5-13-2015

Teaching Pronunciation Communicatively to Cape Verdean English Language Learners: Sao Vicente Variety

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Teaching pronunciation communicatively to Cape Verdean English language

learners / Sao Vicente variety

by

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MA, Bridgewater State University, 2015

Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Master of Arts in Teaching

[TESOL]

Bridgewater State University

May 13, 2015

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Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Master of Arts in Teaching English for Students of Other Languages

Spring 2015

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Acknowledgement

I would like to express a special thanks to my mother and father. To Mr. Rendall for sharing his experience on this matter. To my advisor professor Doyle for her guidance, months of generously sharing her time and support. To my readers professor Anderson and Stakhnevich for their comments and encouragement.

Abstract

The thesis is based on the researcher's observation that pronunciation is underestimated in teaching English in Cape Verde in Sao Vicente Island. The Cape Verdean school program does not focus on pronunciation but it gives importance to grammar learning. As a result students show several difficulties in pronunciation which, although these are recognized by teacher, are nevertheless ignored in the teaching process. This paper primarily explains the phonological systems of English and CVSV, highlighting the difference between them; and critiques current approaches to teaching EFL, in general, pronunciation and specifically to Cape Verdean English language learners. The thesis concludes suggesting a strategy to take in teaching English pronunciation to CVSV students.

The phonological analysis of this research paper was based on observations made by the author during her teaching internship (9/3/2012 to 20/6/2012).

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INTRODUCTION

   In the last few decades English has become an international language spoken all
over the world, and consequently it has become a tool for conducting business,
exchanging experiences and sharing knowledge. Through English we understand each
other in the growing globalized world. As a result, English is a 'tool' be used all over
the world and in the most diverse situations. For instance, aviation companies use it to
communicate in cross-nationally, and most instruction manuals for assessing or
repairing common items like 'table', 'board' and 'car' are written in English.
Considering the demands of the modern world, which requires some knowledge of
English to succeed professionally, it does not come as a surprise that Cape Verdean
schools have established English as one of the foreign language to be learned by their
students.

   However, Cape Verde when English is being taught, pronunciation is not given its
importance. While I was teaching English language in Cape Verde, I discovered that
my students were not able to understand each other when trying to communicate in
English. I believe this was the case because they are not well-trained in English
pronunciation and have few opportunities to speak English inside or outside of the
classroom. English teaching in Cape Verde bases mostly on grammatical rules rather than
on pronunciation as a part of communication. Therefore, Cape Verdean EFL students
tend to have consistent grammatical knowledge that is not matched by proficiency of
their oral production.

The first goal of this paper is the analysis of the dialect of my home island the phonological systems of English and Cape Verdean Creole of Sao Vicente (CVSV) in order to observe where the main differences lies so as to describe how the mother tongue (L1) influences the pronunciation English (L2). The second goal is to explore current pedagogical approaches to teaching pronunciation to Cape Verdeans learners of the English language to identify the most successful approach for the purposes of achieving communicative competence.

The research design selected for this study involves an analysis of CVSV and review of current practices in which I offer a detailed analysis of the most successful approaches to teaching pronunciation in EFL. This research will allow me, on my return to teaching in Cape Verde, to design better instructional and curricular materials to teach English pronunciation to Cape Verdean students.

This paper consists of four chapters:

The first chapter focuses on the description of the phonemes present in English and Cape Verdean Creole of Sao Vicente (CVSV) phonemes. The transcription of the examples follows the Alfabeto Unificado para a Escrita do Caboverdiano (ALUPEC). This translates to Unified Alphabet for Cape Verdean Writing, while the phonetic transcription of both in groups uses the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA). English and CVSV share many consonant sounds, so the description of how these sounds are made is dispensable. However, some sounds that only occur in CVSV or in English will be described in detailed according to the author's native speaker knowledge.

ALUPEC uses the following symbols for consonants, B S D R F G H DJ J K LH L M V X TX Z; it uses the following symbols for vowels, A E I O U. This alphabet was created by a council with the ultimate goal of standardizing Cape Verdean Creole language. (ALUPEC 2006: 151 to 157)

The first chapter ends with a comparison of both phonological systems and an analysis of words difficult to pronounce. This section shows clearly where differences between the two phonological systems exist. The chapter ends with an analysis of English words difficult for CVSV speakers to pronounce, and identifies the reasons for such difficulties.

The second chapter highlights the topic of what kind of English to teach. The many varieties of the English language make it difficult to choose a single dialect when teaching pronunciation in English lessons. Furthermore, Should the classroom dialect be Standard British English that serves as the teaching model or should it rather be Standard American English? And what aspects of pronunciation should teachers focus on when they finally decide to include teaching pronunciation into an English lesson? Other questions will be address as well, such as when is the right time to teach pronunciation: at the beginning of the lesson or at the end? And is it helpful to introduce students to the phonemic chart?

The third chapter explains the importance of teaching pronunciation to English as a Foreign Language (EFL) students and demonstrates what teaching approaches can better help be adapted to teach pronunciation communicatively to CVSV leaners (Cape Verdeans English Language Learners Sao Vicente variety).

   The last chapter concludes this paper by presenting suggestions concerning the teaching of English pronunciation to Cape Verdean (CVSV) students.

CHAPTER I

All languages have their own phonological and phonetic system; that's why non-native speakers have major problems to adapting to a new language. Some sounds may occur in one language, but not occur in the other language. Therefore, learners of a new language tend to have problems with pronunciation. Also, it is important to understand that writing and speaking are quite different in all languages. The writing system is not always identical to the phonological system. For example, some words in English are pronounced differently than they are written. (E.g. *knob* [nɑb] and *know* [noʊ].) So, pronunciation in English is not directly connected to writing in English (Matras, 2009). To consider the problems of CVSV speakers in pronouncing English, one needs to understand means by which humans make meaningful sounds or phonemes.

English language and Cape Verdean language do not share completely reshaping the sets of phonemes.

Consonant Sounds

Fromkin, Rodman and Hyams (2014) classified consonants according to four criteria: place of articulation, manner of articulation, voiced and voiceless sounds, and nasal or oral sounds. These classifications allows the distinguishing of CV sounds.

The place of articulation, is the result of the movement of lips and tongue to create a constriction, reshaping the oral cavity in various ways to produce different sounds.

Following are the places of articulation in English and Cape Verdean Creole Sao Vicente variety:

Bilabial when the lips are brought together, and the tongue (rest position) is not involved. E.g. [p] in the word *pen* [pen] in English and the word *pata* ['patɐ] 'female duck' in Cape Verde/ Sao Vicente variety (CVSV);

Labiodental when the lower lip is brought toward the upper front teeth, and the tongue is not involved. E.g. [v] the word *van* [væn] in English and the word *vin* [vin] 'wine' in CVSV;

Dental when the apex of the tongue stays in the middle of the teeth or touches the back of the upper teeth, for example [ð] in the word *the* [ðə] in English; There is no [ð] sound in CV or CVSV;

Alveolar when the apex touches or has a close approximation to the alveolar ridge. E.g. [s] in the word *sand* [sænd] in English and the word *sop* ['sɔp] 'frog' in CVSV;

Alveolopalatal when the blade of the tongue is raised and is placed in the middle of the alveolar ridge and the palate. E.g. [ʃ] in the word *shame* [ʃeɪm] in English and the word *xole* [ʃɔ'le] 'foot odor' in CVSV;

Palatal when the front of the tongue is raised toward the palate. E.g. [j] in the word *yes* [jes] in English and the word *páia* [' pajɐ] '*dead grass*' in CVSV;

Velar when the tongue's dorsum makes contact with the velum. E.g. [k] in the word *calm* [kɑːlm] in English and in the word *kala* [ka'l a] 'shut up' in CVSV;

Glottal when the vocal chords make a quick closure or remain fully open. E.g. [h] in the word *house* [haʊs] in English and in the word *hotel* [otel] in CVSV;

The following picture shows the places where the previous sounds are produced, except the uvular and pharyngeal because they don't occur neither in English nor in CVSV:

1. bilabial
2. labiodental
3. dental
4. alveolar
5. alveolopalatal
6. palatal
7. velar
8. uvular
9. pharyngeal
10. glottal
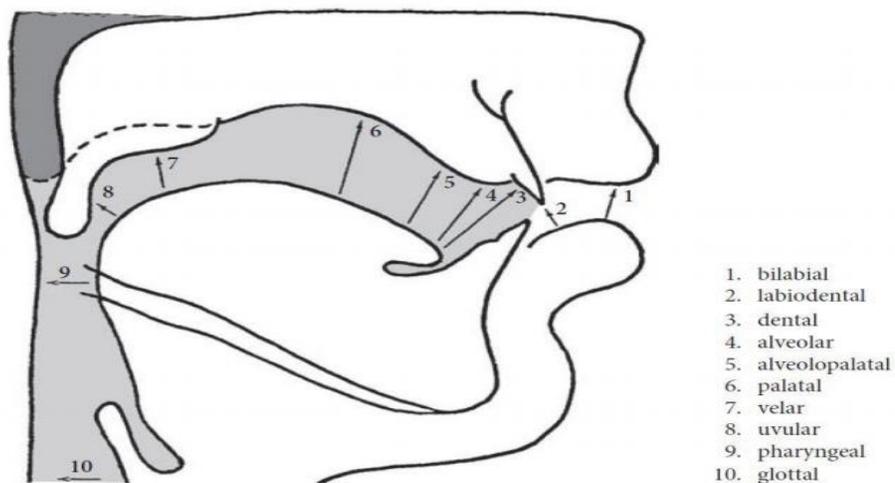
Figure 1 - Places of Articulation (Brinton, 2010)

The places can be combined with the manners of articulation in order to produce consonant sounds. **The manners of articulation are:**

Stop: Also called oral stop, this involves the total closure of two articulators while the velum is raised. E.g. In English the phoneme /b/ as in *ball* [bɔl] and in CVSV the phoneme /b/ as in *bala* ['balɐ] '*bullet*'. The characteristic plosive is related to oral stops because is a release of small amount of air in a stop, plosives are also called released stops;

Nasal: Also called nasal stop, this also involves the total closure of two articulators. The velum is lowered. E.g. In English the phoneme /n/ as in *knee* [ni:] and in CVSV the phoneme [n] as in *nada* ['nadɐ] 'nothing';

Fricative: this involves the approximation of two articulators. The flow of air is partially blocked to produce a hissing or rubbing sound. E.g. in English the phoneme /z/as in *zap* [zæp] and in CVSV the phoneme /z/ as in *zelá* [ze'la] 'to protect';

Affricate: According to Akmajian (2001) this is a single but a difficult sound, which begins as a stop but it releases as a fricative. So it is a combination of two manners of articulation. E.g. In English the phoneme [tʃ] as in *chill* [tʃɪl] and in CVSV the phoneme [tʃ] as in *txon* 'floor';

Trills and flaps: there is a total closure alternating intermittently with open approximation. The active articulator vibrates quickly toward the passive articulator. Trill is not a usual sound in English but it occurs in CVSV. E.g. the phoneme [R] as in korda ['kɔrdɐ] 'rope'; another r- sound is called a flap and it is produced by a flick of the tongue against the alveolar ridge. Its IPA (International Phonetic Alphabet) symbol is [ɾ]. According to Fromkin, Rodman and Hyams (2014) "most American speakers produce a flap instead of a [t] or [d] in words like *writer* and *rider,* which then sound identical and are spelled phonetically as [raiɾər]. The flap sound don't occur in CVSV.

Approximant: this happens when articulator gets near to another articulator but does not create a turbulent flow of air. There are three types of approximation:

a. Lateral: when there is a complete closure of the central area but the air passes through the sides with no stricture. E.g. In English the phoneme / l/as in *like* [laɪk] and in CVSV the phoneme /l / as in *lama* ['lamɐ] 'mud';

b.   Retroflex: this happens when the underside of the tongue curls back behind the alveolar ridge against the palate. E.g. in English the phoneme of /ɹ/ as in *around* [əˈɹaʊnd]. Retroflex is also called "liquid"; This sound don't occur in CVSV;

c.   Glide (semivowel); these sound are produced like a vowel that is why they are called semivowels, but they work as a consonant beginning or ending the syllables. E.g. in English the phoneme /j/as in yes [jes] and in CVSV the phoneme /j/ as in spaia [ʃpɐja] 'have fun'.

Voiced and voiceless sounds

According to Fromkin, Rodman and Hyams (2014), voiceless sounds are produced when the vocal cords are separated and fairly stretched: for example, the vocal cords don't vibrate when pronouncing the [sp] of the English word *speak* [s]. Voiced sounds are produced when the vocal cords are closed, vibrating when the air passes through, for example when pronouncing the [z] in the English word *zoo* [z]. All vowels are voiced.

These authors explain that the voiced and voiceless distinctions are very important in English; Although Veiga (1982) does not mention in his studies, these same distinctions are part of CVSV sound system.

Vowel sounds

According to Roach (2009), vowels are sounds that do not have any obstructions; the air flows from the larynx to the lips. Roach considers that the most important difference between vowels and consonants is the distribution, of the sound which varies from language to language.

Roach (2009) explains that the description of vowels is based on two things; the vertical distance between the upper surface of the tongue and the palate, and also, the position of the tongue, between front and the back.

In order to understand the vowels, it is important to see how vowels differ from each other. The vowel phoneme [i] is a closed vowel and [æ] is an open vowel. Noticed that the tongue's position on [i] rises to the palate, reaching its total height. But on the other hand the tongue's position on [æ] is lowered.

Roach (2009) shows that vowels can be closed [i] or open [æ] and in the front [e] or in the back [u] of the oral cavity. There is also an intermediate zone and intermediate closed and open sounds.
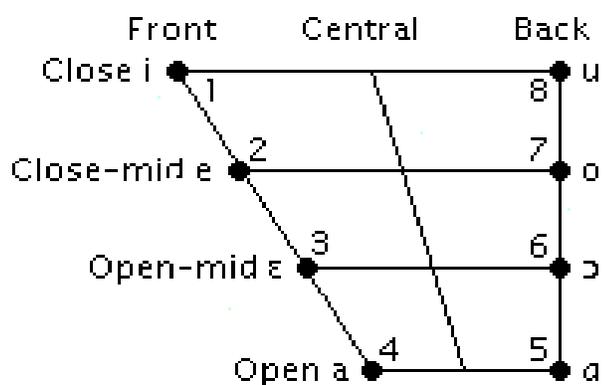
Figure 2 - Positions of Primary cardinal Vowels (Roach, 2009)

Roach (2009) explains that the primary cardinal vowels are a standard reference system because they mark the range that the human vocal apparatus can reach. Roach explains that the cardinal vowel #1 is the closest and the most front vowel possible the make. If the goes forward, it produces friction and in consequence becomes a consonant such as /s/ and /z/. In the contrary, the cardinal #5 is the most open and

back vowel possible to produce. The cardinal vowel #8 is the one which is fully closed and back while #4 is fully open and front. The other cardinal vowels (2, 3, 6 and 7) are at intermediate points between these extremes points.

Description of the phonetic system of Cape Verde/Sao Vicente variety (CVSV)

In this section, the words of CVSV are written using the system Alfabeto Unificado para a Escrita do Cabo Verdiano (ALUPEC).Veiga (1982), who studied the phonetic system of Cape Verde/Sao Vicente variety, explains that this alphabet, which is based on the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA), is very functional because each letter corresponds to a sound, and each sound corresponds to a letter. ALUPEC has some particularities which show the clear relationship of CV to Portuguese. For example, the written symbol <z> corresponds to the phoneme [z]; however the symbol <s> does not always correspond to the phoneme [s] as in *casa* [kaza] 'house', because in Portuguese the symbol <s> may be sounded like [z] in some cases like *casa* [kazɐ] 'house', *coisa* [ˈkɔizɐ] 'thing' and *medusa* [meˈduzɐ] 'jellyfish', and these words have entered CV from Portuguese ; additionally, Portuguese use of the [ʃ] in a critical consonant cluster is maintained in the CV words from Portuguese like *skola [ʃkola]* 'school'

ALUPEC always nasalizes sounds that occur with [n] but not with the phoneme [m]. The palatal and velar sounds are represented in ALUPEC: <tx> *txa* [tʃ] 'never mind', <dj > *djega* [dʒ] 'come', <x> *xixi* [ʃ] 'pee', <j> *jor* [ʒ] 'jar'and <nh> *kanhôt* [ɲ] 'smoke pipe'.

Because there has been little published linguistics analysis of the sounds of CVSV, the

following description will be based on the author's native speaker knowledge.

Consonants in CVSV

The following table shows the consonantal phonemes of CVSV.

Manner of articulation		Place of articulation							
		Bilabial	Labio-dental	interdental	Alveo lar	Alveolo-palatal	Palatal	Velar	Uvular
Stop	Voiceless	p			t			k	
	Voiced	b			d			g	
Nasal		m			n		ɲ	**ŋ***	
Trill					r				
Fricative	Voiceless		F	**ð***	s	ʃ			
	Voiced		V	**θ***	z	ʒ			ʁ
Affricate	Voiceless					ʧ			
	Voiced					ʤ			
Approximant	Lateral				l	ʎ			
	Retroflex								
	Glide or semivowel						j	W	

Table 1 - The asterisks mark the consonant sounds that don't occur in CVSV

Stops

In the CV dialect of Sao Vicente one can find six paired stops with different places of articulation. The first pair is the voiceless bilabial stop [p] and [b] as a voiced bilabial stop. The phoneme [p] occurs in words such a *pilha* ['piʎɐ] 'battery', *palpá* [pal'pa] 'touch' and *pá* [pa] 'shovel'. The phoneme /b/ occurs in words like *banda* ['bãdɐ] 'band' and *bibida* [bi'bidɐ] 'drink'.

The second pair is the voiceless alveolar stop [t] and [d] as voiced alveolar stop. The phoneme [t] occurs in words like *tranka* ['trãkɐ] 'lock' and *atak* [atak] 'attack'. The phoneme /d/ occurs in such as *doka* ['dɔkɐ] 'dock' and *tenda* ['tẽda] 'tent'.

The third pair contains the voiceless velar stop [k] and [g] as a voiced velar stop. The phoneme /k/ occurs in words like *kaza* ['kazɐ] 'house' and *akampament* [ɐkɐmpɐ'ment] 'camp'. The phoneme /g/ occurs in words such as '*gol*' [gol] 'goal' and '*agora*' [a'gɔrɐ] 'now'.

Nasals

CVSV uses three nasals in different places of articulation. The first is the bilabial nasal [m] which occurs in words such *as mnina*' ['mninɐ] 'girl' and *mama* [mama] 'breast'. The second is the alveolar nasal [n]. The phoneme [n] occurs in words such as *nada* ['nadɐ] 'nothing', *nunka* ['nunkɐ] 'never' and *Nôs* [noʃ] 'our'. The third is the palatal nasal /ɲ/. The phoneme /ɲ/ occurs in words like '*nha*' [ɲɐ] 'my' and '*keskinha*' ['keʃkiɲɐ] 'cone'.

Fricatives

In CVSV, there are three pairs of fricatives in different places of articulation. The first pair is the voiceless labiodental fricative phoneme [f] and the voiced labiodental

fricative [v]. The phoneme /f/ occur in words such as, *frok* [frɔk] 'weak, *dfinitivament* [dfiniti'vɐment] 'definitely' and *kadaf* ['kɐdaf] 'skeleton'. The phoneme [v] occur in words such as *volta* [volta] 'turn', *dvera* ['dvɛrɐ] 'really', and *viv* [viv] 'alive'.

The second pair is the voiceless alveolar fricative phonemes [s] and voiced alveolar fricative [z]. The voiceless phoneme [s] occurs in words such as *sok* [sok] 'punch' and *kalsada* and [kɐl'sadɐ] 'sidewalk'. The voiced phoneme /z/ occurs in words such as, *zona* ['zɔnɐ] 'zone' and *kaza* ['kazɐ] 'house'.

The third pair is the voiceless alveolar-palatal fricative [ʃ] and the voiced alveolar-palatal fricative [ʒ]. The phoneme /ʃ/ occurs in words such as *xok* [ʃok] 'shock', '*kexinha*' [ke'ʃiɲa] 'little box' and '*adex*' [a'dɛʃ] 'interjection'. The phoneme /ʒ/ occurs in words such as *jog* [ʒɔg] 'game' and *tijôl* [ti'ʒol] 'brick'.

Affricates

There is only one pair of affricates in Cape Verdean/SV variety. The voiceless alveolar-palatal affricate [ʧ] and it occurs in words like *txá* [ʧa] 'leave', *katxor* [ka'ʧoʁ] 'dog' and '*motx*' [mɔʧ] 'male'. The voiced alveolar-palatal affricate [ʤ] and it occurs in words like *Dju* [ʤu] 'cheap', *amdjer* [ɐm'ʤer] 'woman' and *fidj* [fiʤ] 'son'.

Laterals

There are two lateral approximants in different points of articulation. The first is the alveolar lateral [l]. This sound occurs in words like *la* [la] 'there', *meluk* ['meluk] 'crazy', and

kamel ['kamel] 'camel'.

The second is the palatal lateral [ʎ] which occurs in words like *milha* ['miʎɐ] 'mile', *lhão* [ʎão] 'lion', and *paspalh* ['paʃpaʎ] 'asshole'. To produce this sound, one

brings the back of the tongue against the palate, and the air flow will find some

obstruction while being expelled.

Rs

ALUPEC considers the symbol <r> for two phonemes, the alveolar trill [r] or the

uvular fricative [ʁ]. The phoneme [ʁ] is a particular to the Sao Vicente dialect. It occurs

in words like *kar* [kaʁ] 'meat' and *kor* [kɔʁ] 'car'. This sound is a voiced uvular fricative

phoneme. The production of this phoneme happens by bringing the back of tongue

against the uvula. By letting the air pass, it makes a fricative sound similar to a snore. The

voiced alveolar trill phoneme [r] occurs in words like *kór* [kɔr] 'expensive', *kôr* [kor]

'color'.

Vowels in CVSV

The following tables demonstrate the CVSV vowels (Table 2) and the ones that

don't occur in CVSV phonological system (Table 3):

Tongue's Height	Tongue's position		
	Front	**Central**	**Back**
High	i		u
Mid	e		o
	ɛ		ɔ
		ɐ	
Low		a	

Table 2 - Vocalic phonemes in CVSV (Rodrigues, 2007)

Tongue's height	Tongue's position		
	Front	Central	Back
High	ɪ		ʊ
Mid			
Low	Æ	ʌ	

Table 3 - Non vocalic phonemes in CVSV

Front vowels

The high front vowel is represented by [i]. This vowel sound occurs in words such as *midj* [midʒ] 'corn', *bitx* [bit͡ʃ] 'animal' and *fidj* [fidʒ] 'son'. There is an upper mid front vowel /e/. It occurs in words such as *pe* [pe] 'foot' *and pera* ['perɐ] 'pear'. In the same tongue position there is a lower mid front vowel /ɛ/ and it occurs in words such as *kabesa* [ka'bɛsɐ] 'head', *texta* ['tɛʃtɐ] 'forehead', *bexta* ['bɛʃtɐ] 'asshole'.

Central vowels

The mid-central vowel [ɐ] occurs in words like *ma* [mɐ] 'but' and *na* [nɐ] 'in'. Describe [ɐ] as a short vowel sound than [a]. A low central vowel [a] occurs in words such as *kaza* ['kazɐ] 'marry', *kabra* ['kabrɐ] 'goat', *and 'kadern'* [ka'dern] 'notebook'. Also a high back vowel [u] occurs in words such as *mut* [mut] 'a lot', *'brut'* ['brut] 'rude', *'fruta'* ['frutɐ] 'fruit' and *'frigurifk'* [fri'gurifk] 'refrigerator'.

Back vowels

The the mid back vowel [o] happens in words like *po* [po] 'dust', *tok* [tok] 'heel', *pok* [pok] 'little' and *krok* [krok] 'difficult'. Also the mid back open vowel [ɔ] it occurs in words such as *porta* ['pɔrtɐ] 'door', *kobra* ['kɔbrɐ] 'snake', *kola* ['kɔlɐ] 'glue' and *bola* ['bɔlɐ] 'ball'.

In the CVSV phonological system there are eight nasal vowels, Veiga (1982), says that all the oral CVSV vowels can be nasalized when followed by 'n'.

Examples of the eight nasal vowels include the following:

Tongue's	Tongue's position		
height	Front	Central	Back
High	ĩ		ũ
Mid	ẽ ɛ̃		õ
Low		ɐ̃ ã	ɔ̃

Table 4 - Nasal vowel sounds of CVSV

Analysis of words difficult to pronounce

The absence of several sounds in the Cape Verdean's phonological system (Sao Vicente's variety) in comparison to English makes it hard for Cape Verdean students to pronounce some English words. Usually, difficult sounds are adapted to a similar sound. Matras (2009), gives an example how a French speaker adapt the sounds [ð] and [θ]. The French exchange [ð] to [z] and [θ] to [s]. The same happens to Cape Verdean students (in Sao Vicente). They adapt consonant sounds to a similar sound that exists in the phonetic system of CVSV.

English dental fricative phonemes are the consonants that create most pronunciation problems, especially the voiceless phonemes. The voiced dental fricative [ð] is usually adapted by the CVSV speakers to the voiced alveolar stop sound [d]. (E.g. *them* is pronounced as [dəm], *mother* is pronounced as [madər]). Earlier, we noted that the sound [ð] does not exist in the phonological system of Cape Verdean, so that's why Cape Verdean students (in Sao Vicente) usually use [d] instead. The other fricative sound which is not present in the phonetic system of Cape Verdean, is also adapted to a sound which is similar: The voiceless dental fricative [θ] is usually adapted to the voiceless alveolar fricative [s], or the voiceless alveolar stop [t], or even the voiceless labiodental [f]. (E.g. *think* is pronounced to *[tɪŋk], *[sɪŋk] or *[fɪŋk], *thing* is pronounced to *[tɪŋg], *[sɪŋ] or *[fɪŋ]).

In the series of approximants, there is also a problem with pronunciation. The alveolar retroflex [r] does not occur in the Cape Verdean/Sao Vicente variety (CVSV). The tongue must curl back in order to produce this retroflex approximant. This articulation creates great difficulties to CVSV learners, as I observed during my teaching internship. The students have difficulties in words like *around* [əraʊnd], *round* ['raʊnd] and *rock* [rɒk]. In the words which have "r" in the beginning, the students tend to not pronounce the sound [r]. (E.g. *around* is pronounced as *[ə'waʊnd]). They change the alveolar retroflex [r] to the velar glide [w]. Another sound that also generates problems is the glide [w]. Even though both systems have it, a problem may reside in training of the teachers. For example many students I observed in 10th, 11th and 12th grades in Liceu Ludgero Lima High school were taught by their teacher to say *would* as *[ʊd] instead of [wʊd].

Also another word which is mispronounced is *woman*. There are plenty of students that read *woman* as *['ʊmən] instead of [w'ʊmən]. These misspellings are usually generated when the teachers mispronounce the words, and the students imitate the incorrect sound. The glottal voiceless sound [h] also generates similar pronunciation problems. It is adapted with a trill sound [r]. For example, students tend to say *[ʁəv] instead of [hæv], or even they ignore the presence of the [h] sound, saying *[ɛv] because in some words in Cape Verdean Creole the [h] sound is mute when it is followed by vowels (for instance the word *hospital* which is pronounced [oʃpital]). This adaptation occurs because the consonant sound [h] does not occur orally in Cape Verdean Creole (CVC) nor CVSV.

In particular, in terms of vowel pronunciation, it is important to understand two main features, the "tenseness" and the "length" of the vowels. It is also important to notice that these two features don't occur in CVSV phonetic system. According to Fromkin, Rodman and Hyams (2014) vowels in English can be tense or lax. The tense vowels are the vowels that are longer and higher and lax vowels are shorter and lower. The following table shows some examples:

Column 1 Long vowels (tense	Column 2 Short vowels (lax)
i Beat [biːt]	**I** Bit [bɪt]
e bait [beɪt]	**ɛ** bet [bet]
u boot [buːt]	**ʊ** put [pʊt]
o boat [boʊt]	**ʌ** cut [kʌt]
ɔ saw [sɔː]	**ə** about [əˈbaʊt]

Table 5 - Tense and lax vowels in English (Fromkin et al., 2014)

CV and CVSV do not distinguish vowels by tenseness, therefore, mispronounced vowel sounds can be avoided only by teaching how to differentiate tense vowels from lax vowels.

To sum up, it is important for Cape Verdean teachers to be aware of the differences between consonants and vowels while teaching English pronunciation communicatively to CVSV students. It is also important to mention that teachers need preparations to address students' needs on this matter, without ignoring the fact that English language has several dialects.

CHAPTER II

What kind of English to Teach

There have been many discussions on which type of English is the best to teach to EFL (English as a Foreign Language) students. According to Farrel and Martin (2009), so far, people believe that Standard English that should be taught. But there is no general agreement as to what the term Standard English exactly means.

Standard English and Received Pronunciation

When research use the term "Standard English," they refer to a variety of British Standard English or American Standard English. Farrel and Martin (2009), ask, however, "Standard English in such places like Africa, Canada or West Indies. Is the official English in these places not a Standard English?" Yet Standard English is a well-known term, even though it is not easy to define.

Trudgill (2000) explains that historically the standard variety of English language came from the mixture of the various English dialects used by educated people, writers and clerks in the London area in the sixteenth century. In addition, in the nineteenth century Fisher (1996) states a particular written form of English became the standard one because clerks got used to writing in almost the same style, orthography and syntax. The spoken variety used by the upper class was the language transcribed by the clerks. Yet, because these clerks were transcribing this language of the upper class, the process of English language standardization started with written copies for business or governmental purposes, and not with oral usage.

Nowadays, Standard English is seen as a variety of English which is used by educated people. However, there are many regional differences within Standard English, especially in terms of vocabulary and syntax.

Trudgill, (2000) and Farrell and Martin (2009) all define Standard English as a "term which refers to the most widely accepted form of English in an English speaking country". So the speakers of the country are the ones who decide which characteristics should be included in their Standard English and which not. As a result, West Indies speakers may speak or write Standard English differently from African speakers. To reinforce this, Trudgill (2000) states that it is "important to realize the differences between these varieties do not make one variety more important than the other, as all the languages and all the dialects are equally complex systems."

But at the same time, Trudgill (2000) claims that there's still a gap in defining Standard English. He explains that the agreement about the features of the real standard of Standard English are created by widely accepted and codified grammar rules. Yet, given the written origin of Standard English, it is not surprising this general agreement does not apply to pronunciation, as it is normal to speak Standard English with a regional or social accent. The only standard accents connected with Standard English are British Received Pronunciation (RP) or American Broadcast Standard.

As to the historical development of RP, Daniel Jones, in the first edition of the *English Pronunciation Dictionary* (1917), named this accent "Public School Pronunciation" because it was created among the aristocracy and the upper-middle class who could afford to pay a fee at English "public schools" for their sons, and later this RP

was established as the accent of BBC announcements and then codified as a prestige dialect.

Trudgill (2000) notes that the most peculiar feature of RP is that it is difficult to distinguish the regional origins of its speakers. As RP is the only neutral accent of Standard British English, General American English (GAE) is the only neutral accent for Standard American. The most noticeable distinction between RP and GAE is the pronunciation of postvocalic [r] in words like *father, car*. Whereas British people do not pronounce [r] in these words, Broadcast Standard American speakers do (Tioukalias, 2010).

Once a variety of Standard English is chosen, there are still disadvantages to setting up a teaching model on a standard form of English, which is later explained by some researches. Even so, I believe that for the Cape Verdean English language learners/ Sao Vicente variety, teachers should teach the Standard American English due to its cultural influence in CV in relation to music, emigration patterns, films, clothing, and so on.

The advantages of teaching English as a Foreign Language (EFL) using a model of Standard English are generally assumed by most educators. British Standard English is usually the focus of language textbooks, which are often updated. In connection with this, Trudgill (2000) notes that normally non-native speakers are exposed to Standard English at schools. Standard English is the variety which is easily understood by all the English speakers, a variety which is according to Dziubalska (2005) easily taught and learned. However, for Cape Verdeans English language learners who are used to listening to the American English pronunciation, RP is not really that easy to learn.

On the other hand, Crystal (2010) is against introducing only one English dialect to the classroom, claiming that it have a negative effects. Facing only RP, for example, students might be shocked when encountering many other varieties of English.

Farrell and Martin (2009) agree with Crystal that introducing solely Standard English into the classroom is not enough because it might restrict students in understanding many variations that exist. Moreover, as the notes from the British Educational Council (2011) explain that, bringing only Standard English into the classroom gives Standard English privilege over the other varieties.

Teaching Production and Teaching Comprehension

Crystal (2010) differently, sees this matter of which dialect to teach, claiming that the most important thing in teaching EFL is to bring global English into the classroom. He does not mean that teachers should ignore the many pedagogical materials based on RP. If a teacher sets up a teaching model using an English textbook including RP, he/she can continue to use it. The point is that these study materials need to be complemented with as many other English varieties as possible. In other words, teachers need to expose their students to as many English dialect varieties as possible to make students realize that the English dialect in their books is not the only one which exists in the world. And this has to happen as soon as the students begin to learn English as a Foreign Language (EFL). This approach familiarizes the students with a language which they can really encounter in all its variety wherever they go (Crystal, 2010).

Crystal (2010) also emphasizes the idea that it is more important to understand what others are saying than to focus on accurate pronunciation; He notes two possible ways by which teachers can introduce global English into the classroom, *teaching*

production and *teaching comprehension*. Teachers need to address the various dialects of English when teaching language production because introducing only one variety, for example RP, does not expose students to the existing varieties. However, Crystal (2010) claims that just production is not enough; it is necessary to address comprehension as well because a misunderstanding of a dialect variety can change everything. Regarding this, his advice is to expose students to as many comprehension activities as possible. This applies to reading comprehension (introducing written materials into the classroom, such as a variety of international newspapers, journals and internet sites) as well as to listening comprehension. From my perspective, students should be aware that there are several English varieties, but when it comes to teaching teacher should follow only one variety, avoiding students' confusion.

Factors influencing pronunciation

There are factors which influence the learning of English pronunciation, explaining why some students are able to acquire basic knowledge of English in few months while others are not able to reach the same level in several years. Shoebottom (2012), explains that some of these factors involve the difficulty acquiring of pronunciation skills (e.g. determination and hard work in training pronunciation skills); others of these factors like personality are far beyond human control. Generally, we can differentiate two main types of factors, internal and external.

Internal factors

Internal factors are incorporated into student's individual language.

Age: Shoebottom (2012) explains that smaller children are the most talented ones in acquiring EFL. However, adults can achieve a reasonable progress in pronunciation skills if they are well motivated and determined.

Personality: Students who are introverted are usually afraid of expressing themselves orally; they do not look for any opportunities to speak. On the other hand, students who are extrovert usually take part in every conversation possible, ignoring their mistakes. Meaning that the teacher may have difficulties in engaging all the students in a language practice activity.

Motivation: It is important here to distinguish between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Students who are intrinsically motivated exhibit greater interest and enjoyment in their English language development. Students who are extrinsically motivated, for example, have a desire to study English in order to take a better job or to communicate with relatives who live in an English speaking country.

Native language: Students who try to acquire a foreign language which belongs to the same language family as their native language have a greater chance of learning that language than those students who try to master a language from a family group that is different from their native tongue. (Shoebottom, 2012)

External Factors

According to Shoebottom, external factors characterize the particular language learning situation.

Instruction: It depends also on teacher's teaching skills and abilities how successful students are in terms of their language development. In addition to this, students who are exposed to some ELT also in other subjects achieve greater progress.

Access to native speakers: Students who have the opportunity to communicate with native speakers lose the fear of communicating. Native speakers provide a linguistic model and an appropriate feedback for students (Shoebottom, 2012).

Including pronunciation in the classroom

There are various elements to consider when contemplating good practice in EFL pedagogy and curriculum.

When to Teach Pronunciation

According to Harmer (2005), the first thing to do is to decide when to include pronunciation teaching in an English lesson. Pronunciation instruction can occur in the following:

Whole lessons: if teachers decide to spend the whole lesson on to teaching pronunciation, it does not necessarily mean that the entire lesson needs to be based just on training pronunciation. Students may be asked to deal with listening skills or vocabulary before focusing on pronunciation tasks. It is not sensible to focus on pronunciation of sounds only, it is rather advisable to teach different strategies gradually to teach pronunciation communicatively.

Discrete slots: Inserting short, separate pronunciation parts into English lessons can prove extremely beneficial as this can refresh every English lesson. These short pronunciation sections, where one week phonemes and another week intonation can be

practiced, are very popular among students as they welcome shorter pronunciation tasks. However, pronunciation is not a separate skill; it is an essential part of our communication. That is the reason why longer sequences or even the entire lessons should be devoted to its teaching and why pronunciation can and could be incorporated in lessons focused on reading, writing and listening.

Integrated phases: Making pronunciation tasks an integral part of lesson activities seems to be a successful way of dealing with pronunciation. Pronunciation tasks may occur in almost every listening activity; students may pay attention to pronunciation features they listen to or they can just imitate intonation.

Opportunistic teaching: Pointing out a pronunciation problem when it has just arisen in the course is a good way of introducing pronunciation to the class. It is enough to devote a minute or two to some pronunciation issue so that fluency of the lesson is not interrupted a lot (Harmer, 2005).

Importantly, Harmer's suggestions for ways of including pronunciation into a classroom do not need to be separately addressed. If possible, we teachers can mix approaches according to flexibility of the timetable and syllabus (Harmer, 2005).

What Pronunciation Aspects to Teach

Phonemic Chart

When we talk about teaching pronunciation, it is impossible not to mention the phonemic chart. Of course, it is possible to teach pronunciation without introducing phonemic symbols. One might say the words or sentence fragments for a good period of time to make students realize the sound differences or picture the sound production using

mouth and lip movement. But Harmer believes that knowing the phonemic symbols will allow students to be able to read words, pronounce them correctly, even without hearing them in advance (2005).

Examples of pronunciation areas

It is important to decide on what features of pronunciation teachers should focus the most. According to Harmer (2005), teaching the pronunciation of sound segments, intonation, sentence stress, words stress, and connected speech are areas on which teachers should focus.

Sounds

Students may be asked to become familiar with a particular sound in order to realize how this sound is produced in their mouth and how it can be spelled. There are many ways an individual can practice a sound (Harmer 2005). This include the following:

Identifying the particular sound(s) in the words

Harmer (2005) and Hewings (1993) give an example where students are asked to match the words from a box list to the correct sound. For example, the words (out of *bird*, *word*, *worm, curl*, *heard*, *first*, *lurch*) which contain the [ɛ] sound. Afterwards, students practice saying the words. Figure 2 demonstrates a worksheet style activity.

The long vowels /iː/, /ɜː/, /ɑː/, /ɔː/ and /uː/

Find four words in the box below that contain the same vowel sound as in:

1	clean	/iː/	....	....	....
2	bird	/ɜː/	....	....	....
3	car	/ɑː/	....	....	....
4	four	/ɔː/	....	....	....
5	food	/uː/	....	....	....

and write them in the spaces.

improve	heart	prefer	law	visa	piece	laugh
early	banana	water	me	fruit	June	free
Thursday	word	abroad	half	bought	blue	

Repeat the words and check your answers. ⊶

Figure 3 - Worksheet activity (Hewings, 1993, p. 84)

Contrasting two sounds that are very similar

Concentrating on two different aspects of pronunciation usually starts with a listening activity followed by practicing the difference between the sounds (Harmer, 2005). For example, the student might be patterned through listening and then producing the sounds in the following minimal pairs: Ship/chip; sherry/cherry; washing/watching.

Baker (2006), shows another option to deal with minimal pairs in her textbook *Ship or Sheep*. Teachers can help students practice minimal pairs by photocopying the minimal pair activities from the Baker's book. Then, students cut out cards from the minimal pair activities keeping the sentence that use the sounds separated. Having turned all the cards upside down, students can play a game. After choosing two cards, the student reads the sentences aloud. If these two sentences match as the minimal pair, the student keeps these two cards and plays again. If not, another student continues. The student who collects the most of the cards wins. An example of this minimal pair activity is provided below.

Figure 4 - Minimal pair activity (Baker, 2006, p. 42)

Finding out which sound students hear

An example of Harmer (2005, p.188) the teacher may ask students to listen to a recording and to distinguish which word they hear. For example, a recording might include the following:

Small *shops/chops* are often expensive; the *dishes/ditches* need cleaning.

The teacher writes the minimal pairs in the board and then play one at the time and students choose with sound from the minimal pairs they are listening to.

Tongue Twisters

According to Baird (2012) introducing tongue twisters not only helps students in terms of improving their pronunciation, but also brings some fun into the classroom. I believe that this activity helps students achieve fluency through speed and discrimination between the sounds. For example: Students hear each of these tongue twisters three times and then repeat them three times.

Vincent vowed vengeance very vehemently

Betty and Bob brought back blue balloons from the big bazaar

Lesley loves Roger, but Roger doesn't love Lesley

Roger rather likes Lucy.

Tennant (2007) noted that the most important thing in teaching individual sounds is to weigh up whether it is really necessary to teach sound differences. The fact is that many words are difficult to pronounce alone but they are easily clarified by the context. On the other hand, this fact does not mean that individual sounds should not be disregarded. Whether to focus on a sound depends on the characteristics of the teaching class. If the teacher has a monolingual class, it is advisable to focus on practicing sounds which are difficult for speakers of the new language. If it is a multilingual class, it is important to find out which sounds predominate as troublemakers in this particular group.

I believe that teachers teach pronunciation separately, hoping that students are able to use those pronunciation skills while communicating. However, I've noticed that when words are pronounced in isolation, students use the correct pronunciation. But during a conversation students tend to stick to their prior or usual incorrect pronunciation.

CHAPTER III

Although there are many approaches to teaching EFL, there are not as many which can foreground pronunciation instruction. This chapter critiques current approaches to teaching pronunciation communicatively, such as the Natural approach, Communicative Language Teaching, the Oral approach or Situational language learning, and the Silent way.

Importance of teaching pronunciation communicatively

Hamer (2005) reminds us the necessity of clear communication between non-native speakers that is inherent. However, many EFL teachers insist on focusing on sentence structure and vocabulary but not on pronunciation. Studies prove that speakers whose pronunciation is understandable are able to handle successful conversations even with grammatical mistakes, better than those whose sentence structure obeys all the rules, but who lack clarity of pronunciation. For this reason, Gilakjani (2012) explains that teaching pronunciation is crucial in every English lesson.

Teaching pronunciation helps students improve their spoken abilities by focusing on where the unfamiliar sounds in a language are articulated in the mouth. However, Gilakjani (2012) claims that teaching pronunciation should be more than just training learners in a language phoneme or in isolated words. Students need to see Pronunciation as an essential part of communication. So in order to consolidate pronunciation skills (production and comprehension), it is important for teachers to include contextualized pronunciation activities in classrooms through diverse materials and tests. These materials will not only improve learner's confidence while communicating but will also improve their listening skill.

Because teaching pronunciation to EFL students is important, a teachers should choose a teaching approach which can better help or can be adapted to teaching pronunciation.

Natural approach

The Natural approach "is based on observation and interpretation of how learners acquire both first and second languages in non-formal settings" (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p.179). Krashen and Terrell see the approach as a, "traditional approach to language teaching based on the use of language in communicative situations without recourse to the native language" (as cited in Richards & Rodgers 2001, p.184). In this approach students are expected to be understood while speaking the target language, no matter what situation they are placed in. They should be able to understand the speaker of the target language and, express their own ideas in the target language. To be effective speakers, students don't need to know every word in a particular semantic domain, and the syntax and vocabulary don't need to be perfect; in this approach what matters is that the speaker understood in the communicative situation (Richard & Rodgers, 2012). Krashen and Terrell (1983) approve natural approach because they see communication as the main function of language. Therefore students while trying to communicate should focus on making the meaning clear instead of being accurate in all details of grammar. Because this approach focuses on communicative practices, the natural approach is an example of a communicative approach.

Krashen and Terrell recommend techniques that are often borrowed from other teaching approaches and adapted to Natural Approach theory, such as command-based

activities from the Total Physical Response approach. One of the main features of the

Natural Approach is the use of familiar techniques that focus on providing

comprehensible input and a classroom environment that cues comprehension of input,

minimizes learner anxiety, and maximizes learner self-confidence. According to Krashen

and Terrell "The language acquirer is seen as a processor of comprehensible input.

Learners' roles are seen to change according to their stage of linguistic development".

Central to these changing roles, learners decide when to speak, what to speak about, and

what linguistic expressions to use in speaking. In the *early-production stage* of the

natural approach, students respond to simple questions, use single words and short

phrases, fill in charts, and use fixed conversational patterns (e.g., What's your name?). In

the *speech-emergent stage,* students involve themselves in role play and games, provide

personal information and opinions, and participate in group problem solving. (Krashen

and Terrel, 1983)

Yet Krashen and Terrel explain that the Natural Approach teacher has three

central texts. First, the teacher is the primary source of comprehensible input in the target

language. Second, the Natural Approach teacher creates a classroom atmosphere that is

interesting and friendly, where students feel comfortable to participate. Finally, the

teacher must choose and orchestrate a rich mix of classroom activities, involving a

variety of group sizes, content, and contexts. Shimon and Peerless (2006) highlight the

importance of removing the environmental barriers in a classroom that interfere with

second language acquisition. In addition, research shows that when a teacher reduces the

level of anxiety of using expressions like "can do" and "let's try" this has a positive

impact on the learning process. However, some researches claim that either a teacher's

excessive emotion or lack of the emotion can create barriers in second language acquisition.

Richard and Rodgers suggest that, instead of always providing an environment where students feel comfortable and safe, the teacher must challenge students to take risks in the process of second language learning without stressing or pressuring them. Of course the level of stress can be reduced by narrowing the gap between the students' level and the learning materials. Richard and Rodgers point out that the Natural Approach adopts innovative techniques and activities from other methods; these methods become innovative because of the effective ways they are used. For example research suggest natural approach activities which are mainly based on total physical response (TPR) method (2012).

Oral Approach and situational language learning

Richard and Rodgers show that the oral approach views communication as the main feature of EFL learning and structure as vital element of speaking ability. Oral practice is controlled in sentence patterns in response to this situations created to give the greatest amount of practice in oral English. As a direct method, situational language learning supports an inductive approach focused on teaching grammar. The meaning of the words is not translated into neither the mother tongue nor the target language; on the contrary, the target word is in a situation that students can understand. That is, the translations or explanations are not provided so the students are expected to deduce the meaning of the word or a language structure in the framework of a particular situation that they are exposed to (2012).

According to these authors, the objectives of this approach are to teach practical command of reading, writing, listening and speaking skills in the target language, but these skills are approached through language structures. In this approach it is crucial to be accurate in both pronunciation and grammar: errors should be avoided at all costs.

The learner role in this approach is simply to listen and repeat what the teacher says and to respond to commands and questions. The learner doesn't have control over the content taught and he/she is most of the time required to exhibit behaviors manipulated by the teacher. For instance, the student cannot fail on grammar or pronunciation or even fail to respond quickly enough, or forget what has been taught; such behaviors are not accepted for any reason. Later, more active participation is required and this includes learners responding and asking each other questions in circumstances controlled by the teacher (Richard & Rodgers, 2012).

Communicative Language Teaching Approach (CLT)

The Communicative Language Teaching Approach (CLT) is also referred to as communicative approach to the teaching of foreign language or simply the "communicative approach" An update version of the oral approach and situational language learning. Its goal for language teaching is what Hymes (1972) referred to as "Communicative Competence." Hymes coined this term in order to contrast a communicative view of language with Chomsky's theory of competence. In Hyme's view, a person who acquires communicative competence acquires both knowledge and ability for language use.

As cited in Richards and Rodgers (2012), the objectives of this approach are proposed as general objectives which can be applied to any teaching situation rather than

tied to specific teaching situations. Such an approach reflects the particular needs of the target learners (like listening, writing, reading and speaking), all approached from a communicative perspective. The levels of objectives in a communicative approach are as follows: An integrative and content level, linguistic and instrumental level, an affective level of interpersonal relationships and conduct, a level of in individual learning needed and a general educational level of extra-linguistic goals Piepho (1981).

Discussions over the nature of the syllabus are central in Communicative Language Teaching. The first model of a syllabus proposed was described as a national syllabus (Wilkins, 1976) which specified the semantic-grammatical categories and the categories of communicative function that learners need to master. Then the same syllabus was expanded and developed further by The Council of Europe by adding the description of the objectives of a foreign language course, the situation in which learners might need to use a foreign language, the topics they might need to talk about, the function they need language for, the notions made use of in communication and the vocabulary and grammar needed.

Holec (1979) explains that this particular communicative language syllabus is the result of a project authorize by the Council of Europe to produce a system of units in foreign language instruction for adults. The syllabus addressing what is known as "a threshold level," is a compilation of the knowledge and skills a person would need in order to communicate simply but effectively in a foreign environment. It is not limited to communication for survival; on the contrary, it enables one to communicate with others on an interpersonal level, that is, to be able to share interests and lifestyle. The curriculum for this course of instruction provides topic-related notions and common

English referents or exponents and a listing of situations in which threshold proficiency is desirable,

Types of learning and teaching activities of this approach:

The range of exercise types and activities compatible with a communicative approach is unlimited, provided that such exercises enable learners to attain the communicative objectives of the curriculum, engage them in communication, and require the use of such communicative processes as information sharing, negotiation of meaning, and interaction. Classroom activities are often designed to focus on completing tasks that are mediated through language or involve negotiation of information and information sharing.

The learner in this approach is a negotiator (between speaker, the learning process, and the objective of learning). They are expected to interact primarily with each other rather than with the teacher. Learners contribute as much as they gain, and learn in an independent way.

To support the leaner, as Breen and Candlin (1980) explain, the role of the teacher is to facilitate the communication process between students and act as an independent participant within the learning-teaching group. According to Richards and Rodgers (2011) the teacher can also be a needs analyst (determining and responding to learner language needs); counselor (expected to exemplify an effective communicator); and group process manger (organizing the classroom for communication and communicative activities)

The Communicative Language Teaching approach uses materials to influencing the quality of classroom interaction and language use. All activities' primary role is to

promote communicative language use. Currently CLT uses three kinds of materials: text-based (textbooks), task-based (games, role plays), and realia (objects and material from everyday life, especially when used as teaching aids, for example signs, magazines).

Savignon (1983 cited in Richards and Rodgers, 2012) discusses techniques and classroom management procedures associated with a number of communicative language procedures (e.g., group activities, language games, role plays), but acknowledges that neither these activities nor the ways in which they are used are exclusive to CLT classrooms.

Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983) offer this lesson outline for teaching the function "making a suggestion" for learners in a beginning language level suggesting that CLT procedures are evolutionary rather than revolutionary:

1. Presentation of a brief dialog or several mini-dialogs, preceded by a motivation and a discussion of the functional and situation – people, role, setting, topics;

2. Oral practice of each utterance of the dialog segment to be presented that day (entire class repetition, half-class, groups, individuals);

3. Questions and answers based on the dialog topic (s) and situation itself;

4. Questions and answers related to the students' personal experiences but centered around the dialog theme;

5. Study one of the basic communicative expressions in the dialog or one of the structure which exemplify the function;

6. Learner discovery of generalizations or rules underlying the functional expression or structure;

7. Oral recognition and interpretative activities;

8. Oral production activities;

9. Copying of the dialogs or mini-dialogs or modules if they are not in the class text;

10. Sampling of the written homework assignment;

11. Evaluation of learning (oral only),

Silent way method

The silent way method promotes the idea that in the classroom the teacher should be as quiet as possible, encouraging the students to produce as much language they can. This idea came from Caleb Gattegno's experiences as an educational designer of reading and mathematics programs. The silent way method approaches learning as a problem solving, creative, discovering activity in which the learner is the main character rather than just a listener (Richards & Rodgers, 2012). In this approach it is assumed that listening is facilitated if the learner creates rather than remembers or repeats what is supposed to be learned; The learning is simplified by accompanying (mediating) physical objects: for instance "the rods and the color-coded pronunciation charts (called Fidel charts) provide physical foci for student learning and also create memorable images to facilitate student recall". Finally the learning is facilitated through problem solving using the materials to be learned.

Dr. Gattegno (1972, as cited in Richard and Rogers, 2012) explains that the silent way focuses more about sentences and propositional meaning than communicative techniques do. Here, through inductive processes, students are exposed to structural patterns of the target language and focused on the syntactic rules of the language. From Gattegno's point of view the objective of the silent way is to facilitate beginners with oral and listening practice in basic elements of the target language. It also should provide

them near native fluency in the target language and correct pronunciation. Therefore students are expected to correctly and easily answer questions about themselves, their education, daily routines, family, and travel; speak with a good accent; provide a written or oral description of a picture, time and numbers; answer questions about the literature and culture of the native speaker of the target language and perform well while spelling, grammar, reading comprehension and writing. The lessons planned for this method are elaborated around grammatical items and related vocabulary.

The silent way encourages and shapes students' oral response without instruction or modeling by the teacher. Basic to this method are simple linguistic tasks in which the teacher models a word or sentence and then elicits learner responses. Then learners have to create their own responses by putting together the old and the new information. The charts, rods and other materials previously mentioned may be used for their support. Stevick (1980) argues that "Teacher silence is, perhaps, the unique and, for many traditionally trained language teachers, the most demanding aspect of the silent way. Teachers are urged to resist the necessity to model, remodel, assist, and direct desired student responses". Stevick (1980) defines the silent way teacher tasks as 1) to teach, 2) to test, 3) to get out of the way. By teaching "Stevick (1980) refers to the presentation of an item once, typically using nonverbal clues to get across the meaning." Testing involves to eliciting and shaping students' production, which is done in as silent way as possible. Finally, the teacher control students' learning and interaction with each other and may even leave the room while students struggle with their new linguistic tools.

Gattegno explains that the silent way materials are a set of colored rods, color-coded pronunciation and vocabulary wall charts, a pointer, and reading/writing exercises,

all used to make clear the relationship between sound and meaning in the target language. The pronunciation charts, called "Fidels", have symbols in the target language for all vowel and consonant sounds of the language, which illustrate the pronunciations. This is why the first section of some silent way lessons will focus on pronunciation. Depending on student level, students will practice sounds, phrases, and even sentences elaborated in the Fidel chart.

To initiate, the teacher will demonstrate the correct sound after pointing to the symbol the sound corresponds to on the chart. Then, the teacher will apply the silent way by pointing to the symbols and waiting for the students' utterances. The teacher also may say a word and have students guess what sequence of symbols compromise the word. The teacher uses the pointer to indicate stress, phrasing and intonation. Stress can be demonstrated by touching some symbols more forcibly than others when pointing out a word. Intonation and phrasing can be shown by tapping on the chart to the rhythm of the student's utterances. After practice with sounds of the target language, sentence patterns, structure and vocabulary, the teacher creates a visual realization of the pronunciation with colored rods. Then students will produce the utterance and the teacher will be there to correct it, if it is wrong. If it is, the teacher will ask another student to correct it before correcting it himself. Finally, the teacher creates a situation in which the student can practice the structure through manipulation of the rods (Richards and Rodgers, 2012).

Disadvantages of the approaches and suggestion

For each one of the approaches to second language instruction, there are real limitations:

For example in the Natural approach, learners decide when to speak, what to speak about and what linguistic expressions to use in speaking. This approach uses the Total Physical Response (TPR) method which is not effective to teach pronunciation communicatively because it is based on physical acting or imitations of isolated vocabularies.

Although, the oral approach focuses on teaching grammar, and the meaning of words is never be translated to students, which means that their knowledge of their first language or mother tongue in not leveraged as they learn a new language. Instead, students are expected to deduce from context the meaning of the word or structure of a particular situation. In this approach it is crucial to be accurate in both pronunciation and grammar and errors should be avoided at all costs, but the approach does not account for cultural misunderstanding of the context for speaking.

In the communicative language teaching approach, there is not enough focus on pronunciation correction and grammar errors. On the contrary, it emphasizes fluency rather than accuracy in grammar and pronunciation. As a result it works well with intermediate and advanced students, but for beginners some controlled practice is needed.

In the silent way approach, teachers don't interact as much with students; also students may be confused by the symbols of the colored wooden rods. Students can waste time struggling with concepts that could be easily explained by the teacher if he/she interacts more. And it is difficult to evaluate students' progress during their learning process.

I believe that the pedagogical approaches discussed do not provide enough support to teach pronunciation communicatively. However, teachers can use different strategies such as explicit systematic instructions to teach pronunciation communicatively, as long as it is gradually instructed.

Explicit systematic instruction

According to Goeke (2008) explicit instruction is skill based, but students are active participants in the learning process. It integrates simple learning units into meaningful complex units and instruction focuses specifically in students' learning and attentional needs. The teacher constantly monitors understanding to make sure students are retaining meaning from instruction. This kind of instructional is used in diverse contexts and curricular areas and students enjoy it because they are learning. Students are cognitively engaged throughout the learning encounter. During explicit instruction, teachers have the responsibility to monitor students' needs and provide appropriate strategies for their learning process. But first the teacher must clarify his/her expectations so that students can accomplish the goal.

There are studies that support the idea of using explicit instruction to teach pronunciation communicatively. Gordon, Darcy, & Ewert, (2013) found out that explicit instruction benefits English language learners overall. The results demonstrates that even with time-limited in classroom, explicit instruction shows beneficial results for ELLs. Lord (2005) in her study shows the results are promising, because the participants that were exposed to explicit instruction while learning pronunciation communicatively improved considerably on specific segmental features.

The following sample lesson description illustrates three phases of instruction I will use in my future classes on teaching pronunciation communicatively to CVSV students, which could be adapted to students' varying levels of proficiency.

Sample lesson description

For the first phase, I plan to introduce, one by one, the sounds with which they struggle the most (e.g. [ð] as in fur**th**er, **th**ink); show in details how this sound is produced in our vocal tract; and use videos of the sound production for them to practice in the classroom.

Second, students seated in groups of three can write a list of words using the sound that is being taught, then produce sentences and finally pronounce them; listen to recording of similar sounds and choose which one is the correct pronunciation according to the words on the blackboard; use of tongue twisters to improve accuracy and fluency.

Third, students will watch one of the you tube videos "the top 12 English words mispronounced by foreign learners" then I will give students a chance to pronounce the words correctly before the correct one is presented; create situations where consciously students can interact using the sounds learned so far;

It is important to mention that with different sounds, I will provide different exercises so the lessons are not repetitive.

CONCLUSION

In the first chapter, readers learned of the main differences from CVSV in phonological systems of English and of the ways in which CVSV can influence students' oral production of English. This discussion demonstrated that the phonological systems of CVSV and English, each include sounds not available to speakers of the other language. When trying to produce a phoneme not available in L1, the speaker will approximate the phoneme or substitute a phoneme from L1, which shares same characteristics with the L2 phoneme.

Examples of Cape Verdean Creole words were written using the ALUPEC system. The CVSV phonemes that do not exist in English were identified as were the English phonemes that do not exist in CVSV. Examples of approximation in pronunciation and of substitution of CVSV phoneme for English phonemes were offered.

The second chapter, strove to clarify what kind of English of the many varieties of English should be taught in CVSV classrooms, reaching the conclusion that providing examples from a number of English dialects will provide the students with a greater comprehension of diverse versions of spoken English. This chapter addressed the aspects of pronunciation that teachers should focus on when they address pronunciation in English lesson.

Having identified possible areas of pronunciation in chapter 1 and determined a flexible model of "Standard English" to be used in the L1 and L2 classroom, this thesis next explained the communicative importance of teaching pronunciation to English as a foreign language (EFL) students and demonstrated what approaches could be adapted to teaching pronunciation communicatively to Cape Verdean English language Learners

(Sao Vicente variety). The disadvantages of various teaching approaches is that they do not provide enough support to teach pronunciation communicatively. Instead, teachers should use explicit systematic instructions to teach pronunciation communicatively, as long as it is gradually taught, from simple to complex strategies.

This systematical critical review of the difficulties in teaching English pronunciation to CVSV speakers suggests a change needed in CV curriculum of English teaching; it urges that CV teachers of English as a foreign language teach pronunciation communicatively, bearing in mind that absolute accuracy of pronunciation of English should not be the ultimate goal of the curriculum: being able to communicate- to speak the English language so that other speakers can understand- should be the goal.

Teachers at secondary school might feel reluctant to changing their pedagogy to the explicit systematic strategy because of classroom management concerns, large class (from 23 to 40 students), and classes duration (50 minutes). Some of these concerns may be allayed through effective use of collaborative groups and careful teacher monitoring of groups in action.

This approach to teaching pronunciation may even reduce classroom peer pressure since this strategy focuses on group activity rather than on individual performance in front of the entire class.

Using this strategy can improve students' oral communication; clarify specific points of pronunciation; and provide different ways of practicing English sounds. This approach clarifies for students the purpose of learning the sounds. Further it increases

students' motivation by allowing them to work together; as a result it increase students'

confidence while communicating.

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