questionnaire employed by Peacock (1999) was originally prepared by Horwitz (1985) who used it on her foreign language teacher training course in order to question her trainees' beliefs about language learning. This questionnaire is known as the BALLI ('Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory) and since its publication, "the BALLI has been used in at least 13 published studies and doctoral dissertations"<sup>14</sup> with a variety of teacher and student populations" (Horwitz, 1999: 558). As the reader can imagine, this questionnaire explores learners' beliefs on a wide range of different issues; for example, it asks learners to consider the role of translation in language learning and whether or not factors such as being a child rather than an adult (or a woman rather than a man) affect language learning.

*Fraser's (2000)*

The following two observations led Fraser (2000) to embark on a large-scale project in order to review the situation of pronunciation teaching across a wide range of contexts in Australia and to recommend a coordinated strategy for improving the situation: 1. "many learners of English as a second language have major difficulties with English pronunciation, often even after years of English lessons, with concomitant major disadvantages in all areas of life, notably in employment" (Fraser, 2000: 1) and 2. "many English language teachers have major problems in teaching pronunciation" (ibid: 1). Fraser (2000) outlines the concerns of her report as follows:

The primary concern of this study is the situation of non-native speakers of English who have come to live in Australia as adults and have difficulty learning to speak English in a way that makes them easily intelligible to native speakers. This is a serious problem for many people... The second concern is the difficulties faced by teachers of English as a second language in providing effective help with pronunciation for learners...

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<sup>14</sup> It must be noted that a number of these studies did not focus on learners and/ or teachers of English but on learners and/ or teachers of other languages. For example, Kern (1995) used the BALLI with students of French as a second language at the University of Berkeley in the U.S.A.

The third major concern of this report is the structural and systemic difficulties that prevent learners with needs in the area of English pronunciation being matched with teachers who have the ability and opportunity to provide help for them.

Fraser, 2000: 7-8

Another example concerns the overseas university students enrolled on TESOL courses. Fraser (2000) describes the situation as follows:

Of the university students, a special but very important group in the present context is the group of overseas students studying to be English teachers when they return to their home countries. As we see below, TESOL courses vary in the extent to which they provide training in how to teach pronunciation. However, for NNS TESOL students, the need to acquire intelligible pronunciation to model to their prospective students is at least as great as their need to learn effective techniques of teaching pronunciation.

The reality is that there is little opportunity within the course to work on their own pronunciation. Lecturers are compromised by lack of time within the curriculum, size and diversity of classes, disinclination to insult students by too much reference to their own poor pronunciation – and a need to maintain a steady stream of these lucrative overseas students.”

Fraser, 2000: 18

#### *Sobkowiak (2002)*

75% of the respondents said they wished they had more pronunciation practice in their teaching institutions (university or teacher training college). Waniek-Klimczak and Klimczak (2005) refer to Sobkowiak’s (2002) study and point out that this result may be interpreted in a number of ways: “as a proof of the need for pronunciation practice, or – as Sobkowiak (2002) comments – the desire to rely on in-class practice more than the individual drilling at home” (Waniek-Klimczak and Klimczak, 2005: 231). They also provide a further interpretation of this result: “it may also suggest that pronunciation practice is seen as a means of achieving the communicative/fluency goals rather than native-like accent” (Waniek-Klimczak and Klimczak, 2005: 232).

#### *Waniek-Klimczak and Klimczak (2005)*

In terms of students’ attitudes towards the skill of speaking the following emerged:

Let us first consider the respondents’ attitude towards speaking as a skill. Assessing its relative difficulty, both groups of students rate speaking as the most difficult one within four basic skills (2.76 in ES and 2.45 in the E & S group on a difficulty scale from 1 to 4, q. 3 [with 1= the easiest and 4= the most difficult]). High ratings for difficulty correspond to choice of speaking as the most important of the skills for the future use of English in both groups (80% in ES and 88% in E & S groups give speaking the highest rating in q. 5). Having



found speaking both important and difficult, we further asked which aspects of speaking students find most important from the perspective of communicative context (q. 19).

Waniek-Klimczak and Klimczak, 2005: 240

*Kanellou (2001)*

It emerged that 70% of teachers regarded grammar as *very important* and the remaining 30% as *important*. On the other hand, only 35% of learners regarded it as *very important* and 62% as *important* (interestingly 3% of learners thought that grammar was *not important* whereas no teacher thought so). As far as vocabulary is concerned, “the majority of both teachers and students (79.6% and 87% respectively) rate it as *very important*” (Kanellou, 2001: 29). As for pronunciation (see Kanellou, 2001: 30), 78.3% of learners rated pronunciation as *very important* (and 21.7% as *important*) whereas only 26.9% of teachers rated it as a *very important* (73.1% rated it as *important*).

## Section 2.2 ‘Pronunciation Models & Targets’

### Appendix 2.2

#### The ‘intelligibility’ concept

Rajadurai (2007) embarks on a survey of past research on the intelligibility of L2 speech and arrives at the following conclusion: “researchers have employed various definitions of intelligibility, accompanied by a whole array of methods devised to measure it” (: 88). Let us see why and how providing a definition for ‘intelligibility’ is a rather complicated matter.

Smith and Nelson (1985) note that the terms ‘intelligibility’ and ‘comprehensibility’ are often used interchangeably in the relevant literature and suggest restricting the term ‘intelligibility’ to word and utterance recognition and using the term ‘comprehensibility’ to refer to word and utterance meaning. They, also, introduce the term ‘interpretability’ to refer to the perception of the speakers’ intentions (see Field, 2005: 400 and Rajadurai, 2007: 89). Smith (1992) views these three categories in terms of degrees of understanding on a continuum with ‘intelligibility’ being the lowest degree of understanding and ‘interpretability’ the highest. Munro and Derwing (1995) state that “in very general terms, intelligibility may be defined as the extent to which a speaker’s message is understood by a listener” (cited in Rajadurai, 2007: 88) and adopt a clear distinction between the terms ‘intelligibility’ and ‘comprehensibility’ just like Smith and Nelson (1985) did. However, they define ‘comprehensibility’ as judgements of how easy or difficult it is for a listener to understand a particular utterance. Munro and Derwing (1995) recognise that the reactions of a listener to accented speech are complex and may be

understood at different levels. Overall, they focus on three aspects of foreign accented speech, intelligibility being one of them, as follows:

(a) the extent to which the speaker's intended utterance is actually understood by a listener (intelligibility), (b) the listener's perception of the degree of difficulty encountered when trying to understand an utterance (comprehensibility), and (c) how much an L2 accent differs from the variety of English commonly spoken in the community (accentedness).

Munro and Derwing, 1995 cited in Munro and Derwing, 2005: 385

Jenkins (2000) accepts Smith and Nelson's (1985) definitions of the terms 'intelligibility', 'comprehensibility' and 'interpretability' but rejects Smith's (1992) suggestion that 'comprehensibility' and 'interpretability' are more important than 'intelligibility'. For Jenkins (2000) 'intelligibility' is the most important level of meaning because it is a prerequisite of successful communication among learners of English. The following quotation serves to outline her views:

Like Smith and Nelson, I believe that it is important to standardize the use of the term 'intelligibility', and I have no problem with their restriction of its use to word and utterance recognition. My own use of the term 'intelligibility' is thus, unashamedly, that of Smith and Nelson (1985), but it is approached more in the spirit of writers such as Bansal and Ufomata. It concerns the production and recognition of the formal properties of words and utterances and, in particular, the ability to produce and receive phonological form, but regards the latter as a prerequisite (though not a guarantee) of ILT success at the locutionary and illocutionary level.

Jenkins, 2000: 77-78

On the other hand, McKay (2002) decides to use the term 'intelligibility' in its very general sense:

This [what is meant by intelligibility] is a complex matter, involving what some linguists refer to as 'intelligibility' (recognizing an expression), *comprehensibility* (knowing the meaning of an expression), and *interpretability* (knowing what the expression signifies in a particular sociocultural context). For example, if a listener recognizes that the word *salt* is an English word rather than a Spanish word, English is then intelligible to him or her. If the listener in addition knows the meaning of the word, it is comprehensible, and if he or she understands that the phrase 'Do you have any salt?' is intended as a request for salt, then he or she is said to be able to interpret the language. Whereas there are important distinctions to make in discussing the issue of intelligibility, often the term is used to cover all three types of meaning given above, and for the most part we will use the word in this more general sense in the discussion that follows.

McKay, 2002: 52

Rajadurai (2007) critically evaluates the literature available on the intelligibility of L2 speech, draws the reader's attention to certain inadequacies in the conceptual and empirical treatment of intelligibility in much past research and offers a new, reconceptualised, context-sensitive view as follows:

First, any investigation of intelligibility should be firmly embedded in the sociocultural and interactional context. Intelligibility, I would argue, is a dynamic notion- a negotiated process, rather than a purely fixed product. Second, it would appear that intelligibility is affected by listener factors like familiarity and attitudinal variables. There is substantial evidence that familiarity with a particular speaker and with varieties of English has a facilitating effect on intelligibility, as does a positive, supportive attitude, whereas a negative attitude works as a barrier that impedes intelligibility. Third, interacting with different people, and particularly with people of different language and cultural backgrounds, requires mutual responsibility and active accommodation. Fourth, given the poorly defined construct of the "native speaker" (Rampton, 1990; Davies, 1991; McKay, 2002), the validity of employing native speaker norms as the basis for research into L2 uses of English must be questioned.

Rajadurai, 2007: 95

### Gimson's position on pronunciation models and targets

A brief sketch of Gimson's professional life and work is provided by Kaltenboeck (2002), as follows:

In English pronunciation teaching few names can compete in authority and influence with that of A.C. Gimson. As Professor of Phonetics at University College London from 1966 to 1983, he was well-known throughout the world for his works on English pronunciation, especially his *Introduction to the Pronunciation of English* (IPE), and his editorship of the 13<sup>th</sup> and 14<sup>th</sup> editions of the *English Pronouncing Dictionary* (EPD).

Unlike some other phoneticians, Gimson showed a constant interest in the teaching of English pronunciation, which is present in all his research work. His main area of research, the description and changing nature of Received Pronunciation (RP), is thus largely motivated by pedagogic concerns, since 'it would clearly be absurd to teach a pronunciation regarded by native speakers as old-fashioned or even comic' (Gimson, 1981: 255)

Kaltenboeck, 2002: 431

Here, I would like to present Gimson's definition of 'Received Pronunciation' (RP) followed by his definition of 'General American' (GA).

Often called RECEIVED PRONUNCIATION (RP), the term suggesting that it is the result of social judgement rather than that of an official decision as to what is 'correct' or 'wrong', it became more widely known and accepted through the advent of radio and television. The BBC used to recommend this form of pronunciation for its announcers mainly because it was the type which was most widely understood and which excited less prejudice of a regional kind. Indeed, early attempts to use announcers who had a mild regional accent used to provoke protests even from the region where the accent was used. Thus, RP often became identified in the public mind with 'BBC English', but over the last 20 years, both the BBC and

other national radio and TV channels have been increasingly tolerant of the accent of broadcasters. Nevertheless, in their choice of newsreaders, the national TV and radio channels still use predominantly RP speakers, even though they may be speaker of a type of 'Regional RP'.

Cruttenden, 2001: 78-79

The traditional (although not undisputed) division of the United States for pronunciation purposes is into Eastern (including New England, and New York City,...), Southern (stretching from Virginia to Texas and to all points southwards), and General (all the remaining area). General American (GA) can thus be regarded as that form of American which does not have marked regional characteristics (and is in this way comparable to RP) and is sometimes referred to as 'Network English' (just as RP, not entirely justifiably nowadays, is sometimes referred to as 'BBC English').

Cruttenden, 2001: 85

If a learner attempts to approximate to RP or some other native standard, his or her achievement may lie somewhere between two extremes:

The lowest requirement can be described as one of MINIMAL GENERAL INTELLIGIBILITY, i.e. one which possesses a set of distinctive elements which correspond in some measure to the inventory of the RP phonemic system and which is capable of conveying a message efficiently from a native English listener's standpoint, given that the context of the message is known and that the listener has had time to 'tune in' to the speaker's pronunciation. At the other extreme, the learner may be said to achieve a performance of HIGH ACCEPTABILITY, i.e. a form of speech which the native listener may not identify as non-native, which conveys information as readily as would a native's and which arrives at this result through precision in the phonetic realisation of phonemes and by confident handling of accentual and intonational patterns.

Cruttenden, 2001: 298-299

In addition to these two levels of competence in pronunciation, Gimson acknowledges the existence of "one further and separate category of competence in pronunciation which seeks neither to imitate a natural model nor to have any international validity" (Cruttenden, 2001: 299). Gimson refers to this level of pronunciation as RESTRICTED INTELLIGIBILITY and defines it as follows:

There are people who use English as a lingua franca within their own country because none of the indigenous languages that their country has is acceptable as a national language. Such types of English of RESTRICTED INTELLIGIBILITY may conform in many features of lexis and grammar to the native language of Britain or America and thus in their form pose no great problems of international intelligibility. But in the spoken form of transmission, interference from indigenous languages may erect a formidable barrier for listeners from other areas where English is spoken. If the interference is such that no attempt is made to do other than use the sound system and prosody of the indigenous language, however effective this may be within the country concerned, communication with native English speakers and with speakers from other countries may break down completely without resource to written communication.

Cruttenden, 2001: 299-300

It is clear from the quotation above that Gimson perceives this level of competence in pronunciation to pose a great threat to international intelligibility. Thus, it makes sense for Gimson to caution against using ‘restricted intelligibility’ as a pronunciation performance target: “this rudimentary form of pronunciation is not, however, to be regarded as a teaching target, but rather as a minimum level of achievement consistent with some degree of intelligibility” (Cruttenden, 2001: 313).

#### Jenkins’s Lingua Franca Core and other phonological cores

The LFC has not been the only attempt to provide teachers and learners of English as an international language with a core of essential pronunciation features; Jenkins herself recognizes the contribution of other phoneticians and applied linguists in this respect. Interestingly, Gimson himself can be credited with the earliest attempt of simplifying the RP phonemic inventory in order to meet the needs of those speakers who need to use English as a lingua franca only in their work ‘as a technical aid to communication’, who ‘deal with mainly predictable concepts in a restricted situation (such as in air traffic control)’ and can thus ‘be expected to operate with more rudimentary forms of English syntax, lexis and pronunciation than exist in any natural model’ (Gimson, 1978: 47 cited in Jenkins, 2000: 129). Gimson’s ‘Rudimentary International Pronunciation’ (RIP) of English is described in his (1978) paper entitled ‘Towards an international pronunciation of English’. Gimson’s RIP meets three prerequisites, which according to Gimson (1978) are very important and should be met by any model of this kind:

1. the model should be as easy to learn as any natural model, and, if possible, easier;
2. it should be readily intelligible to most native speakers of English;
3. the learner of such a model should thereby possess a base for understanding the major natural varieties of English.

Gimson, 1978 cited in Jenkins, 2000: 130

As Jenkins (2000) points out, “Gimson clearly has ‘NS-NNS’ rather than ‘NNS-NNS’ communication in mind.” (: 130). Indeed, one of the fundamental differences between Gimson’s RIP and Jenkins’s LFC lies in the fact that Gimson (1978) sees the native-speaker as being central in his approach to pronunciation for EIL (“a reduced framework of this kind is likely to provide a high level of intelligibility amongst native listeners and foreign learners who have acquired the system” (Gimson, 1978: 51 cited in Jenkins, 2000: 130) whereas for Jenkins (2000), the native-speaker is rather redundant since “interaction is more likely to take place between two non-native speakers of English than between a native and non-native speaker” (Jenkins, 2000: 201).

Another phonetician who has attempted to establish a phonological core is Bryan Jenner. Before referring to Jenner’s contribution in this respect, it is interesting to note that Jenner has concerned himself with ways of improving English language learners’ pronunciation to such an extent that some learners may actually achieve and many more will approach a ‘native-like’ performance. For example, in his (1987) paper entitled ‘Articulation and Phonation in Non-Native English: The Example of Dutch-English’, Jenner proposes ways in which an English language learner’s pronunciation may be brought closer to that of native-speakers of Standard British English. And, in his (1988) paper entitled ‘Educational Phonetics’, Jenner explains that in order to achieve this level of performance a learner needs to master all the separate components of pronunciation (the vowel and consonant repertoire, the system of strong, weak and reduced syllables, the rhythmic patterning, the intonational system) and also needs to embed all these elements in a native-like setting of articulation and voice quality. Nevertheless, Jenner (1989) recognises that some learners may neither want nor need to attain a native-like pronunciation:

Without wishing to retract anything I have said in the past about the desirability or feasibility of near-nativeness as an ultimate goal, I feel it is also appropriate to consider those learners who, for one reason or another, do not want or need to sound entirely native-like, and to establish a lower-level objective for them. In order to be able to do this, it seems to me essential to establish what *all* native speakers of *all* native-varieties have in common which enables them to communicate effectively with native speakers of varieties other than their own. This will enable us to set up a common *core* for pronunciation, which would offer the learner a guarantee of intelligibility and acceptability anywhere in the world.

Jenner, 1989: 2

Jenner (1989) proceeds to identify those features that are, according to him, indispensable for successful communication and should make up the ‘Common Core’ for the teaching of pronunciation; for example, vowel quantity or ‘length’ should be of a high priority in the Common Core since “all native varieties make oppositions based on vowel length; i.e. they all have some long vowels contrasting with some short vowels, and the loss of these contrasts seriously impairs intelligibility” (: 3). Jenner’s (1989) Common Core, or, in other words, his set of priorities for L2 pronunciation which would guarantee intelligibility for any native speaker receiver regardless of which variety of English they speak, were modified by Jenkins in 1995 “in an attempt to make them more amenable to ELF, i.e. to guarantee intelligibility for any L2 receiver too” (Jenkins, 1996: 33). Among the various objections and reservations that Jenkins (2000) has towards and over the establishment of Jenner’s Common Core, is Jenner’s appeal to the ‘native speaker’ as both the producer and receiver of intelligible pronunciation; she considers Jenner’s emphasis on the ‘native speaker’ as rather problematic for EIL (: 126). Of course, Jenkins’s position regarding the irrelevance of the ‘native-speaker’ in the pronunciation pedagogy for EIL has already been dealt with and needs not to be discussed again at this point in this section. As far as differences in the elements included in Jenner’s Common Core and Jenkins’s LFC are concerned, I would like to note that, in the case of diphthongs, Jenkins argues for a high priority for all learners whereas Jenner holds exactly the opposite view and states that “we cannot, in the case of diphthongs, argue for a high



priority when there are such enormous divergences among native speakers” (Jenner, 1995: 16).

At first sight, the superiority of Jenkins’s (2000) LFC compared to all other phonological cores that have emerged to this day may seem to lie in the fact that it is the only syllabus which is based on actual data derived from research into ‘NNS-NNS’ interaction and as such is more suitable for EIL pedagogy. Jenkins (2000) goes even further and demonstrates how in devising the LFC she attempted to avoid the problems of previous approaches by reconciling the two opposing positions that variously underpin them:

That is, on the one hand, my proposals are – in the tradition of West – empirically based, focusing on genuine interactional speech data. On the other hand, they are also based on the evidence of how people actually respond, so correcting the assumption that intelligibility is a function of relative frequency in naturally occurring speech.

The consequence of reconciling the two traditions is that although the LFC is grounded in RP and GA, this is only to the extent that features of these varieties are shown in the data to be crucial to intelligibility among L2... speakers of English. Some RP/ GA features clearly have the opposite effect while others appear to be inconsequential for international intelligibility. In the latter two situations, the core is modified in the direction of L2 varieties.

Jenkins, 2000: 131

### ‘Inner Circle’, ‘Outer Circle’ & ‘Expanding Circle’

Kachru (1985) coined those three terms in order to illustrate the various roles English serves in different countries worldwide, as follows:

The spread of English may be viewed in terms of three concentric circles representing the types of spread, the patterns of acquisition and the functional domains in which English is used across cultures and languages. I have tentatively named these: the inner circle, the outer circle..., and the expanding circle. Numerically, the outer circle forms a large speech community with great diversity and distinct characteristics. The major features of this circle are that (a) English is only one of the two or more codes in the linguistic repertoire of such bilinguals or multilinguals, and (b) English has acquired an important status in the language policies of such multilingual nations.... The third circle, termed the expanding circle, brings to English yet another dimension. Understanding the function of English in this circle requires a recognition of the fact that English is an international language, and that it has already won the race in this respect with linguistic rivals such as French, Russian and Esperanto, to name just two natural languages and one artificial language. The geographical regions characterized as the expanding circle do not necessarily have a history of colonization by the users of the inner circle.... This circle is currently expanding rapidly and has resulted in numerous performance (or EFL) varieties... The outer and expanding circle cannot be viewed as clearly demarcated from each other. They have several shared characteristics, and the status of English in the language policies of such countries changes from time to time. What is an ESL region at one time may become an EFL region at another time or vice versa.

Kachru, 1985: 12 cited in Seidlhofer, 2003: 9

## Evaluation of studies

*Timmis (2002)*

Timmis (2002) recognizes himself a major limitation of his study:

It would be absurd to suggest that this survey provides a statistically accurate picture of the state of opinion among students and teachers: the sample is but a tiny fraction of the English language learning and teaching population, and questionnaires are not precision instruments. I think, however, that the survey, given the number of responses and relatively wide geographical coverage, can support the following modest conclusions.

Timmis, 2002: 248

It is my view that drawing 400 learners' responses from 14 different countries and 180 teachers' responses from 45 different countries may seem impressive in terms of numbers but has an adverse effect on the representativeness of the data and raises many questions in terms of methodological procedures. For example, we can assume that it would have been impossible for the researcher to supervise the administration of the questionnaires in such a great variety of contexts worldwide and, I wonder, how the people that did administer the questionnaires to the learners may have affected the questionnaire completion process. Another question, for example, may concern the sampling procedure (if any) that was followed in order for Timmis (or someone else?) to arrive at the selection of the questionnaire respondents of the study. It seems to me that for the lone researcher (and even for a team of researchers) aiming to obtain and analyse questionnaires that will yield statistically significant findings representative of the target population from teachers and learners from so many different parts of the world is mission impossible. It certainly makes more sense for one researcher (or team of researchers) to confine his or her (or their) study to teachers and learners of one city or one country, publish the results of their research and compare them to those of similar studies carried out in different cities and/ or countries. And, this is exactly what the research reported in this thesis is; a step towards this direction.

*Sifakis and Sougari (2005)*

A questionnaire accompanied by a cover letter was distributed to Greek EFL state-school teachers. The response rate was 75%; overall, 421 teachers completed the questionnaire. All participants were university graduates, holding at least a BA degree in English language and literature or equivalent. At this point, I need to draw the reader's attention to the process followed by the researchers in selecting the teachers who responded to the survey:

We originally intended to survey a random sample across the three teaching domains (primary level, lower secondary level, upper secondary level). However, to guarantee a greater response rate, we used school directories to contact those teachers throughout Greece who had shown an interest in taking inservice teacher training courses during the previous year.

Sifakis and Sougari, 2005: 474

It is legitimate to wonder if the sample comprised teachers that had taken inservice teacher training courses as well as those teachers that had not, how the questionnaire data may have been affected.

## Section 2.3 ‘Pronunciation Teaching Techniques’

### Appendix 2.3

#### Research on the effectiveness of pronunciation instruction in EFL settings

Chela Flores (1993 cited in Celce-Murcia et al, 1996: 27) in her study on the acquisition of English rhythm<sup>15</sup> by Spanish speakers found that if her Spanish speakers were taught typical English rhythm patterns first in isolation from lexical items or phrases, then by matching patterns to items or phrases, and, finally by imposing the patterns on words, phrases and sentences, they were able to make great strides toward producing English rhythm – especially under controlled production conditions. She concluded that extended practice would be needed for the learners to automatize these new rhythmic patterns.

Other examples of such studies are as follows: Mathews (1997) carried out an experiment in order to test the effects of explicit pronunciation instruction on the perception and acquisition of segmental contrasts in English by Japanese university students. The pronunciation methodology of the study consisted of providing the students with information about the precise articulation of new sounds, with the help of silent visual demonstration, followed by the students’ silent mimicry and the out-loud pronunciation of the same words. Quijada (1997) supplemented the English language coursebook of Spanish school children with a phonetic syllabus that included work with vowels, consonants, word stress, rhythm and intonation and tested the subjects’ improvement regarding their receptive and productive competence in pronunciation. MacDonald et al (1994) compared the effectiveness of three different pronunciation teaching techniques (traditional drilling activities, self-study with tape-

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<sup>15</sup> (in particular, the appropriate lengthening of stressed syllables and shortening of unstressed syllables in English)

recordings and interactive activities) on the pronunciation of targeted vocabulary items in spontaneous speech by adult Chinese learners of English. Strange and Dittmann (1984) tested the usefulness of computer-based discrimination activities on the acquisition of the contrast /ɪ/-/I/ categorical perception by adult Japanese learners of English.

## Section 3.1 'Research Setting & Participants'

### Appendix 3.1 'Thessaloniki, Greece'

#### Greece

Modern Greece 'traces its roots to the civilisation of ancient Greece, generally considered the cradle of Western civilization'<sup>16</sup>; as such, it is the birthplace of democracy, Western philosophy, Western literature, major scientific and mathematical principles, university education, modern medicine, the Olympic games and the first coin. Greece is a developed country and has been a member of the European Union since 1981, a member of NATO since 1952 and a member of the Eurozone since 2001<sup>17</sup>. Greece is also a founding member of the United Nations. The 2004 Olympic Games were successfully hosted in Athens; Athens is the capital of Greece and also the largest city in the country. Greece's total population in 2001 was 10,964,020 and it seems that, today, the total population has decreased by 1.6%<sup>18</sup>. The final and detailed results of the 2011 Census will become available by the end of 2013<sup>19</sup> and, thus, data concerning the demographic and social characteristics of the population in Greece referred to in this thesis will be mostly retrieved from the results of the 2001 Census as well as from other sources.

#### Migrants in Greece

I ought to begin by stating that following the collapse of the command economies in Eastern Europe and the former USSR, Greece was transformed from a country of

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<sup>16</sup> <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Greece> accessed on 05.07.2007.

<sup>17</sup> 'Drachma' was replaced by 'Euro' in 2001.

<sup>18</sup> <http://www.tovima.gr/files/1/2011/07/22/apograph22.pdf> via 'wikipedia' (please see footnote '6' on this page).

<sup>19</sup> <http://www.parikia.co.uk/daily-news/greece-news/greek-news-in-english/24620-census> accessed on 05.07.2007.

emigration into one of immigration. The majority of immigrants are nationals of neighbouring Balkan states, predominantly Albanians (Labrianidis et al, 2004). The influx of migrants occurred during the 1990s with the majority of immigrants being clandestine (Labriandis et al, 2004: 1). The entrance of illegal immigrants in Greece is attributed to a number of factors, the main one being the geographical location of the country:

The long coastline, the numerous islands and the long mountainous land borders are difficult to patrol and therefore easily accessible to clandestine arrivals from Albania, Turkey or North Africa. Moreover, the open character of Southern European Economies, largely dependent on tourism, trade and shipping, allows many migrant to enter countries legally, as tourists or visitors, and then extend their stay illegally.

Labrianidis et al, 2004: 2

The presence of illegal immigrants in Greece as well the fact that data concerning legal immigrants in Greece are held by several ministries, with no synthesis being made of the different datasets due to poor communication among them (Baldwin-Edwards, 2005), are only two of the factors that make it difficult to provide an exact number for migrants in Greece. Concentrated efforts have been made to provide estimates for the number of migrants in Greece using information on the flows of migrants and the legalisations exercises (for example, see Tsimpos, 2001 or Baldwin-Edwards, 2005). Labrianidis et al (2004: 5) arrive at an 'estimate of the total stock of resident migrants between 800,000 and 1 million' for they year 2001. The following quotation is taken from another source attempting to provide a number for the total population of immigrants in Greece:

Although there are no completely reliable data sources about the exact number of foreigners in Greece, many calculations converge on a figure between 600, 000 and 800, 000 people. However, according to an estimation mentioned in the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) 2000 report on migration trends, the true number of foreign residents in the country is likely to be between 800, 000 and 1 million, that is to say nearly 10% of Greece's population (OECD 2000). The Labour Institute of the Greek Workers' Confederation estimates the proportion of foreign workers to be 9% of the total labour force (Linardos – Rulmon, 1993). Finally, the 2001 census puts the number of the *de facto* foreign population in Greece at 798, 000. Of them, around two-thirds are from neighbouring Albania. Given that both the OECD and census figures are now several years

old, and it is likely that immigration to Greece has continued during the 2000s, the current total of immigrants in Greece may yet be higher.

Gogonas, 2010: 2

### Thessaloniki

Thessaloniki “lies on the northern fringe of the Thermaic Gulf on its eastern coast and is bound by Mount Chortiatis on its southeast”<sup>20</sup> and is located approximately 500 kilometres north of Athens. Thessaloniki has a history of over 2000 years; it was founded in 315 BC by Cassander, King of Macedonia who gave the city his wife’s name ‘Thessaloniki’. Thessaloniki was the daughter of King Phillip II and the sister of Alexander the Great (Skabardonis et al, 2004: 13).

Thessaloniki is Greece’s second major economic, industrial, commercial and political centre, and a major transportation hub for the rest of southeastern Europe; its commercial port, the Port of Thessaloniki, is one of the largest ports in the Aegean Sea and functions as a major gateway to the Balkan hinterland. Air traffic to and from the city is served by ‘Macedonia International Airport’ for international and domestic flights. The annual ‘Thessaloniki International Trade Fair’ takes place at the Thessaloniki International Exhibition Centre every September and dates back to 1926; it is inaugurated by the Prime Minister of Greece and attended by more than 300,000 visitors every year. Among other famous events and festivals that are hosted in Thessaloniki is the ‘Thessaloniki International Film Festival’, which is established as one of the most important film festivals in Southern Europe; it began in 1960 and has now become an annual celebration; interviews, parties and, of course, film screenings all take place in the waterfront warehouses that have now become the Festival’s permanent home (Skabardonis, 2004: 72). The ‘International Book Fair’ which takes

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<sup>20</sup> <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Thessaloniki> accessed on 01.08.2007.



place every May near the city's waterfront is also worth mentioning.<sup>21</sup> The city also hosted some of the 2004 Olympic football games.<sup>22</sup> Thessaloniki is regarded as the cultural and educational centre of northern Greece and not only; it became Europe's Cultural Capital for the year 1997 (Skabardonis, 2004: 11). Thessaloniki hosts the headquarters of many important European and International Institutions, for example, that of the 'European Agency for Reconstruction' and the 'European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training' (CEDEFOP). 'Aristotle University' is the largest university in Greece and is located in Thessaloniki; it was ranked as one of the 150 best universities in the world for Arts and Humanities and among the 250 best universities in the world overall by the Times QS World University Rankings, making it one of the top 2% of best universities worldwide<sup>23</sup>. There are also the 'University of Macedonia', the 'Open University of Thessaloniki' and the 'Technological Education Institute' (TEI).

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<sup>21</sup>[http://www.visitgreece.gr/portal/site/menuitem/f641d577e1bafc0ace49610451000a0/?vgnextoid=39a72e36f098c110VgnVCM100000460014acRCRD&lang\\_choosen=enThessaloniki](http://www.visitgreece.gr/portal/site/menuitem/f641d577e1bafc0ace49610451000a0/?vgnextoid=39a72e36f098c110VgnVCM100000460014acRCRD&lang_choosen=enThessaloniki) accessed on 01.08.2007.

<sup>22</sup> <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Thessaloniki> accessed on 01.08.2007.

<sup>23</sup> Same as footnote above.

## Appendix 3.2 ‘English Language Teaching & Learning in Greece’

### ELT in state schools versus ELT in private language schools

#### 3) *Problematic Situation for ELT in state schools*

In state schools there are usually 20-30 students in class whereas in frontistiria there are typically 5-10 students in each class. Doukakis (2005: 30) wonders: ‘Is it possible for the teachers to educate efficiently 20-25 students in 45 minute sessions?’ Learners of English are allocated to a class according to their level on the basis of a placement test that they take at the beginning of each academic year. There is no such test for primary state schools. Doukakis (2005) describes this matter very eloquently in a paper entitled ‘Teaching English in Primary State Schools’:

The most important problem that teachers of English face.. is that they are obliged to deal with students of different levels that co-exist in the same grade. I do not think that there is anyone who believes that in the 6<sup>th</sup> year of the primary school for example all the pupils are on the same level. I am not referring to slight variations of levels; I am referring to students who are preparing to sit the FCE exam and to students who are totally illiterate as far as English is concerned. What is surprising is that all of them are in the same classroom. The crux of the problem is that most of the children are not having the same years of learning English at school only but also at the foreign language centers so it is inevitable that they are not students of the same level.

Doukakis, 2005: 30

Nevertheless, there is a placement test that is administered to students at the beginning of junior high school; however, this test is not sufficient as it does not cater for a variety of levels; students are divided in only two levels ‘beginners’ and ‘advanced’. The problematic situation for EFL in State Schools and the working conditions under which state school EFL teachers have to operate is always addressed at the annual convention of the Panhellenic Association of State School Teachers of English (PEKADE). Thousands of EFL state schoolteachers participate in the convention and views such as the following are often expressed:

The existence of frontistiria, that offer jobs to thousands of EFL teachers, and the attitudes of the parents (who complain that their children do not learn foreign languages in state schools) provide a negative picture of EFL state school teachers. On top of that we have the poor working conditions in state schools where infrastructure, supplementary materials and libraries do not exist.

Papadakis, 2001 cited in Thompson, 2001: 12

Furthermore, there is the issue of the school's children's negligence to do their homework: 'children equivocally say that they have done their homework for frontistiria and not for school' (Matsouka, 2001 cited in Thompson, 2001: 12). Great problems have also emerged from 'the influx of minority groups coming from the ex-Soviet Union and Albania' (Triantafyllidou, 2001 cited in Thomspson, 2001: 12) as those students' knowledge of English is particularly limited because many of them have not been taught English at their home countries; nevertheless, due to the lack of appropriate placement tests they find themselves in big crowded classes that lack homogeneity due to the presence of many different levels of English. Finally, there's the issue of EFL teachers' evaluation; Savvopoulos (2001) asks whether or not there will be provision and legislative settlement for the increase of the number of school advisers and wonders: 'otherwise, how could ten or twelve EFL school advisers assess five thousand EFL teachers? Isn't it a mission impossible?' (cited in Thomspson, 2001: 12). Rigas (1998) investigated the apparent dissatisfaction that exists with regard to the quality of ELT in lower secondary Greek state schools and arrived at the following conclusions:

The research findings indicate that in the Greek state schools, the socio-emotional atmosphere, aspects of classroom management and role relationships work against the teaching-learning process. Also, the structure and content of the lesson plans as well as the degree of exploitation of the target language appear to be inflexible and uninspiring. Moreover, it was found that the participants' attitudes towards the English lessons and their own evaluation of ELT in state secondary schools is generally negative. The state of ELT in Greek state schools appears to have been influenced by historical and socio-political factors which bear upon the Greek education system as a whole. It is maintained that a constellation of factors are responsible for the ELT situation in Greek state classrooms, including educational

development and tradition; problems of accountability; the place of ELT in Greek society; the status of English in the curriculum; the problems of ELT curriculum implementation; inadequate teacher training; pessimistic teacher attitudes and low pupil expectations.

Rigas, 1998

The reader may notice that the references concerning the situation of ELT in state schools are approximately 10 years old. Unfortunately, the situation still remains the same. For example, at a more recent PEKADE convention (2008) the same issues were discussed; Evanthia Tsiouri, an ELT State School advisor for Athens, drew attention to problems such the lack of teacher's book, cassettes and other teaching materials for the coursebook currently used. TEE students' indifference or lack of motivation towards English was also noted<sup>24</sup>. An interesting conference entitled 'Learning English in the Greek State School: Utopia or Reality?' was held in Athens in May, 2007. As part of the conference, Ms Lygerou-Tziantzi, Chair of the Confederation of Parents, claimed the following:

The State School does not promote knowledge of the Greek language, let alone English. It pushes parents and students to spend money and embark on an incessant chase of certificates through private language schools (frontisteria). Streaming in Gymnasium has not provided solutions, nor has the introduction of EFL teaching in the 3<sup>rd</sup> grade Primary School.

Lygerou-Tziantzi, 2007

Lygerou-Tziantzi (2007) asked for more EFL teaching hours, new and provided-free books, smaller classes, language exams within the state school context and well trained teachers<sup>25</sup>. It seems that the situation is not likely to change in the foreseeable future.

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<sup>24</sup> Information obtained from *ELT News*, January 2008.

<sup>25</sup> Information obtained from *ELT News*, July-August, 2007.

### Appendix 3.3 ‘The Research Sample’

#### Teachers

##### *Detailed analysis of types of qualifications possessed*

Table 1 demonstrates that the majority of all teachers (63.8%) held a Certificate of Proficiency in English; i.e. the CPE or ECPE. It is interesting to note that while 44.7% of those teachers possessed a Certificate of Proficiency in English in addition to other qualifications they held, 19.1% recorded this certificate as their only qualification for TEFL.

**Table 1**  
**Teachers’ qualifications (‘proficiency in English’)**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid <b>Only Proficiency</b> (no other qualifications)	9	19,1	19,1	19,1
<b>Yes</b> (had Proficiency along with other qualifications)	21	44,7	44,7	63,8
<b>No</b> (had other qualifications instead of Proficiency)	17	36,2	36,2	100,0
Total	47	100,0	100,0	

Table 2 shows that the majority of teachers (70.2%) held an undergraduate degree (BA or BSc); 60.6% of those teachers possessed a BA/BSc that belonged to the ‘teaching-related’ English language qualifications category whereas 39.4% possessed a BA/ BSc that belonged to the ‘non-teaching-related’ English language qualifications category.

**Table 2**  
**Teachers' qualifications (BA/ BSc)**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 'Teaching-related' BA/ BSc	20	42,6	60,6	60,6
'Non-teaching-related' BA/ BSc	13	27,7	39,4	100,0
Total	33	70,2	100,0	
Missing <sup>26</sup> System	14	29,8		
Total	47	100,0		

Table 3 shows that the majority of the teachers (56.7%) who held an undergraduate degree had obtained it from a Greek University; a finding that was expected since the research has taken place in Greece and the majority of the research participants were Greek/ had Greek as an L1.

**Table 3**  
**Teachers' qualifications (BA/ BSc) – location of institutions**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Greek University	17	36,2	56,7	56,7
British University	4	8,5	13,3	70,0
American University	6	12,8	20,0	90,0
University in other English-speaking country (Australia)	2	4,3	6,7	96,7
University in other non-English speaking country (Romania)	1	2,1	3,3	100,0
Total	30	63,8	100,0	
Missing <sup>27</sup> System	17	36,2		
Total	47	100,0		

<sup>26</sup> 'Missing' denotes those teachers that did not hold a BA (29.8% of all teachers).

<sup>27</sup> 'Missing' here includes those teachers that did not hold a BA as well as those that held a BA but gave no response as to where they obtained their BA.

Table 4 shows that 19.1% of all teachers possessed a postgraduate degree: 55.6% of those teachers had an MA or MSc that belonged to the ‘teaching-related’ English language qualifications category and 44.4% had an MA or MSc that belonged to the ‘non-teaching-related’ English language qualifications category. Table 5 shows that the majority of those teachers (77.8%) had obtained their MA/MSc from a British University; a finding that demonstrates a trend among those teachers of English in Greece that possess a postgraduate degree to spend one or two years in the United Kingdom in order to study for a postgraduate degree.

**Table 4**  
**Teachers’ qualifications (MA/ MSc)**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	‘Teaching-related’ MA/ MSc	5	10,6	55,6	55,6
	‘Non-teaching-related’ MA/ MSc	4	8,5	44,4	100,0
	Total	9	19,1	100,0	
Missing	System	38	80,9		
Total		47	100,0		

**Table 5**  
**Teachers’ qualifications (MA/ MSc) – location of institutions**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Greek University	1	2,1	11,1	11,1
	British University	6	12,8	66,7	77,8
	University in other Non-English speaking country (Spain, Poland)	2	4,3	22,2	100,0
	Total	9	19,1	100,0	
Missing	System	38	80,9		
Total		47	100,0		

As far as other academic and/or professional qualifications that were not covered by the categories above are concerned, Table 6 shows that 19.1% of all teachers possessed ‘other teaching-related certificates/ diplomas’ and a further 4.3% possessed ‘other non-teaching-related certificates/ diplomas’.

**Table 6**  
**Teachers’ qualifications (other certificates/ diplomas)**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Other ‘teaching-related’ (diploma in TEFL)	9	19,1	81,8	81,8
	Other ‘non-teaching-related’ (e.g. Diploma in Information Technology)	2	4,3	18,2	100,0
	Total	11	23,4	100,0	
Missing	System <sup>28</sup>	36	76,6		
Total		47	100,0		

<sup>28</sup> ‘Missing’ here denotes the teachers whose qualifications have been covered by previous categories i.e. those who possessed a postgraduate degree.



## Section 3.2 ‘Research Instrument’

### Appendix 3.4 ‘Questionnaire Development’

#### Box 1

#### The chronological sequence followed in designing the questionnaire

*September 2007*

Two meetings take place between the researcher and the principal research supervisor to decide on the issues to be addressed by the questionnaire.

*October 2007*

The researcher

- searches for published studies that have used questionnaires to explore similar topics
- consults methodological handbooks on questionnaire construction and processing to familiarise herself with the theory of questionnaire design and processing (e.g. the procedures to be followed to strengthen the reliability and validity of questionnaire items)

*November 2007*

- A complete first draft of the Teachers’ Questionnaire as well as a complete first draft of the Learners’ Questionnaire are produced and, then, revised according to the principal supervisor’s suggestions.
- The revised second draft of the Teachers’ Questionnaire is pilot-tested with 5 EFL teachers in Thessaloniki, Greece. The results of the pilot are discussed with both members of the supervisory team and the questionnaire is revised accordingly.

*December 2007*

- Discussions with principal supervisor regarding the structure and contents of the Teachers’ and Learners’ Questionnaires result in further revisions.
- The Learners’ Questionnaire is translated into Greek, pilot-tested with 7 EFL learners in Thessaloniki, Greece and revised accordingly.

*January 2008*

- Consultation with lecturer in statistics leads to minor changes in terms of the content of the questionnaire.
- The revised versions of the Teachers’ and Learners’ Questionnaires are again pilot-tested with 4 EFL teachers and 5 EFL learners of English in Thessaloniki, Greece respectively.
- The final versions of the Teachers’ and Learners’ Questionnaires are checked by both members of the supervisory team.

*February 2008*

The questionnaires are tested again at the final pilot study which takes place in two language schools in Thessaloniki, Greece. Only minor modifications are made.

### Appendix 3.5 ‘Questionnaire Content’

As the reader can see (and as it has been mentioned previously in the thesis) there is a correspondence between the themes of ELT & AL handbooks and those of ELT PRON handbooks.

#### Box 1

#### The themes that emerged from the review of ELT, AL & ELT PRON handbooks

*Theme 1*

The Place & Role of Phonology in L2 Listening

*Theme 2*

Accents of English & Listening Comprehension

*Theme 3*

The Place of Pronunciation in L2 Speaking

*Theme 4*

Pronunciation & Intelligibility

*Theme 5 (also, Theme 2 of ELT PRON manuals)*

Phonological Perception & Production

*Theme 6 (also, Theme 3 of ELT PRON manuals)*

Suprasegmentals versus Segmentals

*Theme 7*

Pronunciation models & performance targets

*Theme 8 (also, Theme 11 of ELT PRON manuals)*

Pronunciation Syllabus & Teaching/ Learning Needs

*Theme 9 (also, Theme 1 & Theme 5 of ELT PRON manuals)*

Phonological Knowledge & IPA Symbols

*Theme 10 (also, Themes 6, 7, 8, 9, 10 of ELT PRON manuals)*

Pronunciation Teaching Methods & Activities

*Theme 11*

The Relationship between Language Teaching Method & the Role of Pronunciation in the Curriculum

### Appendix 3.6 ‘Questionnaire Content’

#### Alignment Check

The alignment procedure that was followed involved the creation of a matrix in which the themes to be addressed occupied one dimension and the questionnaire topics the other. The researcher went through each theme and checked which one of the topics addressed this theme (Figure 1). Additional alignment checks were conducted following the revision of each questionnaire draft. These involved cross-referencing all questionnaire items with the 11 themes in order to ensure that the questionnaire was exhaustive in its coverage of the relevant issues. The continuous focus on the themes/issues to be addressed helped the researcher avoid any extraneous items.

**Figure 1**  
**First Alignment Check (cross-referencing the 9 proposed questionnaire topics with the 11 themes)**

	Themes										
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Topic I								×			
Topic II											×
Topic III								×			
Topic IV			×	×							
Topic V	×	×									
Topic VI							×				
Topic VII							×				
Topic VIII	×					×			×	×	
Topic IX									×		

**Appendix 3.7 ‘Teachers’ Questionnaire’**

*Questionnaire for Teachers of English*

**I. LANGUAGE AREAS**

**1 a) If there was extra time for teaching English, would you give your students more practice/ activities in the area of ...**

*Please tick one box only*

- grammar/ syntax
- vocabulary
- pronunciation
- other (*please specify*):.....

**b) Please give a brief reason for your answer:**

.....

**2. How difficult do you think are the following for students of English to learn?**

*Please tick one box for each item using the scale 1-5 (1= extremely difficult; 5= not at all difficult)*

	1	2	3	4	5
grammar/ syntax					
vocabulary					
pronunciation					

**II. TEACHING METHODS**

**Which teaching method(s) do you mostly use?**

*Please tick all those that apply*

- Communicative Language Teaching
- Audio-lingual
- Grammar-Translation
- Direct Method
- Other/s (*please specify*): .....

### III. CONTEXTS OF USE OF ENGLISH OUTSIDE THE CLASSROOM

**In which situations, in your opinion, are your students more likely to use their knowledge of English in the future (after they leave the frontistirio)?**

*Please tick all those that apply.*

- when travelling for leisure or work in different countries around the world
- for a better chance of employment & financial reward in the job market in Greece and, generally, at work
- for studies at a university in an English-speaking country
- use of internet & computers
- other (*please specify*): .....

### IV. SPEAKING ABILITY

**1. How important do you feel are the following elements in teaching your students to speak in English?**

*Please tick one box for each item using the scale 1-5 (1= extremely important; 5= not at all important)*

	1	2	3	4	5
grammar/ syntax					
vocabulary					
pronunciation					

**2. In your opinion, how important are the following when your students speak in English so that other learners of English can understand them?**

*Please tick one box for each item using the scale 1-5 (1= extremely important; 5= not at all important)*

	1	2	3	4	5
appropriate use of grammar/ syntax					
appropriate use of vocabulary					
good level of pronunciation					

**3. When conversing in English, learners of English may not understand each other. In your opinion, how often are the following responsible?**

*Please tick one box for each item using the scale 1-5 (1= always; 5= never)*

	1	2	3	4	5
grammar/ syntax					
vocabulary					
pronunciation					

**V. LISTENING COMPREHENSION**

**1. How important do you feel are the following for your students to be able to understand in a listening activity?**

*Please tick one box for each item using the scale 1-5 (1= extremely important; 5= not at all important)*

	1	2	3	4	5
knowledge of grammar/ syntax					
knowledge of vocabulary					
knowledge of pronunciation					

**2. How important do you think it is for the students to hear a variety of accents of English through the listening material of the course?**

*Please tick one box for each item using the scale 1-5 (1= extremely important; 5= not at all important)*

	1	2	3	4	5
native speakers of a standard British variety e.g. Received Pronunciation (= Standard South-of-England/ BBC English)					
native speakers of a standard American variety e.g. General American					
native speakers of standard regional varieties of English e.g. Scottish, Northern					
native speakers of non-standard regional varieties of English e.g. Cockney (= 'working class' London)					
non-native (e.g. Italian, Bulgarian) but fluent speakers of English					

**3. How often do you use any of the following as part of the listening element of the course?**

*Please tick one box for each item using the scale 1-5 (1= always; 5= never)*

	1	2	3	4	5
conversations among native speakers of standard British varieties of English					
conversations among native speakers of standard American varieties of English					
conversations among native speakers of standard regional varieties of English					
conversations among native speakers of non-standard regional varieties of English					
conversations among native speakers and non-native (but fluent) speakers of English					
conversations among non-native (but fluent) speakers of English					

**VI. PRONUNCIATION AREAS**

**How important do you think are the following areas for comprehension**

**(=understanding spoken English) and production (= speaking English)?**

*Please tick one box for each item using the scale 1-5 (1= extremely important; 5= not at all important)*

	1	2	3	4	5
vowels					
consonants					
sounds in connected speech					
stress					
intonation					

**VII. PRONUNCIATION MODELS & PERFORMANCE TARGETS**

**1. Which pronunciation model do you follow in your teaching?**

*Please tick all those that apply*

- British English standard accent
- American English standard accent
- Other (*please specify*): .....

**2 a) Ideally, how close would you like your students' accent to come to a native-like model?**

*Please tick one box only using the scale 1-5 (1= extremely close; 5= not at all close)*

- 1                       2                       3                       4                       5

**b) In practice, how close do you expect your students' accent to come to a native-like model?**

*Please tick one box only using the scale 1-5 (1= extremely close; 5= not at all close)*

- 1                       2                       3                       4                       5

**3 a) Which is more important, in your opinion?**

**To raise students' pronunciation to...** *(please tick one box only)*

- the level of native speakers so that people will think they are native speakers
- to a level at which native and non-native speakers can understand them perfectly well, although they still have the accent of their country

**b) Please give a brief reason for your answer**

.....



### VIII. PRONUNCIATION TEACHING

Please tell us **how often** you use/ do any of the following as part of the English language lesson.

*Please tick one box for each item using the scale 1-5 (1= always; 5= never)*

	1	2	3	4	5
pronunciation practice just before/ as part of/ after 'speaking' activities					
listening to authentic spoken English = real (tape or video recorded) conversations among speakers instead of scripted ones (e.g. British/ American radio or TV)					
modern computer technology (pronunciation software programs)					
pronunciation practice in the language laboratory					
ear-training (discrimination) exercises between similar-sounding phonemes etc.					
production/ articulation exercises (i.e. 'reading aloud' activities, drilling & imitation exercises)					
individual responses from each learner in class					
choral responses from all learners in class together					
teaching the symbols of the international phonetic alphabet to the students					
teaching the phonological rules of English (i.e. stress placement rules, spelling to sound rules) to the students					

### PROFILE

Finally, in order to help us to better interpret and classify your answers, could you please tell us a little bit about you & your language teaching background?

a. Age: .... years old

b. Sex:  Male  Female

c. How long have you been teaching English? .... years

**d. What professional/ academic qualifications do you have?***Please tick all those that apply*

- Proficiency in English (Michigan or Cambridge University)
- BA (University Degree) in *(which subject)*.....  
awarded by *(please tell us which university)*.....
- MA (Masters) in *(which subject)* .....  
awarded by *(please tell us which university)*.....
- Other (i.e. Certificate/ Diploma - *please specify*) .....

**e. What level of students do you teach at this frontistirio?***Please tick all those that apply*

- |  |  |
|--|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> False Beginners/ Beginners      | <input type="checkbox"/> Elementary (A + B senior) |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Pre-Intermediate (C class)      | <input type="checkbox"/> Intermediate (D class)    |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Upper-Intermediate (pre- Lower) | <input type="checkbox"/> Lower                     |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Advanced                        | <input type="checkbox"/> Proficiency               |

**1. Is English your first language?***If you tick 'no', go to question 2 and then to question 4. If you tick 'yes', go to question 3.*

- No, my first language is  Greek  
 Other *(please specify)*.....
- Yes, English is my first language

**2. Have you ever lived in an English speaking country?***(Reminder: this question is only for those that do not have English as their first language)*

- No
- Yes            which country? ..... which city?.....  
   how long for? ..... and, for what reason? .....

**3. When you speak English, what accent would you say you have?***(Reminder: this question is only for those that have English as their first language)*

- A standard one *(please specify)*.....
- A regionally influenced one *(please specify)* .....

**4 a) Have you done a course/ module in English phonetics as part of a University Degree?**

- No  Yes

*(If you've ticked 'no', please go to question 5.)*

**b) How useful was it in preparing you for the teaching of pronunciation in the English language classroom?**

*Please tick one box only using the scale 1-5 (1= extremely useful; 5= not at all useful)*

- 1  2  3  4  5

**5 a) Have you received any specific training (i.e. at a teachers' training course) in the teaching of English pronunciation?**

- No  
 Yes. Where? *(please give details)*.....

**b) How useful did you find it in your teaching of pronunciation in the English language classroom?**

*Please tick one box only using the scale 1-5 (1= extremely useful; 5= not at all useful)*

- 1  2  3  4  5

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION!

### **Appendix 3.8 ‘Questionnaire Content’**

Let us now take a closer look at the sections that comprised the final version of the teachers’ questionnaire (the questionnaire that was used in the main study).

#### I. Language areas

Question 1 (Q1) is an introductory, general question which may introduce a new dimension in our quest to determine teachers’ priorities as far as areas of language knowledge are concerned. The rationale for the inclusion of this question is discussed in Section 3.2.3 ‘Questionnaire Design’, this Chapter. Q2 examines which areas of language knowledge present the greatest challenge for the learners and, as such, it also touches upon *theme 8* (see Appendix 3.4 for a list of all themes).

#### II. Teaching methods

The question of this section is directly related to *theme 11*; it represents an attempt to make sense of the teachers’ viewpoints regarding the role and practice of pronunciation teaching – as recorded in their answers to several questionnaire items – through their choice of language teaching method.

#### III. Contexts of use of English outside the classroom

The question in this section addresses *theme 8*, albeit indirectly. Teachers are asked to identify situations in which they expect their learners to use English in the future. Their responses will not only be compared with those of the learners (to see if any discrepancies exist) but will also be used to examine the extent to which their chosen pronunciation models and pronunciation performance target are appropriate (how they relate to the learners’ purposes for learning English and the learners’ perceived needs).

#### IV. Speaking ability

Q1 addresses *theme 3* as its aim is to discover the relative degree of importance that the teachers attach to pronunciation in terms of the development of students' speaking skills. Q2 and Q3 deal with *theme 4* as they seek to establish the extent to which the teachers are aware of the important role of pronunciation as far as the intelligibility of EFL learners' oral discourse is concerned.

#### V. Listening comprehension

Q1 addresses *theme 1* as the teachers are asked to indicate the importance of pronunciation in comparison to other areas of language knowledge in the context of listening comprehension. Q2 and Q3 refer to *theme 2*; Q2 explores the extent to which the teachers are aware of the need to expose learners to various accents of English and the Q3 the extent to which such an exposure takes place in the language classroom.

#### VI. Pronunciation areas

This question relates to *theme 6* since teachers are asked to identify the pronunciation features that play the greatest role in the comprehensibility of spoken English.

#### VII. Pronunciation models and performance targets

This set of questions is based on *theme 7*; teachers are first asked to identify the pronunciation models they use and then appropriate pronunciation performance targets.

#### VIII. Pronunciation teaching

This is based on *theme 10* (teachers are asked to indicate, in terms of frequency, the techniques they use for the practice of pronunciation in the language classroom). Nevertheless, it is a fusion of themes as it includes many of the themes that emerged from the review of ELT PRON manuals, for example, it covers *theme 6* (ear-training/

recognition activities as well as production activities) and *theme 5* (teaching the IPA symbols).

### IX. Profile

Questions a – e are designed to gather information on the following areas: the respondents' age, sex, years of English language teaching experience, professional and academic qualifications and level of students taught. This information will be used to examine whether any differences in teachers' responses to previous questions can be attributed to, for example, teachers' belonging to different age groups. Answers to questions 1 – 3 will provide the researcher with additional information regarding the respondents (whether or not they are NSs of English) and may help explain their choice of pronunciation models in section VII.

The remaining two questions explore teachers' experiences in terms of pronunciation teacher training. They relate to *theme 9* as the rationale is to discover whether or not the teachers' have acquired phonological knowledge and have received training in the teaching of pronunciation. To this end, Q4 asks teachers if they have done a course in English phonetics and how useful they have found it for the purposes of teaching English. Q 5 asks teachers if they have undergone any training specifically in the teaching of English pronunciation and how useful they have found it for the practical application in the classroom. Answers that teachers will give to these two questions may shed light on answers given to previous sections, for example, the reported use of pronunciation teaching techniques.

## **Appendix 3.9 ‘The Questions’**

### Using existing questions

Using questions that have been employed by other researchers can have several advantages; for example, these questions are likely to have been piloted and, thus, will be ready to use. Furthermore, they will enable the researcher to draw comparisons between the responses in his or her study and those gained previously to show whether place or time has made a difference to findings (Gorard, 2003: 102; Bryman, 2004: 160). Unfortunately, the quest for identifying good quality questions from previously published questionnaires and using them for at least part of the questionnaire of this study was not very fruitful. Despite the perseverance of the researcher, the process of finding and using such questions was severely challenged a) because some of the topics under investigation had not been explored before (at least, not as part of surveys that employed questionnaires), and, b) by the lack of established questionnaires that have been through extensive piloting (and have been subjected to reliability and validity tests) in the field of second language acquisition<sup>29</sup>. Nevertheless, “examining questions used by others might give you some ideas about how best to approach your own questions, even if you decide not to make use of them as they stand” (Bryman, 2004: 160).

### Types of questions

#### *Closed questions*

According to Cohen et al (2007: 320), “the larger the size of the sample, the more structured, closed and numerical the questionnaire may have to be”. Since the number

---

<sup>29</sup> Donryei (2003) describes and explains this phenomenon in the methodological handbook *Questionnaires in Second Language Research*.

of completed questionnaires for this study was going to be a large one, it made sense to choose the closed format for most questions: the response options of closed questions are predetermined and, thus, their processing is quicker and easier compared to that of open questions. Indeed, it is a relatively simple task for the answers to closed questions to be coded numerically and to be entered into an electronic database so that they can be analysed statistically. As for their coding and tabulation, it “is straightforward and leaves no room for rater subjectivity” (Dornyei, 2003: 35). Furthermore, closed questions would allow for direct comparisons to be made between teachers’ and learners’ responses.

### *Open questions*

We need to recognise that the information gathered by open questions “is more likely to reflect the full richness and complexity of the views held by the respondent” (Denscombe, 2003: 156). As Cohen et al (2007: 330) put it: “an open-ended question can catch the authenticity, richness, depth of response, honesty and candour which... are the hallmarks of qualitative data”. Furthermore, “open responses can offer graphic examples, illustrative quotes, and can also lead us to identify issues not previously anticipated” (Dornyei, 2003: 47).

### Question guidelines & principles

#### *Content validity*

Another procedure that was followed by the researcher in order to establish the content validity of the questionnaire for this study was to ask the research supervisor, who is a specialist in the area of pronunciation and ELT, to review the questionnaire. According to Cox (1996: 35), “specialists can offer suggestions regarding additions or



deletions to enhance the content validity of the instrument”. Let us take a concrete example in order to illustrate this: the categories of speakers with different accents in Q2 (‘Listening Comprehension’ section, Appendix 3.7). Box 1 shows the list of categories of speakers with different accents that appeared in an earlier version of the Teachers’ Questionnaire. The supervisor pointed out that a distinction must be drawn between standard and non-standard regional varieties<sup>30</sup>. The list of categories was modified according to the supervisor’s suggestion and the revised list appears in Box 2.

**Box 1**

**Categories of speakers with different accents (earlier version) for Q2, ‘Listening Comprehension’ Section, Teachers’ Questionnaire**

- 1) native speakers of a standard British variety e.g. Received Pronunciation
- 2) native speakers of a standard American variety e.g. General American
- 3) *native speakers of different regional varieties of English e.g. Scottish, Cockney*  
(= ‘working class London’)
- 4) non-native (e.g. Italian, Bulgarian) but fluent speakers of English

**Box 2**

**Categories of speakers with different accents (final version) for Q2, ‘Listening Comprehension’ Section, Teachers’ Questionnaire**

- 1) native speakers of a standard British variety e.g. Received Pronunciation
- 2) native speakers of a standard American variety e.g. General American
- 3) *native speakers of standard regional varieties of English e.g. Scottish, Northern*
- 4) *native speakers of non-standard regional varieties of English e.g. Cockney*  
(= ‘working class’ London)
- 5) non-native (e.g. Italian, Bulgarian) but fluent speakers of English

<sup>30</sup> Tench, P. (tenchp@cardiff.ac.uk) 08.11.2008. *Teacher and Student Questionnaires*. Personal e-mail to Kanellou, V. (vikanellou@yahoo.com)

A further technique for ensuring that a list of response categories is exhaustive, comprehensive and representative is to use an open-ended question in order to generate these categories (Cohen et al, 2007; Bryman, 2004; Gillham, 2000). Thus, in an attempt to ascertain the contexts into which the learners of our study would be more likely to use their knowledge of English, an open question was included in the questionnaire used for the final pilot study. The answers provided to this question were grouped into appropriate categories by means of content analysis and, thus, the initial open question was transformed into a closed question for the questionnaire used in the main study.

### *Reliability*

The question displayed in Box 1 which appears in the final version of the Teachers' Questionnaire, also appeared in an earlier version of the Learners' Questionnaire. However, during the piloting process it emerged that the learners were unable to answer the particular question appropriately because it was irrelevant to them and they lacked the knowledge to do so; one of the learners asked for a definition of the term 'intonation' and it was revealed that the rest of the learners had also encountered difficulties in their attempt to understand the meaning of terms such as 'sounds in connected speech' and so on. It was concluded that the particular question would produce unreliable measures and was, thus, removed from the final version of the Learners' Questionnaire. It is interesting to note that a similarly phrased question appeared in the Learners' Questionnaire of Cenoz & Lecumberri's (1999) study on learners' views on the acquisition of English Pronunciation. Nevertheless, the participants of that study were all 'English Studies' university students and, thus, they were in the position to answer the particular question appropriately.

**Box 1****Teachers' Questionnaire ('Pronunciation Areas' Section, Appendix 3.6)**

**How important do you think are the following areas for comprehension**

**(=understanding spoken English) and production (= speaking English)?**

*Please tick one box for each item using the scale 1-5 (1= extremely important; 5= not at all important)*

	1	2	3	4	5
vowels					
consonants					
sounds in connected speech					
stress					
intonation					

*Validity*

In writing the questions for the questionnaire of this study, the following rules were adhered to:

1) *Leading questions must be avoided* (Cohen et al, 2007; Bryman, 2004; Denscombe, 2003; Cox, 1996; Smith, 1988). That is, questions that are worded (or their response categories presented) in such a way as to suggest to respondents that there is only one acceptable answer, and that other responses might or might not gain approval or disapproval respectively (Cohen et al, 2007: 334). Of course, as Cox (1996: 36) puts it: “we will never know for certain, but we can guard against respondents giving socially desirable responses by carefully wording the items”. In order to ensure that the items on the questionnaire of this study contained no pejorative terms, the questionnaire was checked carefully several times.

2) *Questions must be simple and brief* (Bryman, 2004; Dornyei, 2003; Denscombe, 2003; Smith; 1988). According to Dornyei (2003), “questionnaire items should be

short, rarely exceeding 20 words. They should preferably be written in simple sentences rather than compound or complex sentences, and each should contain only one complete thought” (: 52-53). Indeed, long and complicated questions may make it difficult for the respondent to decipher the meaning of a question and may cause unnecessary confusion. According to Cox (1996), complex response formats, vague phrases and words that the respondents do not understand severely reduce the likelihood of obtaining accurate information severely (: 35).

3) *Double-barrelled questions must be avoided* (Bryman, 2004; Cox, 1996; Babbie, 1991; Smith, 1988). These are the ones that ask for a single response to two or more questions. “Double-barrelled questions produce uninterpretable responses and have no place in well-constructed questionnaires” (Smith, 1988: 227).

### Appendix 3.10 ‘Questionnaire Design’

#### Layout order of questionnaire items

Cox (1996: 24) provides a further reason for placing this section [the ‘Profile’ section which included factual questions) at the end of the questionnaire: “I prefer that the content of the questionnaire be completed before the respondent places himself or herself into particular categories”. This view was also taken into consideration in placing the ‘Profile’ section at the end.

At this point it is essential to note that “questions asked at an earlier point in the questionnaire can affect the answers supplied at a later stage” (Denscombe, 2003: 154). The problem of how sensitive people’s responses can be to the precise ordering of questionnaire items is also addressed in other methodological handbooks (Cohen et al, 2007; Dornyei, 2003; Smith, 1988) and a possible solution is offered by Gorard (2003):

Other than being aware of the problem, the best defence may be to use more than one version of your questionnaire with differing question orders. You can then allocate these versions randomly to your sample and analyse their responses in terms of the sub-groups faced with each version. If there is no obvious difference in the response patterns between groups then you can report with some conviction that order has been eliminated as a possible confounding variable in your results. If there *is* a difference between responses to different versions, then at least you can use this difference as an estimate of the size and direction of the bias.

Gorard, 2003: 99

However, Gorard’s (2003) recommended procedure could not be applied in the case of our study because the layout order of the questionnaire topics was rather rigid; all ‘pronunciation-specific’ sections needed to be placed after the more general sections dealing with listening and speaking skills to avoid biasing people’s responses. For instance, if the ‘Pronunciation Teaching’ or ‘Pronunciation Areas’ section had preceded the ‘Speaking Ability’ section, the role of pronunciation in the development

of learners' speaking skills may have been viewed more favourably than that of the other language areas for that reason alone.

#### Questionnaire layout

As a general rule for the layout to be attractive and inviting, the questionnaire should be spread out and uncluttered (Babbie, 1991: 135). On the other hand, if questions are cramped together, the task of the respondents becomes more difficult and may even result in certain questions being skipped. The key to an uncluttered look is to have plenty of space for the questions (Gillham, 2000a: 39). Thus, for this study, a larger questionnaire with plenty of space for and between questions was chosen over a compressed layout, where all items would have been crowded together.

Moreover, no question was split between two pages. If a question is split in such a way that it appears on two separate pages, the respondent may provide an answer in the wrong group of closed answers (Bryman, 2004: 140). Thus, even though there was some space left at the bottom of page 5 in the Teachers' Questionnaire, the 'Pronunciation Teaching' section/ question appeared on page 6 (see Appendix 3.7, Teachers' Questionnaire).

Finally, the appearance of the questionnaire was further enhanced by the use of a normal-sized reading font (11-point Times New Roman) and the fact that a different typeface was used for questions and instructions; questions were printed in bold and instructions in italics. Varying between capitals, bold, underlining or italics is effective because it creates a layout that is easy on the eye (Bryman, 2004; Gorard, 2003).

### Appendix 3.11 'Learners' Questionnaire' (English Version)

## *Questionnaire for Learners of English*

### I. LANGUAGE AREAS

**1 a) If there was extra time for learning English, would you like the teacher to give you more practice/ activities in the area of ...**

*Please tick one box only*

- grammar/ syntax
- vocabulary
- pronunciation
- other (*please specify*):.....

**b) Please give a brief reason for your answer:**

.....

**2. How difficult do you find the following to learn?**

*Please tick one box for each item using the scale 1-5 (1= extremely difficult; 5= not at all difficult)*

	1	2	3	4	5
grammar/ syntax					
vocabulary					
pronunciation					

### II. CONTEXTS OF USE OF ENGLISH OUTSIDE THE CLASSROOM

**In which situations, in your opinion, are you more likely to use your knowledge of English in the future (after you leave the frontistirio)?**

*Please tick all those that apply*

- when travelling for leisure or work in different countries around the world
- for a better chance of employment and financial reward in the job market in Greece and, generally, at work
- for studies at a university in an English-speaking country
- use of internet & computers
- other (*please specify*): .....

### III. SPEAKING ABILITY

**1. How important do you feel are the following elements in learning to speak in English?**

*Please tick one box for each item using the scale 1-5 (1= extremely important; 5= not at all important)*

	1	2	3	4	5
grammar/ syntax					
vocabulary					
pronunciation					

**2. In your opinion, how important are the following when you speak in English so that other learners of English can understand you?**

*Please tick one box for each item using the scale 1-5 (1= extremely important; 5= not at all important)*

	1	2	3	4	5
appropriate use of grammar/ syntax					
appropriate use of vocabulary					
good level of pronunciation					

**3. When conversing in English, you and other learners of English may not understand each other. In your opinion, how often are the following responsible?**

*Please tick one box for each item using the scale 1-5 (1= always; 5= never)*

	1	2	3	4	5
grammar/ syntax					
vocabulary					
pronunciation					



#### IV. LISTENING COMPREHENSION

##### 1. How important do you feel are the following for you to be able to understand in a listening activity?

Please tick one box for each item using the scale 1-5 (1= extremely important; 5= not at all important)

	1	2	3	4	5
knowledge of grammar/ syntax					
knowledge of vocabulary					
knowledge of pronunciation					

##### 2. How important is it for you to hear a variety of accents of English through the listening material of the course?

Please tick one box for each item using the scale 1-5 (1= extremely important; 5= not at all important)

	1	2	3	4	5
native speakers of a standard British variety e.g. Received Pronunciation (= Standard South-of-England/ BBC English)					
native speakers of a standard American variety e.g. General American					
native speakers of standard regional varieties of English e.g. Scottish, Northern					
native speakers of non-standard regional varieties of English e.g. Cockney (= 'working class' London)					
non-native (e.g. Italian, Bulgarian) but fluent speakers of English					

#### V. PRONUNCIATION MODELS & PERFORMANCE TARGETS

##### 1. Which pronunciation model would you like the teacher to help you follow?

Please tick all those that apply

- British English standard accent
- American English standard accent
- Other (please specify): .....

**2 a) Ideally, how close would you like your accent to come to a native-like model?***Please tick one box only using the scale 1-5 (1= extremely close; 5= not at all close)*

- 1                       2                       3                       4                       5

**b) In practice, how close do you expect your accent to come to a native-like model?***Please tick one box only using the scale 1-5 (1= extremely close; 5= not at all close)*

- 1                       2                       3                       4                       5

**3 a) Which is more important, in your opinion?****To raise your pronunciation to...** *(please tick one box only)*

- the level of native speakers so that people will think you are a native speaker  
 to a level at which native and non-native speakers can understand you perfectly well, although you still have the accent of your country

**b) Please give a brief reason for your answer:**

.....

**PROFILE**

*Finally, in order to help us to better interpret and classify your answers, would you mind telling us a little bit about your personal & English language learning background?*

**a. Age:** .... years old**b. Sex:**  Male  Female**c. How long have you been learning English?** .... years**d. What is your level of English?***Please tick one box only*

- |  |  |
|--|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> False Beginners/ Beginners      | <input type="checkbox"/> Elementary (A + B senior) |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Pre-Intermediate (C class)      | <input type="checkbox"/> Intermediate (D class)    |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Upper-Intermediate (pre- Lower) | <input type="checkbox"/> Lower                     |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Advanced                        | <input type="checkbox"/> Proficiency               |

**e. Which is your first language?** *(please tick)*

- Greek  
 Other *(please tell us which one)*.....

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION!

### Appendix 3.12 ‘Learners’ Questionnaire’ (Greek Version)

#### Ερωτηματολόγιο για μαθητές Αγγλικών

##### I. ΓΕΝΙΚΕΣ ΕΡΩΤΗΣΕΙΣ

**1 a) Αν υπήρχε περισσότερος χρόνος για τη διδασκαλία των Αγγλικών, θα ήθελες ο/ η καθηγητής/ τρια να σου έδινε περισσότερες ασκήσεις...**

(Παρακαλώ σημείωσε × σε ένα μόνο τετραγωνάκι)

- γραμματικής/ συντακτικού
- λεξιλογίου
- προφοράς
- άλλο (παρακαλώ διευκρίνισε):.....

**b) Παρακαλώ δώσε μια σύντομη εξήγηση για την απάντηση που διάλεξες:**

.....

**2. Πόσο δύσκολα σου φαίνονται τα παρακάτω για να τα μάθεις στα Αγγλικά;**

Παρακαλώ αξιολόγησε κάθε ένα από τα παρακάτω στοιχεία χρησιμοποιώντας την κλίμακα 1 έως 5 (1= πάρα πολύ δύσκολο, 5= καθόλου δύσκολο) και σημείωσε × στο αντίστοιχο τετραγωνάκι

	1	2	3	4	5
γραμματική/ συντακτικό					
λεξιλόγιο					
προφορά					

##### II. ΧΡΗΣΙΜΟΠΟΙΩΝΤΑΣ ΤΑ ΑΓΓΛΙΚΑ ΕΚΤΟΣ ΤΑΞΗΣ...

**Σε ποιες καταστάσεις πιστεύεις είναι πιο πιθανό να χρησιμοποιήσεις τα Αγγλικά στο μέλλον (μετά την αποφοίτησή σου απ’ το φροντιστήριο);**

Σημείωσε × σε όσα τετραγωνάκια θέλεις

- σε ταξίδια στο εξωτερικό (π.χ. για διακοπές ή για δουλειές)
- για καλύτερη επαγγελματική αποκατάσταση στην Ελλάδα / γενικά στη δουλειά μου
- για σπουδές σε πανεπιστήμιο χώρας όπου η επίσημη γλώσσα είναι τα Αγγλικά
- χρήση internet και ηλεκτρονικών υπολογιστών
- άλλο (παρακαλώ διευκρίνισε): .....

### III. SPEAKING

#### 1. Πόσο σημαντικά θεωρείς ότι είναι τα παρακάτω όταν μαθαίνεις 'speaking' στα Αγγλικά;

Παρακαλώ αξιολόγησε κάθε ένα από τα παρακάτω στοιχεία χρησιμοποιώντας την κλίμακα 1 έως 5 (1= πάρα πολύ σημαντικό, 5= καθόλου σημαντικό) και σημείωσε X στο αντίστοιχο τετραγωνάκι

	1	2	3	4	5
γραμματική/ συντακτικό					
λεξιλόγιο					
προφορά					

#### 2. Κατά τη γνώμη σου όταν μιλάς στα Αγγλικά, πόσο σημαντικά είναι τα παρακάτω ώστε να σε καταλαβαίνουν και άλλοι μαθητές Αγγλικών;

Παρακαλώ αξιολόγησε κάθε ένα από τα παρακάτω στοιχεία χρησιμοποιώντας την κλίμακα 1 έως 5 (1= πάρα πολύ σημαντικό, 5= καθόλου σημαντικό) και σημείωσε X στο αντίστοιχο τετραγωνάκι

	1	2	3	4	5
σωστή χρήση γραμματικής/ συντακτικού					
σωστή χρήση λεξιλογίου					
καλό επίπεδο προφοράς					

#### 3. Όταν συζητάς στα Αγγλικά με άλλους μαθητές Αγγλικών, μπορεί να μην καταλάβει ο ένας τον άλλον. Κατά τη γνώμη σου πόσο συχνά ευθύνονται τα παρακάτω για τέτοιου είδους παρεξηγήσεις;

Παρακαλώ αξιολόγησε κάθε ένα από τα παρακάτω στοιχεία χρησιμοποιώντας την κλίμακα 1 έως 5 (1= πάντα, 5= ποτέ) και σημείωσε X στο αντίστοιχο τετραγωνάκι

	1	2	3	4	5
γραμματική/ συντακτικό					
λεξιλόγιο					
προφορά					

#### IV. LISTENING

##### 1. Πόσο σημαντικά νομίζεις ότι είναι τα παρακάτω για να καταλάβεις ένα 'listening';

Παρακαλώ αξιολόγησε κάθε ένα από τα παρακάτω στοιχεία χρησιμοποιώντας την κλίμακα 1 έως 5 (1= πάρα πολύ σημαντικό, 5= καθόλου σημαντικό) και σημείωσε X στο αντίστοιχο τετραγωνάκι

	1	2	3	4	5
γνώση γραμματικής/ συντακτικού					
γνώση λεξιλογίου					
γνώση προφοράς					

##### 2. Πόσο σημαντικό είναι για σένα να ακούς άτομα να μιλούν Αγγλικά με διαφορετικές προφορές στο 'listening' του μαθήματος των Αγγλικών;

Παρακαλώ αξιολόγησε κάθε ένα από τα παρακάτω στοιχεία χρησιμοποιώντας την κλίμακα 1 έως 5 (1= πάρα πολύ σημαντικό, 5= καθόλου σημαντικό) και σημείωσε X στο αντίστοιχο τετραγωνάκι

	1	2	3	4	5
άτομα που μιλούν με την επίσημη καθιερωμένη <u>Βρετανική</u> προφορά (δηλ. αυτήν του μορφωμένου Βρετανού)					
άτομα που μιλούν με την επίσημη καθιερωμένη <u>Αμερικάνικη</u> προφορά (δηλ. αυτήν του μορφωμένου Αμερικανού)					
άτομα που μιλούν με την <u>επίσημη</u> προφορά διαφορετικών περιοχών της Αγγλίας ή της Αμερικής π.χ. με Σκωτσέζικη προφορά					
άτομα που μιλούν με την <u>ανεπίσημη</u> προφορά διαφορετικών περιοχών της Αγγλίας ή της Αμερικής π.χ. Cockney (= προφορά ανθρώπων κατώτερου μορφωτικού επιπέδου στο ανατολικό Λονδίνο/ λαϊκή προφορά/ αργκό)					
άτομα που δεν έχουν τα Αγγλικά ως μητρική τους γλώσσα και τα μιλούν <u>με ξένη</u> προφορά (π.χ. με Ιταλική ή Βουλγάρικη) παρόλο που έχουν πολύ καλό επίπεδο στα Αγγλικά					

#### V. ΜΟΝΤΕΛΑ ΠΡΟΦΟΡΑΣ

##### 1. Ποιο μοντέλο προφοράς θα ήθελες να σε βοηθήσει ο καθηγητής σου να ακολουθήσεις στα Αγγλικά;

Παρακαλώ σημείωσε X σε ένα ή παραπάνω τετραγωνάκια

- την επίσημη καθιερωμένη Βρετανική προφορά
- την επίσημη καθιερωμένη Αμερικάνικη προφορά
- άλλο (παρακαλώ διευκρίνισε): .....

**2 a) Κάτω απο ιδανικές συνθήκες πόσο κοντά θα ήθελες να έρθει η προφορά σου σε αυτήν ενός ατόμου που η μητρική του γλώσσα είναι η Αγγλική;**

*Παρακαλώ σημείωσε × σε ένα μόνο τετραγωνάκι χρησιμοποιώντας την κλίμακα 1 έως 5 (1= πάρα πολύ κοντά, 5= καθόλου κοντά)*

1                       2                       3                       4                       5

**b) Στην πράξη πόσο κοντά περιμένεις να έρθει η προφορά σου σε αυτήν ενός ατόμου που η μητρική του γλώσσα είναι η Αγγλική;**

*Παρακαλώ σημείωσε × σε ένα μόνο τετραγωνάκι χρησιμοποιώντας την κλίμακα 1 έως 5 (1= πάρα πολύ κοντά, 5= καθόλου κοντά)*

1                       2                       3                       4                       5

**3 a) Τι πιστεύεις ότι είναι πιο σημαντικό;**

**Να φτάσεις την προφορά σου στα Αγγλικά...**

*(παρακαλώ σημείωσε × σε ένα μόνο τετραγωνάκι)*

- στο επίπεδο αυτών που έχουν τα Αγγλικά ως μητρική τους γλώσσα, ώστε διάφοροι να νομίζουν πως έχεις και εσύ τα Αγγλικά ως μητρική σου γλώσσα
- σε ένα επίπεδο τέτοιο, ώστε παρόλο που διατηρείς την προφορά της μητρικής σου γλώσσας (π.χ. προφέρεις τα Αγγλικά με Ελληνική προφορά), να γίνεσαι πλήρως κατανοητός τόσο σε αυτούς που έχουν όσο και σε αυτούς που δεν έχουν τα Αγγλικά ως μητρική τους γλώσσα.

**b) Παρακαλώ δώσε μια σύντομη εξήγηση για την απάντηση που διάλεξες:**

.....

**ΠΡΟΦΙΑ**

*Τέλος θα ήταν πολύ χρήσιμο για την έρευνά μας, αν μας έδινες ορισμένες γενικές πληροφορίες για σενα και την εμπειρία σου όσον αφορά στην εκμάθηση των Αγγλικών...*

**a. Ηλικία:** .... ετών

**b. Φύλο:**  Άντρας  Γυναίκα

**c. Εδώ και πόσα χρόνια μαθαίνεις Αγγλικά;** .... χρόνια

**d. Σε ποιο επίπεδο Αγγλικών βρίσκεσαι;**

*(παρακαλώ σημείωσε × σε ένα μόνο τετραγωνάκι)*

- False Beginners/ Beginners
- Elementary (A + B senior)
- Pre-Intermediate (C τάξη)
- Intermediate (D τάξη)
- Upper-Intermediate (pre- Lower)
- Lower
- Advanced
- Proficiency

**e. Ποια είναι η μητρική σου γλώσσα;**

*(παρακαλώ σημείωσε × στο αντίστοιχο τετραγωνάκι)*

- Η Ελληνική
- Άλλη (παρακαλώ διευκρίνισε).....

**ΕΥΧΑΡΙΣΤΩ ΠΟΛΥ!**





closed question called a filter question” (ibid: 227). Thus, ‘contingency’ questions depend on responses to earlier questions. Q1 acts as a filter for Q2 and Q3 and Q2 and Q3 are contingent on Q1; Q2 is a contingency question for the subset of teachers that do not have English as an L1<sup>31</sup> and Q3 is a contingency question for the subset of teachers that have English as an L1<sup>32</sup>.

Contingency and filter questions are useful for the researcher because they allow him or her to follow up responses in more detail and obtain more precise information but can be confusing for the respondents (Cohen et al, 2007: 332; Gillham, 2000: 33). Gillham (2000) states that “even the simplest attempt to vary or individualize or get beneath the surface [in a questionnaire] looks over-elaborate” (: 33) and that “the capacity for respondents to get lost or confused in a questionnaire should not be underrated” (ibid: 33). Indeed, Redline et al (2002 cited in Cohen et al, 2007: 332-333) found that respondents tend to ignore, misread and incorrectly follow branching instructions, such that item non-response occurs for follow-up questions that are applicable only to certain subsamples, and respondents skip over, and therefore fail to follow-up on those questions that should have been completed. Redline et al (2002) also noted that sandwiching branching instructions between items that do not branch is likely to lead to errors of omission and commission being made: omitting to answer all the questions and answering the wrong questions. For these reasons, Cohen et al (2007) strongly recommend the judicious and limited use of filtering and branching devices and state that:

It is particularly important to avoid having participants turning pages forwards and backwards in a questionnaire in order to follow the sequence of questions that have had filters and branches following them... One way of overcoming the problem of branches is to sectionalise the questionnaire, keeping together conceptually close items and keeping the branches within that section.

Cohen et al, 2007: 333

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<sup>31</sup> Question 2 is also a branch for Question 1

<sup>32</sup> Question 3 is also a branch for Question 1



*Clarity of questions*

As it has been mentioned already, one of the goals of the pilot test is to check the clarity of questionnaire items and eliminate any ambiguities or difficulties in wording. For example, in the discussion that took place as part of the first pilot test of the Teachers' Questionnaire, it was revealed that a couple of the participants did not like the wording of Q3 which belongs to the 'Speaking Ability' section of the Questionnaire (please see Box 3). They described the particular question as 'too long and rather confusing'. Therefore, suggestions were made as to the improvement of the wording of the particular question in the meeting that took place between the researcher and the research supervisory team in order to discuss the results of the first pilot test. The original question (see Box 3) which was 44 words long was reduced to 21 words (see Box 4) and the teachers that participated in the second pilot test described the modified version of that question as 'clear and easy to understand'. Q2, in its modified form, appeared in the final version of the questionnaire used in the main study.

**Box 3****Question 3 of 'Speaking Ability' Section, Teachers' Questionnaire (earlier version)**

**3. When a student participates in a conversation in English, he/she may not understand what is being said to him/her or the other(s) may not understand what he/she is saying. In your opinion, which of the following are responsible for such misunderstandings?**

*Please tick one box for each item using the scale 1-5 (1= always; 5= never)*

	1	2	3	4	5
grammar/ syntax					
vocabulary					
pronunciation					

**Box 4****Question 3 of ‘Speaking Ability’ Section, Teachers’ Questionnaire (final version)**

**3. When conversing in English, learners of English may not understand each other.**

**In your opinion, how often are the following responsible?**

*Please tick one box for each item using the scale 1-5 (1= always; 5= never)*

	1	2	3	4	5
grammar/ syntax					
vocabulary					
pronunciation					

*Types of questions and their format*

One of the issues raised as part of the discussion that took place during the first pilot test of the Teachers’ Questionnaire concerned the types of questions that were the most appropriate ones for the questionnaire and whether or not to transform some of the ‘rating scales’ items into ‘rank order’ items. We have already looked at ‘rating scales’ as part of Section 3.3.3 ‘Questionnaire Questions’, Chapter 3. ‘Rank order’ items “contain some sort of a list and respondents are asked to order the items by assigning a number to them according to their preferences” (Dornyei, 2003: 44-45). The participants of the first pilot test were asked whether they thought it would be a good idea to transform some of the ‘rating scale’ questions of the questionnaire into ‘rank order’ ones, for example Question 1 (Box 5) into Question 1 (Box 6).

**Box 5****Question 1 of ‘Speaking Ability’ Section, Teachers’ Questionnaire (final version)**

**1. How important do you feel are the following elements in teaching your students to speak in English?**

*Please tick one box for each item using the scale 1-5 (1= extremely important; 5= not at all important)*

	1	2	3	4	5
grammar/ syntax					
vocabulary					
pronunciation					

**Box 6****Question 1 of ‘Speaking Ability’ Section, Teachers’ Questionnaire (alternative version)**

**1. How important do you feel are the following elements in teaching your students to speak in English?**

*Please rank in order of importance (1= most important and 3= least important)*

grammar/ syntax:       ....  
 vocabulary:           ....  
 pronunciation:       ....

All participants expressed their preference for the ‘rating scale’ version of Q1 and gave the following reasons for their choice: first, the ‘rank order’ version required greater mental effort to be answered than the ‘rating scale’ version. Also, since the ‘rank order’ version imposed a cognitively more difficult task on the respondent, he or she would need more time to answer it. Second, the ‘rank order’ version prevented respondents from rating items as equally important. Indeed, “unlike in a rating scale in which a person can assign the same value to several items... in rank order items each sub-component must have a different value even though such a forced choice may not be natural in every case” (Dornyei, 2003: 45). For these reasons, (as well as a third one; the researcher’s awareness that ‘rank order’ items are difficult to process

statistically), it was decided not to include any 'rank order' items in the questionnaire used for this study.

*Adequacy of response categories provided for multiple-choice items*

Pilot test participants may indicate which questions need expanding; for example, which multiple-choice items need to include additional response categories. Indeed, the learners that participated in the second pilot test of the Learners' Questionnaire pointed out that the response categories provided for Question e (Box 7) needed to include three additional levels of English language proficiency. Their suggestions were taken into consideration and the final version of the particular questionnaire item appears in Box 8. Question d (Box 8) now covers all possible levels of English language proficiency as they correspond to the types of classes available in English language schools in Greece<sup>33</sup>.

**Box 7**

**Part of 'Profile' Section, Learners' Questionnaire (earlier version)**

<b>e. What is your level of English?</b> <i>(please tick one box only)</i>		
<input type="checkbox"/> Beginner	<input type="checkbox"/> Pre-intermediate	<input type="checkbox"/> Intermediate
<input type="checkbox"/> Upper-intermediate	<input type="checkbox"/> Advanced	<input type="checkbox"/> Other <i>(please specify)</i> .....

**Box 8**

**Part of 'Profile' Section, Learners' Questionnaire (final version)**

<b>d. What is your level of English?</b>	
<i>Please tick one box only</i>	
<input type="checkbox"/> False Beginners/ Beginners	<input type="checkbox"/> Elementary (A + B senior)
<input type="checkbox"/> Pre-Intermediate (C class)	<input type="checkbox"/> Intermediate (D class)
<input type="checkbox"/> Upper-Intermediate (pre- Lower)	<input type="checkbox"/> Lower
<input type="checkbox"/> Advanced	<input type="checkbox"/> Proficiency

<sup>33</sup> Learners are allocated to the appropriate class according to their level of English.

## Section 3.3 ‘Procedure’

### Appendix 3.14 ‘Final Pilot’

#### Transforming an open question into a closed question

As part of the teachers’ questionnaire, teachers were asked to identify the contexts in which they expect their learners to use English in the future. In order to ascertain the situations in which the learners would be more likely to use their knowledge of English, the open question displayed in Box 1 was used. The same question with slight changes in terms of the wording appeared in the learners’ questionnaire.

#### **Box 1**

#### **‘Contexts of Use of English outside the Classroom’ Section (Final Pilot Study Version)**

**Can you please describe any situations in which the students are likely to use English in the future (after they get the certificate they are studying for / leave the frontistirio)?**

.....  
 .....

This question yielded a variety of different answers and content analysis was employed in order to reduce those to manageable and meaningful categories. The guidelines offered by Gillham (2000) for the content analysis of open questions were adhered to. Having listed all the responses to the particular question and looked through them, the following categories suggested themselves:

- Travel abroad, holidays
- Find job (most employers ask for at least a basic certificate as proof of knowledge of English), use English at work
- Undergraduate or postgraduate studies in an English-speaking country

- Information technology, internet, chat online with friends (msn, skype)/ online games/playstation or XBOX games
- Miscellaneous (reading books in English, scientific research & wanting to become an EFL teacher)

Then each response was checked off under the appropriate category heading(s). It emerged that most teachers' and learners' responses could be grouped under more than one headings as most teachers and learners had identified more than one likely context of use of English. The teachers' and learners' answers were grouped into the appropriate categories by means of content analysis as follows (see Figure 2) and the initial open question was transformed into a closed question (see Box 3) for the questionnaire used in the main study. As can be seen in Figure 2 the most popular categories were the first two (travel and work) for the learners and the most popular for the teachers were (work and studies).

**Figure 2**  
**Contexts of use of English**

	Teachers	Learners
Travel	3	55
Work	5	57
Studies	5	11
IT & Internet	4	26
Miscellaneous	0	3

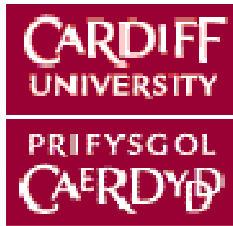
**Box 3**  
**'Contexts of Use of English outside the Classroom' Section (final version)**

**In which situations, in your opinion, are your students more likely to use their knowledge of English in the future (after they leave the frontistirio)?**

*Please tick all those that apply.*

- when travelling for leisure or work in different countries around the world
- for a better chance of employment & financial reward in the job market in Greece and, generally, at work
- for studies at a university in an English-speaking country
- use of internet & computers
- other (*please specify*): .....



**Appendix 3.15 ‘Main Study’****Consent Form for Teachers**

This questionnaire is part of my PhD study on teaching & learning English as a foreign language in Thessaloniki, Greece. I hope that you will agree to take part in the study by completing the teachers' questionnaire (it takes 10 minutes to fill in).

I am interested in your opinions on teaching English and, especially, on the development of 'speaking' and 'listening' skills. There are no right or wrong answers. Please answer all the questions as honestly as you can. Your answers will remain anonymous; this consent form will be kept separate from your questionnaire to ensure anonymity.

You do not have to participate in this project, if you do not want to, and you may withdraw from it at any time and for any reasons.

Please sign below to give consent that I may include your answers in my study.

Your cooperation is highly appreciated.

Signature:

Date:

.....

If you have any queries or comments, you can contact either me (Vasiliki Kanellou) or my dissertation supervisor (Dr. Paul Tench):

Vasiliki Kanellou  
PhD Researcher

Dr Paul Tench,  
Senior Lecturer  
Centre for Language and Communication Research  
School of English, Communication and Philosophy,  
Cardiff University, Humanities Building  
Colum Drive, Cathays  
CF10 3EU, Cardiff  
United Kingdom.

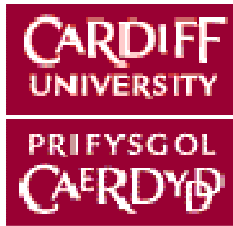
Mobile: 6976 794813

Tel.: +4429 2087 4000

Fax: +4429 2087 4242

Email: [KanellouV1@cardiff.ac.uk](mailto:KanellouV1@cardiff.ac.uk)

Email: [TenchP@cardiff.ac.uk](mailto:TenchP@cardiff.ac.uk)

**Appendix 3.16 ‘Main Study’****Consent Form for Learners of English**

This questionnaire is part of my PhD study on teaching & learning English as a foreign language in Thessaloniki, Greece. I hope that you will agree to take part in the study by completing the learners’ questionnaire (it takes 10 minutes to fill in).

I am interested in your opinions on learning English and, especially, on the development of ‘speaking’ and ‘listening’ skills. There are no right or wrong answers. Please answer all the questions as honestly as you can. Your answers will remain anonymous; this consent form will be kept separate from your questionnaire to ensure anonymity.

You do not have to participate in this project, if you do not want to, and you may withdraw from it at any time and for any reasons.

Please sign below to give consent that I may include your answers in my study.

Your cooperation is highly appreciated.

Signature:

Date:

.....

If you have any queries or comments, you can contact either me (Vasiliki Kanellou) or my dissertation supervisor (Dr. Paul Tench):

Vasiliki Kanellou  
PhD Researcher

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### **Appendix 3.17 ‘Main Study’**

#### Ethics

##### *Students’ age*

The researcher of this study contacted the Department of ‘Research & Educational Technology’ of the Greek Pedagogical Institute (based in Athens) and received by fax a set of guidelines outlining the procedure to be followed by researchers who wish to conduct studies in state schools in Greece. According to those guidelines<sup>34</sup>, parental consent is only sought in the case of medical studies; if the children are under 15 years of age, parents are requested to give consent and if the children are over 15, then both parents and children must give consent. Interestingly, parental consent is not mentioned in any other part of those ‘ethics’ forms; when the researcher asked for further clarification on this matter, she was informed that, unless a medical study is carried out, then the school principal’s and/ or teacher’s consent in addition to the student’s consent (for any children under 15) was sufficient. Even though, private language schools do not need to adhere to those regulations (and there are no guidelines regarding research to carried out in private language schools), the guidelines set out by the Greek Pedagogical Institute can be seen as an indicator of may (or may not) be acceptable in the case of private schools.

---

<sup>34</sup> ‘Documents required for granting permission for research’, Department of ‘Research and Educational Technology’, Greek Pedagogical Institute, January, 2008. –[www.pi-schools.gr](http://www.pi-schools.gr)

**Appendix 3.18 ‘Main Study’***Learner consent form (Greek version)***Δήλωση Συγκατάθεσης για Μαθητές**

Αυτό το ερωτηματολόγιο αποτελεί μέρος της διδακτορικής μου διατριβής και αφορά στη διδασκαλία της Αγγλικής γλώσσας σε φροντιστήρια της Θεσσαλονίκης. Ελπίζω ότι θα δεχτείτε να λάβετε μέρος στην έρευνά μου συμπληρώνοντας το ερωτηματολόγιο των μαθητών (θα χρειαστείτε περίπου 10 λεπτά για να το συμπληρώσετε).

Με ενδιαφέρουν οι δικές σας προσωπικές απόψεις σχετικά με την εκμάθηση των Αγγλικών και ιδιαιτέρως όσον αφορά στο ‘speaking’ και στο ‘listening’. Δεν υπάρχουν σωστές ή λανθασμένες απαντήσεις. Παρακαλώ απαντήστε σε όλες τις ερωτήσεις όσο πιο ειλικρινά γίνεται. Οι απαντήσεις σας θα παραμείνουν ανώνυμες: αυτή τη δήλωση συγκατάθεσης θα την κρατήσω χωριστά από το ερωτηματολόγιο για να διασφαλιστεί η ανωνυμία σας.

Η συμμετοχή σας σε αυτή την έρευνα είναι προαιρετική.

Παρακαλώ υπογράψτε παρακάτω για να μου επιτρέψετε να χρησιμοποιήσω τις απαντήσεις σας για την έρευνά μου.

Σας ευχαριστώ εκ των προτέρων για τη συνεργασία σας.

Υπογραφή:

Ημερομηνία:

.....

Αν έχετε ερωτήσεις ή σχόλια, σας παρακαλώ να επικοινωνήσετε είτε με εμένα (Βασιλική Κανέλλου) είτε με τον επιβλέποντα καθηγητή της διατριβής μου (Dr. Paul Tench):

Βασιλική Κανέλλου  
Υποψήφια Διδάκτορας

Dr Paul Tench,  
Senior Lecturer  
Centre for Language and Communication Research  
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## **Section 3.4 ‘Interviews’**

### **Appendix 3.19 ‘Procedure’**

#### Time & place

Gillham (2000b) suggests a two-day timetable spacing between interviews and justifies his suggests as follows:

Interviews require a lot of concentration and you will find them a rather wearing business. So space them out. One every two days is about right. This will mean that you can transcribe as you go: and you will find that each interview is relatively fresh in your memory.

Gillham, 2000b: 57

It was not possible to follow Gillham’s (2000b) suggestion as the researcher had to interview the teachers once their students’ had sat the ‘end of the year exams’ (as well as the FCE/ CPE/ ECCE/ ECPE exams) and before the teachers went away on holiday. Thus, all 12 interviews were conducted in the last week of May, 2011 and the first week of June, 2011. Nevertheless, the researcher found that this did not affect the transcription process in any way as she would write down any things that she thought were important to note (for example, general impressions about the interview and/ or the interviewee) once each interview had been completed and while the interview was still fresh in her memory.

### **Appendix 3.20 ‘Procedure’**

#### Recording

##### *Audio-recording versus video-recording*

Audio-recording captures only speech and misses non-verbal cues such as eye movements and facial expressions and other contextual factors (Dornyei, 2007; Denscombe, 2003). On the other hand, the method of ‘video-recording “captures many non-verbal as well as verbal communications, and offers the most complete record of events during the interview”(Denscombe, 2003: 176). Video data is “obviously richer than audio recordings” (Dornyei, 2007: 139) but nevertheless, “the video recording process is much more difficult and obtrusive than switching on a small dictaphone, and analysing video data is not an easy task either” (ibid: 139). For these reasons, Dornyei (2007) recommends the use of video data for one’s research only if it is really needed (: 139). And, it is for these reasons that the researcher opted for audio-recordings.

**Appendix 3.21 ‘Procedure’**Conducting the interview*Encouraging interviewee participation*

For example, she would say something along the lines of ‘now that I have collected and analysed all the questionnaire data, I know what happens but I don’t know why it happens (smile). I am so glad you’ve agreed to help me out on this, tell me what you think based on your teaching experience and interaction with other teachers. You see the last time I taught English to students here in Thessaloniki, Greece was a decade ago!’

## Appendix 3.22

### *Questionnaire Items for Interview*

#### **SPEAKING ABILITY**

**1. How important do you feel are the following elements in teaching your students to speak in English?**

*Please tick one box for each item using the scale 1-5 (1= extremely important; 5= not at all important)*

	1	2	3	4	5
grammar/ syntax (M = 1.89)					
vocabulary (M = 1.49)					
pronunciation (M = 2.28)					

**RESULTS: All have importance but...**

**Pron as important as Gram but less important than Voc**

**2. In your opinion, how important are the following when your students speak in English so that other learners of English can understand them?**

*Please tick one box for each item using the scale 1-5 (1= extremely important; 5= not at all important)*

	1	2	3	4	5
appropriate use of grammar/ syntax (M = 2.38)					
appropriate use of vocabulary (M = 1.79)					
good level of pronunciation (M = 2.49)					

**RESULTS: All have importance but...**

**Pron as important as Gram but less important than Voc**

**3. When conversing in English, learners of English may not understand each other. In your opinion, how often are the following responsible?**

*Please tick one box for each item using the scale 1-5 (1= always; 5= never)*

	1	2	3	4	5
grammar/ syntax (M = 2.49)					
vocabulary (M = 2.11)					
pronunciation (M = 2.94)					

**RESULTS: Pron as often responsible as Gram but less often responsible than Voc**



**LISTENING COMPREHENSION****1. How important do you feel are the following for your students to be able to understand in a listening activity?**

Please tick one box for each item using the scale 1-5 (1= extremely important; 5= not at all important)

	1	2	3	4	5
knowledge of grammar/ syntax ( <b>M = 2.63</b> )					
knowledge of vocabulary ( <b>M = 1.60</b> )					
knowledge of pronunciation ( <b>M = 2.00</b> )					

**RESULTS: Voc (marginally) more important than Pron  
and far more important than Gram**

**2. How important do you think it is for the students to hear a variety of accents of English through the listening material of the course?**

Please tick using the scale 1-5 (1= extremely important; 5= not at all important)

	1	2	3	4	5
a. native speakers of a standard British variety e.g. Received Pronunciation (= Standard South-of-England/ BBC English) ( <b>M = 1.62</b> )					
b. native speakers of a standard American variety e.g. General American ( <b>M= 1.67</b> )					
c. native speakers of standard regional varieties of English e.g. Scottish, Northern ( <b>M = 2.61</b> )					
d. native speakers of non-standard regional varieties of English e.g. Cockney (= 'working class' London) ( <b>M = 3.17</b> )					
e. non-native (e.g. Italian, Bulgarian) but fluent speakers of English ( <b>M = 3.11</b> )					

**3. How often do you use any of the following as part of the listening element of the course?**

Please tick one box for each item using the scale 1-5 (1= always; 5= never)

	1	2	3	4	5
a. conversations among native speakers of standard British varieties of English ( <b>M = 1.74</b> )					
b. conversations among native speakers of standard American varieties of English ( <b>M = 2.02</b> )					
c. conversations among native speakers of standard regional varieties of English ( <b>M = 2.91</b> )					
d. conversations among native speakers of non-standard regional varieties of English ( <b>M = 3.70</b> )					
e. conversations among native speakers and non-native (but fluent) speakers of English ( <b>M = 3.48</b> )					
f. conversations among non-native (but fluent) speakers of English ( <b>M = 3.78</b> )					

**PRONUNCIATION AREAS**

**How important do you think are the following areas for comprehension**

**(=understanding spoken English) and production (= speaking English)?**

*Please tick one box for each item using the scale 1-5 (1= extremely important; 5= not at all important)*

	1	2	3	4	5
vowels (M = 2.26)					
consonants (M = 2.53)					
sounds in connected speech (M = 1.87)					
stress (M = 1.84)					
intonation (M = 1.76)					

**RESULTS: Consonants less important than the rest**

**PRONUNCIATION MODELS**

**1. Which pronunciation model do you follow in your teaching?**

*Please tick all those that apply*

- British English standard accent
- American English standard accent
- Other (*please specify*): .....

**RESULTS: 92% follow either St. Br. Engl. or Am. Engl. or both Br. Engl. (38.3%), Am. Engl. (31.9%), both (21.3%)**

**PRONUNCIATION PERFORMANCE TARGETS**

**1 a) Ideally, how close would you like your students' accent to come to a native-like model?**

*Please tick one box only using the scale 1-5 (1= extremely close; 5= not at all close)*

- 1                       2                       3                       4                       5

**b) In practice, how close do you expect your students' accent to come to a native-like model?**

*Please tick one box only using the scale 1-5 (1= extremely close; 5= not at all close)*

- 1                       2                       3                       4                       5

**RESULTS: 1a) 'very close' (M= 2.04)**

**1b) 'quite close' (M = 2.91)**

**2 a) Which is more important, in your opinion?****To raise students' pronunciation to...** (*please tick one box only*)

- the level of native speakers so that people will think they are native speakers
- to a level at which native and non-native speakers can understand them perfectly well, although they still have the accent of their country

**b) Please give a brief reason for your answer**

.....

**RESULTS: 2a) 97.9% chose accented international intelligibility**  
**2b) 26% did not give a reason for their choice**

**PRONUNCIATION TEACHING**

**1) Please tell us how often you use/ do any of the following as part of the English language lesson.**

*Please tick one box for each item using the scale 1-5 (1= always; 5= never)*

	1	2	3	4	5
a) pronunciation practice just before/ as part of/ after 'speaking' activities <b>M = 2.89</b>					
b) listening to authentic spoken English = real (tape or video recorded) conversations among speakers instead of scripted ones (e.g. British/ American radio or TV) <b>M = 2.04</b>					
c) modern computer technology (pronunciation software programs) <b>M = 4.30</b>					
d) pronunciation practice in the language laboratory <b>M = 4.14</b>					
e) ear-training (discrimination) exercises between similar-sounding phonemes etc. <b>M = 3.51</b>					
f) production/ articulation exercises (i.e. 'reading aloud' activities, drilling & imitation exercises) <b>M = 1.87</b>					
g) individual responses from each learner in class <b>M = 1.60</b>					
h) choral responses from all learners in class together <b>M = 2.78</b>					
i) teaching the symbols of the international phonetic alphabet to the students <b>M = 3.72</b>					
j) teaching the phonological rules of English (i.e. stress placement rules, spelling to sound rules) to the students <b>M = 3.26</b>					

**PHONETICS COURSES & PRONUNCIATION TRAINING**

**1 a) Have you done a course/ module in English phonetics as part of a University Degree?**

- No  Yes

*(If you've ticked 'no', please go to question 5.)*

**b) How useful was it in preparing you for the teaching of pronunciation in the English language classroom?**

*Please tick one box only using the scale 1-5 (1= extremely useful; 5= not at all useful)*

- 1  2  3  4  5

**RESULTS: 1a) 48.9% of teachers have not done a course/ module on English phonetics**

**1b) Those that did found it 'very useful' (M=2.21)**

**2 a) Have you received any specific training (i.e. at a teachers' training course) in the teaching of English pronunciation?**

- No  
 Yes. Where? *(please give details)*.....

**b) How useful did you find it in your teaching of pronunciation in the English language classroom?**

*Please tick one box only using the scale 1-5 (1= extremely useful; 5= not at all useful)*

- 1  2  3  4  5

**RESULTS: 2a) 72.3% of teachers have not received any training in the teaching of pronunciation**

**2b) Those that have found it 'very useful' (M=2.18)**

**Appendix 3.23***Questions for Teacher Interview**Introductory Questions*

-As far as pron is concerned, you need to make decisions such as, how much time to spend in class teaching & practising pronunciation, what kind of pronunciation activities to use and so on. What are your decisions based on? An analysis of your learners' needs (why your students are learning English, where they intend to use English etc.)?

-Overall, do you feel that teachers spend more time and effort into teaching other language areas i.e. vocabulary rather than pronunciation? Do you feel that pronunciation is neglected compared to i.e. vocabulary in the language classroom?

**SPEAKING ABILITY**

**Q1)** When it comes to teaching their students to speak in English, most teachers say that they pay more attention to voc than pron & gram (1<sup>st</sup>=voc, 2<sup>nd</sup>= pron & gram).

Why do you think this happens? Why do they focus on voc rather than pron?

**Q2) & Q3)** The teachers believe that (appropriate use of)voc plays a more important role than (a good level of) pron & (appropriate use of) gram when learners of English speak and want to be understood by others. If, i.e. a learner of English has a conversation with another learner of English (any non-native speaker of English) and there's a misunderstanding (or breakdown in communication) voc is more often responsible than pron or gram. Why do you think this is the case?

*Extra Question:*

Some experts in the field of ELT have claimed that 70% of the failures in communication among non-native speakers of English are caused by pronunciation. Do you agree? Or do you have a different view based on your experience?

**LISTENING COMPREHENSION**

**Q1)** The teachers said that for the learners to be able to understand in listening activities knowledge of pron is very important. However, a good knowledge of vocabulary is even more important. Do you agree? Why do you think this is?

**Q2)** The teachers thought that getting learners to listen to the accent of *native speakers of a standard British or American variety of English* is more important than to the accent of *native speakers of standard regional varieties of English*, the accent of *native speakers of non-standard regional varieties of English* and the accent of *non-native but fluent speakers of English*. Why do you think this is?

**Q3) a)** The teachers claimed that they expose learners to *conversations among native speakers of standard British English* a bit more frequently than to *American varieties of English*. Why do you think this is?

**b.** Overall, the teachers claimed that they expose learners to *conversations among native speakers of standard British or American varieties of English* more frequently than to *conversations among native speakers of standard regional varieties of English*, *conversations among native speakers of non-standard regional varieties of English*, *conversations among native speakers and non-native (but fluent) speakers of English* and *conversations among non-native (but fluent) speakers of English*. Why do you think this is?

**c.** Why do you think that exposing learners to *conversations among non-native (but fluent) speakers of English* is done so rarely? (especially nowadays when English is used primarily for communication among non-native speakers worldwide)

*Extra Question*

Overall, do you think that teachers use listening material in order to help learners understand a wide variety of accents? If not, why?

## **PRONUNCIATION AREAS**

**Q1)** Helping English language students to better understand spoken English and be understood by others...

The teachers said that *vowels* are more important than *consonants* for understanding spoken English and speaking English. Why do you think this is?

*Extra Question*

Do you focus on words first (vowels, consonants and stress) and then on connected speech and intonation (or vice versa)? Which (ones) do you teach first? Why?

## EXAMPLES/ CUES

### Word level

*Vowels i.e. /e/ can be spelled in different ways*

e: egg, left, said, head, read (past), instead, any, leisure

*Consonants i.e. /s/ can be spelled in different ways*

Sit, less, city, face, descent, psychology

### *Stress*

-many 'everyday' nouns and adjectives that have two syllables only are stressed on the first syllable: MOther, WAtter, TAbLe, Lovely

-words formed of a combination of two words are usually stressed on the first element: POSTman, NEWSpaper, TEApot

### Connected Speech

-elision (disappearance of a sound):

'We arrived the next day.'

'That's an interesting idea'

### Intonation

-question tags expecting confirmation (falling): You are Greek, aren't you?

-question tags showing less certainty (rising): You are Greek, aren't you?

## PRONUNCIATION MODELS

**Q1)** The vast majority of teachers (92%) choose to follow either a *standard British accent* or a *standard American accent* (or *both*) as pronunciation models in their teaching of English. Why do you think this is the case?

## PRONUNCIATION PERFORMANCE TARGETS

**Q1)** The teachers said that they would like their learners' accent to come 'very close' to a native-like model. However, they expect that it will only come 'quite close' to a native-like model. What do you think are the reasons behind this?

**Q2a)** When I asked teachers to choose between *accented international intelligibility* and *native-like pronunciation*, all teachers (except for one) chose *accented international intelligibility* as the most important pronunciation goal.

However, one third of the learners opted for native-like competence in pronunciation.

Why do you think this is?

**Q2b)** 26% of teachers did not provide a reason for their choice. Why do you think they did that?

### *Extra Question*

As part of my PhD thesis, I am very much concerned with the debate on pronunciation models and targets. Let me explain what I mean. Some applied linguists argue that in the past, people learned English in order to be able to communicate effectively with native speakers of English. So, native speakers of English were considered by all to be the owners of the language and the guardians of its standards. And, since English belonged to its native speakers it made sense for learners of English to follow native speaker models and try and imitate native-speakers. However, nowadays many people learn English in order to communicate with other non-native speakers of English. In fact, these days there are more non-native speakers than native speakers of English in the world. So these linguists have begun to call into question the whole issue of who owns the English language. (i.e. English cannot be viewed as the preserve of British people when there are more Indians that speak English than British people). They say that ‘English is an international language and it is owned by all those who use it’. It is not a ‘foreign language owned by its native speakers, i.e. British people or Australian people’. So, they say that native speaker models should stop being teaching models for learners of English as well as the point of reference against which their pronunciation should be judged. However, as we know (and as my research has shown), many ELT teachers use native speaker models when they teach pronunciation (i.e. British English standard accent) and try to get their learners to imitate those models.

What is your view on this matter? Who do you think owns the English language? What should be done?



## PRONUNCIATION TEACHING TECHNIQUES

- Q1)** a) Why do you think that ‘pronunciation practice before/ as part of/ after speaking activities’ is only sometimes used? (does it depend on time available etc.)
- b) Why do you think that ‘listening to authentic spoken English’ is often used?
- c) Why do you think that ‘modern computer technology’ is rarely/ never used?
- d) Why do you think that ‘the language laboratory’ is rarely used?
- e) Why do you think that ‘ear-training exercises’ are sometimes/ rarely used? (i.e. listening exercises that help learners discriminate between different intonation patterns or closely related sounds)

*Example: You will hear either sentence a or b. Circle the sentence you’ve just heard.*

- a. ‘Will he **leave** here?’ or b. ‘Will he **live** here?’
- a. ‘Don’t **sleep** on the floor’ or b. ‘Don’t **slip** on the floor’.
- f) Why do you think that ‘production exercises’ are often used? (i.e. ‘reading aloud’).

### *Extra Question*

Many writers of ELT materials say that first we need to get our students to understand/ listen to the sounds of English and then ask our students to produce them. So, they suggest that the teachers need to first concentrate on recognition activities (i.e. ‘listen and circle the word you hear’) and then on production activities (i.e. ‘now practise saying the words you have circled’).

Do you agree? Why? Why not? What do you do? – ‘listen & repeat’

- g) & h) Why do you think that ‘individual repetition/responses’ are more popular than ‘choral’ ones?
- i) Why do you think that the ‘phonemic symbols’ are rarely taught? (Many ELT PRON books have phonemic charts/ many authors of ELT PRON books recommend teaching students the phonetic script so that students can work out the pronunciation of new words for themselves etc.) Are your students familiar with the symbols of the phonetic alphabet? If not, why not?

*Extra:* The letter c has different pronunciations:

Cat, city, ocean, cello

- j) Why do you think that ‘phonological rules’ are often taught? (Are they useful? Do you teach i.e. stress placement rules?)

*Extra Question*

1) About 10 years ago I carried out a study with teachers of English here in Thessaloniki and found that only 30% of them taught pronunciation explicitly (that is, they gave their students oral activities to perform, such as choral or individual repetition, or taught them phonological rules). The majority of the teachers did not teach pronunciation at all; they thought that their students would just 'pick up' the correct pronunciation of words and so on while they were engaged in other grammar or vocabulary tasks. What do you think is the situation today? Is it different?

**PHONETICS COURSES & PRONUNCIATION TRAINING**

**Q1)** Approximately half of the teachers have not done a course in English phonetics as part of a University Degree; those that did found it very useful. Did it give you a sense of confidence/ do you have a good idea of what you are talking about when it comes to pronunciation in the language classroom thanks to this course?

**Q2)** The majority of the teachers never received any specific training in terms of the teaching of pronunciation. Those that did found it very useful.

*Extra Question*

If you have not done a course on phonetics/ if you have received no training in the teaching of pronunciation, would you like to do so?

*Closing Questions*

Is there anything you'd like to add? Do you have any questions?

## **Appendix 3.24 ‘Procedure’**

### Conducting the interview

#### *Prompts and probes*

According to Gillham (2000b: 42), interview development, “which means the appropriate development of the interviewee’s responses”, is essential and “a major topic in its own right”. The appropriate use of prompts and probes by the interviewer is one of the main ways of developing interviewee’s responses. Cohen et al (2007) delineate the role of prompts and probes in the course of an interview as follows:

Prompts enable the interviewer to clarify topics or questions, while probes enable the interviewer to ask respondents to extend, elaborate, add to, provide detail for, clarify or qualify their response, thereby addressing richness, depth of response, comprehensiveness and honesty that are some of the hallmarks of successful interviewing (see Patton 1980: 238). A probe may be simply the follow-up ‘why’ question. It could comprise simply repeating the question, repeating the answer in questioning tone, showing interest and understanding, asking for clarification or an example of further explication, or, indeed simply pausing.

Cohen et al, 2007: 360

The researcher made appropriate use of various prompts and probes throughout the interview (some of them had been devised prior to the interview and others came up as the interview progressed) and, overall, she found them a very useful tool in terms of eliciting further information or more accurate information from the interviewee.

## Section 4.3.2 ‘Learners versus Teachers: Results for RQ1a’

### Appendix 4.1

#### *Pronunciation status in teaching and learning speaking skills*

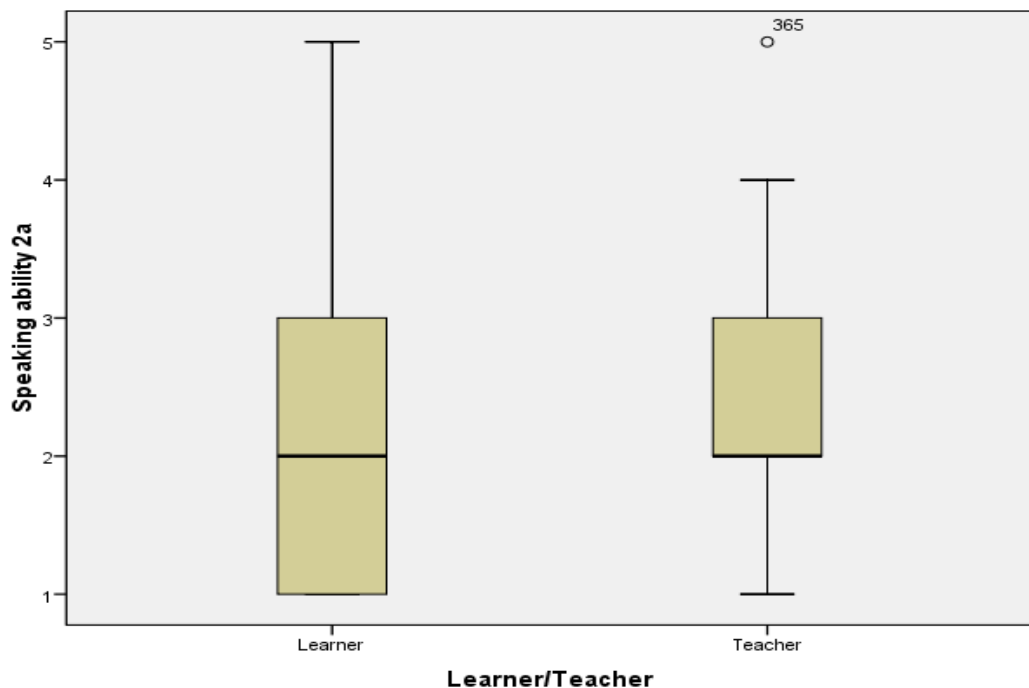
No statistically significant differences were found between learners’ and teachers’ evaluations of grammar and vocabulary.

#### *Pronunciation role in teaching and learning speaking skills*

No statistically significant differences were found between learners’ and teachers’ evaluations of vocabulary in terms of ‘importance’. However, a statistically significant difference was found between learners’ and teachers’ scores for ‘appropriate use of grammar’. The learners viewed the *appropriate use of grammar* as ‘more important’ for the intelligibility of their spoken discourse ( $M = 2.03$ ,  $S.D = 0.079$ ) compared to the teachers ( $M = 2.38$ ,  $S.D = 0.922$ ),  $t(371) = 2.322$ ,  $p = 0.021$  ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Box plot 1).

#### Box Plot 1

Perceived importance of grammar (‘Speaking Ability 2a’) the intelligibility of the learners’ oral discourse



Here I will provide an explanation of what is represented by Box plot 1 which the reader can refer back to in order to understand all Box plots included in this thesis. A Box plot is a way of summarising a set of data measured on an interval scale and shows the shape of the distribution, its central value and variability. This type of graph consists of the median, the lower and upper quartiles and the most extreme values in the data set (minimum and maximum values). The *median* for each dataset is indicated by the black center line<sup>35</sup>. The reader can see that, in our example, the two boxplots have nearly identical median values. The *first and third quartiles* are the edges of the yellow area and the yellow area is known as the *inter-quartile range* (IQR). In other words, the IQR covers the distance between the first and third quartiles. The first quartile of a group of values is the value such that 25% of the values fall at or below this value. The third quartile of a group of values is the value such that 75% fall at or below this value. In our example, we can see that the first quartile of the teachers' dataset corresponds to the median of that dataset. Also, we can see that the IQR is greater for the learners' dataset than the teachers' dataset which indicates that the variability of the scores given by the learners is greater than the variability of the scores given by the teachers. The *extreme values* (within 1.5 times the IQR from the upper or lower quartile) are the ends of the lines extending from the IQR. In our example, we can see that the minimum values of the learners' dataset correspond to the first quartile of that dataset. Also, we can see that the extreme values are closer to the median in the teachers' dataset than the learners' dataset. Points at a greater distance from the median than 1.5 times the IQR are plotted individually as asterisks and these points represent potential *outliers*. In our

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<sup>35</sup> For a more detailed explanation of what a boxplot represents the reader may wish to consult the following sources: <http://www.stat.yale.edu/Courses/1997-98/101/numsum.htm#quartiles>  
<http://www.stat.yale.edu/Courses/1997-98/101/boxplot.htm>

example, there is an outlier in the teachers' dataset. The number 365 corresponds to teacher '38'. (All participants have been allocated a number: 327 learners + 47 teachers = 374 participants overall).

No statistically significant differences were found between learners' and teachers evaluations of *grammar* and *vocabulary* in terms of 'responsibility'.

*Pronunciation status in teaching and learning listening skills*

No statistically significant differences were found between learners' and teachers' evaluations of *grammar* and *vocabulary* in terms of 'importance'.

*Perceived importance of exposure to various accents of English*

No statistically significant differences were found between learners' and teachers' scores for *native speakers of non-standard regional varieties of English* ('Listening Comprehension 2d') and learners' and teachers' scores for *non-native but fluent speakers of English* (Listening Comprehension 2e') in terms of 'importance'.

However, a statistically significant difference was found between learners' and teachers' responses to 'Listening Comprehension 2a'. The learners rated exposure to *native speakers of a standard British variety of English* ( $M = 1.97$ ,  $S.D = 0.951$ ) as 'less important' compared to the teachers ( $M = 1.62$ ,  $S.D = 0.945$ ),  $t(372) = 2.398$ ,  $p = 0.017$  ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Box plot 2).

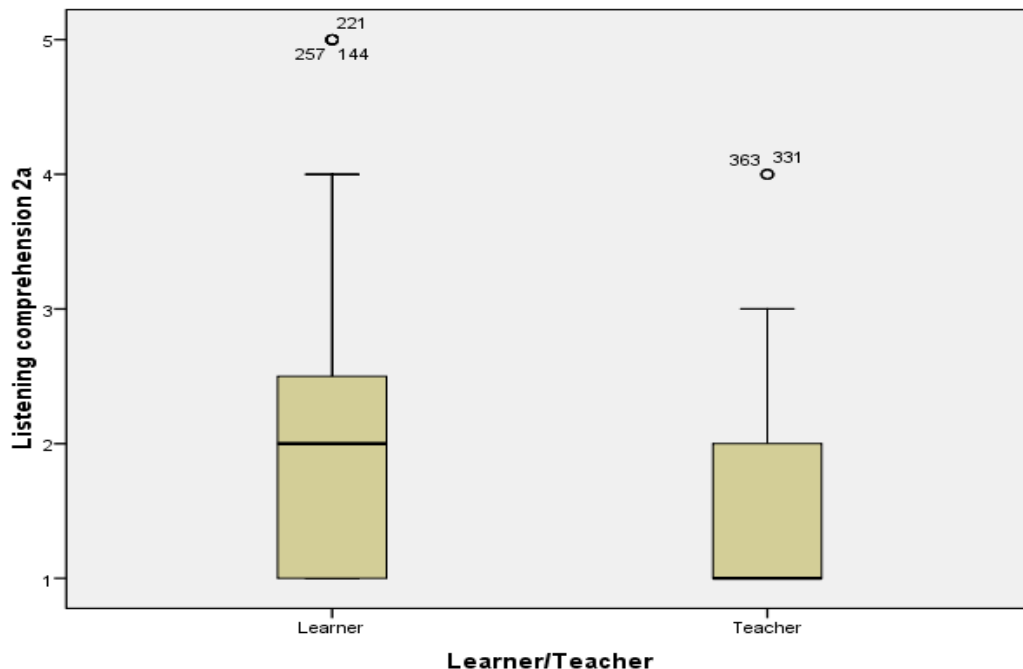
Also, a statistically significant difference was found between learners' and teachers' responses to 'Listening Comprehension 2b'. The learners rated exposure to *native speakers a standard American variety of English* ( $M = 2.05$ ,  $S.D = 0.972$ ) as 'less important' compared to the teachers ( $M = 1.67$ ,  $S.D = 1.055$ ),  $t(370) = 2.424$ ,  $p = 0.016$  ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Box plot 3).

Finally, a statistically significant difference was found between learners' and teachers' responses to 'Listening Comprehension 2c'. The learners rated exposure to *native speakers of standard regional varieties of English* ( $M = 3.18$ ,  $S.D = 1.200$ ) as 'less important' compared to the teachers ( $M = 2.61$ ,  $S.D = 0.977$ ),  $t(368) = 3.064$ ,  $p = 0.002$  ( $p < 0.05$ ) (Box plot 4).

**Nevertheless, the learners and teachers of this study attached greater importance to the exposure of learners to the accent of *native speakers of a standard British or American variety of English* compared to the accent of *native speakers of standard regional varieties of English*, the accent of *native speakers of non-standard regional varieties of English* and the accent of *non-native but fluent speakers of English* as part of the listening comprehension element of the course.**

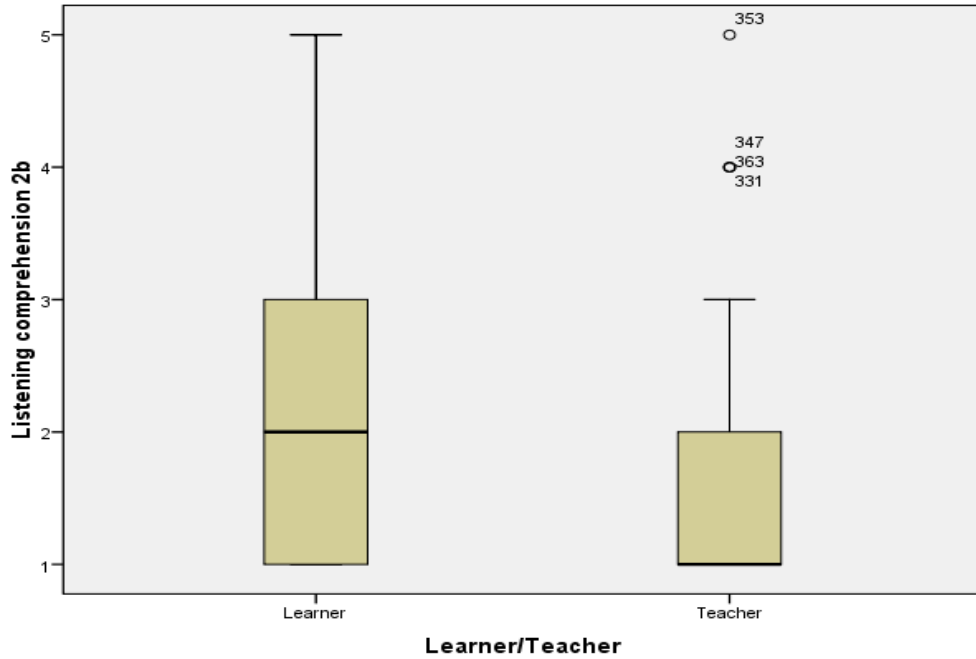
#### Box Plot 2

**Ratings of the accent of native speakers of a standard British variety of English ('Listening Comprehension 2a') in terms of 'importance of exposure'**



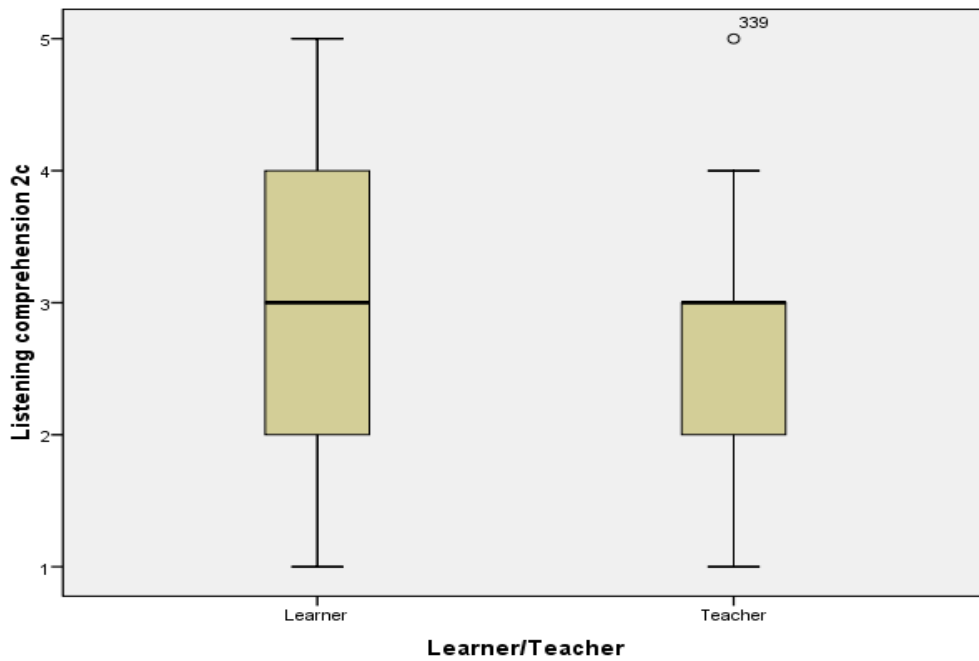
**Box Plot 3**

**Ratings of the accent of native speakers of a standard American variety of English ('Listening Comprehension 2b') in terms of 'importance of exposure'**



**Box Plot 4**

**Ratings of the accent of native speakers of standard regional varieties of English ('Listening Comprehension 2c') in terms of 'importance of exposure'**





### Section 4.3.3 ‘Teachers’ Questionnaires: Results for RQ1b

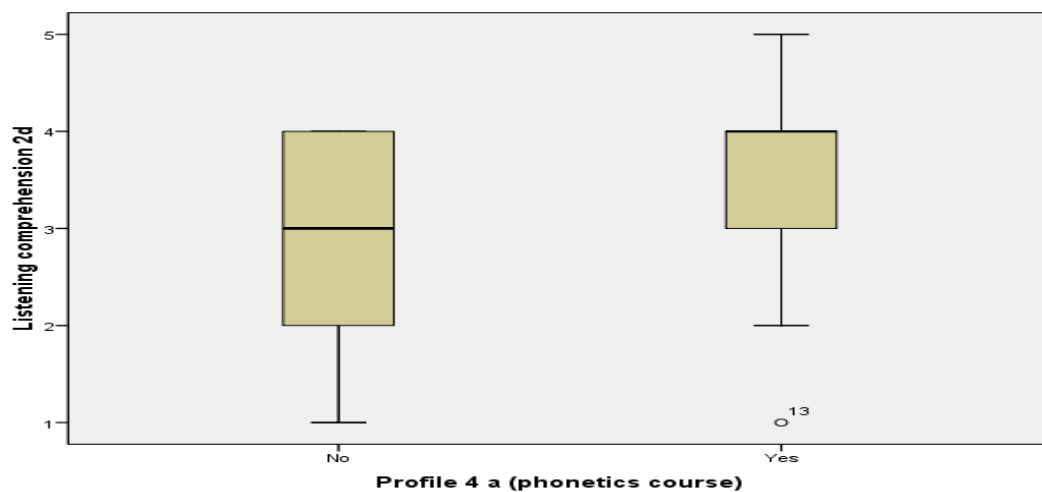
#### Appendix 4.2

##### Course in English Phonetics

There was a statistically significant difference in the responses of teachers to questionnaire item ‘Listening Comprehension 2d’ between those teachers that have attended a course in English phonetics ( $M = 3.65$ ,  $S.D = 1.027$ ) and those that have not ( $M = 2.70$ ,  $S.D = 1.063$ ),  $t(45) = 3.102$ ,  $p = 0.003$  ( $p < 0.008$ )<sup>36</sup>. The teachers that had attended a course in English phonetics viewed their learners’ listening to *native speakers of non-standard regional varieties of English* as ‘not so important’ whereas those that had not attended a course in English phonetics viewed it as ‘quite important’. Thus, the first group of teachers viewed their learners’ exposure to ‘native speakers of non-standard regional varieties of English’ through the listening material of the course as less important compared to the second group of teachers (Box plot 1).

##### Box plot 1

**Teachers’ ratings of the accent of native speakers of non-standard regional varieties of English (‘Listening Comprehension 2d’) in terms of ‘importance of exposure’**



<sup>36</sup> The adjusted alpha is set at 0.008 ( $=0.05/6$ ) here as each questionnaire item is tested six times since there are six independent variables for the teachers (gender, qualifications, teaching level, L1 course in English phonetics & pronunciation training).

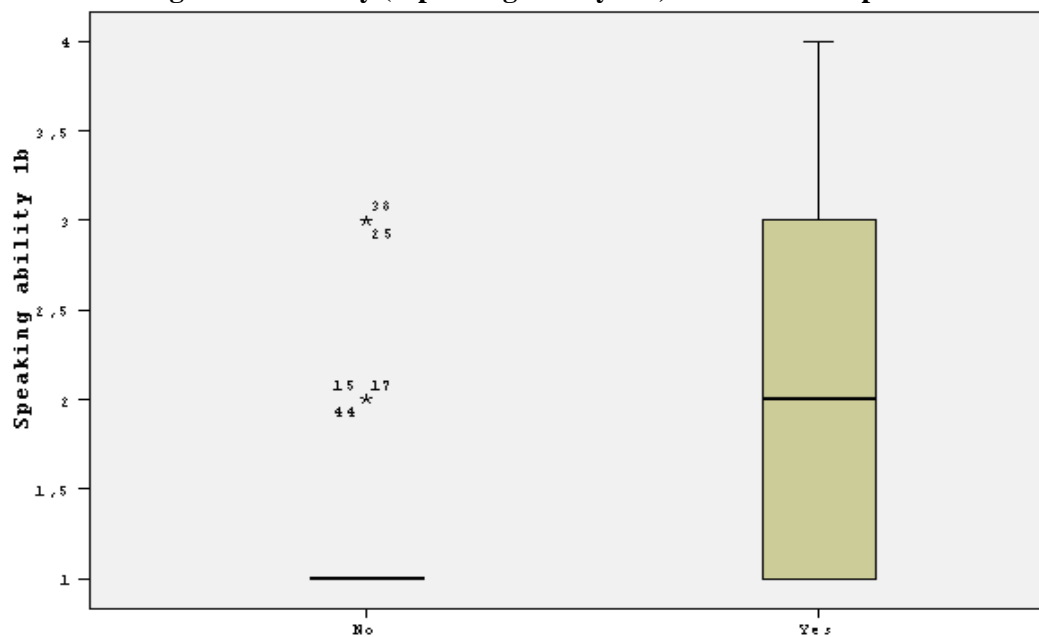
No other statistically significant differences emerged in the teachers' responses on any of the relevant questionnaire items according to the 'phonetics course' variable.

#### Pronunciation training (pronunciation course)

There was a statistically significant difference in the responses of teachers to 'Speaking Ability 1b' between those that have received training in the teaching of pronunciation (M = 2.15, S.D = 1.215) and those that have not (M = 1.24, S.D = 0.554)  $t(46) = 3.583, p = 0.003 (p < 0.008)$ . The teachers that had received training in pronunciation teaching regarded *vocabulary* as a 'very important' element in the development of their learners' speaking skills whereas those that had not received any training in pronunciation teaching regarded it as an 'extremely important' element in the developments of their learners' speaking skills. Vocabulary was regarded as a more important element in the teaching of speaking by the teachers who had not received training in pronunciation teaching compared to the teachers who had received training in the teaching of pronunciation (Box plot 2).

#### **Box plot 2**

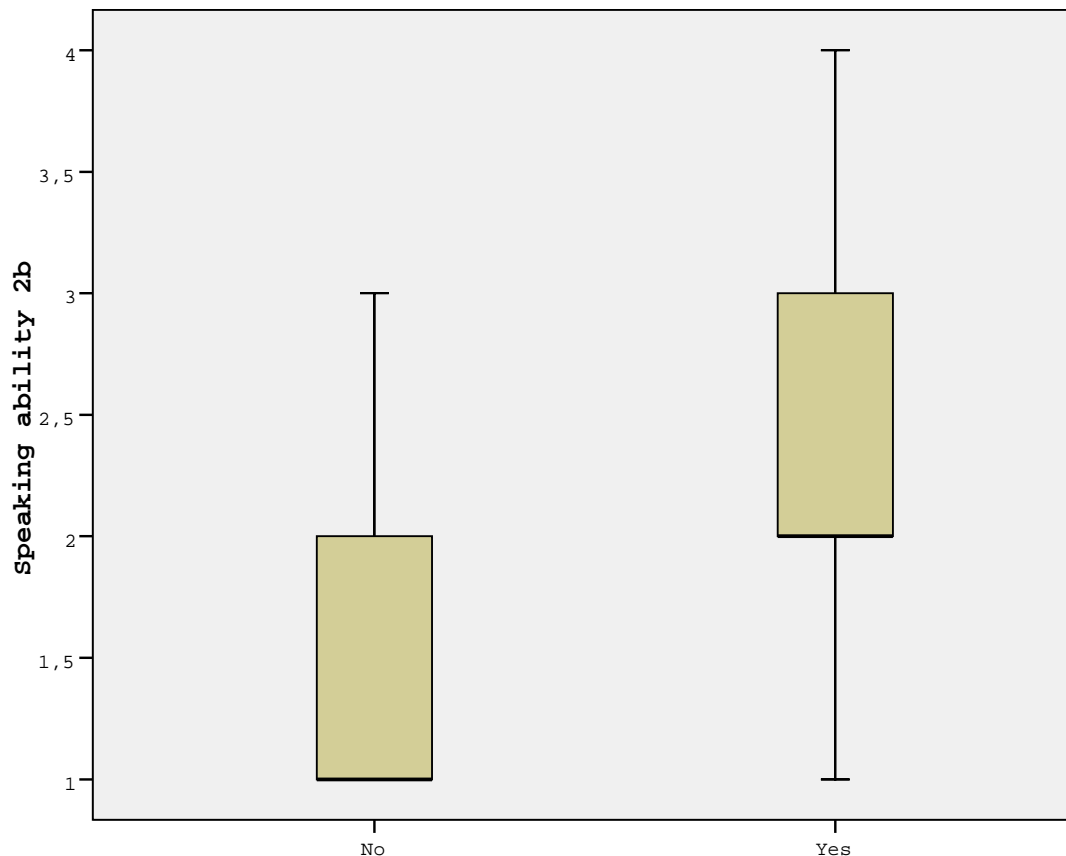
#### **Teachers' ratings of vocabulary ('Speaking Ability 1b') in terms of 'importance'**



There was a statistically significant difference in the responses of teachers to ‘Speaking Ability 2b’ between those that have received training in the teaching of pronunciation ( $M = 2.38$ ,  $S.D = 0.870$ ) and those that have not ( $M = 1.56$ ,  $S.D = 0.660$ )  $t(46) = 3.507$ ,  $p = 0.001$  ( $p < 0.008$ ). The teachers that had received training in pronunciation teaching attached less importance to the *appropriate use of vocabulary* as far as the intelligibility of their learners’ oral discourse was concerned compared to those teachers that had not received training in the teaching of pronunciation (Box plot 3).

**Box plot 3**

**Teachers’ ratings of vocabulary ‘Speaking Ability 2b’ in terms of ‘importance’**

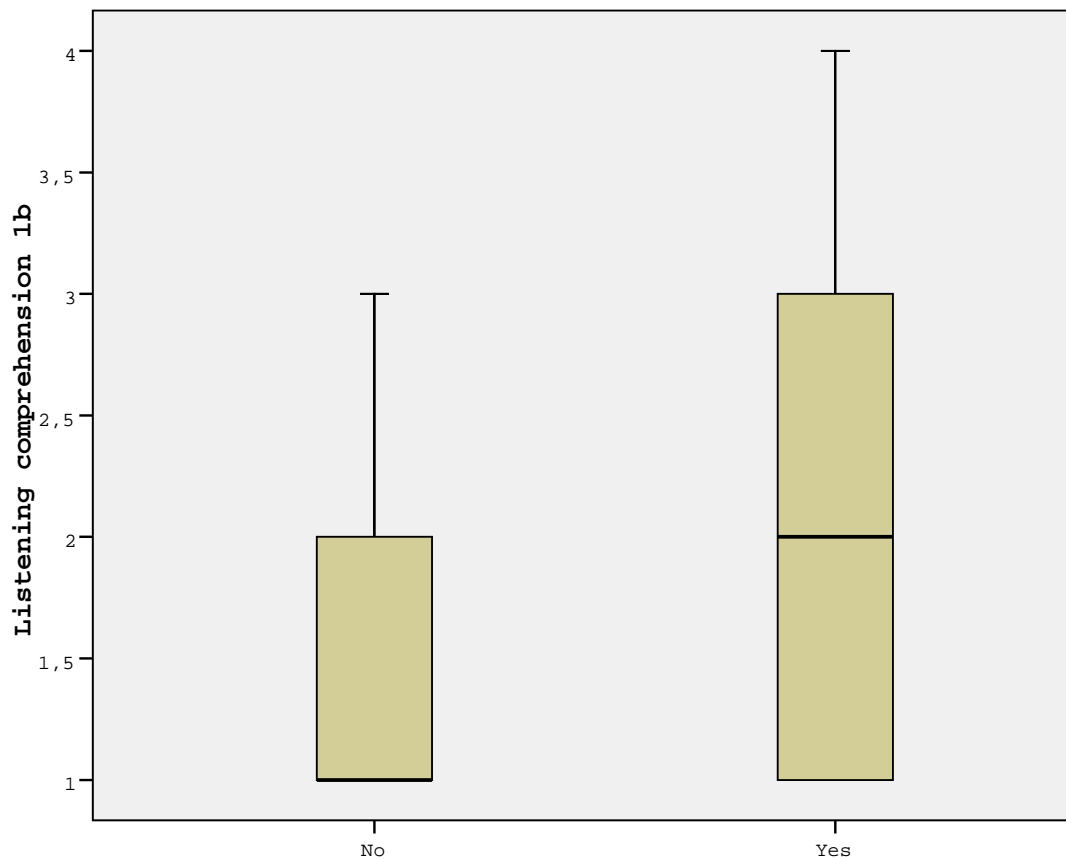


There was a statistically significant difference in the responses of teachers to ‘Listening Comprehension 1b’ between those that had received training in the teaching of pronunciation ( $M = 2.15$ ,  $S.D = 1.068$ ) and those that had not ( $M = 1.38$ ,

S.D = 0.604),  $t(46) = 3.129$ ,  $p = 0.001$  ( $p < 0.008$ ). The teachers that had received training in pronunciation teaching considered *knowledge of vocabulary* to be a ‘very important’ aspect of their learners’ listening comprehension and those that had not received any training in pronunciation teaching considered it to be an ‘extremely important’ aspect of their learners’ listening comprehension. Thus, knowledge of vocabulary was considered as a more important aspect of learners’ listening comprehension by the teachers who had received training in pronunciation teaching compared to the teachers who had not received training in pronunciation (Box plot 4).

**Box plot 4**

**Teachers’ ratings of knowledge of vocabulary (‘Listening Comprehension 1b’) in terms of ‘importance’**



No other statistically significant differences emerged in teachers’ responses to any of the relevant questionnaire items according to the ‘pronunciation training’ variable.

## Section 4.3.4 ‘Learners’ Questionnaires: Results for RQ1b’

### Appendix 4.3

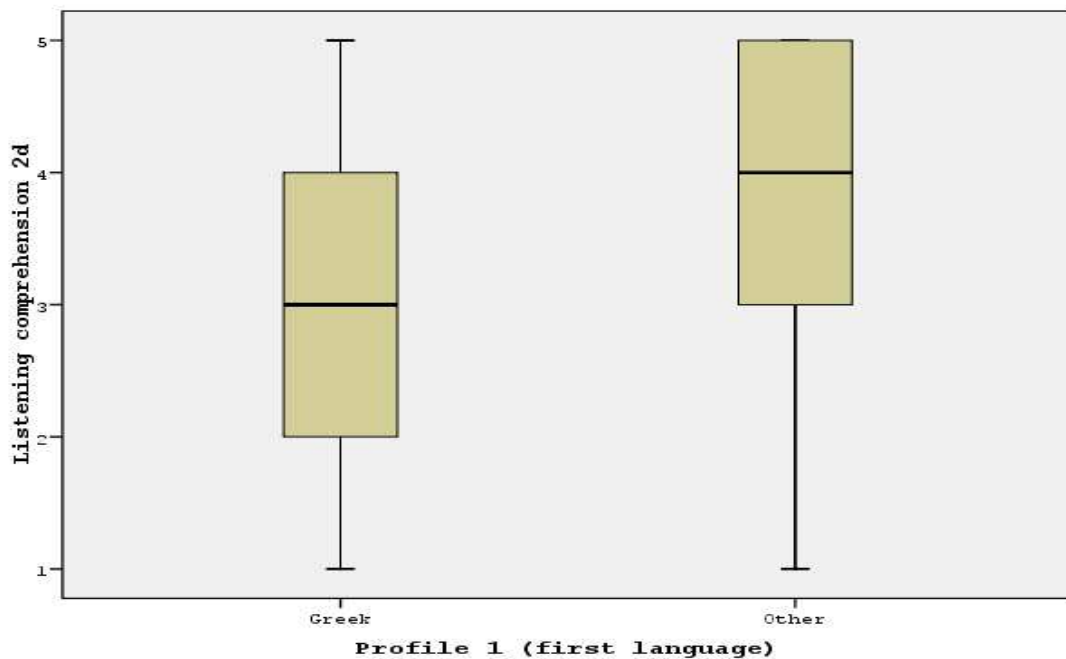
#### L1

A marginally statistically non-significant difference was found in the responses to ‘Listening Comprehension 2d’ between those learners that have Greek as their L1 and those learners that do not have Greek as their L1. Greek L1 learners regarded their exposure to *non-standard regional varieties of English* through the listening material of the course as ‘more important’ ( $M = 3.07$ ,  $S.D = 1.277$ ) compared to Other L1 learners ( $M = 3.63$ ,  $S.D. = 1.245$ ),  $t(326) = 2.185$ ,  $p = 0.03$  (adjusted alpha is set at 0.016 here)<sup>37</sup> (Box Plot 1).

No other statistically significant differences emerged in learners’ responses on any of the relevant questionnaire items.

#### Box Plot 1

**Learners’ ratings of the accent of native speakers of non-standard regional varieties of English (‘Listening Comprehension 2d’) in terms of ‘importance of exposure’**



<sup>37</sup> The adjusted alpha is set at 0.016 here ( $=0.05/3$ ) as each questionnaire item is tested three times since there are three independent variables for the learners (gender, level of English and L1).

### **Section 4.4.3 ‘Teachers’ and Learners’ Questionnaires: Qualitative Data Results for RQ2a’**

#### **Appendix 4.4 ‘Main Categorisation for Teachers’ & Learners’ Answers’**

##### Teachers’ answers

###### *Teachers who have not provided a reason for their choice*

It is difficult to account for the fact that approximately one out of the four teachers who chose accented international intelligibility did not explain why they did so. The phenomenon of respondents failing to write in their answer when required as part of a questionnaire is frequently encountered by researchers and can be attributed to various factors such as respondents not wishing to spend extra time or make the effort to write in their answer. However, it is unlikely that this was the case with the participants of this research – at least, as far as the teachers are concerned – since the vast majority of the participants wrote in their answers as required as part of other questions of the same questionnaire. While bearing in mind that the following may not apply to all the teachers of this study that did not provide a reason for their choice, the author of the thesis would like to note the comment one particular participant made after returning the completed questionnaire; “You don’t mind that I didn’t write down an answer for this [participant pointing to question 3b] but that [the *accented-international intelligibility* option] speaks for itself; of course, this is more important! And, who cares if they sound like native speakers?” It is possible that other participants shared the same or a similar view; nevertheless, using the comment made by one participant as an explanation for the behaviour of the remaining eleven participants who did not articulate their thoughts on this matter would be a generalisation based on little evidence.

*Item(s) that fitted two categories*

Each item ('teacher's answer') was allocated exclusively to one of the categories described below. There was only one exception; a particular item that was placed in Category 3 'issues of origin/ identity/ character' as well as in Category 1 'emphasis on successful communication' since the first sentence of the teacher's answer (*'It's important when they speak to be fully understood by native speakers'*) was related to the issues covered by Category 1 and the second sentence of the teacher's answer (*'I don't think that adopting the level of native speakers would be so appropriate; keeping your cultural identity even through language is something which should characterise non-native speakers'*) was related to the issues covered by Category 3. (See Boxes 1 & 3 in this Appendix)

*Teachers who chose accented international intelligibility (AII)***Category 1: Emphasis on successful/ effective/ comprehensible communication****Box 1  
Examples**

Item 1: *'Being able to express oneself effectively is more important than having a 'so-called' accent which might not necessarily mean being able to get one's message across. What is important is being able to pronounce words clearly enough to be understood while conversing.'*

Item 2: *'The aim of teaching pronunciation is to teach students how to communicate.'*

Item 3: *'The main purpose is to achieve communication not native-like pronunciation.'*

Item 4: *'Language is a means of communicating not a reason to show off.'*

## Category 2: The mastery of NLP is not a feasible target

### Box 2 Examples

Item 1: *'It is quite difficult to get the native speaker's accent so I'll settle to what I can get.'*

Item 2: *'It is not easy to have them speaking like a native. One has to reside in an English speaking country to adapt their accent. This could take years to achieve.'*

Item 3: *'It seems that however hard teachers and students may try, the latter will never sound like native speakers.'*

Item 4: *'There isn't so much time in class to perfect the students' pronunciation. We focus on grammar and vocabulary.'*

## Category 3: Issues of origin/identity/character.

### Box 3 Examples

Item 1: *'It's important when they speak to be fully understood by native speakers. I don't think that adopting the level of native speakers would be so appropriate; keeping your cultural identity even through language is something which should characterise non-native speakers.'*

Item 2: *'It is not their native language and who is to say which accent/ pronunciation is correct?'*



Learners' answers*Learners who chose NLP***Category 1: Notions of correctness/accuracy; 'this is the appropriate/right thing to do'****Box 1**  
**Examples**

Item 1: *'When we learn a foreign language we must have it in our mind in such a way as if it was our first language.'*

Item 1: *'Because I think it's more correct.'*

Item 3: *'Because the language was made to be pronounced like this.'*

Item 4: *'I believe that when we do/ learn something and would like to reach a good level in that 'something', we should do so correctly. The goal is to learn how to speak the English language correctly and it is not right to say: "since I know grammar and vocabulary who cares about pronunciation?".'*

**Category 2: Effective communication is more likely to be achieved.****Box 2**  
**Learners' answers (examples)**

Item 1: *'It will be easier to communicate with those who have English as their mother-tongue.'*

Item 2: *'Because the people that have English as their first language will not understand me.'*

Item 3: *'Since I am not going to interact with other Greek in English I want my accent to be as close as possible to that of a British person so I can be easily understood by people from other countries.'*

Item 3: *'In order to minimise any misunderstandings in any conversations with native speakers of English or in the case of a seminar/ presentation so I can be perfectly understood by others.'*

Item 5: *'So I will be better understood by others and I will not need to repeat everything I say.'*

**Category 3: Sense of achievement/indication of high level of competence in English.**

**Box 3**  
**Examples**

Item 1: *'I believe that if I achieve that, then I will be excellent.'*

Item 2: *'Because speaking a language correctly when going to another country and no one can tell you're a foreigner is the reward for all the work you have done.'*

Item 3: *'Because this will show to others that I have been learning English for years and that I know English well.'*

Item 4: *'In this way you can prove that you have a very good or excellent command of the English language.'*

Item 5: *'I chose the first option because people I converse with in English are impressed by my accent and even ask me if I have relatives in Britain. They seem very surprised when I tell them I don't have any and I have never even been to an English-speaking country!'*

**Category 4: Love for the English language & its pronunciation.**

**Box 4**  
**Examples**

Item 1: *'I think that English pronunciation is 'charming'.'*

Item 2: *'I chose the first one because I prefer the pronunciation of the native speakers and I think that with this I can also communicate better and of course it sounds much better.'*

Item 3: *'Because I like the pronunciation of English.'*

**Category 5: Greater acceptance by NSs; ‘fitting in/feeling more comfortable’.**

Please note that items 2 and 3 (Box 5) were initially placed in to the ‘miscellaneous items’ category. However, it was decided to move them to this category since we could argue that these two respondents would feel less comfortable if people could see that they are non-native speakers.

**Box 5  
Examples**

Item 1: *‘So I will feel more comfortable.’*

Item 2: *‘When I speak in English I want others to think that I have English as a first language.’*

Item 3: *‘Because I would like for people to think that English is my first language.’*

Item 4: *‘Because I want to live there (Britain, U.S.A and so on).’*

Item 5: *‘Because I want to live abroad (UK).’*

**Box 6  
Items that fitted two categories instead of one**

Category 3 & Category 4

Item 1: *‘Because I want to be perfectly understood and also I love English and I would like for people to think I am a native speaker.’*

Item 2: *‘I chose the first one because I prefer the pronunciation of the native speakers and I think that with this I can also communicate better and of course it sounds much better.’*

Item 3: *‘Because I like the English language very much and I want to be understood by others.’*

Category 3 & Category 2

Item 4: *‘I believe that in this way I will be fully understood whereas if I speak English with a Greek accent, I may not. And, of course the first option shows a higher level of competence in English.’*

Category 4 & Category 1

Item 5: *‘Because this is the pronunciation I like and since we are learning a foreign language we must acquire the relevant accent/ pronunciation.’*

*Learners who chose AII*

**Category 1: Emphasis on successful/effective/comprehensible communication.**

**Box 7**

**Learners' answers (examples)**

Item 1: *'I think that only communication and comprehension are important.'*

Item 2: *'What matters to me is the person I am having a conversation with in English to be able to understand what I am saying without any difficulties; it is not important to me for others to think I have English as a first language.'*

Item 3: *'I don't think it is necessary to have the same accent as those who have English as a first language. What I want to achieve is to be understood by those who have English as a first language and those who do not have English as a first language.'*

Item 4: *'I think that the goal is to successfully communicate with others and not to become a specialist in the English language.'*

**Category 2: Issues of origin/identity/character; Greek identity – national pride.**

**Box 8**

**Learners' answers (examples)**

Item 1: *'I want other people to know I am Greek.'*

Item 2: *'I want others to be able to tell I am Greek.'*

Item 3: *'I don't want to change my accent and not sound 'Greek'.'*

Item 4: *'I am a nationalist. I want to keep my Greek accent.'*

Item 5: *'Because I don't like to speak with the pretentious accent of English people'*

**Category 3: The mastery of NLP is not a feasible target.**

**Box 9**

**Learners' answers (examples)**

Item 1: *'The pronunciation of someone who does not have English as a first language cannot reach the level of pronunciation of someone who does. I think that my pronunciation cannot reach the level of a British teenager. So, I'd be happy if I reached a level at which I could be fully understood by all speakers of English.'*

Item 2: *'It is not possible for me to change my pronunciation. So, I accept this fact and just want to be understood by others as much as possible.'*

Item 3: *'The other option is not a feasible target.'*

Item 4: *'I think a native-like accent can only be achieved if someone lives in England for many years.'*

Item 5: *'Because I think that achieving native-like competence in pronunciation is very difficult.'*

**Category 4: Limited goals (e.g. passing exams).****Box 10****Learners' answers (examples)**

Item 1: *'I learn English to obtain certificates (FCE, CPE) and in order to use them for my job later on.'*

Item 2: *'I just want to succeed in the CPE exam.'*

Item 3: *'I just want to graduate.'*

Item 4: *'I am not interested in pronunciation. I just want to be able to speak in English.'*

Item 5: *'As long as I know some English.'*

**Box 11****Each item was placed in two categories**

Category 1 & Category 3

Item 1: *'I don't need to sound like a native-speaker. I just need to be able to communicate with others. I don't think I will be able to reach the level of native speakers.'*

Item 2: *'I don't have unrealistic goals. I just want to be able to communicate successfully.'*

Category 1 & Category 3

Item 1: *'I'm not interested in people thinking that English is my first language. What I want is to be understood by others and successfully communicate with others. I like the fact that I pronounce certain words in English with a Greek accent.'*

Item 2: *'This is what I am interested in; for others to understand me perfectly well and also for me to keep my Greek accent.'*

Item 3: *'It is more important and easier to speak English with a Greek accent and be perfectly understood by others.'*

## Appendix 4.5 ‘Supplementary Categorisation for Teachers’ & Learners’ Answers’

### Garrett et al (2005) supplementary categorisation

In their paper on attitudinal data from New Zealand, Australia, the USA and the UK about each other’s Englishes, Garrett et al (2005) first outline the coding scheme they adopted (discrete categorisation of all items) and then go on to state:

Essentially, we simply looked across the data for any further thematic groupings that appeared in any way to provide further insights into the respondents’ views. As we shall show below, such thematic groupings cut across the coding categories of the scheme outlined above, and sometimes only emerged in one area of the data – for example, for only Australian English, and only from the US respondents.

Garrett et al, 2005: 220

Later on in the course of the same paper, Garrett et al (2005) inform the reader that some of the comments made by the US respondents about Australian English were found to refer to ‘toughness’ in some way. These items had already been placed into different categories. Nevertheless, Garrett et al (2005) created a grouping of those items referred to as ‘tough’ in order to examine how large the grouping was and whether or not the judges in different countries differed in using these terms about Australian English.

#### **Box 1**

#### **Examples for ‘perfect/ correct English’ (Teachers)**

Teachers –native-like pronunciation

Item 1: *‘A teacher’s goal should be to improve as much as possible students’ pronunciation in order to make it **perfect**.’*

Teachers – accented international intelligibility

Item 1: *‘It is important to be able to communicate with both native and non-native speakers of English. With a **perfect accent**, they run the risk of not being easily understood by non-native speakers.’*

Item 2: *‘Learning a language is about being able to converse with and understand each other, not about “**perfect speech**” of a language.’*

Item 3: *‘There isn’t so much time in class to **perfect the students’ pronunciation**. We focus on grammar and vocabulary.’*

**Box 2****Examples for 'perfect/ correct English' (Learners)**Learners–native-like pronunciation

Item 1: *'I would like to have a **perfect pronunciation** just to be considered as a native speaker.'*

Item 2: *'If somebody wants to speak a foreign language they must speak it **correctly**.'*

Item 3: *'It is good for one to speak a foreign language **perfectly**.'*

Learners – accented international intelligibility

Item 1: *'As long as we are understood it does not matter if we speak with a **perfect accent**.'*

Item 2: *'I don't like English very much so I don't want to speak **perfect English**.'*

Item 3: *'I like to be able to communicate with others and I am not interested in acquiring a **perfect accent**.'*

**Box 3****Examples for affective items (Learners)**Learners–native-like pronunciation

Item 1: *'I prefer it when foreigners speak in Greek clearly with a perfect Greek accent and I suppose that foreigners (British/ American people) prefer listening to someone who speaks their language correctly.'*

Item 2: *'Having the same accent/ pronunciation as those who have English as a first language gives you prestige.'*

Item 3: *'It is essential for me to sound like a native speaker as I intend to become an English language teacher.'*

Item 4: *'So I can communicate better with others and no one will make fun of my accent.'*

Learners – accented international intelligibility

Item 1: *'So that others will not think I am from there and speak so terribly (differently).'*

Item 2: *'So that others can tell I have a very good command of the English language despite the fact it is not my first language.'*

Item 3: *'I don't want to sound like somebody who has English as a first language.'*

Item 4: *'Some people don't want to be mistaken for an English person.'*

It is worth noting that while a substantial proportion of learners' responses could be placed into the 'self-regard/ regard by others' grouping, there were also those learners who stated very clearly that they '*don't care*' about what other people think or '*it is not important*' to them what other people think. Nevertheless, such responses were only found among those learners who opted for accented-international intelligibility and were only 5.4% of the learners' responses.

#### **Box 4**

##### **Examples for 'personal terms' & 'making generalisations' (Teachers)**

'personal terms' (referring to the learners directly)

*'My priority is proficient communication. I want my students to be able to understand and be understood when speaking in English.'*

'making generalisations'

*'The aim of teaching pronunciation is to teach students how to communicate.'*

#### **Box 5**

##### **Examples for 'personal terms' & 'making generalisations'(Learners)**

'personal terms' (referring to the learners directly)

*'So I will be better understood by others and will not need to repeat everything I say.'*

'making generalisations'

*'What matters is not to have a perfect accent but to be able to successfully communicate with others.'*



**Section 4.6 ‘Additional Findings’**

**Appendix 4.6 ‘Language Areas’**

Quantitative data results

*Teachers*

**Box 1**

**Relevant questionnaire question (Teachers)**

<p><b>I. LANGUAGE AREAS</b></p> <p><b>1 a) If there was extra time for teaching English, would you give your students more practice/ activities in the area of ...</b></p> <p><i>Please tick one box only</i></p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> grammar/ syntax</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> vocabulary</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> pronunciation</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> other (<i>please specify</i>):.....</p> <p><b>b) Please give a brief reason for your answer:</b></p> <p>.....</p> <p><b>2. <u>How difficult</u> do you think are the following for students of English to learn?</b></p> <p><i>Please tick one box for each item using the scale 1-5 (1= extremely difficult; 5= not at all difficult)</i></p> <table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse; text-align: center;"> <thead> <tr> <th style="width: 30%;"></th> <th style="width: 5%;">1</th> <th style="width: 5%;">2</th> <th style="width: 5%;">3</th> <th style="width: 5%;">4</th> <th style="width: 5%;">5</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>a. grammar/ syntax</td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td>b. vocabulary</td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td>c. pronunciation</td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> </tr> </tbody> </table>							1	2	3	4	5	a. grammar/ syntax						b. vocabulary						c. pronunciation					
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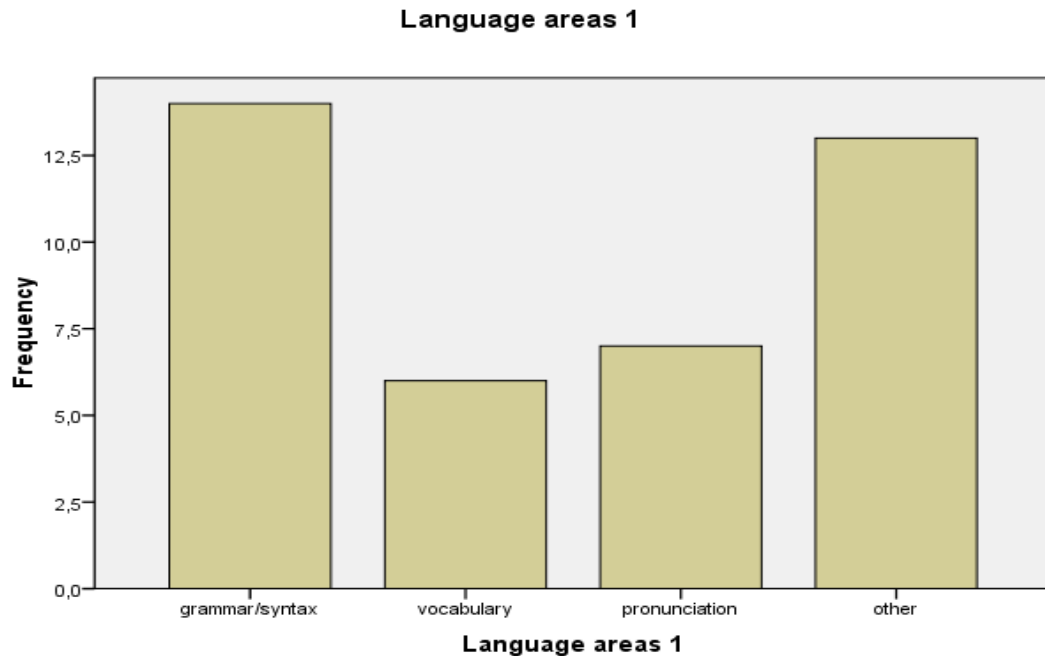
Table 2 shows that if there was extra time for learning English, 29.8% of teachers would give their learners more practice/activities in the area of *grammar*, 12.8% in the area of *vocabulary* and 14.9% in the area of *pronunciation*. It is interesting to note

that the remaining 27.7% of the teachers ticked *other*; the teachers that chose *other* mentioned most frequently ‘reading literature’ and ‘speaking’.<sup>38</sup>

**Table 2**  
**Results for questionnaire item (1a), Section I ‘Language Areas’**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	grammar/syntax	14	29,8	35,0	35,0
	vocabulary	6	12,8	15,0	50,0
	pronunciation	7	14,9	17,5	67,5
	other	13	27,7	32,5	100,0
	Total	40	85,1	100,0	
Missing <sup>39</sup>	System	7	14,9		
Total		47	100,0		

**Figure 3**



<sup>38</sup> Approximately one third of the teachers who chose *other* put down ‘reading literature’, one third put down ‘speaking’ and the rest put down ‘playing games’, ‘culture’, ‘collocations/ expressions’, ‘writing’ and ‘general practice’.

<sup>39</sup> ‘Missing’ denotes those teachers that either did not provide an answer to this questionnaire question or their answers were considered invalid (for example, they ticked more than one options when required to only choose one.)

Table 4 shows that the mean response for *grammar* was 3.04 (N = 47, S.D = 0.932), the mean response for *vocabulary* was 3.04 (N = 47, S.D = 0.806) and the mean response for *pronunciation* was 2.96 (N = 47, S.D = 1.062). This finding shows that the teachers regard all three language areas (grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation) as ‘quite difficult’ for the learners to master; all scores are at the mid-point of the ‘difficulty’ scale.

**Table 4**  
**Results for questionnaire item (2), Section I ‘Language Areas’**

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Grammar/Syntax (Language areas 2a)	47	1	5	3,04	,932
Vocabulary (Language areas 2b)	47	1	5	3,04	,806
Pronunciation (Language areas 2c)	47	1	5	2,96	1,062

*Learners*

**Box 5**

**Relevant questionnaire question (Learners)**

**I. LANGUAGE AREAS**

**1 a) If there was extra time for teaching English, would you like the teacher to give you more practice/ activities in the area of ...**

*Please tick one box only*

- grammar/ syntax
- vocabulary
- pronunciation
- other (*please specify*):.....

**b) Please give a brief reason for your answer:**

.....

**2. How difficult do you find the following to learn?**

*Please tick one box for each item using the scale 1-5 (1= extremely difficult; 5= not at all difficult)*

	1	2	3	4	5
a. grammar/ syntax					
b. vocabulary					
c. pronunciation					

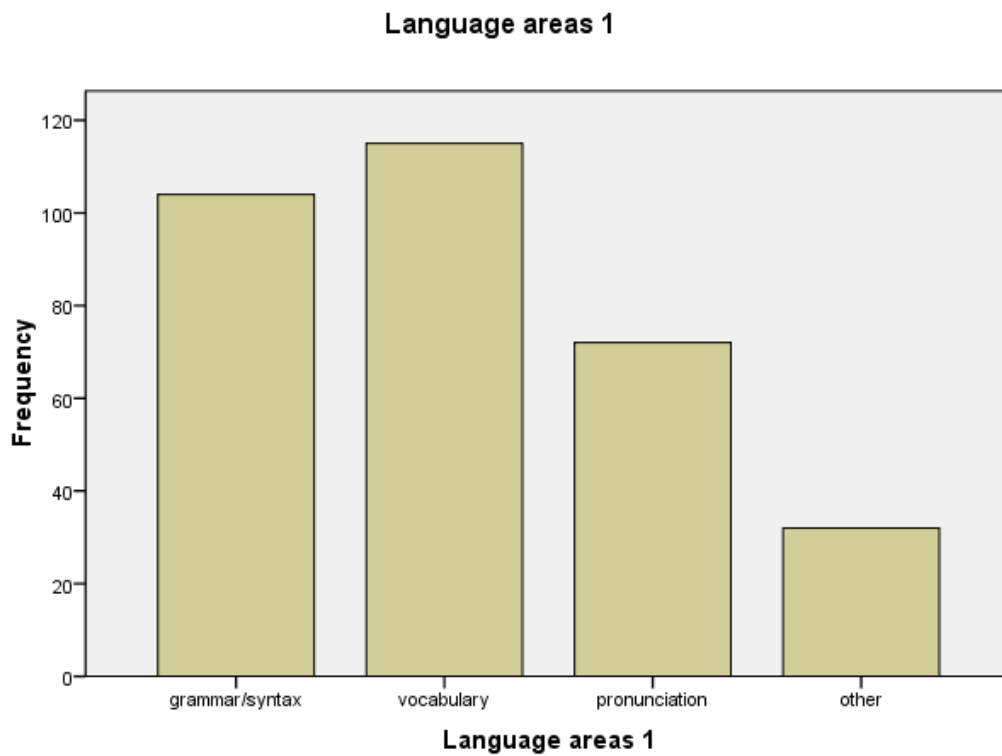
Table 6 shows that 31.8% of the learners would like their teacher to give them more practice/ activities in the area of *grammar*, 35.2% in the area of *vocabulary* and 22% in the area of *pronunciation*. It is interesting to note that only 9.8% of the learners chose *other*; the learners that chose *other* mentioned most frequently ‘speaking’ and ‘listening’.<sup>40</sup>

<sup>40</sup> Approximately one third of the learners who chose *other* put down ‘speaking’, one third put down ‘listening’ and the rest put down ‘essay writing’, ‘video’ and ‘reading’.

**Table 6**  
**Results for questionnaire item (1a), Section I ‘Language Areas’**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	grammar/syntax	104	31,8	32,2	32,2
	vocabulary	115	35,2	35,6	67,8
	pronunciation	72	22,0	22,3	90,1
	other	32	9,8	9,9	100,0
	Total	323	98,8	100,0	
Missing <sup>41</sup>	System	4	1,2		
Total		327	100,0		

**Figure 7**



<sup>41</sup> ‘Missing’ denotes those learners that did not provide an answer to this question.

Table 8 shows that the mean response for *grammar* was 3.25 (N = 327, S.D = 1.008), the mean response for *vocabulary* was 2.95 (N = 327, S.D = 1.139) and the mean response for *pronunciation* was 3.63 (N = 327, S.D = 1.129). These findings show that the learners regard grammar and vocabulary as ‘quite difficult’ (their scores were at the mid-point of the scale) to master and pronunciation as ‘not so difficult’ (its score was on the bottom side of the scale close to scalar point ‘4’).

**Table 8**  
**Results for questionnaire item (2), Section I ‘Language Areas’**

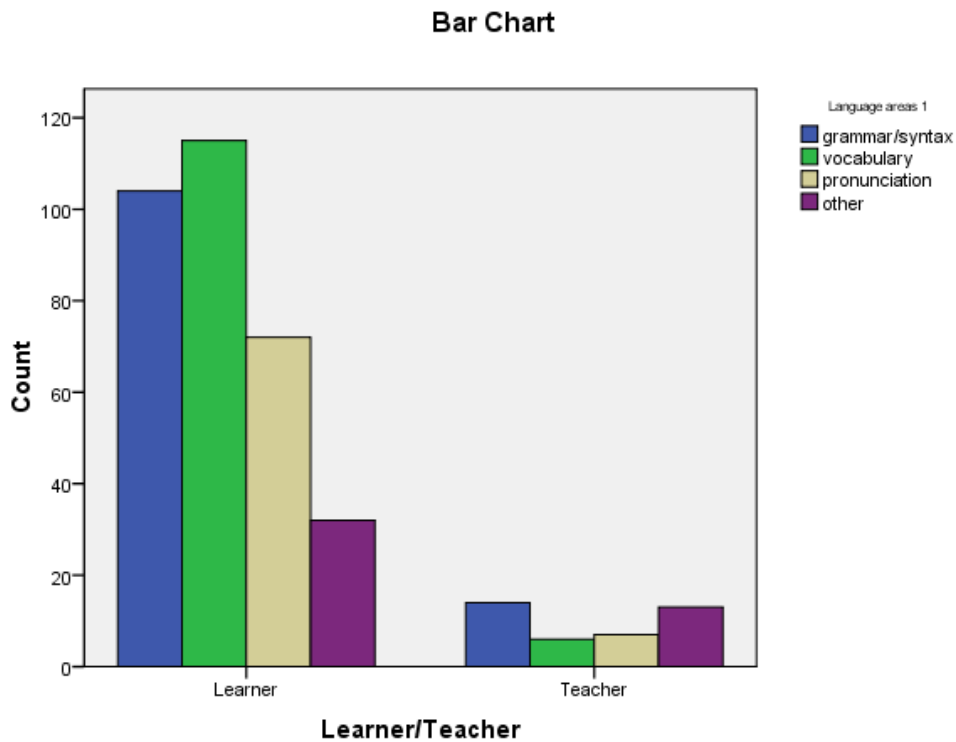
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Grammar/ Syntax (Language areas 2a)	327	1	5	3,25	1,008
Vocabulary (Language areas 2b)	327	1	5	2,95	1,139
Pronunciation (Language areas 2c)	326	1	5	3,63	1,129

### *Learners versus Teachers*

The chi-square test was conducted to determine whether or not there were any statistically significant relationships between learners and teachers and their responses to the ‘Language Areas 1a’ question; in other words, it was used to see if the responses given for the qualitative variables of the particular question were similar for the learners and teachers.

A statistically significant relationship emerged between the teachers’ and learners’ choice of language areas,  $\chi^2(3, 118) = 19.649, p < 0.001$  (alpha is set at 0.05 here). There was a greater preference among learners for extra practice in the areas of *grammar*, *vocabulary* and *pronunciation* compared to the teachers; the teachers chose *other* more frequently than the learners did (Figure 9).

**Figure 9**  
**Relationship between teachers’ and learners’ answers for ‘Language Areas 1a’**



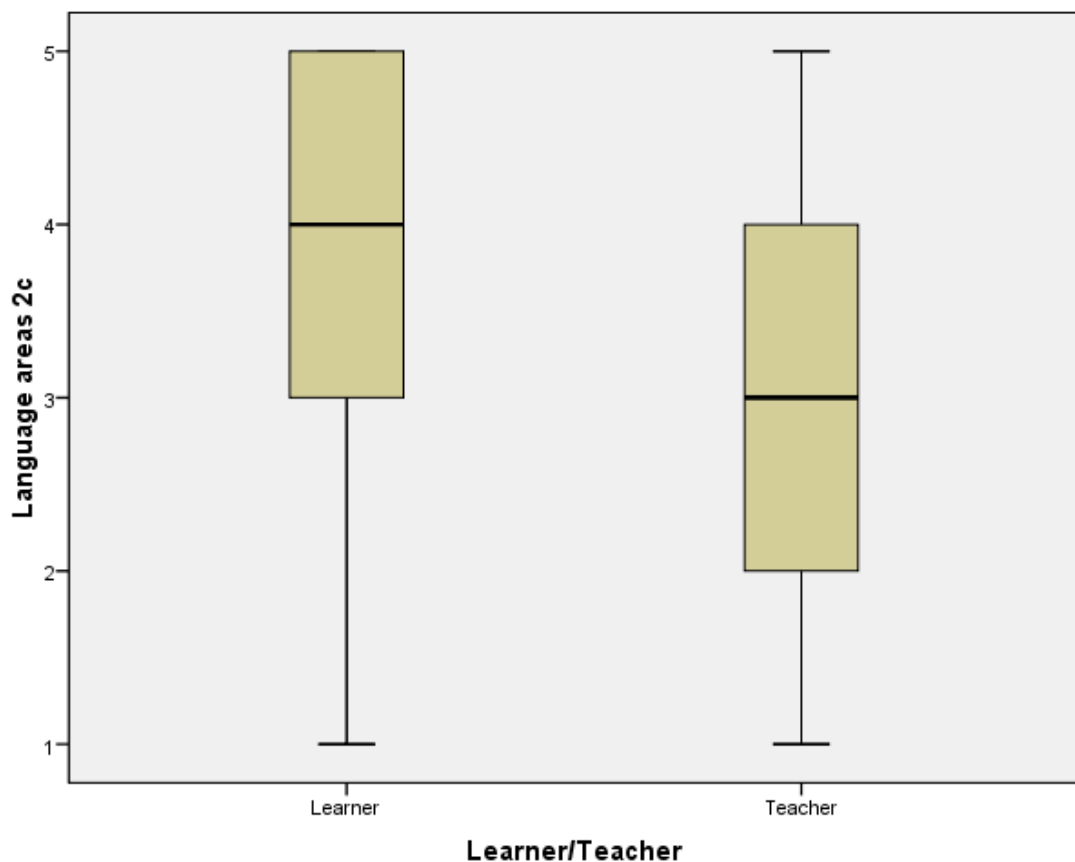
This is not a surprising finding, as it was expected that the teachers would have a broader perspective on what else could be done in the language classroom if they were given extra time for the teaching of English.

The independent t-test was used to uncover whether or not there was a statistically significant difference in the responses between the group of learners and the group of teachers for the ‘Language Areas 2’ question.

A statistically significant difference was found between learners’ scores ( $M = 3.63$ ,  $S.D = 1.129$ ) and teachers’ scores ( $M = 2.96$ ,  $S.D = 1.062$ ) for *pronunciation* (‘Language Areas 2c’) in terms of ‘perceived difficulty’,  $t(371) = 3.821$ ,  $p < 0.001$  (alpha is set at 0.05 here). The teachers regarded *pronunciation* as a more difficult language area for the learners to master than the learners did (Box plot 10).

#### Box Plot 10

Learners’ versus teachers’ scores for pronunciation (‘Language Areas 2c’)





Again, this is not a surprising finding, as the teachers would be aware to a greater extent than the learners of the complexities involved in the mastery of pronunciation.

### Qualitative data results

The teachers and learners of this study were not only asked to choose their preferred language area for extra instruction/ practice but were also asked to provide a reason for their answer. Here I will present the reasons provided by the teachers and learners of this study for their choice of ‘pronunciation’ as the area they would like to concentrate on more; I will not examine the reasons provided for the other language areas because these are not relevant in terms of the aims of this research.

As in the case of the qualitative data results for pronunciation goals (see section 4.4.3 ‘Qualitative Data Results for RQ2a’), a content analytic procedure was followed in order to divide the teachers’ and learners’ responses into categories and identify the main themes in the data. An inter-coder reliability check was also carried out which reached 100% for the teachers’ data and 94.4% for the learners’ data.

### *Teachers*

According to Table 11, 7 out of the 47 teachers opted for ‘pronunciation’ and all seven teachers provided a reason for their choice.

**Table 11**

Total opting for ‘pronunciation’	7 (14.9%)
Total providing a reason for ‘pronunciation’	7 (100%)
Total with no answer	0 (0%)

Let us examine more closely the reasons provided by the teachers for their choice of ‘pronunciation’ as the language area they would like their students to receive more instruction on. In the case of the teachers’ data, the following two categories emerged:

**Category 1: Pronunciation is neglected.** Items expressing the teachers’ view that less attention is paid to pronunciation compared to i.e. other areas of language learning were placed into this category. Box 12 includes those four items that belong to this category.

**Box 12**

**Teachers’ answers (Category 1: Pronunciation is neglected).**

*Item 1: ‘Most course books focus on grammar and vocabulary leaving the practice of other areas for the last minute.’*

*Item 2: ‘In Greece, methods of learning English pronunciation lags behind the others (vocabulary, grammar, etc.).’*

*Item 3: ‘Lessons are primarily exam oriented; therefore, a lot of grammar and vocabulary are presented/ not much time left for speaking and pronunciation practice.’*

*Item 4: ‘Pronunciation is a neglected area in teaching and students mostly depend on their experience to learn how to pronounce words’*

According to the teachers whose responses have been allocated to this category, pronunciation is a neglected area of language teaching and learning and there is a much greater focus on grammar and vocabulary. Two of the teachers (item 1 & item 3, Box 12) also offer an explanation for this situation; course books tend to focus on grammar and vocabulary and more attention is paid to grammar and vocabulary at exams.

**Category 2: Miscellaneous.** This category included those items that did not fit the previous category. This category includes a total of three items (displayed in Box 13) each giving a different reason and, thus, the category was labelled ‘miscellaneous’.

**Box 13****Teachers' answers (Category 2: Miscellaneous).**

Item 1: *'Although students know what they want to say, they often pronounce the words the wrong way, so their message is not communicated.'*

Item 2: *'So that they could develop an accurate accent.'*

Item 3: *'They enjoy it regardless of whether they speak or not.'*

Table 14 shows that category 1 'pronunciation is neglected' attracted 57.1% of the teachers' responses and category 2 'miscellaneous' attracted 42.9% of the teachers' responses.

**Table 14**

**Percentages of teachers' answers/ items in each category as a proportion of total teachers' answers/ items for their choice of '*pronunciation*'**

Categories	% of teacher's answers/ items
1. Pronunciation is neglected	4 (57.1%)
2. Miscellaneous	3 (42.9%)

*Learners*

Table 15 shows that approximately 1 out of 5 learners (22%) that participated in the study opted for 'pronunciation' and the majority of those learners (80.5%) provided a reason for their choice.

**Table 15**

Total opting for 'pronunciation'	72 (22%)
Total providing a reason for 'pronunciation'	58 (80.5%)
Total with no answer	14 (19.5%)

Let us examine more closely the reasons provided by the learners for their choice of 'pronunciation' as the language area they would like to receive more practice on. In the case of the learners' data, the following categories emerged:

**Category 1: Pronunciation is important.** All the items allocated to this category refer to the importance of pronunciation. Box 16 includes examples of items that belong to this category.

**Box 16**

**Examples of learners' answers (Category 1: Pronunciation is important).**

Item 1: *'Because I think pronunciation is very important.'*

Item 2: *'Because it's the most important [area/ element].'*

Item 3: *'Because pronunciation always matters.'*

Item 4: *'Pronunciation is very important for students.'*

This category included a sub-category labelled 'Having a good/ correct English pronunciation is important' which included items such as the following: *'Because it's important to pronounce the language correctly'* and *'I must have a good English pronunciation.'*

Table 17 shows that category 1 'Pronunciation is important' attracted 22.2% of the learners' responses.

**Table 17**

**Percentages of learners' answers/ items in each category as a proportion of total learners' answers/ items for their choice of 'pronunciation'**

Categories	% of learners' answers (items) <sup>42</sup>
1. Pronunciation is important	22.2% (14 items)
2. To improve in this area	19% (12 items)
3. To improve listening/ speaking skills (for communication purposes etc.)	14.2% (9 items)
4. Pronunciation is neglected	11.1% (7 items)
5. Pronunciation is difficult to master	9.5% (6 items)
6. Pronunciation is interesting/ I like it	7.9% (5 items)
7. I am good at it/ it's easy for me	4.7% (3 items)
8. For exam success	4.7% (3 items)
9. Miscellaneous	6.3% (4 items)

<sup>42</sup> There should have been a total of 58 items since there were 58 learners' responses. However, five items had to be included in two categories each and, thus, we had a total of 63 items.

**Category 2: To improve in this area.** Items expressing the learners' desire to improve their pronunciation were placed into this category. Also, it is reasonable to assume that those learners who stated that they 'do not have a good pronunciation' or are 'weak in this area' would like to receive extra instruction in order to improve in this area. Box 18 includes examples of learners' answers that belong to this category and Table 17 shows that this category is the second largest one in terms of the learners' responses.

**Table 18**

**Examples of learners' answers (Category 2: To improve in this area).**

Item 1: *'I want to improve my pronunciation.'*

Item 2: *'I would like extra lessons on pronunciation because I don't have a good pronunciation in English.'*

Item 3: *'Because I am not good at it.'*

Item 4: *'Pronunciation because I am rather weak at it.'*

**Category 3: To improve listening and/or speaking skills (for communication purposes, etc.).** This category includes the responses provided by those learners who stated that they would like to generally improve their listening and/ or speaking skills. Most of them clarified that they would like to speak better English or improve their comprehension skills when exposed to the language for communication purposes. Box 4.151 includes examples of learners' responses that belong to this category. 14.2% of the learners' responses belong to this category (Table 17)

**Box 19**

**Examples of learners' answers (Category 3: To improve listening and/ or speaking skills).**

Item 1: *'Pronunciation because it will help you speak well and the others can understand what you are saying even if you make mistakes.'*

Item 2: *'Learners must be exposed to 'listening' in English as much as possible in order to get used to it.'*

Item 3: *'It is good to practise our pronunciation in English because in this way we will be able to communicate and understand English better.'*

Item 4: *'More practice and better preparation for listening and speaking so that we can understand what we hear and also speak correctly.'*

**Category 4: Pronunciation is neglected.** s in the case of the teachers' data, some learners' also felt that pronunciation is neglected. Those responses were allocated to this category and account for 11.1% of the learners' responses (Table 17). Box 20 includes examples of those responses.

**Box 20**

**Examples of learners' answers (Category 4: Pronunciation is neglected).**

Item 1: *'Pronunciation because much more time is devoted to all the other areas.'*

Item 2: *'Generally they are not interested in pronunciation for the certificates even though it is a very interesting area of English.'*

Item 3: *'Not much attention is generally paid to pronunciation.'*

Item 4: *'Pronunciation because we don't do that enough and I like it very much.'*

**Category 5: Pronunciation is difficult to master.** Items expressing the perceived difficulty in acquiring pronunciation were allocated to this category. Box 21 includes examples of such items.

**Box 21**

**Examples of learners' answers (Category 5: Pronunciation is difficult to master).**

Item 1: *'It's the most difficult area in my opinion.'*

Item 2: *'When it comes to grammar and vocabulary, it's easy to just sit down and complete exercises in order to master both. However, pronunciation is difficult to master because you don't hear it every day.'*

Item 3: *'I think this area is difficult [to master] because many learners are not good at it.'*

Item 4: *'Because it's more difficult to master.'*

According to table 17 this category accounted for 9.5% of the learners' responses.

**Category 6: Pronunciation is interesting/ I like it.** Five learners wrote that they either liked pronunciation or found it interesting. Their responses formed a category in its own right. Box 22 includes examples of such items. Please note that the first item displayed in Box 22 also belongs to category 4 'pronunciation is neglected' since

'we don't do that enough' can be interpreted as neglect of pronunciation in the classroom. It is promising that there are learners who consider pronunciation practice to be fun and, indeed, pronunciation practice can be fun provided that teachers pick 'fun' activities for the practice of pronunciation.

**Box 22**

**Examples of learners' answers (Category 6: Pronunciation is interesting/ I like it).**

Item 1: *'Pronunciation because we don't do that enough and I like it very much.'*

Item 2: *'Because I like pronunciation exercises.'*

Item 3: *'Because it's interesting.'*

According to table 17 this category accounted for 7.9% of the learners' responses.

**Category 7: I am good at this/ it's easy for me.** This category includes the three items displayed in Box 23 and accounts for 4.7% of the learners' responses (Table 17). Two learners would like to receive more practice/ activities in the area of pronunciation because they find those exercises easy (items 1 & 2, Box 23) and one learner because he or she is (already) good at it (item 3, Box 23).

**Box 23**

**Learners' answers (Category 6: I am good at this/ it's easy for me).**

Item 1: *'I chose pronunciation exercises because they would be easier to understand and would take up less time. I have already been told that my pronunciation is very good and, therefore, such exercises would be easier for me.'*

Item 2: *'It's easier for me.'*

Item 3: *'Because I am good at it.'*

**Category 8: For exam success.** Three learners wrote that they would like to practise more in the area of pronunciation in order to be better prepared for exams such as the FCE or CPE exam. These three items are displayed in Box 24 and account for 4.7% of

the learners' responses (Table 17). Please note that item 2 (Box 24) was also placed into category 3 'To improve my listening and/ or speaking skills'.

**Box 24**

**Learners' answers (Category 7: For exam success.)**

Item 1: *'To be better prepared for the speaking element of the FCE certificate.'*

Item 2: *'It is essential in order to understand the 'listening' as part of the Proficiency exam and generally the interlocutor.'*

Item 3: *'I think I must practise for the 'speaking' part of the exams.'*

**Category 9: Miscellaneous.** To this category we included those responses that did not fit any of the categories described so far. 6.3% of the learners' responses were placed into this category (Table 17). For example, the item *'So I can practise more'* does not provide a reason as to why the particular learner would like to practise more in this area. It simply repeats the choice of language area the particular learner has made.

*Teachers and Learners*

It is difficult to compare the categories that have emerged for the teachers to the categories that have emerged for the learners since in the teachers' case there are only two categories and in the learners' case there are eight categories. Nevertheless, it is interesting to note that the teachers and the learners both have a category labelled 'pronunciation is neglected'. This can serve as indication that pronunciation is indeed neglected compared to other language areas in the context of teaching English as foreign language in Thessaloniki, Greece.



## Appendix 4.7 ‘Contexts of Use of English’

Alternative way of presenting the results for the ‘Contexts of Use of English’ question

*Teachers*

**Table 25**  
**Results for questionnaire item of Section III ‘Context of Use of English’**

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid all	16	34,0	34,0	34,0
travel+work+computers	7	14,9	14,9	48,9
work+computers	7	14,9	14,9	63,8
work+studies	5	10,6	10,6	74,4
travel+studies+computers	3	6,4	6,4	80,8
travel+work+studies	2	4,3	4,3	85,1
work+studies+computers	2	4,3	4,3	89,4
studies	1	2,1	2,1	91,5
work	1	2,1	2,1	93,6
studies + computers	1	2,1	2,1	95,7
travel+work	1	2,1	2,1	97,8
other	1	2,1	2,1	100,0
Total	47	100,0	100,0	

Since the teachers were given the opportunity to tick as many options as they wished, twelve categories that consisted of one or more ‘contexts of use of English’ emerged according to their answers (see Table 25). The category that attracted the largest percentage of teachers (34%) was the one that included all four specified contexts: ‘context a’ (= travel), ‘context b’ (= work), ‘context c’ (= studies) and ‘context d’ (= computers). 14.9% of the teachers chose ‘context b’ (= work) and ‘context d’ (= computers) and a further 14.9% chose ‘context b’ (= work) and ‘context d’ (= computers) as well as ‘context a’ (= travel).

*Learners*

**Table 26**  
**Results for questionnaire item of Section II ‘Contexts of Use of English’**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	all	72	22,0	22,2	22,2
	travel+work+computers	61	18,7	18,8	41
	travel+work+studies	31	9,5	9,5	50,5
	travel+work	31	9,5	9,5	60
	travel+studies+computers	19	5,8	5,8	65,8
	travel	17	5,2	5,2	71
	work	14	4,3	4,3	75,3
	travel+studies	12	3,7	3,7	79
	travel+computers	9	2,8	2,8	81,8
	work+computers	9	2,8	2,8	84,6
	travel+work+other	7	2,1	2,2	86,8
	computers	7	2,1	2,2	89
	studies	6	1,8	1,8	90,8
	travel+work+computers+other	6	1,8	1,8	92,6
	work+other	5	1,5	1,5	94,1
	work+studies	5	1,5	1,5	95,6
	work+studies+computers	4	1,2	1,2	96,8
	work+computers+other	3	,9	,9	97,7
	travel+studies+computers+other	2	,6	,6	98,3
	studies+computers	1	,3	,3	98,6
	travel+studies+other	1	,3	,3	98,9
	travel+computers+other	1	,3	,3	99,2
	other	1	,3	,3	99,5
	travel+work+studies+other	1	,3	,3	100,0
	Total	325	99,4	100,0	
Missing	System	2	,6		
Total		327	100,0		

Table 26 shows that the category that attracted the largest percentage of learners (22%) was the one that included all four specified contexts: ‘context a’ (= travel), ‘context b’ (= work), ‘context c’ (= studies) and ‘context d’ (= computers). The category that attracted the second largest percentage of learners (18.7%) included ‘context a’ (= travel), ‘context b’ (= work) and ‘context d’ (= computers). It is interesting to note that while a total of twelve categories emerged according to the teachers’ answers to this question (see Table 25), a total of twenty-four categories emerged according to the learners’ answers to this question (Table 26). The main reason for the additional categories is that 26 out of the 327 learners (8%) ticked ‘context e’ (= other) along with one or more of the other four contexts. The following six additional contexts emerged through the learners’ choice of *other*: ‘listening to music’, ‘reading books’, ‘watching movies’, ‘pen pals’, ‘English language teaching’ and ‘scientific research’.

#### *Learners versus Teachers*

Learners’ and teachers’ responses as displayed in Table 25 and Table 26 (this Appendix) were not compared because the two-way table that would display the results of the responses’ cross-tabulation would be sparse; many of its cells would be non-structural zeros and, thus, it would not be possible to use the chi-square test in this case<sup>43</sup>. As for Table 4.95 and Table 4.96 (in main thesis) again a comparison between teachers’ and learners’ responses in a statistical way is not possible.

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<sup>43</sup> The reader may wish to consult Bishop et al, 1975 for further information on this matter (see ‘References’ list at the end of the thesis).

## Section 5.1 'Discussion for Research Question 1'

### Appendix 5.1 'Pronunciation Status in Teaching & Learning Speaking'

#### Box 1

##### 'Vocabulary plays a more important role than pronunciation for success at exams'

Angela: If the learners pay more attention to vocabulary, they get higher marks. Learners are more judged on the basis of vocabulary they know. As for pronunciation, they just need to be understood.

Evanthia: We generally focus lots on vocabulary. Especially for the exams for the students to do well at high levels and succeed at exams we need lots of vocabulary. So we focus on collocations, idioms, advanced vocabulary and so on.

Maria: Because I think for the student's confidence if he knows a lot of vocabulary ahm it appears to the examiner that the student feels more confident... That's why I think vocabulary is more important... again, for the exams, I think for the exams.

#### Box 2

##### 'The relationship between exams and the place of vocabulary and pronunciation'

Liam: Well, yes that's true [pronunciation is neglected compared to vocabulary]. It [vocabulary] is more important for exams.

Maria: The only part they [the examiners] examine their [the students' pronunciation] is the speaking part so I think it's most important to understand the reading parts which are based on vocabulary some basic parts in grammar again in order to choose the correct answers

Katrina: So because the system is exam oriented we spend time on vocabulary grammar and so on.

Vicky (interviewer): So you are saying that pronunciation is not that emphasised in those exams if it was emphasised then teachers would teach it more as well.

Katrina: Exactly 'cause pronunciation if you think about it in our books we've got like a small exercise devoted to pronunciation in a listening exercises so listen to words and how they are pronounced certain sounds so it's only one like little exercise in each unit.

Marios: It is [neglected] and that's not only in my class I can say that because all books some books have no pronunciation exercises whatsoever. And some others have you know in every 30 exercises there might be a small one on pronunciation... oh all exams actually if you see the scoring that they use the scoring for the speaking test the pronunciation is one of the minor criteria

Vicky (interviewer): Tell me a little bit more about that. Because I know you are an examiner as well [for the Michigan EFL exams but has worked for others too].

Marios: It's just as far as we can understand... as far as we can understand the word then we don't really take it [the pronunciation] into account.

Evanthia: The students sit for the exams and it's all fine with pronunciation. We had no problems. Our methods work, why change them? Pronunciation is dealt with as part of vocabulary activities so there's no need to focus on pronunciation separately or to a great extent.

**Box 3****'Vocabulary is the most important area of language knowledge'**

Katrina: And also because I think that learning a language means learning vocabulary because if you haven't got your words and your vocabulary you won't be able to produce anything.

Aspasia: To learn a language vocabulary is the first necessary thing. Let's say that language is vocabulary.

Sarah: I suppose that many teachers or course book writers or heads of department might believe that grammar and vocabulary are the basic blocks to learning a language.

Aphroditi: (draws on her experience as a teacher trainer) I think that many teachers believe especially beginning teachers that to know the language is grammar and vocabulary and they focus on those two areas and the skills without paying attention to pronunciation I'd say.

Claire: Without vocabulary there is no point in pronunciation. If you don't have words you have nothing to pronounce so vocabulary has to be very important because don't they separate the pre-lower level and the lower level and the proficiency level based on how many words you know like a vocabulary of 1000 or 5000 words or a vocabulary of 3000 words or whatever is your level so you have to have a vocabulary.

Evanthia: Vocabulary comes first at those [pre-lower, lower & proficiency] levels yes because the students are already competent in grammar, they can form grammatically correct sentences. However, in order for the students to comprehend texts, to do well at speaking and in writing then we need lots of vocabulary. So vocabulary is very important. To raise students' level to proficiency level regardless of whether or not they will sit the proficiency exams you need lots of texts and lots of vocabulary. Vocabulary is extremely important. I have even read research that says even if students do not use grammar appropriately but use vocabulary appropriately they can communicate successfully.

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ECPE 2009 Speaking Scoring Rubric (Condensed Version)

	Discourse and Interaction (Development, Functional Range, and Listening Comprehension)	Linguistic Resources (Range and Accuracy)		Delivery And Intelligibility
		Vocabulary	Grammar	
<b>A</b> ↑ LEVEL EXPERT	<p><b>Production of Independent, Spontaneous Speech</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Summarizes concisely and accurately; little to no reliance on written material</li> <li>Provides coherent explanations without prompting on all topics</li> <li>Presents decisions persuasively and appropriately for varying contexts</li> </ul> <p><b>Contribution to Extended Interaction</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Contributes consistently and appropriately to development of interaction; very aware of listener</li> <li>Recommendations are appropriate and supported with explanations</li> <li>Justifies position, regularly paraphrasing and elaborating to explain and/or clarify</li> <li>Communication breakdowns are rare</li> </ul> <p><b>Listening Comprehension</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Understands linguistic, sociolinguistic, and pragmatic information in order to engage in extended, spontaneous interaction</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Uses broad range of vocabulary</li> <li>Collocations, colloquial language, idiomatic expressions used accurately and appropriately</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Uses a wide variety of basic and complex grammatical structures accurately and effectively</li> <li>Uses a range of grammatical structures that are pragmatically appropriate</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Fluent and articulate delivery</li> <li>Often uses rate of speech and/or prosodic features to add meaning, aid listener, and/or to shift style/register appropriately</li> </ul>
<b>B</b> ↑ LEVEL CONSISTENT	<p><b>Production of Independent, Spontaneous Speech</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Summarizes concisely and accurately; some reliance on written material</li> <li>Provides coherent explanations, usually without prompting, on all concrete and most abstract topics</li> <li>Usually presents decisions persuasively, and usually appropriately for context</li> </ul> <p><b>Contribution to Extended Interaction</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Usually contributes and appropriately to the development of the interaction; very aware of listener</li> <li>Provides recommendations that are almost always supported with explanations and are appropriate to the context</li> <li>Justifies position, frequently paraphrasing and elaborating to explain and/or clarify statements</li> <li>Communication breakdowns usually do not occur</li> </ul> <p><b>Listening Comprehension</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Almost always understands linguistic, sociolinguistic, and pragmatic information order to engage in extended, spontaneous interaction</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Usually uses a broad range of vocabulary</li> <li>Collocations, colloquial language, and idiomatic expressions are often used and are usually accurate and appropriate</li> <li>Occasionally uses secondary meaning of words</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Usually uses a variety of basic and complex grammatical structures accurately and usually effectively</li> <li>Usually uses grammatical structures that are pragmatically appropriate</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Frequently fluent and articulate; may require minimal listener effort</li> <li>Usually uses rate of speech and/or prosodic features to add meaning, to aid listener, and/or to shift style/register appropriately</li> <li>Fluency may slightly decline with challenging speech events but this rarely affects the flow of discourse</li> </ul>
<b>C</b> ↑ LEVEL EFFECTIVE	<p><b>Production of Independent, Spontaneous Speech</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Adequately summarizes; may rely on written material periodically</li> <li>Elaborates, often without prompting, and provide coherent explanations on almost all concrete and many abstract topics</li> <li>Often presents decisions clearly, appropriately; may occasionally show some limitations in ability to extend discourse and to provide convincing explanations</li> </ul> <p><b>Contribution to Extended Interaction</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Often contributes and appropriately to development of interaction; aware of listener; may occasionally rely on interlocutors for continuation of discussion</li> <li>Recommendations may require minor prompting for supporting explanations; may occasionally be awkwardness to appropriateness of word choices/phrasing</li> <li>Justifies position adequately; usually able to paraphrase; clarity of meaning may occasionally be lacking when providing supporting details</li> <li>Communication breakdowns may occur during challenging speech events; usually repaired</li> </ul> <p><b>Listening Comprehension</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Usually understands linguistic and sociolinguistic information and often understands the pragmatic information in order to engage in extended, spontaneous interaction</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Often uses moderate range of vocabulary accurately and appropriately</li> <li>Occasionally uses idiomatic expressions and colloquial language</li> <li>Occasionally uses incorrect collocations that may lead to vagueness</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Often uses a variety of basic and complex grammatical structures accurately and effectively</li> <li>Often uses a variety of grammatical structures that are pragmatically appropriate</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Often fluent, usually articulate; may require some listener effort</li> <li>Pace usually consistent; may occasionally be relatively slow</li> <li>Occasionally uses rate of speech, and/or prosodic features to add meaning, aid listener, and/or to shift style/register appropriately</li> <li>An increase in rate of delivery may occasionally lead to a decrease in clarity of speech or comprehensibility</li> <li>Fluency may decline with more challenging speech events but this does not stop the flow of discourse</li> </ul>

## ECPE TEACHER'S GUIDE

	Discourse and Interaction (Development, Functional Range, and Listening Comprehension)	Linguistic Resources (Range and Accuracy)		Delivery And Intelligibility
		Vocabulary	Grammar	
<b>D</b> LEVEL DEPENDENT	<p><b>Production of Independent, Spontaneous Speech</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Usually summarizes by repeating language already provided</li> <li>Occasionally able, when prompted, to elaborate and provide explanations on most concrete topics; explanations frequently lack coherence and organization</li> <li>Usually presents decisions by repeating language already produced</li> </ul> <p><b>Contribution to Extended Interaction</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Frequently relies on other participants to initiate, develop, maintain discourse; rarely offers feedback or commentary</li> <li>Usually able to recommend; occasionally able, when prompted, to provide supporting explanations</li> <li>Attempts to justify a position are usually unclear and repetitive</li> <li>Communication breakdowns may occur during any speech event and often are not repaired</li> </ul> <p><b>Listening Comprehension</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Limitations in comprehension may often result in interruptions in exchange and in communication breakdowns</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Limited range of vocabulary</li> <li>Frequently uses vague and/or inaccurate vocabulary</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Frequent use of basic structures (i.e., lack of complex sentences) that often contain errors</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Listener effort frequently required</li> <li>Delivery is often slow and halting</li> <li>Pausing and phrasing are often incorrect, negatively affecting intelligibility</li> <li>Production may be word by word, resulting in a lack of sentence rhythm and flat intonation</li> <li>L1 influence may disrupt intelligibility</li> </ul>
<b>E</b> LEVEL LIMITED	<p><b>Production of Independent, Spontaneous Speech</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Unable to summarize; merely reads information provided</li> <li>Occasionally able, when prompted, to elaborate on concrete and familiar topics; explanations usually lack organization</li> <li>Usually able to present basic position on concrete topic; very little elaboration; usually repeats language already produced</li> </ul> <p><b>Contribution to Extended Interaction</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Frequently unable to contribute to the development of discourse on topics that have been provided; considerable reliance on interlocutors</li> <li>Usually able to state a recommendation or opinion but unable to provide supporting explanation</li> <li>Rarely able to justify and defend; attempts are almost always unclear and repetitive</li> <li>Almost always unable to repair communication breakdowns</li> </ul> <p><b>Listening Comprehension</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Extreme limitations in comprehension result in an inability to engage in extended discourse</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Very limited vocabulary</li> <li>Regularly searches for words</li> <li>Frequently uses vague expressions</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Uses only basic structures that regularly contain errors</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Slow and halting delivery</li> <li>Production is often word by word, resulting in a lack of sentence rhythm and flat intonation</li> <li>Errors in rhythm, stress, and intonation disrupt intelligibility, often causing considerable listener effort</li> <li>L1 influence may disrupt intelligibility</li> </ul>
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Vocabulary and grammar structures used are typically repetitions of what has been provided orally or in writing</li> <li>Gaps and/or errors in vocabulary and grammar may disrupt effective communication</li> </ul>		
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Regular gaps and/or errors in vocabulary, grammar, and/or delivery</li> <li>Gaps and/or errors frequently prevent communication</li> </ul>		

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## Appendix 5.2 ‘Pronunciation Role in Teaching & Learning Speaking’

### Box 1

#### ‘Vocabulary is the most important factor in successful communication’

Sarah: It depends on the level of the speaker. Perhaps, using the incorrect words when you’re pre-lower, or you’re level B1... I wouldn’t want to be making a sweeping statement like vocabulary [is the language area which is more often responsible for communication breakdowns] but that’s probably it, especially lower levels. I would definitely agree.

Angela: I think the most important factor in communication is vocabulary. When you want to say something you use words.

### Box 2

#### ‘Specific reference to the teachers’ comprehensibility of Greek learners’ oral discourse’

Marios: Overall yes so we [the teachers] find it harder when there is inappropriate use of vocabulary to understand students whereas we can fill the gaps of mispronouncing and actually acquire the meaning.

Katrina: They [the students] might not pronounce the word as correctly as they should but I mean you can understand the word they are using. So I would say vocabulary is much more important.

Aspa: Because when they [the teachers] ask their students something, they can understand from their answers what they want to say, and they don’t depend so much on their students’ pronunciation and grammar but on their vocabulary.



### Appendix 5.3 'Pronunciation Status for Teaching & Learning Speaking'

#### Box 1

##### **'Pronunciation is more important than vocabulary for listening activities'**

Sarah: I think if we are talking about higher levels of learners of English who are aware of the grammar and have a good level of vocabulary perhaps the accent might be the off-putting element but rather it might be a psychological rather than a natural barrier to understanding.

Chara: This is a bit different because listening has to do not 100% with pronunciation but at least 90% with pronunciation. 'Cause I have students how listen to something on the tape and cannot understand it. But since they are used to my pronunciation because they hear me almost every day when I read it they immediately understand it and I see that the vocabulary used is known to them. So it has to do with pronunciation. And it has to do with the fact if they only listen to one person no matter what type of pronunciation I have.

Evanthia: No, I think this is not the case with listening. I think pronunciation plays a more important part than vocabulary. Accent is important, intonation I think intonation confuses the students a lot, how fast the speaker speaks. A lot of the time when the students have problems understanding a particular text in a listening activity we then see the same text in written form and the students see that it is a simple text really. So perhaps, we should focus on pronunciation more we should focus on intonation more. Perhaps, we should include pronunciation in our teaching to a greater extent than we do now.

## Appendix 5.4 ‘Perceived Importance & Frequency of Exposure to Various Accents of English’

### Box 1

#### ‘Focus on EFL exams’

Sarah: we are always preparing students for exams either based on the British syllabus or the American syllabus so I supposed that it’s many teachers or many course books creators publishers or materials writers aim for the standard British or American accent as a basic building block for learners of English. Once you can understand clearly and familiarise yourself with those two accents then you can start perhaps introducing regional accents

### Box 2

#### ‘The course books and listening material available’

Aphroditi: I think it’s the course books and what we mainly do is the material in course books and some supplementary but if you look at the materials available you get standard accents and sometimes the students bring in something from the internet or the films this is when they are exposed to a non-standard variety

Vicky (interviewer): So you are saying this material is not available you have to create it yourself or find it somewhere

Aphroditi: yes which is a lot of extra work and you don’t have time you have to follow the course book material because the activity you have there kind of integrates other skills as well if you take it out it’s like this havoc thing. This is a good course book. You can’t take it out. But if you have time to add something that’s a good thing.

### Box 3

#### ‘Favourable attitudes towards standard NS accents’

Katrina: I would say it’s supposedly spoken in a most accurate way that’s why they said it’s better to have your students listen to a native British or American accent because as a most accurate pronunciation as opposed to a non-native speaker who speaks the language fluently but might not have the fluency and the pronunciation required... the correct pronunciation

Sarah: When you learn a language you try to learn it as clearly and as ehm making it as easier as possible to communicate with any persons that might learn English so perhaps learning the standard accent might be the easiest or most straightforward way

Vicky (interviewer): so you feel it’s safer for the students to listen to try to imitate a standard accent rather than a non

Sarah: Yes perhaps yes I suppose it goes back to the psychology that for example in England all news reporters and all news readers used to have that accent and it is something that most people try to attain and it would be associated with intelligence and education and and career prospects

Vicky: BBC English

Sarah: Yes BBC English and you still have that discrimination against people with very strong regional accents they might not get that job because of their accent.

**'Exams and course book material'**

Angela: I think that this is because since 1998 there were just the British Council the British Council examination [Cambridge EFL exams]. There wasn't any American examinations. So they focused on teaching British varieties. Standard British. ... Yeah, British textbooks. But now things have changed and the Michigan test is gaining

Vicky (interviewer): more acceptance

Angela: so they have to teach American English as well

Marios: There is an answer actually ah I don't know of any coursebook up to pre-first certificate anyway B1 level

Vicky (interviewer): that's pre-lower

Marios: Yeah pre-lower yeah exactly which uses American varieties. They all use British varieties in the book eh whether that is from a Greek publishing house or a British one naturally they all use British pronunciation. When it comes to exams then when you have test books then you have a variety to choose from. But all the books up to B1 pre-lower level they all use the British variety. So it is not a matter of choice. Whether you like it or not they will have

Maria: Yes yes well all the books start with British English and when you come to the lower classes then you get to separate each class and then you play more Michigan you know American that's why... well all classes are exposed to British English all listening parts are based on the British accent and British English but then when they catch lower this is when we do divide classes either in Cambridge or Michigan examinations and then we get them to practise more British English if they are going to take Cambridge yes or to American listening parts if they are going to take the Michigan proficiency

Vicky: what about those students that are going to take both [Cambridge and Michigan]?

Maria: They take both classes

## Appendix 5.5 ‘Segmental & Suprasegmental Features of Pronunciation’

### Box 1

#### English vowels versus Greek vowels

Sarah: Well from my little knowledge of the Greek language as well I think that the vowels are very different to the English vowel sounds that we have we have a lot of rounder and longer sounds and it's a little bit more difficult for the it's just that it's something different. It is an element of language that is different and perhaps focusing on vowel sounds becomes a priority because it's a common error that most Greek speakers have and I think that the consonants that we have with the Greek language are exactly the same.

Evanthia: Yes because there are greater variations there, for example long 'e' (/i:/) and short 'e' (/ɪ/) the consonants are more straightforward

Aphroditis: I believe that simply there are more vowels in English than in Greek and the students are not very much aware that there are different phonemes and they sometimes want to say a word but they don't say it right because they don't know the difference between /i:/ and short /ɪ/

#### Teaching segmentals first and then suprasegmentals (or vice versa)?

We have seen that the majority of ELT PRON manuals first introduced segmental features and then moved on to suprasegmental features of pronunciation (Theme 3, Section 1.2.2). Half of the teachers interviewed claimed to first focus on the segmental level of pronunciation before moving on to the suprasegmental level. They said that this order seemed natural to them; once the learners had mastered segmentals, they were introduced to suprasegmentals (see Box below for teachers' responses).

### Box 2

#### First teach segmentals and then suprasegmentals

Angela: When it comes to first classes in English A junior and B junior then there are some activities with word level, vowels and consonants... yeah and then we move on... then stress and intonation, become more important

Katrina: They [the teachers of young learners] start off with the alphabet and they start with words on their own I think it is the only natural process. The traditional way.

Marios: Ah the emphasis is placed on word level first and that doesn't mean don't teach any connected speech. But for the first classes eh yes it's the word level that comes first whereas you know higher classes it is the connected speech that is relevant.

A couple of teachers also remarked that that they found teaching intonation and connected speech features rather difficult and thus, it made sense for them to wait until the learners were older and had also reached a higher level of competence in English. 1/4 of the teachers claimed to teach both levels together. For example, Aphroditi said that she does not teach segmental and suprasegmental features separately but instead incorporates all features in small phrases, poems and so on: 'it's boring for the students [to separate] it conveys no meaning unless you practise a phrase there's no fun if you have let's say a single vowel... to teach vowels I'd have a poem, I'd prefer a whole sentence and then it's like a singing lesson'. Finally, a couple of teachers claimed that they do not teach segmental and suprasegmental features explicitly; they expect their students to pick them up in the process of the lesson (e.g. as they listen to their teacher speak or the audio recorder) and only if a problem arises would they address the particular feature (see Liam's response in the Box below).

Liam: Connected speech if there's a specific problem we go back and isolate the word.. but I wouldn't teach it like that. It would have to be in context. And if they get it wrong in context I would go back and say 'no it should be like that. I say the word they get the word and say the sentence again but I avoid doing that as far as possible. Because it makes them embarrassed and it can be counterproductive if you are not careful.

## Section 5.2 ‘Discussion for Research Question 2’

### Appendix 5.6 ‘Pronunciation Models’

#### Box 1

#### ‘Focus on EFL exams, course books followed and listening material available’

Katrina: ... because of this whole exam orientation thing. Exam preparation unfortunately. Here in Greece they are taught to take exams.

Maria: ...all the books and the listening parts are based on this [standard British and American accents]

Claire: ... because of all the listening material we have

Aphroditi: I would say we teachers at least here in Greece in private institutions we are paid for our job is to make students pass the exams I mean help students pass the exams not make them pass the exams and so we depend on the materials. The materials for the exams are I would say standard English. Standard British or American English. Coursebooks follow exams and we in a way this is our tool I cannot produce my own course book.

## Appendix 5.7 'Pronunciation Performance Targets'

### Box 1

**'Aim is too high; the case of the 'ideal' versus the 'real' target; why some students nearly reach this target and others do not'**

Claire: It is just not possible to get what you want. If it was possible then when I speak Greek I would have a perfect Greek accent after so many years [of having lived in Greece]. But it is not possible 'na gyirisi I glosa' (= to twist your tongue) it is not possible for us to have it the way we want.

Marios: The way I see it pronunciation might be the most difficult aspect of learning the language. So actually it's a practical issue. We know it's hard to acquire

Vicky (interviewer): a native-like

Marios: a natural yes a native-like accent. So our expectations are lower there.

Sarah: you know proficiency to get to a native-speaker level because it's different having the grammar and the vocabulary and the syntax versus being able to pass off as a native-speaker or having a very clear accent close to a native-speaker level

Chara: The students of mine who are better at listening tasks they usually have an accent that is much more closer to a native speaker's yes... the ones that are better at listening they will have a better accent.

### Box 2

**'Not enough time spent on the practice of pronunciation'**

Angela: [teachers don't have enough time to teach pronunciation] they are under extreme time pressure they have to follow the principal's orders and they have to follow the course book and the parents' expectations they expect the students to pass the test and they don't care if their accent is British-like or American-like they have to pass the test that's the main aim...

**Box 3****'Those learners' expectations are not realistic'**

Maria: I think that students are not very good critics of their knowledge. They think they do well in everything even though they don't so I think they have more high standards and expectations of themselves. That's why they believe that they could be taken up for native speakers but...

Aphroditis: I think this is very natural when you embark on such a difficult task learning a language you want to perfect it. I think our teaching of English is very much affected by the teaching of ancient Greek. **And they [the learners] still believe that you can master it completely. Not as far as pronunciation is concerned but language I think it stems from the belief that language is something you can master completely. Like history you learn it and adopt the pronunciation. And gradually they realise that well it's a notion and some of them think it's like just any other subject.** I don't think they don't want to sound English like native-speakers well my students I will tell them you're Greek people who speak very good English and that there's no need to be frustrated about the fact that you sound it is also strange if you live in Greece where you are exposed to Greek only with Greeks around and suddenly you put on a native-like quality which means you've got a perfect ear and you've got people like this from time to time but the majority of people well if they go to Britain and live there well after a while they pick up the accent it happens to everybody. Yeah if you are exposed to and you want to I think it doesn't happen to people who do not want to integrate. Greek people [who have been brought up and lived abroad for many years) who come to Greece and do not want to integrate you can trace that foreign accent they don't want to give it up it's psychological....

Sarah: **I imagine that I suppose it goes back to if you are going to try to learn English you'll try to learn it to a native-speaker level** perhaps the difference in the teachers' and the students' responses is that the teachers understand the practicality of getting to that level it's not just something that can be taught in the classroom perhaps it has to it involves living in the country perhaps for an amount of time it takes you years of practice going to university it goes beyond language schools and you know proficiency to get to a native-speaker level because it's different having and the grammar and the vocabulary and the syntax versus being able to pass off as a native-speaker or having a very clear accent close to a native-speaker level... whereas as teachers we are more aware of the practicalities of the classroom and the constraints of time

**Box 4****'Those students aim higher; the reasons why'**

Evanthia: This 1/3 had higher aspirations. That's what I think. Also I'm thinking of specific students. Those that have higher aims in general. They usually have higher aims higher expectations of themselves when it comes to other subjects as well. Also, they may really love the English language. I have students who come to me with English songs and so on and they really try to imitate the pronunciation... perfectionism plays a part. And yes 1/3 is quite a large proportion of the students. I'd expect 10% of the students to want this but 30% is a high percentage. I didn't expect that. That's good.



**Box 5**

**'Favourable attitudes towards NS accents as models; NSs are the rightful owners of English & native-speaking EFL teachers are important in terms of the students' mastery of pronunciation'**

Foteini: I'm trying to be in the British place. I mean, I wouldn't, if I were British, I wouldn't like to, I wouldn't like my language in a way destroyed, no, to be pronounced wrongly. That's the reason I wouldn't like to learn English, to learn, not only English, just say Spanish or another language, not **have the right accent... maybe I'm too romantic.**

Claire: And that would be like me teaching Greek. And, if you hear me speak Greek my accent is I've been here for over 20 years and I still have an accent I can get into a taxi and just say the name of a street and they'll say 'oh ise xeni?' (= you are not Greek, are you?) it's like after 20 years **so why would anybody want to learn Greek from me since I don't have the correct pronunciation and that's kind of like what you are telling me... it is harder for the kids to learn if they don't have even a little bit of influence from a native speaker so as far as pronunciation...**

Aspa: **we prefer to put native speakers also in junior classes so that they [the learners] get the right pronunciation** at the first classes and this then continues to the next classes.

Katrina: **The fact that I am a native speaker is an asset to them [the parents]. Allright? They prefer it 'cause they do think that having a native speakers as a teacher I am also of that opinion that a child is exposed to the language as it is spoken...** yes it does play a role. On the other hand, though because Greece if infatuated with acquiring certificates as many as you can they are also interested in just sitting for the exam and having successful results. I would say that it's a combination. But yes when I started my private lessons they did prefer native speakers. Because they wanted their child to have that accent as opposed to a Greek English accent... Look I can't precisely say that being a native speaker you are necessarily a better teacher. 'Cause you could have Greek teachers of English teaching English who could have more knowledge of the English language as opposed to a native speaker. **Concerning pronunciation though I would say that native speakers do have an advantage there.**

Vicky (interviewer): So you believe in those native speaker models.

Katrina: Yes not so much for teaching abilities and being able to teach but pronunciation alone I would say so

**Box 6**

**'Adherence to NS models represents a higher & safer aim in terms of level of competence in English'**

Evanthia: I believe that when you learn a language you should learn it as best as you can. There will always be learners of English who will reach a very high level of competence in English. **I think our aim should be to learn the language as best as we can and then you can face anything. However, if your aim if your expectations are much lower, for example basic communication you will face problems at some point.** Aiming high, that's what I believe. Don't you think that's sensible? Doesn't it make sense to you? Let's think of an example if you are in Switzerland and you are working and you are dealing with people from all over the world, with Americans with Italians with Spanish people for example if you have a high level of competence in English you can communicate successfully with native speakers of English for example British people American people then you are going to find for example the Italian who speaks English ok their accent may be a bit difficult for you to understand at first but then you will get used to it

Vicky (interviewer): so you are saying you are better prepared

Evanthia: Yes. **Whereas if your level of competence is average then everything seems difficult.**

Maria: **Well even though the main use of English is to communicate among NNS I believe we should stick to native speaker's pronunciation** and everything else... no but imagine changing the whole thing. Then you'd have dreadful results. You won't have any results. So if we start something new maybe it will get even worse... **If we have a high level now and we get average results imagine if we lower the level then we'll get even lower results.**

**Box 7**

**'Teachers who agree with the EIL side of the debate (but)...'**

Marios: Overall, I'd say it depends on the individual needs. Since most as I've said all of these learners of English will never live anyway most of them will never live in an English-speaking country ah they don't really need to learn the accents of the of the anyway the standard accents. So for them it's totally irrelevant. They actually need to communicate with the whole wide world. And in order to do so they just need to be understood. So yes I agree. They don't need to learn it [the NS model].

Sarah: **I think this is something [the fact that English is an international language] is overlooked by many people including Greek learners at the moment and course book writers that it isn't an element that is incorporated in the course book materials** so in fact that most students that are learning the language won't communicate with English or American native speakers they will communicate with perhaps a French businessman or perhaps a German tourist that might come over to Greece and I think that it is an element that is not catered for at the moment... and I think that this is something that should be focused on to a degree but I'm not sure how this could play up with the classroom and perhaps this is something that they learn on their own rather than it being taught in the classroom... also **the age of the students learning English here in Greece is very young**

Vicky (interviewer): yeah they start very early

Sarah: **and the average age for students taking proficiency is very young I think 16 or 17 compared to the ages around the world that is the youngest**

Vicky: yes that's extremely young

Sarah: **so student don't think the same way as we teachers or 'that in the future when I'm 30 I might use that language'**

## Section 5.3 ‘Discussion for Research Question 3’

### Appendix 5.8 ‘Pronunciation Teaching Methods’

#### Box 1

##### Teacher’s perception as to the place of pronunciation software programs in class

Ahprodit: Well, from the experience I had with pronunciation software programs that you’ve got I would say that it’s the kind of work that a student who that aims at perfect pronunciation will do otherwise it’s very off-putting. I mean if they want to invest time in computers we I’ve seen that with students. I wouldn’t encourage them ‘cause then I’d lose them unless the software the software has to be top quality so that it is enjoyable if you have this kind of laboratory work well what I’ve done repeating yeah seeing if the curve of intonation is going the right way or some student would tell me that it’s time consuming and that it’s not cost effective. Yeah? You invest one hour and what do you get? You can do that in less time

Vicky (interviewer): through other means you mean

Aphrodit: through other means yeah. **I would say it’s very good for individual work for some students who aim at perfection but not for class.**

#### Box 2

##### Modern computer technology/ pronunciation software programs as a new addition to classrooms

Angela: Yeah we use interactive boards and there are many pronunciation activities in it forms of games and the children find it more interesting

Vicky (the interviewer): and **when did you start using technology?**

Angela: **Last year**

Vicky: last year? So it’s brand new

Angela: yes

Liam: computer technology it happens a great deal. We got whiteboards ah nearly all the material now has recorded pronunciation which the kids can listen to it at home all the material all the books now they have a cd which is for the kids to use at home

Vicky: **how long have you used them?**

Liam: **a couple of years now**

Katrina: Look to tell you the truth because **last year** I had interactive boards installed at my school and children have an e-book at home which mean that they have access to let’s say this kind of English learning on the computer and they listen to words and they listen to the text they can actually hear the text so this is pronunciation in a sense and it is teaching pronunciation. **In the past we didn’t have this. We didn’t do it. But things are changing.** And now with the interactive whiteboards the teacher doesn’t actually have to pronounce any words.

**Box 3****'The IPA symbols are superfluous/ not needed'**

Claire: one idea might be because **kids don't use dictionaries anymore**. Now they have this on the computer and they see the word and then they press a button and they have the word pronounced

Vicky (interviewer): so they don't need them

Claire: ...**don't even need to know phonetically what it [the word] looks like**

Chara: I think **they will never actually use the symbols**. Because when they open the dictionary usually children nowadays do not know how to use the dictionary **they use CD ROMS** or they just ask and they don't use anything.

Marios: **I'd say it's not value for time. I mean the benefits you get are I don't think outweigh...**

Liam: As a student as a native speaker it was just a different way of writing a clearer way of writing. But it's of no practical value at all. The thing about English is you see it's also true if you think about Greek too, although Greeks don't like to believe this, English spelling really is a picture. It doesn't really make any kind of sense...

Vicky (interviewer): [I mention that one of the teachers I interviewed does use them and believes in them]

Liam: Oh well, I'll take my hat off to her. But look the first street we lived here in Thessaloniki was named after the Greek author and was Βιζυηνού; three different ways of spelling /i/ that justify that. You can't. You simply can't. Here three different ways of writing it. You just have to learn it. I don't think it's a major problem people are quite used to this notion of

Vicky: spelling does not correspond to

Liam: **yes I mean I would certainly be in favour of a spelling reform of English I am very much in favour of that but teaching the symbols God no (he laughs)**

Vicky: so you don't use them in class

Liam: no no

**Box 4****'The IPA symbols are too difficult for the students (& their parents) to learn'**

Maria: Because I think it confuses them. **What I do is I try to write the pronunciation in Greek. Sometimes... I use the Greek alphabet. Because not even the parents know how to read this kind of phonetics.**

Vicky (interviewer): I see. And all the time you mean the students read with their parents?... and the parents would get confused.

Maria: yes and they come and ask how is this pronounced how do you read this word and I keep on telling them that the back side of the book there are all the phonetics but they can't figure it out how to pronounce the word. So if it's a very confusing word I write in Greek Greek alphabet the pronunciation. Sometimes I keep on pronouncing the word in class get them to repeat the word correctly but **when they get home they have to read it's easier for them to look at it in Greek words rather than these phonetics**. They can't figure it out. They keep asking why is an 'a' into an 'e' [for /a/] and why does 'i' have two dots on it [for /i:/?]

Vicky: so if you are going to teach them to the students you have to teach them to the parents as well

Maria: in junior classes yes. In junior classes they some parents they don't know how to read them. And most students don't know.

**Box 5****'Discrimination exercises are important but...'**

Katrina: Again, because the book doesn't have them, the teachers' material doesn't have them. And because teachers have to follow a particular course plan they haven't got the ability to sort of use the extra material as much as they can. **They are limited the time there are time constraints.** Those [pointing to the 'EXTRA' sheet that features examples of discrimination exercises] are important to distinguish. **Absolutely, they are very important. These words are easily confused by students and this needs emphasis** (points to the EXTRA sheet). Teachers need to stress these differences like 'sheep' and 'ship' and those closely related sounds. Because those words contribute to the language obstacle barrier if you like. **This can cause confusion in understanding the language.** These words are important.

Angela: If there is time, we do those activities but if there isn't time we decide to skip them.

**Box 6****'Discrimination exercises between similar sounding phonemes are ineffective'**

Liam: **the problem is you see Vicky that there is no transfer.** That's the problem. You can do it you can make a point of it you can get them all saying 'leave' 'live' five minutes later when they are speaking it comes out the same way.

Vicky (interviewer): so you think that they are pointless these activities or

Liam: I think so really. I was never able to get good results like that. There is no transfer. It's like in the old days when you had those drills yeah where you ahm you would go round the class substituting one word each time. And the kids were brilliant at it. Absolutely fantastic. People representatives used to come from book companies to see our kids doing those drills and they were amazed and after a short time I stopped doing it because you know it was like teaching a dog to jump through hoops in a circus. They were brilliant at the drills but there was no transfer. As soon as we stopped doing the drills and started talking they kept making the same mistakes as they did before with the drill. The drill didn't. **All they became proficient at was doing drills.**

**Box 7****'Phonological rules are acquired naturally'**

Marios: You know speaking is an automatic process. It's very hard for student to learn rules concerning speaking 'cause it's really hard for them when it comes to speaking to remember the rules and you know apply them... **we are trying to move away from the rules now this is the trend anyway grammar is mostly taught through experience rather than strict rules**

Vicky (interviewer): so you do and you learn

Marios: Yes. **So we try to avoid rules in general**

**Box 8****Teachers against choral responses**

Katrina: I guess individual responses are indicative of each individual's ability. Whereas if you have them altogether you may have someone not say something and just pretend to be saying something. So it's not that indicative of what each student is capable of doing or saying.

Maria: well the class gets too noisy. Too noisy. Yes. You can't figure out if all of them got it correctly or not. You don't know. So it's better to examine each one individually.

Liam: No no I never ever do choral work... choral responses are dreadful they distort

Vicky (interviewer): you are against them

Liam: absolutely they distort the intonation and they distort the pronunciation... no it's artificial. They don't make you talk. Whereas individual [responses] sure but again I would prefer it to come out naturally. If there's something which is interesting from a pronunciation point of view I will point it out. If you say it like this it means one thing if you say it like this it's got a comma.

**Box 9****Choral versus individual responses and the 'age' factor**

Claire: With older kids they [the teachers] don't they don't... I can't think of the last time we did a choral thing maybe it was in the 'B senior' that they had

Evanthia: choral you only do when you teach younger learners and you do it first and then you can do it individually.

Sarah: This might also come down to the level for example if most of the students were pre-lower, lower or proficiency I think that being 11, 12 or 13 years old at that point they don't really go for that type of technique.. the choral one it's used from my experience with 5 year 6 year 7 year olds... I don't think... I would ask students 16 or 17 years old to do the choral technique whether it would work it is probably an inappropriate exercise I wouldn't even consider it 'cause of the age.

**Box 10****Teachers in favour for choral responses**

Foteini: Yeah, first chorally and then if someone doesn't do that, individually... we usually do the whole class, and if I see someone who doesn't participate, then I say 'George, you say now'. **It's more time consuming** as well if you do that [individual responses].

Marios: I use both. And I'd say maybe yeah definitely I use the choral more... **I use the choral for psychological reasons.** There are some students who feel embarrassed and they don't they refuse to pronounce some words or they think that they will never get them right so through the choral actually I start with the choral responses first and then if I see an individual has a problem then I try to emphasise then I try to work individually with the student but the choral it's like a psychological boost it's like an incentive to get a shy person to pronounce the word.

Vicky (interviewer): some of your colleagues said that mistakes may go undetected with the choral one

Marios: No not really. I wouldn't say so. Because you know your students and you know the ones that mostly have problems with pronunciation so you don't listen to the others as much as those

Vicky: so you hear them during the choral ones

Marios: yes yes

Vicky: ok that takes some practice but you can get there

Marios: it depends on the size of the class of course. If you have fewer than 10 students it's quite easy. Now if you are in a state school and you have 30 students then it is impossible.

Aphrodit: I like to do choral responses because then you've got everybody participating and for many reasons it's good I'd say. And **especially it's good for students who need more time more repetition to get the right thing so in a way they are not exposed to their own mistakes and I would say that young adults don't like to nobody likes to make mistakes.**

**Box 11****Reception precedes production in L2 phonology**

Claire: Yes, that's the easiest way to do it.

Sarah: I think perhaps in every stage of language learning receiving the language is always the first step

Marios: When we have a text we either hear you know a CD anyway somebody reading it a native speaker for example or I read it for them and then they try to read it themselves always emphasising the more difficult words.

Vicky (interviewer): So you think this is the appropriate order to follow?

Marios: I'd say so. Anyway this is what happens naturally when we are born. We first get to hear and then produce.

Liam: I do think that they have to perceive first before they produce but I don't it's the next step that is the difficulty

Vicky: what do you do?

Liam: what do you do what is the next step do you then have an exercise. I would say no. Forget the exercise. Just leave it out. What happens when you learn your own language? You hear it you use it you use your brain to reproduce it or to produce something new. Your mother doesn't sit with you and give you a blasted exercise.

Vicky: that's true (I laugh)

Liam: this is nonsense

**Box 12****'The need to prepare for and help students succeed at the EFL exams'**

Angela: Here in Greece the decisions are made by the need of preparation for exams... both Michigan and Cambridge

Vicky (interviewer): Do they sit all those exams? Why is that?

Angela: Because here in Greece, you definitely have to have a certification of English

Vicky: So, do they, let me see if I understand this. So, do they sit the Cambridge one and then the Michigan one just in case they fail the Cambridge one and get the Michigan one?

Angela: (nods in agreement)

Vicky: Because they need to have at least one.

Angela: Yes

Marios: Ok again I'll go back to the exams I'll go back to the criteria its ah ok speaking actually and I think all the teachers will agree speaking is of minor importance generally for exams so ok if you see the differences in the exams I mean B2 lower level exam the speaking test is about 10 minutes I'd say whereas the writing is 30 minutes. So you can understand the difference there. So it's a matter of priority I'd say.

**Box 13****'I teach pronunciation when the need arises to do so'**

Katrina: Lower level means competency, so when you are competent in a language that means that you are able to speak it clearly and get your message across. **So we only emphasise pronunciation when the problem arises.**

Aphrodit: Of course I have a course plan I have somehow to adhere to but at least in general lines but the main decision depends on the needs. Because I don't teach beginners so I usually get people who already have some kind of established pronunciation. **So when pronunciation is a problem if it is heavily influenced by Greek pronunciation then it's not easy to understand what they mean then I will spend more time.** Also, with proficiency students well it often happens that students are very fluent in the language but make mistakes in pronunciation which stem from the wrong model of very Greek pronunciation. So that's another reason.

Marios: In practice, I mean on a regular basis we don't teach pronunciation. **We just focus on the tricky words difficult ones you know**

Vicky (interviewer): ok

Marios: whereas vocabulary and grammar and syntax are part of the day to day procedure they are parts of every lesson. Pronunciation sometimes.

Evanthia: If we see that students are having difficulties with pronunciation for example while engaged in a vocabulary activity, then **we focus on those pronunciation difficulties** and do a couple of exercises for example discrimination exercises of similar sounding phonemes.

Sarah: I think that personally within the classroom **I try to use techniques or strategies to deal with difficult pronunciation or common errors for the pronunciation when they come up**, for example, the silent /b/... I correct it and perhaps I teach a mini rule or something.

Foteini: If I see there is a pronunciation problem, I teach it [pronunciation].

Liam: I wouldn't say that I analyse the learners' needs. I think it's basically because I am a native speaker it's **would these kids' pronunciation of this word affect the understanding of the native speaker so I would correct that.** And there are also certain patterns that need to be corrected. For example for reasons I don't understand many many Greeks say /pɑ:rɒnts/ instead of /pɛərənts/. It strikes me as extremely odd it struck me as off for thirty years and I still don't understand why it should be like that. Now that I sit on very heavily. I won't have /pɑ:rɒnts/ .



**Box14****In favour of an implicit approach to teaching**

Liam: Usually now I do pre-lower year 5 and as I've said they first they have to learn 5 words. Their first homework is 'teachers can't teach students learn' 5 words. It's true. I honestly don't believe that teachers can teach. The second homework is particularly for the Greek cases 'I am not a parrot'. 5 words. Learn it. You are not a parrot. This is what Greek homework is.

Vicky (interviewer): So you think the Greek educational system is to blame for that.

Liam: That's right.

Vicky: and they transfer that to

Liam: learning English as well, yeah.

**Box 15****In favour of implicit instruction for pronunciation but...**

Aphroditi: I would say that pronunciation I would learn much more when you are exposed to not only pronunciation but especially this when somebody says something the teacher corrects and you say it or the whole class repeats. And it's painless it's quick and it's not I don't think you should select and say now it's pronunciation it's like unless you do it in a kind a very pleasant thing... **if you tell the average student let's practise pronunciation ok and it's practising the same sound well after a while their interest is gone.** Yeah because it doesn't convey meaning the fact that you learned to speak is just a small element especially unless you show them what kind of funny language they produce when they make mistakes this appeals to them very much. But if you say ok today let's practise this they want to do real things which convey meaning they want to exchange ideas I would say that language is this is what I've noticed now after so many years of teaching they are so excited when you use the language as a means

Vicky (interviewer): to an end

Aphroditi: to an end and not as a thing in itself... they acquire through this and **if they are exposed to pronunciation they pick it up although sometimes you get students at advanced level who need pronunciation work.**

**Box 16****Angela's response**

Because university is more theoretical... applied linguistics and theories and we learned were taught so many things so many theories but nothing in practice... even here in Greece in the university students of linguistics they study literature English literature and American literature and they become teachers of English and they are expected to teach English to students. But they don't do any practice while at university... so there isn't as you can understand there isn't much connection to... you study literature and then you have to teach English... yeah grammar pronunciation vocabulary... I mean I finished my degree and I got into the classroom.

## Section 6.1 ‘Conclusions’

### Appendix 6.1 ‘Pronunciation Status & Role’

#### PronSIG, SPEAK OUT! & conferences

PronSIG was established more than 20 years ago and has now over 200 members around the world; it offers teachers the support and confidence they need in the area of pronunciation instruction, the opportunity to exchange views and share ideas about pronunciation methodology and materials and, also, to discuss theoretical matters and the interdependence of pronunciation and other areas of language learning. *SPEAK OUT!* has included many seminal articles on pronunciation and has been at the forefront of debates, controversies and emerging issues such as the changing status of Received Pronunciation and other native models, or the increasing attention now being paid to the interaction between listening and comprehension and the range of its contributors is truly international.<sup>44</sup> As for conferences, Fraser (2000) wrote that the TESOL 2000 conference held in Vancouver, one of the major annual TESOL events with attendance in the order of 10,000, reported a vastly increased interest in pronunciation, with a range of initiatives in pronunciation teaching showcased, and all pronunciation sessions packed. Similarly, the International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language (IATEFL) in the UK reported a significantly increased interest in pronunciation (Fraser, 2000: 33). Moreover, two international conferences on ‘English Pronunciation: Issues and Practices have been held so far (the first in Chambéry, France in 2009 and the second one in Grahamstown, South Africa in 2011) and the third one is going to take place in Murcia, Spain in 2013. Also, the Australian Council of TESOL Associations (ACTA) is going to hold a Pronunciation

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<sup>44</sup> Information reproduced from the PronSIG Open Forum that took place as part of the IATEFL Exeter Conference in April, 2008.

Symposium as part of the 'TESOL as a Global Trade – Ethics, Equity and Ecology'  
Conference in July, 2012.