

ҚАЗАҚСТАН РЕСПУБЛИКАСЫНЫҢ БІЛІМ ЖӘНЕ ҒЫЛЫМ  
МИНИСТРЛІГІ

Қожа Ахмет Ясауи атындағы Халықаралық қазақ-түрік университеті

ӘОЖ: 372.651 104

Қолжазба құқында

**КАХАРОВА ХИЛОЛА НЕГМАТЖАНОВНА**

**«A Cognitive approach to correcting pronunciation errors of the kazakh  
students through poetry»**

БМ021000-Шетел филологиясы мамандығы бойынша филология  
ғылымдарының магистрі академиялық дәрежесін алу үшін магистрлік  
диссертация

ҚАЗАҚСТАН РЕСПУБЛИКАСЫНЫҢ БІЛІМ ЖӘНЕ ҒЫЛЫМ  
МИНИСТРЛІГІ

Қожа Ахмет Ясауи атындағы Халықаралық қазақ-түрік университеті

Қорғауға жіберілді:

Ағылшын филологиясы  
кафедрасының меңгерушісі,  
\_\_\_\_\_ Б.Д. Турлыбеков

(қолы)

«\_\_\_\_\_» \_\_\_\_\_ 2015 ж.

Магистрлік диссертация

A Cognitive approach to correcting pronunciation errors of the kazakh  
students through poetry

мамандығы: 6M021000-Шетел филологиясы

Магистрант \_\_\_\_\_

Х.Н. Кахарова

(қолы)

(аты-жөні, тегі)

Ғылыми жетекшісі,  
ф.ғ.к., доцент \_\_\_\_\_

Н.К. Айтбаева

(қолы)

(аты-жөні, тегі)



## CONTENT

<b>INTRODUCTION .....</b>	<b>4</b>
<b>I. GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS OF APPROACHES TO ERROR CORRECTION</b>	
1.1 Behavioristic approach to error correction.....	7
1.2 Cognitive approach to error correction.....	13
1.3 Error treatment.....	25
1.4 Some cognitive tips on correcting pronunciation errors.....	35
1.5 Main features of pronunciation.....	44
<b>II. PECULARITIES OF TEACHING AND LAERNING PRONUNCIATION</b>	
2.1 Techniques and activities for teaching pronunciation.....	49
2.2 Common pronunciation errors of Kazakh students.....	52
2.2.1 Ways to correcting pronunciation errors through poetry.....	65
<b>CONCLUSION.....</b>	<b>75</b>
<b>BIBLIOGRAPHY.....</b>	<b>77</b>

## INTRODUCTION

**Research actuality.** That is why we to differentiate between two and make our student available. Pronunciation errors are of two kinds period. Some may brake up communication while some others this differences. Therefore the task of education, the task of rising up a new generation capable of national renaissance will remain the prerogative of the state and constitute a priority. At present great importance is attached to the study and teaching of foreign language. In our recent past, in most cases the Russian language but not the mother tongue served as mediator in the study of foreign languages. A lot of time and effort is spent on training courses and beyond in encouraging teachers to consider whether immediate or later correction of student errors during oral work is appropriate. There are a variety of good methods and techniques suggested for correcting students' errors on the spot. Mistakes are part of our life; we all make mistakes now and then. There is nothing wrong with making mistakes as long as we learn from them and avoid repeating them over and over.

To correct students' errors has always been, and will always be the concern of most teachers. Some teachers are in favor of immediate correction, while others are in favor of delayed correction. Some would even go further to consider the whole process as time-consuming. In this article, I would like to dwell, based on my practical experience, upon this controversial issue to offer some suggestions for both immediate and delayed correction.

When students are corrected in front of their classmates, they feel offended and get discouraged. They expect teachers to continually correct them during classes. Failure to do so is likely to create confusion and suspicion on the part of the students. As such, teachers are expected to strive to find most creative ways to deal with this problem that most typically arises. They need to encourage and stimulate their students to participate in class without any fear of making mistakes.

Most students refuse to answer to the teacher in the classroom on the ground that they are most likely to be the laughingstock of their class fellows. Consequently, they get discouraged and feel humiliated. They refrain from responding to the teacher's questions which may deprive them of a valuable learning opportunity.

Generally speaking, there are three types of oral mistakes that need to be corrected during class-discussion. These are: grammatical, vocabulary, and pronunciation mistakes. This leads us to a very important question: should we interrupt our students during discussion or avoid interrupting them as much as we can? To answer this question we need to ask ourselves whether the focus is on accuracy or fluency. In fact, to save our students the embarrassment and in order not to distract them, we can employ less provocative approaches. One way is to make notes of the most common mistakes made by a student to be discussed later. Write them on the board without revealing the name of the student in order not embarrass him/her. Ask the rest of the class to identify these mistakes and correct them. Another way is to raise an eyebrow, or say, "Excuse me?" Or the teacher can ask for repetition without indicating the mistake.

Also we can employ another approach called, 'selective correction'. In this case, the teacher decides to correct only certain errors. These errors can be decided by the objectives of the lesson, or the exercise that is being done. In other words, if students are focusing on past simple tense, then only errors related to this grammatical area need to be corrected. Other mistakes are ignored.

In conclusion, the teacher can decide which is the most beneficial and effective approach to error correction based on the situation itself. It will help students overcome their shyness and play an active role in class discussions without being afraid of making mistakes. In this case, they would acknowledge and accept their mistakes as part of the learning process instead of being offended when they are corrected by their teacher.

**Research Objective** The object of my research is the use of poems in compared languages, its peculiarities. Also I analyzed classification of some scholars according to morphological and lexical point of view.

**The scientific novelty of the work.** The novelty of the work is that after completed the thesis it will be prude that poetry is the most effective for teaching pronunciations.

**Research material** Basic information of the qualification work is given from the manuals, articles, researches of great scholars such as: by I.V. Z.M. Bazarbaeyeva, Kazakh intonation, Almaty, A.A. Reformatsky, Education pronunciation and phonology. and others. The information which is taken from Internet sites, World Book Encyclopedia and many other dictionaries also served as a source of information. The material selected was organized in two parts, classified according to the authors.

#### **The aim of my research**

To make our student aver of the pronunciation errors which distort communication between two people.

**Theoretical value** It should not be forgotten that the pronunciation which are not corrected in due course, will be deeply-rooted in the mind of the learners.

**The research is of practical value:** it may be successfully used in developing the educational and research programs in using compound words, in learning foreign language programmes. Work can be useful for all who are interested in English. The information taken from the work can be used as a ready – materials at the lectures of Methodology.

#### **The structure of the work**

Work consists of Introduction, two main parts, Conclusion and the list of used literatures.

Correction is arguably the principal role of teachers in the classroom. Errors left uncorrected can easily lead to complete breakdown in communication on a daily basis and lead to permanent errors which later become irreversible.

The most important aspect during the process of error correction is to adopt a positive attitude to students' errors. We all know very well that a paper that is returned with red markings and notes all over is quite discouraging for them, we can easily see the fading light in the students' eyes. If our aim is to win the



students instead of discouraging him, we should be looking for better ways of error correction without losing the students.

While marking mechanically, we, the language teachers, may not realize that we are showing the student only his mistakes – negative points. If the student receives only negative feedback, he may easily be discouraged from trying to construct complex structures and using new vocabulary. However, correction can be a beneficial experience for the student if the teacher shows the strong points as well.

It is for the reason mentioned above that teachers should employ different and flexible error treatment strategies in accordance with the teaching objectives, students' linguistic competence, their affective factors and the effectiveness of the error correction.

In this paper I intend to look into some types of errors which are made by students in language learning and suggest a cognitive procedure and some techniques for dealing with errors with some reference to its historical perspective before shedding some light on three important related questions: a ) what to correct , b ) when to correct and c ) how to correct.

There is no doubt that English is the most important language used all over the world. In recent years, it has become the lingua franca – a bridge language over nations with different mother tongues. The roots of teaching English as a second language are quite old. According to Jenkins (2000), “the teaching of English to speakers of other languages has a history of stretching back to the late 15<sup>th</sup> Century.

This thesis work deals with new ways and methods of correcting students' pronunciation errors. Teaching English pronunciation is important and actual nowadays, so problems of teaching pronunciation and correcting students' errors in pronouncing are discovered in this course paper. There are a variety of good methods and techniques suggested for correcting learners' errors on the spot. Errors are part of our life; we all make mistakes now and then. There is nothing wrong with making mistakes as long as we learn from them and avoid repeating them over and over. Additional information has been obtained from the literature on the subject, to verify and assess the findings of the present study. Introduction deals with the description of such items as: actuality of the problem, the aim, the objects, the subject, the tasks, the methods, the sources.

Theoretical part deals with the perceptions of The importance of teaching English pronunciation, Modelling pronunciation, Aspects of pronunciation, The Role of Teaching Pronunciation in FLT.

Practical part deals with the correcting learners' pronunciation errors, the ways and methods of correcting students pronunciation errors, Correcting Without Hurting, Exercises for the Pronunciation of Plurals for English second language.

Conclusion deals with the summary of all practical materials concerning the correcting learners' pronunciation errors.

## I. GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS OF APPROACHES TO ERROR CORRECTION

### 1.1 BEHAVIORISTIC APPROACH TO ERROR CORRECTION

In the 1950s, American linguist Robert Lado began to study errors systematically and developed theories about errors - contrastive analysis. The contrastive analysis hypothesis claims that the principal barrier to second language acquisition is the interference of the first language system with the second language system and that a scientific, structural comparison of the two languages in question enables people to predict and describe which are problems and which are not. Deeply rooted in behaviorism and structuralism, the proponents of this approach hold the view that human language learning is to change old habits and to build new habits. Errors occur when learners cannot respond correctly to a particular stimulus in the second language. Since an error may serve as a negative stimulus which reinforces "bad habits", it should not be allowed to occur. So, in the classroom, the behaviorists place more emphasis on mechanical pattern drills and attempt to correct any errors or mistakes wherever there are.

Behaviourists regard all behaviour as a **response** to a **stimulus**. They assume that what we do is determined by the **environment** we are in, which provides stimuli to which we respond, and the environments we have been in in the past, which caused us to learn to respond to stimuli in particular ways. Behaviourists are unique amongst psychologists in believing that it is unnecessary to speculate about **internal mental processes** when explaining behaviour: it is enough to know which stimuli elicit which responses. Behaviourists also believe that people are born with only a handful of innate reflexes (stimulus-response units that do not need to be learned) and that all of a person's complex behaviours are the result of **learning** through interaction with the environment.

They also assume that the processes of learning are common to all species and so humans learn in the same way as other animals.

The behaviorist approach is **deterministic**: people's behaviour is assumed to be entirely controlled by their environment and their prior learning, so they do not play any part in choosing their own actions. The approach takes the **nurture** side of the nature-nurture debate, believing that apart from a few innate reflexes and the capacity for learning, all complex behaviour is learned from the environment. Their insistence that all learning can be accounted for in terms of law-governed processes like classical and operant conditioning, reflects a **nomological** approach to studying human behaviour (although behaviourists never ignore individual differences, since every person's history of learning is unique). The behaviourists' view that all behaviour, no matter how complex, can be broken down into the fundamental processes of conditioning makes it a highly **reductionist** approach to psychology.[1]

Behavioral learning theorists believe that learning has occurred when you can see changes in behavior. The behavioral learning model learning is the result of conditioning. The basis of conditioning is that a reward following a desirable response acts as a reinforcer and increases the likelihood that the desirable response will be repeated. Reinforcement is the core of the behaviorist approach.



Continuous reinforcement in every instance of desirable behavior is useful when a behavior is being introduced. Once a desired behavior is established, intermittent reinforcement maintains the behavior. Behaviorist theory approaches are frequently used in weight loss, smoking cessation, assertiveness training, and anxiety-reduction programs. The importance of regularly and consistently rewarding desired behavior immediately and not rewarding undesirable behavior is crucial to the success of a behaviorist approach to learning. Learning is broken down into small steps so that the person can be successful. The nurse provides reinforcement at each step of the process. For example, when a patient is learning how to inject insulin, the nurse looks for a positive behavior and then gives the patient immediate reinforcement by saying, "I liked the way you pulled back the syringe," or "You did an excellent job of withdrawing the insulin."

Pronunciation instruction is a prominent factor in foreign language teaching. Since sounds play an important role in communication, foreign language teachers must attribute proper importance to teaching pronunciation in their classes. It is evident that communication is a mutual relationship between the speaker and the hearer. This means that one must comprehend what he/she hears in the target language and must produce the sounds of the language he/she is trying to learn accurately. Unless he has sufficient knowledge of the sound patterns of the target language, he can neither encode a message to anybody nor decode the message sent by another person by learning the sounds of the target language within his mother tongue. Therefore, pronunciation instruction is of great importance for successful oral communication to take place since it is an important ingredient of the communicative competence.

This paper emphasizes the prominence of pronunciation as a key to gaining full communicative competence, and takes into account the important issues in pronunciation pedagogy such as the history of English pronunciation instruction, the aim of English pronunciation instruction, pronunciation and communication, the previous research about the effectiveness of pronunciation instruction on learners' achievement, and the English pronunciation and the target of comfortable intelligibility. [2]

### **What Is Pronunciation?**

Pronunciation is a set of habits of producing sounds. The habit of producing a sound is acquired by repeating it over and over again and by being corrected when it is pronounced wrongly. Learning to pronounce a second language means building up new pronunciation habits and overcoming the bias of the first language. Pronunciation refers to the production of sounds that we use to make meaning. It includes attention to the particular sounds of a language (segments), aspects of speech beyond the level of the individual sound, such as intonation, phrasing, stress, timing, rhythm (suprasegmental aspects), how the voice is projected (voice quality) and, in its broadest definition, attention to gestures and expressions that are closely related to the way we speak a language. [3]

Broad definition of pronunciation includes both suprasegmental and segmental features. Although these different aspects of pronunciation are treated in isolation here, it is important to remember that they all work in combination when

we speak, and are therefore usually best learned as an integral part of spoken language. Traditional approaches to pronunciation have often focused on segmental aspects, largely because these relate in some way to letters in writing, and are therefore the easiest to notice and work on. More recent approaches to pronunciation, however, have suggested that the suprasegmental aspects of pronunciation may have the most effect on intelligibility for some speakers. Harmer (1993) stresses the need for making sure that students can always be understood and say what they want to say. They need to master “good pronunciation”, not perfect accents. That is, emphasis should be on suprasegmental features of pronunciation—not segmental aspects—to help learners acquire communicative competence. [4]

Anderson-Hsieh, Johnson, and Koehler compared the relative contributions made to intelligibility by prosody, segmentals, and syllable structure. Within 11 different language groups, they found that the score for prosody was most significantly associated with the overall score for pronunciation. A similar finding was reported by Anderson-Hsieh and Koehler, who concluded that “prosodic deviance may affect comprehension more adversely than does segmental deviance”. In a related finding, Derwing, Munro, and Wiebe (1998) studied the effects of both segmental and suprasegmental instruction on learners’ comprehensibility ratings and concluded that the latter had a greater effect on performance in communicative contexts. Usually learners benefit from attention to both aspects, and some learners may need help in some areas more than in others. One considerable practical advantage of focusing on suprasegmentals is that learners from mixed L1 backgrounds in the same class will benefit, and will often find that their segmental difficulties improve at the same time.

### **The Aim of Teaching Pronunciation**

Being able to speak English in a global society is helpful. What constitutes ‘acceptable’ English pronunciation? Acceptable pronunciation can best be understood if we divide the problem into three parts. A learner’s pronunciation has three basic levels .

**Level 1:** People often do not understand what the speaker is saying. The speaker uses the wrong sounds when making English words or uses the wrong prosodic features when making English sentences. For example, Hinofotis and Bailey suggest that there is a threshold level for pronunciation; that is, if a speaker has a level of pronunciation that falls below this threshold, he/she will be unable to communicate regardless of his/her knowledge of grammar and vocabulary.

**Level 2:** People understand what the speaker is saying, but the speaker’s pronunciation is not pleasant to listen to because he/she has a distracting and/or heavy accent. As Morley (1994) noted, when a speaker’s pronunciation performance is heavily accented, it can affect how the speaker is perceived. As Morley (1994) notes, “Speakers are judged to lack credibility and do not inspire confidence in either their knowledge or their persona” .

**Level 3:** People understand the speaker, and the speaker’s English is pleasant to listen to. Scovel (1988) refers to this as comfortable intelligibility, and



he suggests that this, rather than native-like accuracy, should be the goal of pronunciation.[5]

### **How to learn to pronounce English words**

**1. Learn to recognize all the English sounds** and learn their IPA symbols. Recognition is important because it lets you learn the pronunciations of words from spoken English. Suppose you're listening to a podcast and you hear the word dock. In order to remember the pronunciation correctly, you need to realize that you just heard /dɒk/ and not /dʌk/. You can't do this if you can't tell the difference between /ɒ/ and /ʌ/. You can't learn English pronunciation if you can't tell the difference between English sounds, just like you can't learn spelling if you can't tell the difference between letters.

**2. Get in the habit of checking the pronunciation of English word sin a dictionary.**

- When you're speaking and you're not 100% sure how to pronounce something, **don't guess** — if possible, check the correct pronunciation before you say it. If not, then at least check it soon afterwards.

- While you're reading in English, keep asking yourself: “**Do I know how this word is pronounced?** Can I transcribe it with phonetic symbols?”. If you're not sure, look it up in a dictionary. This should happen very frequently when you're a pronunciation beginner.

You have to be a little obsessive, especially in the beginning. Remember that English pronunciation is unpredictable. Don't think you just have to check the “difficult” words like determine or process. Common English words can have very surprising pronunciations.

**3. Listen and notice.** Get some spoken input: TV, podcasts, movies, audiobooks, recordings in dictionaries, etc. When listening, pay attention to how sounds and words are pronounced. Think about what sounds you hear.

**4. Practice pronouncing English words from time to time.** Practice can take many forms. You can practice in a systematic way (e.g. a 15-minute session with a dictionary or online pronunciation exercises), or you can just repeat a couple words while you're doing something else (e.g. watching a movie or taking a shower). The important thing is to do it regularly — that way, you will make steady progress.

### **Getting it right in your head**

It can take months or even years before your brain gets used to new sounds. In the beginning, you probably won't be able to produce a perfect /r/ or make a clear distinction between /eə/ (where) and /ɜ:/ (were), to take just two examples.

It is certainly important to pronounce English sounds clearly. If you don't, people will have difficulty understanding you. But it is far more important to “get it right in your head”. What do I mean by “getting it right in your head”? When you say an English word, you should know how it **should** be pronounced, i.e. what sounds you are **trying** to pronounce, even if you can't actually pronounce them very well.

For example, when you say full, you should know you are trying to say the same /ʊ/ sound that is used in put or could, and you should know that it is a



different sound than the one in rude or school. You should know that it **should** sound different than /u:/ (rude), even if it sounds the same coming out of your mouth. Why is it more important to “get it right in your head” than to produce the sounds correctly? English has 44 sounds: even if you mispronounce every single one, that’s only 44 mistakes. Fixing 44 mistakes is a problem, but it is not a huge problem. Eventually, you will get better at producing the sounds, and your pronunciation will get good. It is far worse if you don’t know how English words should be pronounced — for example, if you mistakenly think that museum is stressed on the first syllable (~~MU~~useum instead of muSEum) or that desperate rhymes with rate. In that case, you may have **hundreds** of mistakes to deal with! Fixing such a mess could take you a very long time. So your first goal in learning English pronunciation should be to “get it right in your head”. First, learn to recognize all the English sounds. Second, learn which sounds occur in which words, even if you can’t pronounce them very well yourself. If your knowledge is right, your physical skills will surely follow.[6]

Language is a fundamental part of total human behavior, and behaviorists examined it as such and sought to formulate consistent theories of first language acquisition. The behavioristic approach focused on the immediately perceptible aspects of linguistic behavior—the publicly observable responses—and the relationships or associations between those responses and events in the world surrounding them. A behaviorist might consider effective language behavior to be the production of correct responses to stimuli. If a particular response is reinforced, it then becomes habitual, or conditioned. Thus children produce linguistic responses that are reinforced. This is true of their comprehension as well as production responses, although to consider comprehension is to wander just a bit out of the publicly observable realm. One learns to comprehend an utterance by responding appropriately to it and by being reinforced for that response. One of the best-known attempts to construct a behavioristic model of linguistic behavior was embodied in B.F. Skinner's classic, *Verbal Behavior* (1957). Skinner was commonly known for his experiments with animal behavior, but he also gained recognition for his contributions to education through teaching machines and programmed learning. Skinner's theory of verbal behavior was an extension of his general theory of learning by operant conditioning. Operant conditioning refers to conditioning in which the organism (in this case, a human being) emits a response, or operant (a sentence or utterance), without necessarily observable stimuli; that operant is maintained (learned) by reinforcement (for example, a positive verbal or nonverbal response from another person). If a child says "want milk" and a parent gives the child some milk, the operant is reinforced and, over repeated instances, is conditioned. According to Skinner, verbal behavior, like other behavior, is controlled by its consequences. When consequences are rewarding, behavior is maintained and is increased in strength and perhaps frequency. When consequences are punishing, or when there is a total lack of reinforcement, the behavior is weakened and eventually extinguished. [7]

Skinner's theories attracted a number of critics, not the least among them Noam Chomsky, who penned a highly critical review of *Verbal Behavior*. Some

years later, however, Kenneth MacCorquodale published a reply to Chomsky's review in which he eloquently defended Skinner's points of view. And so the battle raged on. Today virtually no one would agree that Skinner's model of verbal behavior adequately accounts for the capacity to acquire language, for language development itself, for the abstract nature of language, or for a theory of meaning. A theory based on conditioning and reinforcement is hard-pressed to explain the fact that every sentence you speak or write—with a few trivial exceptions—is novel, never before uttered either by you or by anyone else! These novel utterances are nevertheless created by the speaker and processed by the hearer. In an attempt to broaden the base of behavioristic theory, some psychologists proposed modified theoretical positions. One of these positions was mediation theory, in which meaning was accounted for by the claim that the linguistic stimulus (a word or sentence) elicits a "mediating" response that is self-stimulating. Charles Osgood called this self-stimulation a "representational mediation process," a process that is really covert and invisible, acting within the learner. It is interesting that mediation theory thus attempted to account for abstraction by a notion that reeked of "mentalism"—a cardinal sin for dyed-in-the-wool behaviorists! In fact, in some ways mediation theory was really a rational/cognitive theory masquerading as behavioristic. Mediation theories still left many questions about language unanswered. The abstract nature of language and the relationship between meaning and utterance were unresolved. All sentences have deep structures—the level of underlying meaning that is only manifested overtly by surface structures. These deep structures are intricately interwoven in a person's total cognitive and affective experience. Such depths of language were scarcely plumbed by mediational theory. Yet another attempt to account for first language acquisition within a behavioristic framework was made by Jenkins and Palermo. While admitting that their conjectures were "speculative" and "premature," the authors attempted to synthesize notions of generative linguistics and mediational approaches to child language. They claimed that the child may acquire frames of a linear pattern of sentence elements and learn the stimulus-response equivalences that can be substituted within each frame; imitation was an important, if not essential, aspect of establishing stimulus-response associations. But this theory, too, failed to account for the abstract nature of language, for the child's creativity, and for the interactive nature of language acquisition. It would appear that the rigor of behavioristic psychology, with its emphasis on empirical observation and the scientific method, only began to explain the miracle of language acquisition. It left untouched genetic and interactionist domains that could be explored only by approaches that probed more deeply. [8]

In order to set a theoretical framework for the study, a definition of "error" should be made. There are many definitions of error made so far and there seems to be no consensus on a single definition. Researchers like Allwright and Bailey (1996) have rightly become aware of the importance of speaking context, the intention of the teacher and student and the prior learning of the students in the process of deciding what an error is. Therefore, researchers dealing with error treatment have chosen the definition applying to their own research context. For



this study, an oral error is broadly defined as a form unwanted by the teacher in the given teaching/learning context . Also, the term “corrective feedback” needs to be defined. It is the teacher reaction that transforms, disapproves or demands improvement of the learner utterance (Chaudron,1977). Another term in need of clarification is “uptake” that refers to different types of student responses following the feedback, including responses with repair of the non-target items as well as utterances still in need of repair (Lyster &Ranta, *ibid*). The correction may come from the student, a peer or the teacher. After some key definitions, the issue of oral error correction should be approached from a historical perspective to see the progress made so far. Traditionally, when the audio-lingual approach to teaching foreign languages was popular among English teaching professionals, errors were seen as something to be avoided. However, today the contemporary research seems to agree on the fact that rather than expecting students to produce error-free sentences, students were encouraged to communicate in the target language and making errors is a natural part of second language acquisition.

### **1.2 Cognitive approach to error correction**

As various approaches to second language acquisition (SLA) pedagogy have developed over the course of the last fifty years, advocates of particular approaches have often attempted to justify their advocacy with appeals to theories current in the fields of linguistics, psychology, and sociology. Likewise, Peter Skehan, in his recently published. *A Cognitive Approach to Language Learning*, argues for the efficacy of task-based instruction in second language learning by invoking recent research into the psycholinguistic and cognitive aspects of language learning, giving particular attention to the recent research into the mechanics of language "processing." What is unique in Skehan's approach is its emphasis on the importance of individuals' cognitive differences—a topic which has been generally neglected by advocates of most other SLA methodologies and "normative" approaches. [9]. In the first part of this book, Skehan describes what he considers to be the cognitive bases for second language learning. Here, he addresses two of the central concerns in second language development theory: First, how interlanguage development occurs through comprehension and production, and second, at what point in the second language acquisition process language learners begin to productively notice target form. Skehan's review of the existing literature on these topics is instructive in its own right: Krashen (1985), for example, argues that if a student is exposed to a sufficient amount of comprehensible input, then naturally second language learning takes place. Conversely, Swain's (1985) "output" hypothesis argues that in the attempt to compose new utterances, acquisition of new syntactic structures will most likely naturally occur. Additionally, proponents of "negotiation of meaning" approaches to language learning (e.g.. Long, 1985; Pica, 1994) suggest that engagement with conversational "moves" (such as collaborative completions, clarification requests, and comprehension checks) makes target language input more comprehensible and thus increases its potential usefulness as output in interlanguage development. [10]

In *A Cognitive Approach to Language Learning*, Skehan critically investigates all of the above approaches and, finding them explanatorily inadequate, provides a totally different picture of the methods and the mechanisms of second language acquisition and processing by arguing that in real-time communication, meaning becomes the central focus and that learners rely heavily on memorized language (bypassing rule-based analytical systems) in order to reduce their cognitive processing costs. Skehan suggests that theorists need to consider more than just the roles that lexical and memory-based language systems play in second language acquisition and processing. Toward this end, he proposes a "dual mode" of language learning and processing—one that is both "rule-based" and "exemplar-based" and which is critical for all aspects of second language processing. This dual-mode learning system assumes that both input and output processing must have access to both rules and exemplars. [11].

The rule-based system is generative and restructurable. Access to this system leads to the development of a form-oriented system but incurs the costs of heavy processing burdens during ongoing language use. Conversely, the exemplar-based system is heavily based on redundant memory systems. Since this system does not require internal computation, its advantage is a marked increase in processing speed; for the same reason, however, it is less efficient in incorporating changes to the underlying system.

Using the dual mode hypothesis, Skehan posits three stages of information processing—input, central processing, and output—and argues that the finite limitation of attentional resources forces second language learners to select compensatory strategies peculiar to each stage. For example, a learner may tend to give priority to the extraction of "meaning" during the processing of input, and access the exemplar-based system to find semantic correspondences. During output processing, on the other hand, learners must negotiate a "trade-off" as they allocate their attentional resources between the three competing requirements of accuracy, complexity, and fluency. Here, for example, a learner may pay less attention to fluency and complexity when under communicational pressure and allocate the majority of attentional resources to the rule-based system in order to gain accuracy.[12]

The problem with such "trade-off tendencies is obvious: what the second language learner really wants is what the native speaker possesses naturally—that is, a seamless balance between accuracy, fluency and complexity.

In the second part of *A Cognitive Approach to Language Learning*, Skehan suggests task-based instruction as a solution to this problem. Citing results of his experiments and those done by his colleagues, Skehan argues that both task and instruction influence and provoke different cognitive strategies. He argues that tasks should be designed in such a way that the learners are forced to variously employ all their processing strategies—accuracy, fluency, and complexity—which are competing with each other due to limited attentional resources during language production and which should each be exploited in the effort toward a balance of production. The five principles for task-based instruction that Skehan proposes are the following:



1. Choose a range of target structures.
2. Choose tasks that meet the utility criterion.
3. Select and sequence tasks to achieve balanced goal development.
4. Maximize the chances of focus on form through attentional manipulation.
5. Use cycles of accountability.

Skehan argues that by carefully controlling the different facets of the task (such as number of interacting participants or the nature of the information that the learner must deal with), it is possible to manipulate the strategies that learners will need to employ in order to complete the task. Thus, by setting task goals and implementing task sequences in recognition of the competing requirements of accuracy, complexity, and fluency, a balanced development between these three requirements can take place. [13].

Principal to Skehan's discussion on the cognitive bases of second language acquisition is the assumption that after the so-called "critical period," second language learners no longer have access to the Language Acquisition Device with which they learned their first language; hence, second language learning is general cognitive learning. "Modularity" exists only in terms of the information-processing stages in post-critical period second language learning, which is fundamentally different from the modularity between syntax and semantics in first language learning. In second language learning, as general cognitive learning, claims Skehan, individual differences in terms of aptitude, learning style, and learning strategies play significant roles that find no counterpart in first language acquisition and processing. [14]

Based on the proposed three processing stages of input, central processing, and output, Skehan suggests three corresponding aptitude factors: phonemic coding ability, language analytic ability, and memory. "Phonemic coding ability" deals with the segmentation of sounds and the conversion of auditory material into processable input for later analysis. This ability is particularly important at the beginning stage of language learning. "Language analytic ability" concerns patterning and rule formation. This ability is important at all stages. "Memory," in Skehan's system, refers primarily to the above-mentioned "exemplar-based" component of the dual-mode processing system. This is the ability that enables "exceptional language learners" to attain native-like selection and native-like fluency, and plays its most important role primarily at the advanced level. [15].

Finally, Skehan clarifies the diffused research area of "learning styles" by distinguishing process and representation and relating them to information processing stages. While the "aptitudinal" aspect of individuals' differences is hard to change, claims Skehan, individual differences in language learning style and strategy can be modified relatively easily. The remedy he offers to incorporate these individual differences in terms of aptitude and learning strategies is "project work."

According to Skehan, by designing project work properly, accuracy, fluency, and complexity can all be maximized. For instance, during the execution of "appropriate pre-task activities, and careful task implementation, followed by high priority being attached to post-task reflection activities, a great deal of

variation in the focus of attention is possible" . Skehan argues that curriculum and syllabus design should orient the learners toward creativity and openness to change in this respect so that individual students become autonomous, responsible learners while developing effective strategy use. [16].

Skehan's language learning model is clearly the most cognitive one in the current field of second language acquisition research; however, reading *A Cognitive Approach to Language Learning* makes me wonder how big the gap is between such psycholinguistic/cognitive research and the reality of teaching and learning in a foreign language classroom. In order to operationalize such thoughtful, clearly argued scholarship, and in order to endeavor to implement its pedagogical application, fairly ideal conditions have to be assumed. For example, a course based on Skehan's model must have a clearly determined and agreed-upon goal, the learners must be active, and the teacher must be willing to negotiate the structure of the course to match the students' often conflicting educational needs and desires. In addition, the course must have access to an appropriate assessment system that can effectively reflect the learners' progress rather than what the teacher believes students should know.

One of the problems with implementing such a program is that the majority of Skehan's justifications for task-based instruction are theoretical: the author does not provide concrete case studies of how actual learning takes place, or how second language learners' interlanguage systems are changed or restructured through the activities he suggests. Most importantly, we do not yet know how effective Skehan's "processing" approach may turn out to be—a caveat which Skehan himself refers to in acknowledging the need for further research. [17].

Nonetheless, Skehan's book suggests an innovative and potentially important framework for pedagogical application in second language learning, second language teaching, and second language assessment. It remains to be seen how future research into cognitive processing and proficiency development may validate or repudiate its novel claims.

Cognitive science today makes it possible to combine independent studies under the auspices of one focal problem — the workings of the human mind in knowledge acquisition. Foreign language teaching draws heavily on linguistics, psychology, and philosophy. In this article we come up with a cognitive approach to teaching language for special purposes. The focus of our attention is on terms belonging to a specific domain (options). The acquisition of terminology in a foreign language presupposes knowledge of a non-linguistic conceptual structure (conceptual content) and means of verbalization (linguistic content). To expose the conceptual content of an individual term we employ the notion of qualia which allows us to study a term from four cognitive aspects. In order to give students a holistic picture of the domain in question we make use of cognitive modeling which means constructing an abstract “infrastructure” of the subject area and showing possible links among its elements. The objective of teaching is to help students create a “personal construct” — a personal model of knowledge — which enhances their information processing capacity and lays down the foundation of their future progress in advanced knowledge acquisition and comprehending and



generating professional discourse. Key words: cognitive science; personal construct; concept development; qualia; cognitive model; mental representations; cognitive teaching. Globalization and exposure to stiff competition in labor markets make people revisit their views on education in general and foreign language learning in particular. Many young people give preference to multilingualism because it is common belief that more languages enhance one's employability, hold out a promise of faster promotion and better achievement levels, and increase chances of success. The English language for business communication remains a must for the overwhelming majority of learners. BUSINESS today is many things: stock market, banking, ethics, and marketing, to mention but a few. [18]. As a result, English for business communication is highly compartmentalized, i. e. falls into separate subject areas worthy of focused attention. Therefore business classes must be tailored to students' needs and should start with the acquisition of terminology which lies at the core of any specialized discourse and professional communication and serves as "mutual knowledge" or "shared information" for professional people. We presume that a serious didactic approach may be worked out only if it is based on a sound linguistic theory and psychological researches. Cognitive science — a number of independent studies interested in the workings of the human mind — opens up new venues for linguistic analysis and foreign language teaching. Cognitive linguistics as well as cognitive psychology and philosophy give us a better insight into what and how we are teaching: it emphasizes the innate relationship between mind and language, cognition and verbalization. The characteristic idea of cognitive linguistics is that in order to achieve an adequate level of knowledge "we must not only describe concepts and categories with an abstract definition, but we should take into account the things that the definition is about" The basic tenet of cognitive didactics and psychology is that learning involves an active construction of knowledge on the part of students: "all meaningful learning is a form of active knowledge construction" Terms — specialized words or expressions used in a particular profession or activity to designate concepts — are the most important part of ESP acquisition and teaching them is not all plain sailing. The classical view on terminology was formulated by Wüster of the Vienna school. This theory stipulates five things: the priority of concepts, a logically structured conceptual system, clear-cut definitions, the naming function of terms, and the permanent concept/ term assignment. We assume that terms are specific lexical units in which linguistic content is so fused with non-linguistic conceptual content that any meaningful teaching must include the conceptual aspect as its objective. The aim of the article is to suggest a specific teaching approach which employs two cognitive tools — qualia and cognitive model — in addressing conceptual content, expose their advantages in concept explication and show the possibilities they open up for structuring professional knowledge and enhancing learning efficiency and effectiveness. [19]. Novelty of this approach lies in the fact that cognitive tools are applied to classroom teaching. Theoretical Background The cognitive paradigm allows implementing an interdisciplinary approach when addressing the question of knowledge acquisition. The cognitive approach focuses on mental processes of

learning where perception and computation of information are postulated to be dependent on prior knowledge, and language is regarded as a 'vehicle' providing access to cognitive content. Can the opposite be true? We think it can: comprehension and acquisition of 83 cognitive content paves the way to a faster and easier learning of a special language. Before we discuss tools of cognitive teaching we find it necessary to summarize our views on the following questions: What is knowledge? What is learning? What is language knowledge? How is knowledge acquired and stored? The essence of knowledge When learning English for Special Purposes students are faced with double difficulty: WHAT to say and HOW to say. The difficulty stems from the existence of two types of knowledge: KNOW THAT (often called epistemological or propositional knowledge) and KNOW HOW TO (often called procedural knowledge). The differentiation of knowledge into several types goes back to the philosophy of knowledge. Illuminating insights into the essence of knowledge are found in the works of the philosophers of the XVII-XVIII centuries: J. Locke, J. Berkeley, D. Hume and I. Kant. I. Kant distinguished between seven degrees of knowledge: 1) merely to have some knowledge; 2) to have an idea consciously; 3) to know something in comparison with other things, according to identity as well as to difference; 4) to know something consciously or to apprehend it; 5) to understand something, or to conceive by means of concepts; 6) to apprehend something through the reason, or understanding content; 7) to comprehend something in that degree which is sufficient for a certain purpose. Crowning it all is Kant's assertion that "knowledge is a system and not merely an after a method" It will not be an exaggeration to say that I. Kant has laid down the foundation for modern cognitive didactics. His ideas of conscious acquisition of knowledge, the role of concepts in understanding, and selective approach to the content of knowledge aimed at achieving a goal are a hallmark of modern pedagogical thinking. Modern educators single out four types of knowledge: factual knowledge which comprises the basic elements of a subject students must know to be acquainted with it; conceptual knowledge which consists of the interrelations among these basic elements that enable them to function together; procedural knowledge which means knowing how to do something and having skills for it; and meta-cognitive knowledge which includes the skills for elaborating strategies for how to accomplish tasks or how to understand presented information . [20]. So, in modern science knowledge does not only involve knowing some facts or information, but the ability to apply this information to various situations for achieving various goals. The acquisition of these types of knowledge would lead to the conception of two types of competences: cognitive competence — knowing the subject matter — and linguistic competence that is the ability to use and understand the meta-language of the area in question. The essence of learning The cognitive approach adopted in this article draws heavily on the cognitive constructivist learning theory which is based on the premise that learning is an active individual process involving students' participation in knowledge acquisition (empathy). The constructivist theory is based on George Kelly's (1955) idea of the 'personal construct' (internal models of the world) as the basic unit of mental cognitive structure that a person deliberately creates in the



process of cognition and through which s/he interprets, understands, and evaluates events, situations, and new information. Later research in psychology showed that people with developed personal constructs — those that have a more complex hierarchical organization and contain more links among its elements, hence are more differentiated and integrated — have greater expertise in a certain field/domain. Experts differ from laypersons and novices in that they recall information from memory more quickly, organize and use it more quickly, and apply it to new situations pertinently. True, personal constructs differ from person to person depending on his/ her cognitive abilities, learning styles, individual differences and affective factors. [21]. Since knowledge may be built on faulty beliefs and misconceptions, the teacher's goal is to ensure that personal constructs don't deviate much from the standard educational model and help students to gradually form more complex constructs. Learning is a cognitive process. In the process of cognition concepts (scientific and everyday) are formed and encoded "in the words of a language" (lexicalization) related to particular conceptual content. Natural languages supply different ways for encoding conceptualizations. Cognitive linguists claim that concepts do not exist separately in our mind but are brought together into conceptual systems by experience and contain non-linguistic information. At different times various names have been offered: frame, schema (Anderson, 1977), script (Schank, 1977), ideals (Bregman, 1977), experiential gestalt (Lakoff, 1980), cognitive model (Lakoff, 1987; Evans, 2009), cognitive complexity (Burlison, 1987), and some others. Scientists stress that conceptual systems are "capable of organizing and classifying every imaginable aspect of our experience" Modern views of language knowledge According to cognitive scientists, language knowledge is not different from any other type of knowledge, so it is acquired, stored and retrieved according to the same structural cognitive principles that operate in other areas. Knowledge in the human mind is reflected in mental or cognitive representations — the basic units of human knowledge stored in the mind. Mental representations are information-bearing structures with which operations can be performed in order to build recognition patterns conducive to more complex knowledge. Mental representations vary in the degree of abstractness and relate to words, concepts and situations. There are at least two types of mental representations: verbal and conceptual. A person first develops a verbal representational system in his native language whereas bilingual persons have two verbal representational systems which are functionally connected to a common cognitive or conceptual system. [22]. So the learner must develop "new mental representations and develop facility at accessing those representations in a variety of circumstances", and it is "essentially important to learn the second language in direct association with appropriate referents". Cognitive model of learning In order to successfully teach LSP we must understand how knowledge is acquired, organized and stored in the human mind, what factors affect it and make learning more efficient. Among the many theories and models we have chosen the cognitive model of learning introduced by Derry as instrumental for our reasoning. The model sheds light on the process of acquiring meaningful and useful knowledge which gives teachers a clue to how the teaching process may be

organized. Cognitive Model of Learning. As we can see, in this model prior knowledge plays a very important and active role in acquiring new knowledge and comprehending new information. Prior knowledge means previously accumulated mental representations of various kinds referring to a certain domain or domains and serving as building blocks for further expansion of knowledge, interpretation of new experience and mutually satisfactory communication. [23].

Novel objects are categorized, filtered through and fitted into an already existing conceptual system, in other words, success in learning depends on whether the learner can combine the new with the known. In his work the teacher may be confronted and have to deal with two possible situations. First, the student has prior knowledge about the subject matter (in his native language) so he simply has to acquire new mental representations (in a foreign language) though it is not a simple task in itself. In this case it is advisable that the teacher check what students already know or remind them about it. The alternative situation presents more of a challenge. Students lack the prerequisite knowledge so the teacher has to help them build general/ specialized knowledge, form mental representations of concepts in question and simultaneously provide means of expressing new notions. Cognitive Teaching Concepts represent typical entities (prototypes) that have bundles of typical features which we propose to describe with the help of 'qualia'. Since the term is used in different meanings we deem it necessary at this point to explain at some length our understanding of the term. What is Qualia? The term has been used by philosophers, psychologists and linguists. Though all scientists claim that it helps to answer the question "what's it like?" about an object, the term has at least two distinct interpretations. The first interpretation goes back to J. Locke's secondary qualities of objects such as colors, aromas, tastes, sounds (Locke, 1849) which have traditionally been described in the philosophy of mind as intrinsic qualities of conscious experience. The term qualia was introduced in the philosophical literature by C. Lewis in 1929 . [24]. Since its introduction there have been heated arguments whether a quale is something in the brain or something in the external world, i. e. some properties or "powers" of an object that can produce an idea in our minds. But the question whether redness exists in our minds or on a flowerbed of red roses still remains unresolved. Linguistics seems to have chosen a more fruitful approach to qualia which can be traced to Aristotle's fundamental or primary causes (modes of explanation). Aristotle considered that a man has knowledge if he knows the primary cause, and he spoke of causes in four ways: One cause we say to be the substance and the essence (the primary 'why') and the second is the matter and substrate, and the third is that from which comes the beginning of the change, and the fourth is the opposite cause to this, the 'wherefore' and the good (for this is the end of all coming into being) . In his book "Generative Lexicon" J. Pustejovsky drawing on Aristotle's primary causes came up with his idea of qualia structure to be used in linguistic analysis. He postulates that Qualia structure specifies four essential aspects of a word's meaning permitting a much richer description of a concept: • Constitutive: the relation between an object and its constituent parts; • Formal: that which distinguishes it within a larger domain; • Telic: its purpose and function; • Agentive: factors



involved in its origin or “bringing it about” Lexical items encode semantic information in the qualia which “drives our understanding of an object or a relation 85 in the world” because qualia structure explains a word “as denoting a particular concept not as a lexical unit used in the language”. [25]. His ideas gave an impetus to a series of very interesting researches on homonymy, metonymy, compounds, nominal and prepositional phrases, possessive case, text interpretation in different languages. However, qualia structure has been unnoticed by language teachers, though Pustejovsky emphasizes its potent explanatory role. We intend to apply qualia structure to teaching terminology and show how it can be used. Concept development via cognitive model. [26]. The dominant view held by cognitive scientists is that knowledge is encoded as patterns of interconnected conceptual systems in the human brain. Conceptual development involves strengthening and enlarging these connections. In everyday life patterns are derived and multiple relationships are established from repeated experience. However, in classroom teaching, given the limited number of classes, simulation patterns should be worked out by the teacher. These simulation patterns must reflect the properties of the real environment. A cognitive tool that meets these requirements is cognitive modeling. By cognitive model we mean a theoretical construct which represents “a coherent non-linguistic knowledge structure captured from multimodal experience” . It relates to a specific domain and is an approximation to a phenomenon or process existing in reality but simplified for teaching purposes. Subject Matter For a more detailed analysis we have chosen a field of notable difficulty — OPTIONS. Options are part of a broader domain of financial tools called derivatives. This area of business activity contains a large number of words and expressions used by professionals and experts which, in our opinion, have different didactic value. With interest in and trust to options waxing and waning throughout their long and colorful history and derivatives today being named a culprit in the recent financial crisis and labeled as “financial weapons of mass destruction”, it is evident that no Business English class can bypass this topic. [27]. The teacher’s task is to make this topic comprehensible and accessible by revealing the controversial nature of derivatives and showing what features make them useful instruments and whether or not their danger is exorbitant. Vocabulary Selection Vocabulary selection is important for cognitive modeling as we must establish what attributes populate the chosen domain. To this end we analyzed a vast corpus of various sources: the media both traditional and electronic), glossaries, manuals, specialized textbooks . They vary in the number and variety of terms, ways information is presented, and language difficulty. As a result, we came to the conclusion that academic textbooks for students studying financial markets and manuals compiled by professionals for non-professionals interested in investing best serve our objectives: glossaries seemed to us too decontextualized and very few newspaper articles meet the requirements of clarity and simplicity necessary at the initial stage of learning. Textbooks and manuals, on the contrary, contain clear explanations, precise definitions, and the vocabulary that makes up the core of the terminological system and reflects the cognitive structure of the conceptual system in question. Thus, we have selected a compact list of recurrent lexical units which constitute base

knowledge for learners and are sufficient for understanding specialized texts and producing simple discourse. Explaining Concepts via Qualia Structure When explaining individual concepts to learners, for example, what an option or a forward is, we resort to qualia-structure. The aim is to help students apprehend the concept and form a mental representation of it. We start from the conceptual content and by asking the questions involve students in concept explication. [28].

Qualia Structure Analysis of the Term ‘Option’.

OPTION	Qualia Structure	Conceptual Content	Lexical Content
What is it? (formal)	It is a contract giving the right to buy or sell an asset; Call option; put option	What is it made of? (constitutive)	Like any other contract it consists of terms: amount of a commodity, price, delivery date and conditions (rights, obligations, fees)
Underlying asset; strike/ exercise price; expiration date/ expiry; premium	How does it function? (telic)	Insure against risks and speculate. Hedge; speculate	How is it used? (agentive)
It is bought or sold on the OTC market or exchanges	Write; take	After we see that students understand what an option is (conceptual content) we can introduce the terms used to discuss options (lexical content) and add some more information	1 .The contract to buy an asset is a call option; The contract to sell an asset is a put option; the price of an underlying asset [asset to be bought or sold] is a strike/

1 Additional information is shown in square brackets, exercise price [it remains unchanged during the whole period]; the delivery date is called expiration date/ period/ expiry [European options can be exercised only at the date the option expires; American options can be exercised at any time up to expiry which is why they are more valuable]; The fee the buyer pays to the seller is called a premium [the seller keeps it whether or not the buyer exercises the option]. [30]. The seller of an option is called a writer, the buyer may be called a taker. It may also be worthwhile to compare and contrast options with their “peers”: forwards, futures, and other financial instruments. Comparing options with futures students will spot the main distinctive feature: an option is a right to buy or sell something, whereas a futures contract is an obligation binding for both parties (difference in the formal function). Further comparison of futures and forwards reveals their distinctive feature: the former are sold on exchanges whereas the latter can be bought only on the over-the-counter markets (difference in the agentive function). The advantages of this mode of explanation become evident if we compare them with dictionary definitions. The Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English describes an option as the “right to buy or sell something at the stated time in the future.” It is a good definition because it reveals the essence of the financial instrument, yet it does not expose other features necessary for constructing a concept. Other definitions are even less suitable for our purpose. Some of them are somewhat misleading. For example, futures are explained as contracts “for goods to be bought or sold in large quantities at the present price, but not produced or sent till a later time.” [31]

It is unclear what is meant by ‘the present price’: the current market price or the price agreed upon today. As far as the term ‘forward’ is concerned, there is no lexical entry for the noun at all. The forte of qualia structure is that it reveals the protean properties of a concept. Concept Development and Cognitive Modeling Initial stage of learning Further work on the concept which we call ‘concept



development' involves exposing permanent links of the concept in question. To make it more illuminating we model these relationships with the help of a cognitive model. We explicate the links of a financial instrument with agents who use it, expound its types and uses, desired and eventual results and so on . The model designed may vary in depth and diversity depending on the teaching objectives and students' readiness to absorb the information. [32].

1. Agents. The most important thing is to understand the nature of the commitment of buyers and sellers. Buyers have no obligations to do anything. They can simply let the option expire, walk away from it. Sellers, on the contrary, are required to go through with the trade if the buyer wants to exercise the option. Graphically, it may be represented as follows: obligations rights rights Diagram 1. The Legal Relationship Between the Buyer and the Seller.
2. Benefits. When buying or selling an option both the writer and the buyer want to benefit from it. Benefit to the writer is the PREMIUM he gets and keeps. Benefit to the buyer is INTRINSIC VALUE (the difference between the strike price and the market price) if the buyer guesses right the movement of the market. The other benefit is LEVERAGE which means that a small input of money (premium) opens up to the option holder a possibility of considerable gains.
3. Operations and results. The option buyer has three options: either to exercise the contract or default on it, or resell it on the open market before the expiration date. If the option taker decides to exercise the option, the result may be threefold. If it is advantageous for the holder, he is said to be in-the-money; if it is not advantageous, he is outof-the-money; if the holder neither gains nor loses, he is atthe-money.
4. Types of options and their uses. The writer and the buyer pursue different goals. The buyer may want to hedge possible risks of market volatility or speculate whereas the objective of the seller is outright speculation. In order to hedge risks a cautious investor may buy an option which is called a straddle — a simultaneous purchase of a call option and a put option with the same strike price and expiry date. This strategy is good if markets are extremely volatile and the investor is afraid that his stock will falter or go down. The writer willing to collect a premium and escape going through with the trade has a useful instrument at his disposal — a strangle. It involves writing a call with a very high strike price and a put with a very low strike price which is supposed to discourage any option holder from exercising it. To consolidate this knowledge, the teacher is to compile the HYRERTEXT by which we understand a collection of excerpts from various sources, including some websites.

The main requirement to such texts at the initial level of proficiency is that they should not be beyond students' capabilities or the acquired knowledge base which gives students a sense of achievement. To check whether students understand the nature of options the teacher may ask some questions like how an investor can make money with a put or a call, or what options lead to gains on a bull or bear market. Advanced stage of learning For more than half a century the options markets have displayed dramatic growth as more sophisticated products have been introduced, new trading styles used, and new uses of options have been tested. Innovative products and procedures have given rise to an avalanche of new lexical units. To achieve a better understanding of the subject area and by way of

expanding knowledge, we may go beyond the initial stage and introduce a stratum of specialist vocabulary pertaining to advanced knowledge acquisition. 5. Buying and selling styles. The most notable selling styles are covered calls and naked calls. Writing a covered call means selling the right to some other party to buy stocks from you which you already own. A naked call means selling an option that allows someone to buy from you what you don't own. This is more risky because if this person wants to exercise the option, you will have to buy the stocks at the market price in order to sell them at the agreed-upon price (strike price) to the buyer. Also, buying styles present some interest. If an investor is worried about WRITER (Seller) BUYER (Taker) 87 price fluctuations of his stock he may buy a married put, that is buy a stock and a put option on this stock at the same time. If the price of the stock goes down, the investor can exercise the option and offset the loss.

6. Market conditions. It is advisable to discuss how investors can make money on spreads — the difference between the purchasing and the selling prices. For example, Bull spread — the purchase of a call option with a low exercise price and the sale of a call option with a relatively high exercise price. “Buy low, sell high” — this strategy is suitable for investors who are bullish. Other types of spreads are: Bear spreads and Butterfly spreads. 7. Brokers' speak. The market has worked out its own expressions of communication between brokers and investors. For example, an investor may give his broker an ‘All-or-None’ order — a type of option order which requires that the order be executed completely or not at all, or he may give a ‘Down-and-Out’ order — if the price of the underlying asset falls below a preset level, the option is not exercised. [33]. The more units a student learns at this stage, the easier it will be for him to understand professional discourse. It is advisable at this level of proficiency to encourage students to read the press to be in the know what is happening on the derivatives markets. Conclusion In his lectures, I. Kant told his students, “we know only so much as we hold in the memory and we easily forget what we do not understand.” Understanding and memorizing are entwined in the construction of knowledge. So, coherent presentation of information to be properly learned is of primary importance. Having assumed that mental modeling is the basis of human knowledge, we have attempted to show, hopefully convincingly, that comprehension-directed teaching at the initial stage of ESP acquisition can make effective use of two cognitive tools: qualia structure and cognitive model. It is worth summing up their advantages and plausibility. [34]. 1. As terms play a pivotal role in professional communication and the distinctive feature of terms is the underlying concept, we have tried to find a tool that would optimize concept learning, and we believe that the ‘Qualia structure’ tool serves this end. Qualia structure is the model we developed in order to expose conceptual nature of a term by partitioning content into four cognitive roles (formal, constitutive, telic and agentive) to give a multifaceted picture and highlight the distinctive properties of the concept. The other part of a term — linguistic content — is represented by various lexical units which mediate conceptual representations in speech. 2. Since any knowledge system functions as a domain, information is stored in long-term



memory in organized fashion. Learning of terminology may be effectively enhanced by structuring it via establishing multiple links of the key concepts. The instrument that meets this objective is cognitive model which is a simulation of reality and converts unstructured inventories of knowledge into an intricately knit, co-herent and comprehensible structure. Arguedly, these tools should be used judiciously and employed only if they serve the purpose of clarification. Nevertheless, we believe that they serve well the purpose of constructing knowledge at the initial stage and take language learning and teaching to a higher, more sophisticated level. Though it might seem a tall order, learning outcomes may prove rewarding. [35]

Cognitive learning theorists believe that learning is an internal process in which information is integrated or internalized into one's cognitive or intellectual structure. Learning occurs through internal processing of information. From the cognitive viewpoint, how new information is presented is important. In the first, or cognitive phase of learning, the patient learns the overall picture of what the task is and the sequences involved. In the second, or fixation learning phase, the learner begins to gain skill in performing the task. Whether a physical task is learned as a whole or part by part depends on its complexity. For example, learning how to take a blood pressure is a complex task. The patient must learn how to physically manipulate the blood pressure manometer, learn how to hear blood pressure sounds, and understand the meaning of the sounds. Each of these tasks can be practiced as a separate activity, then combined. In the last phase of learning, the automatic phase, the patient gains increasing confidence and competence in performing the task. [36].

### **1.3 ERROR TREATMENT**

Error treatment is a very complicated and thorny problem. As language teachers, we need to be aware of some theoretical foundations and what we are doing in the classroom. Here principles of ( a ) optimal affective and cognitive feedback, of ( b ) reinforcement theory, and of ( c ) communicative language teaching all combine to form these theoretical foundations. With these theories in mind, we can judge in the classroom whether we will treat or ignore the errors, when and how to correct them.

Error treatment negotiations like the above are not always successful. In fact, teachers often fail to help their students notice and correct their errors simply because they lack the necessary understanding of error treatment. Even though different studies have been conducted in this area of Classroom-Centered Research, many instructors are not informed about the different aspects of error treatment. According to Burt and Kiparsky: "the teacher has no guide but his intuition to tell him which kind of mistakes are most important to correct." [37].

In order to treat errors effectively, teachers must make informed decisions. This implies that not only should teachers be aware of existing research on this area, but they should also acknowledge students' preferences for error treatment. And in order to discover students' preferences, it is worth devoting some time at the beginning of the semester to either interview or survey the students on their

preferences for error treatment. Teachers are daily faced with the problem of whether to treat errors or not. Then they must also consider what types of errors are most important to be treated, how often these should be treated. Furthermore, teachers must decide how to treat errors, and what techniques to use for this purpose. Finally, but not less importantly, educators have to decide who should treat the errors in class. Before addressing each of these aspects, it is necessary to have a clear understanding of the concept of errors as such. Human learning is fundamentally a process that involves the making of mistakes. Learning [involves] a process in which success comes by profiting from mistakes, by using mistakes to obtain feedback from the environment and with that feedback to

make new attempts which successively more closely approximate desired goals.<sup>2</sup> This view of human learning has led researchers of second language acquisition to view errors as positive to language learning: Researchers and teachers of second languages soon came to realize that the mistakes a person made in this process of constructing a new system of language needed to be analyzed carefully, for they possibly held in them some of the keys to the understanding of the process of second language acquisition.<sup>3</sup> Errors have been defined as "noticeable deviation from the adult grammar of a native speaker, reflecting the interlanguage competence of the learner," in contrast with mistake, "performance error that is either a random guess or a 'slip,' in that it is a failure to utilize a known system correctly."<sup>4</sup> Different types of errors have been classified in lexical (word choice), phonological (pronunciation), semantic (meaning), syntactic (grammar), and pragmatic (content) errors. Beretta classifies errors as linguistic, morphosyntactic or phonological, and content errors, "any response by a student to a teacher's question that was unsatisfactory in terms of its propositional content."<sup>5</sup> Thus, "categories of errors range from strictly 'linguistic' (phonological, morphological, syntactic), to subject matter 'content' (factual and conceptual knowledge) and lexical items, to errors of classroom interaction and discourse."<sup>6</sup> Being clear on the definition of errors enables us to consider the decisions teachers have to make regarding error treatment. [38].

As its name implies, the cognitive approach deals with mental processes like memory and problem solving. By emphasizing mental processes, it places itself in opposition to behaviorism, which largely ignores mental processes. Yet, in many ways the development of the cognitive approach, in the early decades of the 20th century, is intertwined with the behaviorist approach. For example, Edwin Tolman, whose work on "cognitive maps" in rats made him a cognitive pioneer, called himself a behaviorist. Similarly, the work of David Krech on hypotheses in maze learning was based on behaviorist techniques of observation and measurement. Today, the cognitive approach has overtaken behaviorism in terms of popularity, and is one of the dominant approaches in contemporary psychology. [39]

#### WHICH ERRORS SHOULD BE CORRECTED?

There are three interrelated questions that most writings on the subject attempt to answer: Which errors should be corrected? When should they be corrected? How should they be corrected? Different scholars hold different views



on this issue and theories on "which errors should be corrected, when, and how" vary a great deal.

Yet there appears to be a consensus that errors that impair communication should be corrected when they occur. For example, Fanslow (1977) suggests that teachers should deal with errors which only cause communication breakdown. The types of errors that Walz (1982) reports as the most important are: errors that impede communication, errors that students make frequently, and errors that the class has recently addressed.

Burt (1975) and Kiparsky (1975) made a distinction between "global" and "local" errors. Global errors hinder communication and they prevent the learner from comprehending some aspects of the message. Local errors only affect a single element of a sentence, but do not prevent a message from being heard.

Hendrickson (1980) puts forward a contrary view and asserts that global errors need not be corrected and they are generally held true. But expressions such as "a news", or "an advice" are systematic errors, and they need to be corrected. As for pre-systematic errors, teachers can simply provide the correct one. For systematic errors, since learners already have the linguistic competence, they can explain this kind of errors and correct them themselves. So teachers just remind them when they commit such errors. As to what kind of errors should be corrected, it needs teachers' intuition and understanding of errors. At the same time, the teacher should consider the purpose of the analysis and analyze them in a systematic way. [40].

A distinction made by Jeremy Harmer in "A Practical Guide to English Language Teaching" categorizes incorrect English from students. A mistake occurs when students know the correct language but incorrectly retrieve it from memory. An error occurs when students have incorrectly learned or don't yet know the correct language. English words 'borrowed' by other languages are the most common source of mis-learned English. Whether the utterance in question falls into one or the other category above will determine to what extent we will correct, if at all.

There is no doubt that errors must be treated at some point; otherwise we would surely lead students to their repetition, and "though errors in grammar and pronunciation can not be prevented, repetition of them may be. ., Students need to be able to first identify the errors in order to be able correct them. It is not surprising that most students want to be corrected when they make errors. They want to be corrected more than most teachers think they do. Pupils feel very disappointed when they are not corrected, they even think that they are not learning when their errors are not treated. Something that teachers do have to decide is what type of errors they should treat, when is the appropriate timing and how to treat errors, among others. It is my belief that a types of errors need to be treated at some time. However, whether the teacher decides to treat a certain type of error or not largely depends on the type of group and the seriousness of the error. Pronunciation errors, for example, would seem insignificant in a reading class whereas they would be of great importance in a conversation or pronunciation

class. Similarly, in a conversation class, the educator might decide not to treat any errors except for those that interfere with communication.

Teachers, in my opinion should always treat any type of error which results in miscommunication or that disrupts communication. Students must be allowed to talk, to transmit their messages, this is after the main goal of communication, and then the errors can be treated. "If teachers want accuracy above all things and never mind what ideas the students express, then that teachers will get attempts at accuracy: no mistakes and not learning steps. [41]

#### WHEN TO CORRECT ERRORS?

Concerning this problem, the most controversial issue is whether to treat them immediately or to delay. First, we are confronted with a dilemma—fluency versus accuracy. For communicative purposes, delayed correction is usually preferred. Some teachers believe that when to correct errors is determined by the type of errors committed. For instance, if they are pronunciation or grammatical errors, immediate correction is preferable, for post correction cannot make learners remember anything. Furthermore, the overall situation in the classroom is also important. When the whole class is familiar with a word, but only one of them is singled out for being corrected, he or she would feel awkward. So, we can see that the time of correction is very complicated. Both the teachers' intuition and the feedback from the students are equally important. Instructors must also decide the specific moment for error treatment. In other words, they have to decide if errors are to be treated immediately after they are made, or at the end of the interaction, when the student has already finished expressing his/her ideas. There are other alternatives to consider: errors could be treated at the end of the class period, at the end of the week, the next day, or any other particular time during the semester. [42].

Once again the timing of the treatment largely depends on the type of error and whether it interferes with communication or not. When the error, for example, prevents the rest of the students from understanding the ideas being expressed, I would recommend immediate treatment. In the case of Spanish speakers using English together, they will understand each other in spite of the errors because of the common source of the error. In this case, the error treatment negotiation can be postponed to a variety of times during the lesson and the course. However, the same errors would cause a complete breakdown of communication with any English native speaker who does not speak Spanish. This is an important aspect to consider when treating the errors, and it is necessary to make sure the students understand this fact. When a student makes a mistake and it is a type of mistake that many students are having a problem with, the instructor might consider treating it immediately in order for everyone to benefit from the treatment transaction. However, treating the errors immediately is something that must be done very carefully. Interrupting students might not only embarrass them, but also make them forget their ideas.

Teachers can always take notes and treat errors either individually or as a group. In other words, errors can be treated privately with every single student or they could also be treated error by error with the class.



This alternative has been very beneficial especially for shy students who might feel embarrassed even if we mention their errors to the group. There are certain times, however, when all students' errors could be treated at once, especially when the same type of error is reoccurring. In this case similar errors can be group together and then treated. It might be worth to create a mini-lesson on error correction and start the next class by treating them.

Educators should never ignore or neglect the students' preferences for error treatment; therefore, it is necessary for the teacher to explore the students' likes, dislikes and needs for time of treatment. We ought to be very careful since there might be certain students who express their desire to postpone the error treatment negotiation but they later refuse to believe that they actually have made such a simple error. These particular students need to be "caught in the act" sometimes.

Treating the error at an appropriate time is as important as treating them at an appropriate frequency. [43]

#### HOW TO CORRECT ERRORS?

According to James (1998), it is sensible to follow the three principles in error correction. Firstly, the techniques involved in error correction would be able to enhance the students' accuracy in expression. Secondly, the students' affective factors should be taken into consideration and the correction should not be face-threatening to the students. Thirdly, some scholars believe that teachers' indirect correction is highly appreciated. They either encourage students to do self-correction as with the heuristic method, or present the correct form, so students don't feel embarrassed. Compare the two situations:

(1) Student: "What means this word?"

Teacher: "No, listen, what does this word mean?"

2) Student: "What means this word?"

Teacher: "What does it mean? Well, it is difficult to explain, but it means..."

It is obvious that teacher's remodeling in (2) is more natural and sensible than the direct interruption in (1).

Although the frequency of error treatment is difficult to establish, it is clear that it is not always possible to treat errors always, nor is it appropriate to leave them all untreated. If the teacher corrected students for every single error, then the students would not be able to express themselves, and they would certainly feel intimidated.

Educators must not feel obligated to treat errors every time they occur, but they must analyze whether they can slip the correction in without breaking up the communication. In a few seconds, we have to decide if we can make the correction and keep the conversation going.

In addition, it is very important to consider the feelings and wishes of the students; before making the decision, we have to decide whether the student is receptive to the correction. [44].

Moreover, the frequency of treatment can be also negotiated with the students, and can vary from one type of activity to another. The students' preferences for frequency of treatment could give the educators a hint that together with their beliefs and knowledge would guide them regarding the frequency of

treatment. There is no magic formula on how to treat errors, but variety is highly recommended. In other words, there are many varied techniques educators have available for this purpose. Whether the professor chooses one technique or another depends greatly on the particular class, the type of error, the students' preferences, and other aspects mentioned before. It is even necessary to consider the students' age, temper and level in order to choose an appropriate technique for the error treatment negotiation to be successful. Finally, but not less importantly, the students need to be aware that an error treatment negotiation is going on and know what technique the educator is using in order to avoid inconsistencies.

Not surprisingly, a number of research studies have been conducted on the types of treatment that teachers use for treating students' errors. Researchers such as Fanselow, Nystrom, Cohen and Robins and Allwright have found that the teachers are inconsistent and ambiguous in the correction of errors, because these educators have not taken the time to discuss error treatment with their students, this discussion at the beginning of the term might be time consuming, but it is worthwhile. In addition, instructions often lack the necessary information on error treatment. The types of treatment given to the learners' errors have been classified in a number of ways by these researchers. Fanselow, for instance, discovered sixteen different error treatment techniques, some of which are "no treatment," "acceptance of response containing error," "giving the correct answer orally," and "indicating 'no' with a gesture.,,

There are a variety of techniques that educators can carefully study in order to decide which to use. It is extremely important to consider the students' interests and preferences when selecting the error treatment techniques for a particular class. By letting the learners select the techniques they like and dislike from a given list with specific examples, the teacher will certainly facilitate error treatment negotiations. The students will be aware of the techniques being used and the type of response they are expected to provide. Given the importance of being aware of the variety of techniques that can be used for treating errors, a complete list including twenty-six different techniques is provided below. This list cannot only help educators identify the different techniques used, but familiarize them with other ways to treat errors that could be used in class. In addition, the list The teacher is not the only person in the class capable of correcting the errors. The errors can also be self-corrected, or could be just as well be treated by another student, by a group of students, or the whole class. There is also the possibility of letting the students do some research to find out the correct forms or even ask someone outside the classroom (such as another teacher or a foreign student). [45].

In any case, it is very important to give the students the opportunity for self-correction as well as peer and class correction. They need to learn from each other, and they can learn a lot from their own mistakes. Students should then be permitted to join the error treatment negotiations. However, teachers must be careful because some students might resent being corrected by their peers. To avoid any possible misunderstanding, learners need to be very clear on the importance and usefulness of learning from each other's errors. At this point it is evident that errors are no longer considered negative for the learning process. On



the contrary, "Learning [involves] a process in which success comes by profiting from mistakes by using mistakes to obtain feedback from the environment." 10 a guide for error treatment taking into consideration all the aspects mentioned above.

It has been suggested that it is the teachers' responsibility to be familiar with existing error correction research. Being informed about different possibilities not only facilitates the error treatment negotiations, but also makes them more successful. Instead of giving students "the correct forms," students should be permitted to contribute to the correction. In addition, being informed helps educators become more aware of their own teaching behaviors. Teachers could also observe their own way of treating errors. They might consider recording sections of their teaching and studying those aspects in which they are interested or that seem to be problematic, as a basis for alternatives for improvement.

It is imperative for the educators to agree with the students about the way errors will be treated in class: the techniques that will be used, the frequency of treatment, and so forth. Cohen and Robins affirm that frequently there is no correction of learners' errors and sometimes "the corrections [are] too general to be of value as a remedial tool. [46].

One aspect of error treatment that has not been given the importance it deserves is the students' ideas about error treatment. According to Chaudron: "the use of feedback in repairing their utterances, and involvement in repairing their interlocutor's utterance may constitute the most potent source of improvement both in target language development and other subject matter knowledge.

Studying this area of Classroom-Centered Research benefits the researcher, the teacher, the field, but also, and most importantly, the students. As Cathcart and Olsen suggest, the study of error correction is a "consciousness-raising tool" which permits the students as well as the teachers to become more interested in the subject. ,,

Probably the most important idea about error treatment is the fact that errors are an important part of the teaching-learning process. "In the treatment of student language we have to change our attitude toward mistakes. We must not think of them as something negative which needs some kind of punishment," But rather as some writer has called them "happy accidents." This term is especially appropriate because it leaves the feeling of something positive in the learning process.

In my opinion, without correct pronunciation- no matter how vast the students vocabulary may be, no matter how well the student understands and uses grammatical rules, no matter what their level of reading or writing skills may be- if they don't use correct pronunciation it may be very difficult for listeners to understand what they say. And that is a huge hindrance to communication. In addition, some research indicates that if a student can not pronounce a word correctly, they may not be able to hear it when spoken by another person either, which further hinders communication. The students can then repeat the correct version or tell you what the difference between the two sentences was and why their version was wrong. Because the students don't do much of the work in this way of being corrected, it might not be as good a way of remembering the correction as methods where you give more subtle clues. Its advantages are that it

is quick and suits cultures, classes and students that think of elicitation as shirking by the teacher. It can also be more face-saving than asking them for self-correction, as trying to correct themselves risks making even more mistakes. The “right version” could mean the whole sentence or just the correction of the part that was wrong. In the latter case, you can then ask them to put it into the sentence in the right. [47]

It is useful at the outset to go into some detail about the terminology used in correcting errors. Although linguists generally use error correction to refer to error treatment; it should be pointed out that ‘error correction’ and ‘error treatment’ can be regarded as two different strategies.

Chaudron (1977) for example, preferred to use the term ‘treatment of error’ rather than error correction. He noted that treatment of error appears to be the most widely employed meaning to refer to any teaching behavior following any error that attempts to inform the student who made the error about the fact that he made an error. This treatment may not involve correction that will result in right place and repeat the whole thing. The student changing the error from its erroneous form to a correct one. For instance, it could be argued that raising an eyebrow at the error by the teacher and the student correcting himself simply by noticing that movement that the teacher detected an error in the student’s utterance can be regarded as a kind of treatment, rather than correction. The teacher here does not provide feedback on the error. Also, it could be argued that when a teacher elicits a correct form or a comprehensible response from the student who made the error, correction does not necessarily result from the feedback given by the teacher. The correct form here is provided by the student who is correcting himself through the teacher’s elicitation process which can be described as a treatment process, rather than a correction process, because through the elicitation process the teacher through some linguistic assistance is directing the student who made the error towards producing the desirable utterance. Furthermore, if we take the (interruption) strategy i.e. stopping the student who made the error by saying: (a’a’a’) for instance, as an act of feedback from the teacher, the teacher himself cannot claim that he has corrected the error. What the teacher did was signal the occurrence of the error in order for the student to deal with the error, rather than correct it. This example from Fanselow helps to explain this point:

- 1. : It’s blue
- S12. : It blue
- T 3. : It’s blue
- S24. : It’s blue
- T 5. : It is blue
- S16. : It blue
- T 7. : It’s blue
- S18. : It blue

Here, the teacher provides immediate correction for the student who made the error (lines 3, 5 and 7). The result was that the student failed to correct the error despite the teacher’s repeated attempts to have the student correct himself. Correction actually failed, although the treatment of the error was there.



Long (1977) also did not accept error correction as an appropriate term used to describe a teacher's feedback on an error. He introduced what he called 'error detection' or 'Knowledge of Result' (KR) rather than error correction. He states "we are interested in error detection, i.e. KR rather than the narrower error correction alone". He speaks of 'error detection' as a step that precedes feedback on the error from the teacher. Therefore, we can think here of 'error detection' as a first step in 'error treatment'. Detection then signals the presence of the error, but neither corrects nor treats the error. Some form of feedback has to follow from the teacher.

Therefore, 'error treatment', seems to be a more suitable term to use to describe teacher's treatment of errors in classroom interaction when employing.

Nafez Shahin treatment techniques to help a student correct his error while 'error correction' is used when a teacher corrects the error immediately as it is made where he generally does not provide any feedback on the error, yet, through this study, the two terms will be used attentively to go with their usage in the literature. Nature of Errors Error analysts tackled errors from different perspectives. They described their nature and their significance as an acceptable classroom behavior. They also classified errors and recorded how teachers behaved towards errors and how they treated them. The following pages briefly discuss these aspects of errors respectively: Students make different types of errors during the process of learning the language. Analysts have provided various opinions on the nature of errors: contrastive analysts attributed errors to the effect of the student's mother-tongue on the learning of the target language. They argued that students tend to transfer to their target language utterances that have some features of their mother tongue. Lado (1957) pointed out that "individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings of their native language and culture to the foreign language and its culture". Error analysts, however, recognized other causes of error, i.e. apart from transfer from L1. Corder (1967) focused attention on errors as a result of cognitive language processing. He pointed out that the mother tongue of the language learner has a particular effect on language learning, and that language learners have their own mental 'curriculum' when they are in the process of learning the language. That is they have their own individual learning habits that make them reproduce the language, apart from the effect of their mother tongue, in a way that demonstrates wrong or immediate mental interpretations and consequently wrong usages of the target language utterance. This development in dealing with students' errors allowed for attempts to explain and define errors further. Chan et al (1982) described an error on the basis of the linguistic fluency of its user. They defined an error as "the use of a linguistic item in a way, which according to fluent users of the language indicated faulty or incomplete learning. Lennon (1991) introduced a more flexible description of error. He described an error as a linguistic form that is not usually produced by the native speaker. He defines an error as 'a linguistic form or combination of forms which in the same context and under similar conditions of production, would in all likelihood, not be produced by the speaker's native speaker counterparts'. Allwright and Bailey (1991) also introduced similar definitions based on the native speaker's form. They

define an error as the production of a linguistic form which deviates from the correct form. The correct form is often defined as the way native speakers typically produce the form which is the native speaker's form. In fact, such a description of error on the basis of the linguistic fluency of its user or its native-speaker as a basic standard may not be sufficient. James (1998), for instance, points out that native-speaker's linguistic fluency cannot be taken as a measurement or standard for error-free language. Native-speakers have proved very often not to speak or judge their mother-tongue appropriately. James points out that in a study conducted by James himself in (1977) that NSs could not agree on the deviance or non-deviance of certain features of student's spoken and written English. Not only this but also NSs judges could not reach consensus on the ideal correction of errors made by learners. Therefore, one cannot agree that errors can be defined on the basis of the linguistic fluency of the native-speaker of the language, and as James pointed out, this area of defining errors remains a problem in error analysis that needs to be explored in depth. [48]

### **Significance of Errors**

Errors are strong indication that learning is taking place. Educators like Burt and Kiparsky (1972), and Selinker (1972), Allwright (1975), Corder (1973), Hendrickson (1978), James (1998) argued significance of errors profoundly. It is necessary first to make a distinction between mistakes and errors which are technically two different phenomena. These educators argue that a mistake refers to a performance error, which is either a random guess or a 'slip' of tongue. All people make mistakes, both native and non-native, but native-speakers are normally capable of recognizing and correcting such mistakes which are not a result of deficiency in competence but rather a result of some sort of breakdown or a lapse in the process of producing an utterance. These breakdowns can be slips of the tongue, random ungrammaticalities, or any performance breakdowns in a native speaker's production. Errors, therefore, are committed only by learners of target language and not its native-speakers. Allwright (1975) points out that typical definitions of error include the production of a linguistic form which deviates from the correct form. The correct form is often identified as the way native-speakers typically produce the form, which is described as the native-speaker's norm. Other educators define an error on the basis of its communicative nature (e.g. Corder 1967), Hendrickson (1978), and Henzeli (1975). They argue that an error is signaled when communication between the speaker and his interlocutor is blocked; a breakdown in communication that made the message in the speaker's speech not get through either because of wrong pronunciation or of wrong tense or because of using the wrong word (s), and here, they argue, correction has to take place.

Errors have significance in classroom in the sense that they provide the teacher with information about how the learner is learning the language and how much he is learning, and therefore error-free production of language has become no longer an essential prerequisite for learning a foreign language as was the case with audio-lingualism, for instance, where repetition and even memorization of correct patterns of structure and pronunciation by learners were the main focus of the lesson. Chastain wrote in 1971: "more important than error-free speech is the



creation of an atmosphere in which the students want to talk” . Also James (1998) points out that such an attitude to error, referring to error-free production, seems to have been passed on evidence that error prevention as was the case with audio-lingualism does not work. It does not work with children, he adds, when acquiring their mother-tongue, referring to the fact that children everywhere produce errors while acquiring their first language. Such errors, James argues, parents expect and accept as a natural and necessary part of a child’s linguistic development, and errors now have a recognized significance just like the significance of errors in a child’s utterances learning his mother-tongue. Furthermore, Corder noted that errors in classroom are significant in three ways: (1) they provide the teacher with information about how much the learner has learned; (2) they provide the teacher with evidence of how language was learned; and (3) they function as devices by which the learner discovers the rules of the target language (Corder, 1982). He argues that errors are indispensable to the learner himself because ‘we regard the making of an error as a device the learner uses in order to learn. It is a way the learner has for testing his hypothesis about the nature of the language that he is learning” . Furthermore, advocates of the natural acquisition of language theory maintain a similar attitude to errors and their treatment. Ellis (1990) argued that errors have become recognized as part of the learning process. They, Ellis adds, are inevitable and provide evidence that language acquisition is actually taking place. He points out that it is pointless to attempt to prevent errors which are the result of the learner’s attempt to struggle to communicate with the language beyond his limited resources while he is still in the process of learning the language. He adds that errors have become recognized and accepted by the language teacher and used by him as a measure by which he measures his teaching method and adjusts it according to his needs. Within this new understanding of the significance of learners’ errors, more emphasis was laid on communicative fluency in classroom, and formal accuracy has been given less and less emphasis. This change, according to Chaudron (1986), has created changes in pedagogy. More emphasis is now laid on developing students’ abilities to speak the language. It has now become accepted that it is normal for the student’s speech not to be error-free and that the teacher has to deal with the error in a way that helps the student to accomplish his communicative goals in the first place. [49]

#### **1.4 Some cognitive tips on correcting pronunciation errors**

##### **Classification of Errors**

In addition to describing errors, there have been attempts to classify errors based on: (a) their degree of deviation from the native speaker’s form; (b) the clarity of the message in their utterance; and (c) their frequency in the learners’ spoken language. Based on these criteria, errors can be classified into five types:

##### **Systematic versus incidental errors:(a)**

Prabhu (1987), for example, divides errors on the basis of their treatment rather than their nature, for instance. He divides errors into ‘systematic errors’ and ‘incidental errors’. He distinguishes systematic errors as the kind of errors that deviate from the native speaker’s form and involve long interruptions and

linguistic explanation and exemplification from the teacher to correct the student's error or to help the student correct himself. This can be observed for instance, when the teacher explains to a student, for instance, why he has to use the progressive form, not the simple form of the verb in a given situation. Incidental errors, on the other hand, Prabhu points out, are the kind of errors that do not require linguistic explanation or exemplification from the teacher, like when the teacher immediately corrects a pronunciation error made by a student, or simply when he raises his eyebrows to draw the student's attention to the error.

**Global versus local errors:(b)**

Valdman (1975) presented a wider and more inclusive classification of errors. He divides errors into global and local errors; a global error is a communicative error that causes a proficient speaker of a foreign language either to misinterpret the message in the utterance of the speaker, or to consider that message incomprehensible within the textual context, while a local error is a linguistic error that makes a form or structure in a sentence appear awkward, but nevertheless, causes a proficient speaker of a language little or no difficulty in understanding the intended meaning of a sentence, given its contextual framework. It can be concluded that a communicative error occurs, according to Valdman, when communication between the teacher and the student is blocked and the student in this case has either to correct himself or the teacher has to require correction from the student. While in the case of the local error, communication between the teacher and the student is not blocked and it is up to the teacher to require correction of the error, or let the error pass.

**Surface versus deep errors:(c)**

Hammerley (1991) made similar distinctions to Valdman's in terms of what Hammerly called 'surface errors' and 'deep errors'. Surface errors according to Hammerly need minor corrections. He points out that these errors do not require correction with explanation and mere editing of the error or simply putting it right with no explanation would be enough. While deep errors, he adds, require explanation of why the error was made and what the correct form is. **Blocking, stigmatizing versus lapse errors: (d)** Hendrickson (1978) added a third type of error that students make in classroom interaction. He divides errors into three main types. The first type of this error is errors that block communication. The second type is errors that have highly stigmatizing effect of the listener but do not block communication. The third type that Hendrickson added is errors that can be described as lapses that students usually have in their utterances. Such errors are quite common in the speaker's utterances yet they hardly block communication between the speaker and his interlocutor. **High-frequency versus low frequency errors: (e)** Other educators, on the other hand, like Allwright (1975) think that errors should be treated on the basis of their occurrence in classroom interaction. Therefore, errors of high frequency should be given more attention and emphasis than errors of low frequency. Correction, therefore, should be focused on errors than recur in students' speech. **Views on Error Treatment** As the focus on classroom instruction has shifted from emphasis on accuracy of performance to communicative fluency, a great deal of literature on error treatment in classroom



interaction has appeared. For example, Oller and Richards (1973), Richards (1974), Hatch (1978), Long (1977), James (1977, 1998), Lightbown and Spada (1993), Spada and Frölich (1995), Ellis (1990, 2000). Sifting through the literature, ten different views on error correction can be detected and presented as follows:

**Only errors that block communication should be corrected: 1-** An important view that appears in the literature is that fluency rather than accuracy should be given preference and therefore only errors that block communication between the interlocutors should be corrected. Allwright, (1975), for example, noted that teachers who teach communicative English are more concerned with the student's ability to convey their ideas and get information more than with the students' ability to produce grammatically accurate sentences. They feel that it is more important for their students to communicate successfully than it is for their sentences to have formal correction. Similarly, Naiman et al. (1978) have reported that students they studied emphasized fluency rather than accuracy. Also people like Corder (1973), Powell (1973), Hanzeli (1975), Burt and Kiparsky (1972), Valdman (1975), Hendrickson (1978), Prabhu (1987), and Hammerley (1991) all argued that only errors that block communication should be corrected. Burt and Kiparsky (1976), for instance, stated that limiting correction to errors that block communication allows students to increase their motivation and self-confidence towards learning the target language. He described these errors as errors that prevent the hearer from understanding some aspect of the message in the speaker's utterance. For example, if a speaker said: "Well, it's a big hurry around", this utterance may be unintelligible and almost difficult to interpret, and hence communication between the speaker and the hearer is blocked. Therefore, the hearer has to ask the speaker to interpret his utterance in clear English. In other words, correction has to take place. While if a speaker for example, said: "I need a scissor", this utterance has an error than does not block communication and therefore it doesn't need correction in order for the message in the speaker's utterance to be understood.

In similar vein, Prabhu (1987), as discussed earlier thought that only deep errors which correspond to communication blocking errors need correction because they pose a problem of communication between the speaker and his interlocutor. Powell (1973), Valdman (1975), Hanzeli (1975), and Hendrickson (1978), also presented similar ideas. They are also of the opinion that errors that block communication have to be corrected. [50]

**Covert not overt errors should be corrected:2-**

The arguments of Corder (1973) and Hendricskon (1978) are interesting and are worth pursuing further at this stage. Corder provided a model for identifying erroneous utterances. He distinguished between two types of error that block communication: overt errors and covert errors. Overtly erroneous utterances as Corder describes them are unquestionably ungrammatical at the sentence level. For example, "Does John can sing?" is ungrammatical but may be accepted and its content can be understood.

Covert errors, on the other hand, Corder points out, are grammatically correct and well formed at the sentence level but unaccepted within the context of

communication. For example, "By bus" is a grammatically correct utterance but is not acceptable as an answer to the question: "How are you doing?". Hendrickson, on the other hand, divided errors that have to be corrected into three types. The most important of these three is the error that blocks communication significantly. The other two types, he argues, are any errors that do not necessarily block communication but may have a stigmatizing effect on the listener, and hence they needn't be corrected. "I want to sleep here", for instance, said to a hotel's receptionist is usually accepted and interpreted as "I want to book a room". It is rather stigmatizing but acceptable.

### **Wait-time should be given for self-correction:3-**

Wait-time for self-correction is an issue that also has received emphasis in the literature. Studies have shown that the teacher should give the student enough time to correct himself and that the teacher should use treatment tactics to encourage the student who made the error to correct himself and that the teacher should not jump in to correct the student immediately. Wait-time was first studied by Rowe (1969) with native-speaking English children studying science. She found that as teachers increased their wait-time, the quality and quantity of student's responses increased. Also, Hernquist et al (1993) pointed out that students have the ability to correct themselves and that if they are given cues or hints, their linguistic ability is activated more efficiently. Holley and King (1974) in a study on wait-time in error correction found that when teachers did not correct errors immediately and allowed a few seconds for students to correct themselves, students corrected fifty percent of their errors. They reported that in small scale intervention in which they asked teachers of German to wait five to ten seconds if a learner made an error or hesitated in answering a question, in over fifty percent of the cases they video-taped, no correction effort from the teacher was needed. The students themselves were able to respond correctly given a brief additional pause. Waltz (1982) also claimed that students in one lesson could correct between fifty and ninety percent of their errors when they were given enough wait-time. This is in line with Corder (1973) who stated that once students are made aware of their errors and given the time they may learn more from correcting themselves than by having their teachers correct them. **Only grammatical errors should be corrected: 4-** This traditional view argues that correction should be focused on grammatical errors. Fathman and Whalley (1990) reported that correcting grammar in classroom performance led to significant improvement in the content of student's feedback. Chaudan (1988) thinks that correction should be more confined to grammar practice, leaving communication activities free of focus on correction of other errors. Cathcart and Olsen (1976) recorded that in a group of (188) college students who were asked which errors they thought were the most important to correct, students of all levels of proficiency agreed that pronunciation and grammar errors ranked highest among the errors they wanted to be corrected. Leki (1992) reported that students expected their teachers to correct their errors in grammar first, then spelling, then vocabulary and pronunciation. He added that (70%) of the one hundred students that they investigated expected all their errors to be corrected. **Form errors within meaning should be corrected: 5-** An important



view that has developed lately that can be also viewed within the context of error treatment is that the strong call for encouraging fluent communication should not mislead us by de-emphasizing the basic structure of the language. This view has gained more and more advocates recently although Littlewood called the attention to this issue as early as 1981, while other strong advocates of this view like Spada and Frölich (1995), for instance, came to this conclusion more recently.

Littlewood (1981) argued that structure is not to be sacrificed for the sake of communication. Both structure and meaning have to go together. Therefore, if an error in grammar alters the meaning, it has to be corrected. Similarly, Lightbown and Spada (1990), Nunan (1989), and Spada and Frölich (1995) point out that focusing on structure can increase the learners' level of communicative attainment.

Lightbown and Spada (1993) later pointed out that when focus on form is provided within the context of communicative instruction, it is more beneficial to learning than instruction with exclusive focus on meaning. Inclusive focus on meaning, it can be argued, is not enough to bring language learners to a sufficiently high level of performance. In a later study, Spada and Frölich (1995) confirmed this view. They pointed out that a combination of form and meaning is a predictor of better learning and that some classroom research showed that a combination of form and meaning is a predictor of better learning and that some classroom research showed that attention to form within a communicative framework is beneficial. Nunan (1989) confirms this argument about the status of grammar in communicative teaching. He states that "some CLT linguists maintained previously that it was not necessary to teach grammar [...] in recent years this view has come under serious challenge, and it now seems to be widely accepted that there is value in classroom tasks which require learners to focus on form" (Nunan, 1989: 13). Hence, focusing on structure should involve some kind of error treatment which is indispensable to an ESL classroom.

#### **Errors that may fossilize should be corrected:**

Errors have also been interpreted from an inter-language perspective (Selinker 1972, 1979). Selinker points out that it is important to distinguish between a teaching perspective and a learner's one. He sees that a learner of a language may attempt to express meanings which he may already have, in a language which he is in the process of learning. This learner's language, which he calls inter-language (IL), is not identical to the target language when used because it is still in the process of being acquired, which results in the learner using the language in the erroneous linguistic forms which may fossilize in the learner's interlanguage. Selinker adds that fossilization is when certain erroneous linguistic terms, rules or subsystems like erroneous pronunciation or an erroneous question form for example, fossilize in the interlanguage of the learner of a foreign language and he tends to keep these forms in his interlanguage and these forms keep showing themselves when the learner speaks the foreign language he is learning. These erroneous forms according to Selinker, persist no matter what the age of the learner is or what amount of explanation and instruction he receives in the target language. Examples of these errors are many and common. Some of these errors are dropping the question operators: "do", "does", "did" in questions. e.g.: "Where

you live?”, or dropping the “verb to be” in a question like: “What this?”. Selinker adds that the fossilized forms or structures tend to remain as a potential performance, re-emerging in the productive performance of an interlanguage even when seemingly eradicated. It is useful to investigate this view further in Selinker’s argument: Fossilization according to Selinker (1972) can be attributed to the effect of five factors: The first factor is the effect of the linguistic system of the native-language, • or the mother-tongue on the utterances that a learner produces in the target language, such as the frequent use of the word ‘that’ in the interlanguage performance as a limbing start with some Indian English speakers. The second factor is the effect of wrong teaching or training which results • in some identifiable errors in the learner’s utterances. Such erroneous forms, it has been noticed, usually happen when a NNS teaches a wrong pronunciation of a certain word in English to his students because he himself has not mastered the pronunciation of the target language. Such erroneous pronunciation forms become part of the student’s inter-language and keep re-appearing in the students’ utterances no matter how fluent in English these students would be. A third factor that results in fossilization of errors is the effect of the strategies • that students adopt in their learning a foreign language. To give an example: if the learner has adopted the strategy that present form verbs take the third person singular ‘s’ with the pronouns ‘he’, ‘she’ and ‘it’, then he may extend the use of this strategy to verbs like “to have” for instance, to become ‘he haves’, ‘she haves’ and ‘It haves’ as an overgeneralization of a given rule of the target language in use. The same thing can be said of extending the use of (ed) with irregular verbs where the past tense of ‘teach’ is ‘taached’ and of ‘write’ is ‘writed’. A fourth factor that results in fossilization deals with the strategies that • learners use to communicate with the language. Selinker points out that many second language learners usually assume that they have learnt enough of the target language and at a certain point of learning the language, they stop learning assuming that they learnt enough in order to communicate. Yet, what happens later is that they find themselves in need of learning more vocabulary items, for instance. So, they try to learn these items in isolation from their communicative context, and this eventually leads them to invent their own syntactic context and pronunciation to use these words which may not be the appropriate context for such items. This discussion should also lead us to what Corder (1971) pointed out about the importance of understanding the idiosyncrasy, or the peculiarity, of the speaker of a language as a basic step in understanding students’ fossilized errors, and consequently dealing with them. Corder points out that the learner usually carries over or transfers the habits of his mother-language into the second language in what he calls ‘interference’ (p.158), and the implication of this term is that the habits of this mother-tongue prevent the learner in someway from acquiring the habits formation phenomena in learning a second language as evidence that the correct automatic habits of the target language had not yet been acquired. That, Corder says, should make us show a particular interest in the idiosyncrasies, or peculiarities, of the learners of the second language because, as Corder suggests, every utterance is to be regarded as idiosyncratic until shown to be otherwise. What is interesting here is that Corder



thinks that idiosyncrasies which are a form of fossilization can be eradicated through intensive drilling in the correct form.

To take his view further, Corder points out that a learner's sentence may be superficially 'well-formed' and yet be idiosyncratic. This type of sentence he calls covertly (on the surface) idiosyncratic. A sentence may also be overtly idiosyncratic in that it is superficially 'ill-formed' in terms of the target language, but not necessarily idiosyncratic. Therefore, if the normal interpretation is acceptable in context, then the sentence is not for immediate purposes idiosyncratic. If a learner who has developed the habit of using the question article 'do' fossilized in his speech to be used with all simple tenses; past, present and future, for example, asks this question: "Do you see the film last night?" the utterance here is ill-formed on the surface-level but acceptable and can be interpreted normally within its time and social context, while if a learner is asked this question: "Who are you?", and he responds by saying: "fine. Thank you", then his response is well-formed on the surface level for being a correct and appropriate response if it were used as a response to "How are you?" as a question, and the learner is used to pronouncing 'how' as 'who', or 'who' as 'how' alternatively. Hence this utterance although superficially well-formed in terms of rules of the target language, it cannot be interpreted normally within its social context. We then have to resort to what Corder calls a 'reconstructed sentence' (ibid p.155) to compare with idiosyncrasy. A reconstructed sentence, Corder points out, is roughly speaking what a native speaker of the target language would have said to express that meaning in that situation.

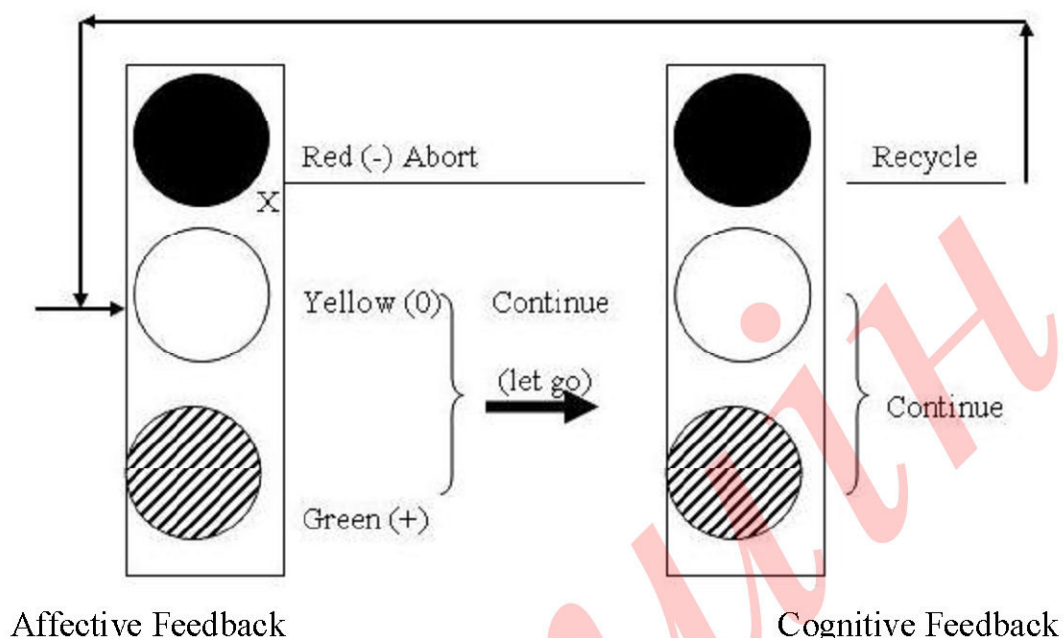
What can be understood from Corder's argument here is that it is the social communicative context that decides whether a sentence or an utterance is well-formed or ill-formed, and this argument should take us back to Corder's classification of errors on the basis of being covert or overt, and therefore a covert error has to be corrected on the basis that it is ill-formed and it needs to be reconstructed.

In conclusion, my assessment is that there is no one standard utterance to convey a meaning. A sentence or an utterance cannot be judged by being well-formed or ill-formed, may be judged ill-formed if produced by a learner in a (traditional) second language classroom where accuracy of performance is stressed, yet it is definitely an acceptable utterance if produced by a native-speaker in his social setting. Therefore, an utterance, in order to be judged by being ill-formed or well-formed is not to be judged by how it was said but rather by in what social context it was said as Hymes (1972) argued, and whether the interlocutor is a learner or a native-speaker. Yet, the question is whether there are effective ways to treat or correct fossilized errors. In fact, some educators claim that fossilized errors cannot be corrected. They base their claim on the evidence that correction does not work with errors that fossilize with children acquiring their mother-tongue until they have mastered a certain level of the tongue they are acquiring, nor with those learners who develop errors in the social acquisition of the target language (James, 1998). On the other had, there are those who advocate avoiding fossilization by immediate error correction. They claim that immediate correction produces better results.

Carroll et al. (1992), for example, claim that when they taught French nominal endings to two groups, one experimental and the other control, they found that the group that had received correction, which was the experimental group did considerably better and that students in this group learnt the correct forms and abandoned the wrong fossilized forms. Corder (1971) also suggested as pointed out earlier that even idiosyncratic errors can be eradicated through intensive drilling of the correct form. **Errors should be ignored:** 7- Another view argued against error correction from the perspective of motivation to learning. The Naturalists argue that error correction affects motivation negatively and disrupts the flow of communication in class. Holley and King (1974) pointed out that teachers should avoid using correction strategies that might embarrass students, frustrate them and prevent them from communicating. This view is so reflected in Krashen's (1982) Affective Filter Hypothesis, where he suggests that error correction no matter what correction measures we might think of, can raise the students' level of anxiety and that this could impede their learning the language. George (1972) suggested that ignoring errors encourages students to communicate and that students need to be given enough time to internalize what they may have learnt. **Errors should be filtered before corrected:** 8- A good example of this view is that of Vigil and Oller (1976). They argue that error correction frustrates students. They suggest that the teacher should be careful to keep the flow of communication going in class and that he should correct only when communication is blocked or when the error alters the meaning in the learner's message. This view was also argued by Corder (1967) when he pointed out that one of the most important tasks of the teacher is to decide when correction is necessary, and to do it in a way that helps the students acquire the language in its correct form within an appropriate communicative context. Vigil and Oller present an interesting procedure for correcting errors which they call an 'Affective and Cognitive Feedback Model' (ibid). This model is shown in Figure[1] (with some modification by the writer). They claim that the procedure of this model allows for effective communication without sacrificing correction. This model is distinguished by using the three colors of a traffic light to represent the three feedback modes that would allow messages of communication between the teacher and his students to get across.



**Figure [1]:** Vigil and Oller's Affective and Cognitive Feedback Model (1976)



The green light of the Affective Feedback Model allows the sender of a message (the teacher, the student, or students) to continue attempting to get a message across, a red light causes the sender to stop such attempts. This is when correction takes place. The red light symbolizes corrective feedback. This corrective feedback could be carried out by the teacher or by the student or by one of his peers where the student has to make some alteration to his message to put it right. The yellow light presents those messages that fall between the red and green lights causing the student to introduce minor alterations or to adjust his utterance that basically did not block communication to go through. Vigil and Oller point out that it is important that what they call cognitive feedback by the teacher in the case of an error be effective and that too much negative feedback from the teacher (too many red lights) like frequent interruptions or over-corrections may cause students to shut off attempts of communication very much like when a traffic light stays red and consequently the flow of traffic is stopped. [51].

**All errors should be corrected:9-**

Such a hardline attitude was advocated by educators like, Cathcart and Olsen (1976) and Leki (1992), who argued that all form errors should be corrected (e.g. grammar, pronunciation and word choice) in the student's spoken language by the teacher. This view they claim was based mainly on students' opinions of the types of errors they would like their teachers to correct, when students gave high priority to grammar, pronunciation and vocabulary errors to be corrected. However, my view is that focus on meaning should not mislead us by ignoring or neglecting the basics of the structural system of the language. As Littlewood (1981) pointed out, whatever the teaching approach is, it should not involve abandoning the use of the structural system of the language because the structural system is still the basic requirement for using language to communicate one's meaning appropriately.

Furthermore, one would agree with Powell and Hanzeli (1975) and many of the views argued previously that as long as intelligibility of the message in the speaker's utterance is understood and as long as the basics of the structural system of the language are not broken, whatever other errors occur may be ignored for the sake of communication. As Allwright and Bailey (1991) noted, not all errors should be accepted willy-nilly in the interest of communication, nor must teachers necessarily abandon their standards of minimum acceptable performance. On the other hand, delaying correction as was suggested may send the wrong message to the learner and he may assume that his erroneous utterance was correct. Therefore, although delaying correction may help encourage the students to communicate, it still has a potential danger in the sense that it sends the wrong message to the learner who made the error and was not corrected. **Mother-Tongue can be used to correct errors:** 10-Finally, an issue that can also be related to error treatment which is using students' mother-tongue in error treatment has gained emphasis. Atkinson (1987) argues that L1 can be used in class for what he called limited purposes. He argued that L1 could be used to explain difficult grammar items or concepts, or one can add, to discuss an error and how it can be treated since error treatment is an indispensable part of teaching. Danchev (1982) also suggests that L1 can be used with beginners when teaching them a foreign language to reduce their anxiety. Lado (1957), furthermore, suggested comparing and contrasting L1 and L2 to help students learn the target language better by describing the patterns that will cause difficulty and those that will not. Of course, this kind of comparison will include treating errors in syntax, pronunciation, grammar and other aspects of the target language.

### 1.5 Main features of pronunciation

If we ask teachers a question: "What is pronunciation?", there will be many answers but generally we can provide a wide answer that pronunciation is a range of correct stress, rhythm, and intonation of a word in a spoken language. In other words, it is the way how the word sounds and sentences sound when they are spoken.

Dalton and Seidlhofer (1994) define pronunciation in general terms as the production of significant sound in two senses:

„First, sound is significant because it is used as part of a code of a particular language. So we can talk about the distinctive sounds of English, French, Thai, and other languages. In this sense we can talk about pronunciation as the production and reception of sounds of speech.

„Second, sound is significant because it is used to achieve meaning in context of use. Here the code combines with other factors to make communication possible. In this sense we can talk about pronunciation with reference to acts of speaking“.

Stress and intonation are very important in an utterance because they can change its meaning. The term intonation is also connected to tone, which is the way how our voice goes up and down in an utterance.



### **Reasons for teaching pronunciation**

As was said before, there are around 750 million people who speak English as their second language. Although they can have a good command of grammar and lexis, they may find it difficult to speak as native speakers and to understand them properly. This is mainly caused by the difference of English and their first language.

In English, we may find 5 vowel and 21 consonant letters in writing but 20 different vowel sounds and 24 consonant sounds in spoken English. Many languages have, in contrast to English, one-to-one relationship between spelling and pronunciation. The concept of there not being such a relationship may be new or unusual. Another problem which may appear is the non-existence of some sounds in the first or newly-learned language. The last problematic aspect is the use of different stress and intonation in English in contrast to the first language, e.g. Czech students tend to put stress on the first syllable of the word and find it difficult to learn English words with stress on different syllables.

For that reason, it is important to teach students pronunciation in a classroom in order to avoid misunderstanding of words, e.g. the inaccurate pronunciation of a word instant soup and consequential mistaking for soap in a shop, but also wrongly used stress or intonation.

Native listeners tend to hear what seems most plausible to them in a given context so they prefer to hear words which are frequent and therefore familiar to them. On the other hand, non-native speakers are often insecure in their judgements about plausibility and relevance of the forms they are hearing. This may happen because they do not have developed expectations about word frequencies or what counts as a 'standard situation'.

Contributing this particular gift can occasionally be a bit tricky, for several reasons. First, your students have already studied English for years and their pronunciation habits are not easy to change. A second problem for those of you who are native speakers of English is that you produce sounds so naturally that you may not be aware of how you do it, so even when you know that your students' pronunciation is wrong, you may not know what the problem is or how to correct it. Finally, the overwhelming majority of Amity teachers are not native speakers of the British "RP" accent ("Received Pronunciation", also known as "BBC English" or "the Queen's English") which is the accepted English standard in Kazakhstan in most textbooks, including Junior and Senior English for Kazakh. The upshot of all this is that teaching pronunciation may be a more complicated issue than it seems.

The good news, however, is that through dint of hard effort it is possible for students to make some improvement in their pronunciation, particularly when they are attending to their pronunciation. (In other words, even future teachers with fairly heavy accents can learn to pronounce words accurately enough when paying attention that they provide an acceptable model for their own students.) If you pay attention to your own pronunciation, and spend a little time browsing through typical Kazakh English textbooks, you should also be able to learn enough about the mechanics of pronunciation to be able to help students. Finally, as long as you

are aware of the differences between your own accent and RP, you can provide a useful pronunciation model for your students.

In class, speak naturally using your own accent, although if there are marked regional features to your speech you might lean as far in the direction of a more broadly accepted standard as is comfortable for you.

Learn the differences between your accent and RP. If you are not familiar with the International Phonetic Alphabet and the accepted RP pronunciation of words.

When teaching pronunciation, in places where your accent differs from RP, don't insist that students follow you rather than the standard. (Future teachers will need to teach the standard in textbooks.) Rather, point out the difference between your accent and the standard so that students are aware of it.

Many of the pronunciation problems you encounter in students will have less to do with the fine tuning of a particular English accent than with simply getting them to pronounce words in a way that is more or less acceptable in any variety of English, so focus your efforts on the many areas where you can help students in their pronunciation.

### **The role of the teacher**

Students' pronunciation may be affected by many aspects, i.e. music, films, computer games..., but it is the teacher that influences students' pronunciation the most. The students' tendency to hear the sound may be affected by the sound of their mother tongue and the teacher's role is to "check that their learners are hearing sounds according to the appropriate categories and help them to develop new categories if necessary."

situation might appear when a student does not know the sound because it does not exist in their mother tongue. Then, the student should try to imitate the new sound and if they still do not manage to do that, a teacher must be able to give some hints in order to help them make the new sound.

The learners are usually unable to judge whether they pronounced the sound correctly, which is the task of the teacher – to provide them information about their performance. This is necessary in order to avoid an inaccurate assumption about the way English is pronounced. In other case there can be a threat of a misunderstanding if, e.g. a particular word is stressed or said in a different way, which can send a different message to the listener than intended.

One of the most important roles of the teacher is to consider what type of activities will be helpful and consequently practised in the course. He has to take into account the length of the course and set a goal which he would like to reach with his students. Every teacher hopes to achieve some progress with their students and they themselves should finally assess it.

### **The role of the student**

The primary role of the learner is to be willing to learn pronunciation. If a not, even the best teacher cannot teach them how to pronounce correctly. There may be a student who does not feel the desire of having good pronunciation because they may feel they will not need it. The key is to convince the students that pronunciation is not something at the edge of English but an important part of it.



An important factor is the learner's motivation – if the learner wants to travel abroad they would like to learn pronunciation typical of the intended state, if they need the language for their job, the demands for the pronunciation may differ.

### **What can affect pronunciation**

There are several factors that affect the way how the student learns pronunciation. One of the three main factors is the learner's native tongue and its similarity to English, i.e. if the native tongue has the same sounds as English. Besides sound, other features which play the role are rhythm, stress and intonation. It is commonly known that most of the Czech students have problems with word stress and intonation in English because the Czech language is typical for having stress on the first syllable.

There have been many discussions concerning a Critical period Hypothesis, i.e. whether the age factor is important in learning a new language. According to the theory, if a learner does not begin to learn a second language until their adulthood, they will never reach a native-like accent, regardless the fact that other aspects of their language, such as syntax or vocabulary may be indistinguishable from those of native speakers.

On the other hand, the goal of the native-like accent does not have to be set for all pupils. The teacher should take into account whether they are educating prospective teachers or 'ordinary' speakers of English. Reaching the native-like accent should be set for those speakers of English, who will speak in public. When teaching the pupils with no special need for public speaking, the demands should be set lower and the main goal of the course should be to reach comfortable intelligibility, i.e. the pronunciation which can be understood with little or no effort on the part of the listener.

The third and very important factor is the motivation of the learner. A strong motivation to speak like a native speaker may help to achieve better results so the goal of the teacher is to motivate their students as much as possible.

### **Which pronunciation model to teach**

Everyone wants to have perfect English pronunciation but which one is it? Although there are many varieties of English used in Britain, Ireland, the USA, Australia and Canada, you will not find two people that speak exactly alike. There can be disagreement over the model of English to be taught to students but generally, the most common and preferred pronunciation model for teaching among teachers abroad (and consequently in the Czech Republic) is Received Pronunciation (or RP). Dalton and Seidlhofer explain that British English is so well documented that it is the best described phonetic variety of any language on the earth.

If you hesitate which model to choose in your teaching, O'Connor advises to choose that sort of English which you can hear most often. Received Pronunciation says more about social standing than geographical varieties of British English. In other words, it is used by speakers to express a certain social identity. Anyway, language teachers should be aware of most of the variations and differences of English.

During one's teaching, there may be a conflict of interest because for Czech students there is much bigger chance to visit Great Britain and therefore hear British English but on the other hand, most of the films, series and music are provided in American English. Yet, most of the language models have more in common than less so once you decide to teach RP, a student who travels e.g. to the United States will still be able to understand.

### **How to teach and learn pronunciation errors**

Learning a foreign language is an ongoing process that needs to be well structured; otherwise there is a threat of wrong teaching. As was said before, the later the learner starts with foreign language, the lower is the chance to learn native-like pronunciation. A small child has a bigger chance to adopt a second language as native than adult because of the changes in the brain. For that reason adults like to be provided by additional information and explanatory notes to help them overcome the difficulties of learning a new language.

There are many ways and approaches how to teach pronunciation. Dalton and Seidlhofer suggest two approaches: "In the first case, we have a bottom-up approach, beginning with the articulation of individual vowels and consonants and working up towards intonation. In the second case, we have a top-down approach, beginning with patterns of intonation and bringing separate sounds into sharper focus as and when required". In our course, we have chosen a modified bottom-up approach as we taught our students linking and aspiration before sounds. The rest of the course followed the bottom-up approach as it is structured in our sources of teaching materials (esp. English Pronunciation in Use).

Anyway, the teacher must set reasonable goals and set a goal to be reached. The role of the teacher during the course should be to motivate, help, and facilitate the learning process. On the other hand, the learners should feel responsible for their pronunciation and try to correct themselves if any mistake is made.

The following chapter will try to introduce several techniques which can be used during a pronunciation course and these techniques will be supported by several definitions. [53]



## II. PECULARITIES OF TEACHING AND LAERNING PRONUNCIATION

### 2.1 Techniques and activities for teaching pronunciation

Once the teacher decides to teach pronunciation in their class, they should plan what techniques will be used and what activities will support it. There is a variety of techniques available from highly focused, such as drilling to more broad-reaching activities such as getting students to notice particular pronunciation features within listening.

#### Drilling

Drill is a good example of development of both skills mentioned above – productive and receptive. It belongs to the main way of practising pronunciation in the classroom because in the most basic form it involves a teacher saying a word or structure and students repeating it. It is a fundamental technique to the teaching of word stress, sentence stress and intonation. This method help students achieve better pronunciation and also remember new items.

Drilling often follows a process known as eliciting, i.e. encouraging students to bring up a previously studied word, phrase or structure. To have an intended effect, drilling is best done before students see the written form of the language.

e.g. A teacher reminds students how to pronounce a word cat /kæt/ in order to introduce them a newly learned word hat /hæt/.

To sum up, the teacher's main role is to provide a model of the word, phrase or structures that will be imitated by their students. Teachers should use this technique for model utterances as naturally as possible and not only at lower levels but also at higher ones.

#### Chaining

This technique is useful when there is a long sentence difficult for a student to pronounce. Two proceedings are possible: **back chain**, when certain parts are drilled separately from the end; and **front chain**, when sentence is drilled and built from the start.

Errors ESL students make, as well as speculation about the causes of errors, have been treated in a number of studies.' Based on these studies and personal beliefs, some methodologists have made general suggestions about how teachers should treat errors. Others consider errors aberrations to be prevented at all cost and ignore their treatment. A few consider errors to be aids that show

teachers how students are developing both true and false hypotheses about the language. Others do not think errors matter much one way or the other in language learning. This study began as an attempt to see how experienced ESL teachers treated errors in their classes. The process of analyzing the data collected for the study led not only to a description of eleven teachers' treatment of error, however. It also led to ideas about preventing some types of errors and possible alternative methods of correcting other types of errors.

#### Collection of Data

To prepare for the collection of data, eleven experienced ESL teachers were asked to allow a technician to videotape their teaching performance. They were given the same lesson plan and materials, and asked to teach the lesson to one

of their regular classes. Adjective word order and the verbs 'holding' and 'wearing' were the focus of the lesson. The teachers were told their taped

lesson would be compared with other lessons; they were not told what aspects of the lessons were to be studied. The lessons were videotaped, and transcripts were made which included notations of non-verbal as well as verbal behaviors. The tapes

and transcripts provided the data for analysis. In analyzing the data, any utterances in English made by a student, either solicited by the teacher

or volunteered by the student, were considered responses; less than three percent of the responses were student initiated. When a teacher interrupted student response to provide new or additional information, the student's continued response was

counted as a separate response. Errors were determined in two ways. When a teacher treated part of a response as incorrect,

that treated part was labelled incorrect. If the teacher later in the same lesson did not treat something he had earlier judged incorrect, the part of the response that had been considered incorrect earlier was still labelled incorrect on the transcript. Some teachers asked students to change full forms to contractions in one part of the lesson and accepted full forms in another part of the lesson. Since full forms were considered errors at one point, they were labelled as errors whenever they occurred. The teachers in two classes never treated the full form, such as 'He is,' as an error. The absence of contractions in these lessons was never labelled incorrect. Likewise, some teachers consistently accepted 'wool' rather than 'woolen' before a noun; 'wool' was labelled an error only when the teacher treated it as an error. Other errors were judged on an absolute scale. The substitution of a phoneme, such as /ow/, in the

word 'glove,' even if not treated, was labelled as an error. In the sentence 'I holding glove,' the omission of the verb and the article were both noted even if the teacher did not indicate that there was anything wrong with the sentence. One type of non-linguistic error was also noted.

When a student response was correct linguistically but different from what the teacher had asked the student to do, it was labelled 'different task.' Here is an example of this type of response.

Teacher: What are **you** holding? (expects student to tell him) - task

Student: What are you holding? different

Teacher: The answer!

### **Minimal pairs**

This technique uses words which differ by only one phoneme but their meaning is different. Using minimal pairs is useful when we teach sounds which have been causing difficulties to students.

To practice it, we can use the following listening exercise:

Which of the words have you heard?

Cat X cut    kettle X cattle    cap X cape



There might be a problem when the teacher uses unknown words in ‘minimal pairs’ exercise, which cause the exercise to be less meaningful because the new words would distract attention on something else than intended. On the other hand, this is not always true so when teaching sounds, we do not have to necessarily choose only from familiar words. [54]

### **Pronunciation and spelling activities**

It is useful to link pronunciation and spelling exercises together, which can be provided by homograph (the words with the same spelling but different pronunciation) and homophones (words with same pronunciation but different spellings).

e.g. homograph: Why don't you read /ri:d/ this book? / I've already read /red/ it. homophone: write / right fair / fare

### **Recording students' English**

Recording learners' spoken English can be sometimes useful, especially when they have a “lingering” pronunciation difficulty which is hard to eliminate. We can record students during language practice activities and use it for pronunciation difficulties. The recording can be later contrasted with that of native speakers (or higher level students) doing the same task.

### **Listening activities**

The main goal of the activities done in a classroom is to prepare the students for everyday conversation. When the teacher decides to use authentic materials (i.e. printed, broadcast or recorded materials) which was not originally produced to be used in the classroom, they may be useful for some activities but not for the whole course. Although they reproduce a day-to-day conversation and sound as realistically as possible, it is impractical for the teachers to use them all the time.

For that reason, using listening comprehensive exercises may be more useful because they are designed to sound as realistic as possible and therefore can help students to notice the existence of a pronunciation feature. The teacher should bear in mind that a language item should be relevant to the student.

### **Reading activities**

Although the medium in reading activities is the written word, they can be useful for pronunciation activities too. Like listening, reading is a receptive activity (i.e. students receive the language rather than produce it), so it provides a suitable means of bringing language features to students' attention.

A way how to integrate pronunciation into reading is to read the text aloud either by the teacher or by the students. Therefore, almost every text can be used if it is utilised well. Kelly (ibid.) points out that “reading aloud offers opportunities for the study of the links between spelling and pronunciation, of stress and intonation, and of the linking of sounds between words in connected speech”.

However, the teacher must pay attention to what kind of text they choose, e.g. if they choose an encyclopaedia, the reading might be rather mechanical than focused on pronunciation. [55]

## 2.2 Common pronunciation errors of Kazakh students

Both in Kazakh and in English, every sentence is made a certain type of tone. It is a necessary component of oral speech. Intonation of concrete sentences may be different for different people, who pronouncing it and it depends on the individual speaker. Yet from this variety it can be identified these intonation types, that are selected characters and carry out communicative, syntax, logic, evaluation and stylistic functions.

When we speak about the communicative value of intonation (i.e its role in communication), we used four types: narrative, question the motivation and exclamation. Their intonation structure is considered in close connection with the lexical and grammatical features of the sentences.

When teaching English pronunciation in Kazakh school each group of sounds and intonation patterns should be considered separately by the teacher, depending on the difficulty of perception and articulation, as well as depending on the similarity of the sound phenomena of the Kazakh language. This makes it possible to determine, taking into account any difficulties should be based learning English pronunciation in Kazakh schools. For example, learning by students of Kazakhs English sound [a:] is a difficulty.

Students are apt to replace the English long back vowel [a:] (in the words of garden, star) qualitatively and quantitatively different from Kazakh vowels (a) (in the words of the kaz. bala – eng. child). Consequently, over the sound [a:] teacher has to work longer and hard to prevent the influence of the corresponding sound of the native language learners.

Comparison of the sound structure, stress and intonation of English and Kazakh languages enable brighter revealing their characteristics, their identity and gives the teacher a basis for methods of working on an English accent for the effective exercise of speech.

During the last decades there are the technical devices to obtain the objective characteristics of oral speech, in particular, the effects of intonation and described, which it is not given the desired accuracy and credibility by ear. Analysis of speech intonation through technical means and the presentation on this basis of comparison give possibilities of more successful learning of English speech sounds in Kazakh schools.

One of such technologies is intonograph “OFHARS” (a device, which records the basic physical characteristics of the speech signal). This device records the five main physical characteristics, which can follow the main components of intonation, to reveal the connection between physical properties, the perceived quality and the semantic content of intonation.

One indicator is, for example, the frequency of the pitch, it can't provide enough presentation about intonation, which considers a series of values.

The narrative intonation of the Kazakh language in terms of perception is characterized by low volume, relatively with slow rate and high level of tone. These characteristics are confirmed by the basic physical parameters, which are reflected on the intonogramm.



Declarative intonation in English in terms of perception is characterized by a calm tone, low volume, relatively with slow pace. It is noted steady downward of falling tone, fewer than in the Kazakh language.

The narrative, as in English, so in the Kazakh language it is pronounced with low volume, slow speech rate, high-altitude level, both cases are low, the common intensive level is not big. Considered language differs in movement tendency of main tone (equal low for English and falling and rising tones for Kazakh).

In comparison with other communicative rate of common time of pronunciation in the Kazakh language is more than other phrase in English. The bandwidth of the English phrase takes minimal place, Kazakh takes middle position.

In English the frequency level of the narrative is higher than in Kazakh. To pronounce the English declarative sentence of beginning sound is not important, in the Kazakh same sentence of indicator is the frequency of the main tone, in the design of shock syllable of both languages is involved fundamental frequency tone and time pronunciation, final sound of English phrases is characterized by the frequency of the pitch and time, as in the Kazakh is only the frequency of the main tone. Interval falling of the final tone is big in both languages.

Intonation questions (general) have the following characteristics in the Kazakh language: average volume of the question, quick temp, medium altitude level, the height of motion has rising-falling-rising directions.

Intonation question in English the hearing differs distinctly from the narrative tone. Pronunciation volume is a reduced, temp and high level is middle, the height of the main tone gets a rising-falling-rising direction with an average intensive interval. On the physical data of the question is differed with the average level of intensity. In the beginning sound design and main syllable is involved fundamental tone and time. Some of the physical characteristics and the issue is the least time of pronunciation.

Intonation question design in the Kazakh and Russian languages have the following similarities: height limit frequency of average level, the movement of the main tone in the frequency scale of rising-falling-rising, the bandwidth is average in both phrases, the overall level of intensity is too minimal. Differences concludes the following, the English phrase volume is reduced, in Kazakh is average, rate of speech is average in the first case, in the second it is quicker, frequency level of English phrases is low, Kazakh is medium. Recovery interval of final tone of English phrase is maximum that is witnesses a large role of intonation in this language, in Kazakh interval it is medium.

The main features of intonation in the Kazakh language is the increased volume of average rate pronunciation, altitude level is low, the basic tone falls steady. Physical properties of different motivation differ average time of pronunciation, a narrow strip of fundamental tone, low level and medium level of intensity.

Intonation motives in English is perceived as expressive, emotional painted; high volume of the intonation, quick temp, altitude level, movement direction tone is falling with big interval.



Physical data, which are involved in the motivation design: the average pronunciation, the middle line, a high level of frequency, high intensity.

Motivations in English and in the Kazakh language pronounced with high volume, which differ average time sounds. Frequency level of English phrases are high, Kazakh is low. The direction of tone movement in English is falling, in Kazakh it is stable. English motivational phrase is characterized by the highest frequency of contrast, the overall intensity of intensity is maximum in the English sentence, in the Kazakh is average.

Pronunciation of exclamations in the Kazakh language differ bright emotional color, high pronunciation, the rate is average, the frequency level is highest, the movement of the main tone obtained rising and falling directions with falling. Physical data of exclamations are: time pronunciation is average. Frequency line is big tone and intensity level is bigger.

English exclamatory sentences are perceived as emotional speech units, their pronunciation volume is average, the temp is slow. Physical characteristics of exclamation are: all the acoustic characteristics, than fundamental frequency of tone (having low numbers), marked with maximum indices.

Exclamation in both languages is across the line width, the level of fundamental of main tone and intensity have high levels of indices, the movement tone is in the falling and rising tone. Volume pronunciation of English phrase is average, Kazakh is high and the rate of exclamation pronunciation in English slow is slow, the Kazakh is medium.

From the above it follows that the types of sentences in the Kazakh and Russian languages differ from each other in the perceived quality and physical properties. Each communicative type is specific number and connection of different signs on perception and acoustic properties.

Intonation is perceived as some holistic sound structure, which has the value of the narrative, questions, motives, exclamations. We usually react to this immediate impression of the intonation in the life, even not aware its perceived quality and the more physical properties.

Described intonation types of sentence of both languages differs with collection and connection of different signs in plan of perception and physical properties. Presence and connection of different signs are registered intonation structure of that and other of communicative type.

The experimental data gives possible to identify the intonation characters, which researched types of sentences and to compare general and specific to these characteristics in the Kazakh and Russian languages.

The expression of communicative types of sentences is existed in the two languages not only with intonation, but also lexical and grammatical and formal grammatical means.

But not other techniques is involved in the expression of communicative type of sentences and its emotional and volitional coloration, the presence intonation is always necessary and its role in communication is very important. In this case, sentences process, intonation plan is imposed on syntactic, as more mobile on a more permanent.



As described above, the differences and common moments in intoning of the main types of Kazakh and English sentences should be kept under constant teacher and help students in learning English intonation, which is an integral part of the communication language. [56]

We have characterized the English vowel sounds that have a particular or other similarities with the vowels of the Kazakh language. As it can be seen from the description, almost all the vowels in English have more or less similar couples in the Kazakh language.

Several Kazakh vowels do not have similar in the English language - (ʏ), (ʏ) and so they usually do not caused influence of assimilation of English vowels. These vowels are specific for the Kazakh language.

Sounds (ʏ) and (ʏ) are brief, incomplete formation, lip, narrow, upper lift. In the formation of sound (ʏ) the language takes on the same position, and in the formation of sound (ы). When the lips are rounded and protrude forward, however, mouth hole turns out not so narrow as in formation (ʏ).

Vowels (ʏ) and (ʏ) mainly differ from each other only in hardness and softness: (ʏ) is solid, i.e back row, (ʏ) is soft, i.e of front row. The presence of these sounds is a distinctive feature in relation to each other is confirmed by the following comparison: ʏн (flour) - ʏн (voice), тʏр (stand) - тʏр (sort, kind), ʏш (fly) - ʏш (three). These sounds is used, mainly, in the first syllable of the word.

Requires special attention from the teacher to introduce students to new concepts for them, reflecting the phonetic system of the English language. One of these concepts is a complex vowel (diphthong). Each diphthong in the English language is a separate phoneme and is part of the vowels: [ai], [ei], [ei], [au], [ou], [iə], [eə], [uə]. Part of the English diphthongs can be likened to some combinations of vowels in Kazakh: ай (moon) қой (sheep), ай (network). But such English diphthongs as [iə], [eə], [uə], [ou] does not have similar combination in the Kazakh language.

Above shown of the Kazakh vowels differ from diphthongs, they sound like two separate sounds, while top (nucleus) of the English diphthong pronounced quite clearly, then followed by sliding in the direction of the second sound. The main difference of English diphthongs from these similar of Kazakh vowels is that the latter falls easily into two syllables and can be separated by a morphological boundary (e.g тай, та-ый; бой, бо-ый; бай, ба-уыр). In English, such phenomenon is excluded. English diphthongs can not apart into two syllables. They are always pronounced together, i.e one effort with an emphasis on the core.

Each diphthong has lax, fading end. That is, the second element of the diphthong is a weak, sliding, extremely brief faint sound. His voice may not be identical to the sound of corresponding isolated vowel, as it is in the Kazakh language.

Although the transcription of the second element is transferred by sign of the vowel complete formation, it should be noted that this sign indicates only the movement of the speech organs to this vowel.

- 1) 3 diphthongs with a glide to [i]: [ei-ai-ei]
- 2) 2 diphthongs with a glide to [u]: [ou-au]

3) 3 diphthongs with a glide to [ə] [iə-еə-уə].

In setting up the pronunciation of diphthongs [ai], [ei], [ei], [au] is necessary to consider the inherent common patterns and contrast with the Kazakh diphthongs (ай), (ей), (ой), (ау). In the final position before pausing English diphthongs pronounced drawl, before a voiced consonant is some shorter, and before voiceless consonants is very briefly.

**Table**

**1.**

Compare	
Kaz.	Eng.
(ай) ай (moon) май (oil) бай (rich)	[ai] eye my buy
(ей) кейде (sometimes) бейне (image) мейлі (let)	[ei] case bay male
(ой) қой (sheep) той (holiday) бой (growth)	[oi] coy toy boy
(ау) тау (mountain) ау (network) бай (ligament)	[au] tower hour bow

Above description of the specific articulation of the vowel sounds allows us to identify the most important for the pronunciation production of differences between articulatory bases of Kazakh and English languages in the area of fields.[7]

1. One of the main features of the English vowels pronunciation is their great strength compared with the Kazakh vowels.

2. English labial vowel characteristic flat rounding of the lips like Kazakh labial vowels are pronounced with bulging lips. When pronouncing Kazakh (и) (ы), (е) unstressed loose lips are neutral (no special way of), the lower jaw is natural.

English vowels [i:], [i], [e], [ei] are pronounced in flat grin: lips slightly elongated strips to expose the upper and lower teeth, the lower jaw is launched so that the lower incisors were directly under the upper incisors.

3. In English, the pronunciation of vowels are mixed ([ə:], [ə]), and also moved back and moved forward (i, u, ʌ, ou] way of the tongue. There is no way of the tongue in Kazakh.

4. English is clearly compared lingering articulation of vowels and some brief articulation of others (long connection in average of 60%). It is not such a distinctive feature of vowels in the Kazakh language.



5. In English difference from Kazakh is widely used moving articulation of vowel sounds (diphthongs).

6. In Kazakh language the organizing center in the word is a vowel sound, which creates a system of vowel harmony.

According to the law of vowel harmony in a single word can combine only similar sounds from the point of view the front (soft) or back (hard) formation. Therefore, all Kazakh words are divided into hard and soft: көл (lake), ән (song) are soft, қол (hand), жан (the soul) are hard.

In this case, of soft are added affixes with vowels only from the front row, for example, in сен - дер - ден (from you), and added to the hard affixes with vowels only from back row: ба - ла - лар - ды (children – accusative case.).

Whereas the English language, there is complete independence of vowels and affixes the end of the vowel root, alternation vowels of front row with vowels of back row in the same word (army, answer, public, language).[57]

Thus, the system of English vowels is marked the large number of contrasts than in Kazakh. So, there is no similarity between Kazakh and English vowels: 1) the mixed sound of the front and back row, and 2) long and short; monoftongof - diphthong.

Pronunciation questions play a huge role in learning the skills of speech, as well as in other species of linguistic communication. Wrong pronunciation of the English sounds leads not only accent, but also to a violation of the meaning of words. The distortion of speech intonation also leads to an incorrect understanding of the meaning of expression. Without appropriate explanations and exercises Kazakh students will read and speak English with the Kazakh intonation. In the practice of language teaching are distributed mainly two ways of teaching pronunciation . The first is based on imitation, that is, on the unconscious assimilation of phonetic phenomenon. In the base of second is meaningful learning. It means that teaching pronunciation skills can not be mechanical. In comparison with other communicative rate of common time of pronunciation in the Kazakh language is more than other phrase in English. The bandwidth of the English phrase takes minimal place, Kazakh takes middle position. In English the frequency level of the narrative is higher than in Kazakh. To pronounce the English declarative sentence of beginning sound is not important, in the Kazakh same sentence of indicator is the frequency of the main tone, in the design of shock syllable of both languages is involved fundamental frequency tone and time pronunciation, final sound of English phrases is characterized by the frequency of the pitch and time, as in the Kazakh is only the frequency of the main tone. Interval falling of the final tone is big in both languages. II. DISCUSSION When teaching English pronunciation in Kazakh class, each group of sounds and intonation structures should be considered separately by the teacher, depending on the difficulty of perception and articulation, as well as depending on the similarity of the sound phenomena of the Kazakh language. This makes it possible to determine, taking into account any difficulties should be based learning of English pronunciation in Kazakh group. For example, learning English sound [a:] present specific difficulty for Kazakhs students. Students tend to replace the English long

vowel of back line [a:] (in the words of garden, star) qualitatively and it differs quantitatively from Kazakh vowels of back line ( а) (in the words of the бала – child). Consequently, over the sound [a:], teacher has to work longer and hard, to prevent the influence of the corresponding sound of the learners native language. On the other hand, the pronunciation of the English sound [h], it is very easy to adopt for Kazakhs students, as the same sound is also in the Kazakh language (қаһарман - hero ah! , Interjection) . The above-described characteristics of sounds should take into account the mutual influence and interaction, which are the sounds of speech when combined each other, for language – “a set of sound units and the laws of their combination”. Compatibility of sounds of every language marked by certain features that are necessary to keep in mind in the process of teaching pronunciation. When consider the most important laws of derivation and combinations of sounds in Kazakh and Russian languages.

Common in the derivational field of Kazakh and English languages is that in both languages have the same types of syllables: a) open syllable (syllable, which consists of one vowel or starts from consonant and finishes on the vowel), in Kaz. ә-ке (father), қа-ла (city), in Eng. a-long, bor-der; b) semi-closed syllable (syllable, that starts from a vowel and finishes a consonant): Kaz. Іс (case), ай (moon ), ұлт (nation); Eng. po-et, at. c) closed syllable (syllable, starts from a consonant and ends in a consonant): Kaz. Бер (give), күн (sun), мез - гіл (time); Eng. let, bit, night. Compound has in both languages and its own features. In English, the vowels [e], [æ], [ʌ], [e] is always closed consonants. In the Kazakh language syllable-boundary in the word very often takes place after a vowel. For the English language, in contrast from the Kazakh, it is characterized by the presence of syllabic consonants [m, n, l] – “sonants”, which, like the vowels can form a syllable (e.g. in the syllables of people, garden, prism). These sonants are more sonorous, than the adjacent noisy consonants and act as derivation. Students usually difficult to perceive derivational role of these syllabic sonants, that is, phenomenon of rather far from Kazakh language.

To clarify this, you need to give an idea of the relative sonority of speech sounds (the most sounding are vowels, then followed sonoristic, after them are voiced consonants and the lowest sonority have voiceless consonants) . For clarity, on the board the crosses is put on each sound of the word, than louder and stronger sound, the cross placed higher. For example: people, open. Unlike English, syllables in the Kazakh language break down into hard and soft. Hardness and softness of word depends on the presence of the word of soft (front) or solid (back) of the vowel sound. Pairs of hardness and softness are vowels (а) - (ә), (о) - (ө), (ы) - (і), (ү) - (у). Only the sound (е) stripped solid variety. Vowel sound in a syllable is not only to impart the hardness or softness of it, but also determines the hardness or softness of consonants, involved in the formation of the syllable. For example, the word осы (this), ал (take) consist of a hard syllable. They sound (н), (л), under the influence of hard consonants are pronounced firmly. Words өс (grow), әл (force) consist of soft vowels are pronounced softly. English freely admits confluence of hard and soft sounds in a single syllable and the neighbourhood of hard and soft syllables. In the Kazakh language only a soft



consonant can put before a vowel (и). During the pronunciation (т) in the word *time* (do not touch), the middle part of tongue is lifted to hard palate, as for (и), which gives softness to this consonant. And in English consonants before [i:, i] is hard. When pronouncing the consonant [t] in the word *team*, tip of the tongue is for the alveolus, the middle part of the tongue to the hard palate is not lifted. Thus, the preceding consonant is hard. The acquisition of the appropriate pronunciation skills present a specific difficult for Kazakh students. For consonant in one syllable, we observe a large discrepancy between comparison of languages. English admits at the beginning of a syllable of two, three or more consonants (*strange, twelve*). In Kazakh language there are not more than one consonant at the beginning of a syllable: *жан* (soul), *сән* (decoration). At the end of an English word may be the endings of four or even five consonants, which is quite strange to Kazakh language (*twelfths, sixths*) [4]. In the vast majority of Kazakh words it is not more than two consonants at the end of a syllable, and combination of two consonants is limited only varieties at the end of a syllable: sonorant consonant + voiceless consonant *рт, лт, нт* (*жұрт, бұлт, қант*, and etc.). As for regard loanwords, most of them are beyond the law (*атеист, литр, Омск*). Thus, English language allows for a variety of combinations of consonant sound, than Kazakh language, so the students are under the influence of phonetic law of the native language is inserted vowels either before the first consonant, or between two consonants: *stand - (i)stand, ask - ask(ə)s, plan - p(i)lan, blame - b(i)lame*. In both languages connected pronunciation of sounds in the word and at the junction of words can cause more or less assimilation of one sound to others. According to the direction of action we usually distinguish assimilation, progressive, regressive and mutual. The law of progressive assimilation (assimilation of following sound to previous) acts in Kazakh language within a single word (at the junction of root and affix, at the junction of the two components of a compound word), and between the words: *сөз - сөзге, төс - төске, жас гүл - жасқұл, малға сақ бол – малға сақпол, кино көрді - киногөрдi*)

Kazakh language has a place as in a single word, and between separate, closer to each other in words (*Аманқұл, ақ ешкі, сөзшең* is pronounced like *Амаңқұл, ағешкі, сөшшең*) [6]. It can be found only a limited number of cases of regressive assimilation in English (*horse - shoe - [ˈheʃu], newspaper [ˈnju: speɪpə], etc.*). Most of these words refers to an outdated vocabulary. In English, it doesn't carried out often by regressive voicing assimilation between words. For Kazakhs, English language learners, greater difficulty is the fact that cases of progressive and regressive voicing assimilation by Kazakh, it is more frequent and systemic than in English. Therefore, students should learn to enunciate final consonants, especially voiced not to extend the phonetic laws of the native language into English. The processes, that take place in the modern world creates a powerful sense for learning a foreign language. Today the value of a foreign language is not only cultural, but also an economic necessity. In modern society, any expert who wants to excel in their field, to own at least one foreign language is vital. The main purpose of learning a foreign language is the development of a child's personality, his way of thinking, imagination, hearing (intonation, the difference of sounds),

creating the conditions for adaptation of students to use foreign vocabulary in the speech [7]. In setting up the pronunciation should be aware that the correct setting for a single sound can be a support for learning the correct pronunciation and other languages. So, in the system of English vowel is marked more contrasts than in the Kazakh. Thus, it can not find the similarity of the English opposition between Kazakh vowels: 1) the sound of the front and mixed back row, and 2) long and short; monophthong and diphthong. The correct pronunciation of the sounds of the studied language is only achieved when the teacher corrects mistakes, but do not put up with obvious errors in shades of learning language sounds. Expression of communicative type of sentences in two languages is not only the tone, but also lexical and grammatical as well as the formal and grammatical means. But whatever the methods may have taken part in terms of the communicative type of proposal and its emotional and volitional coloration, the presence of intonation is always necessary, and its role in communication is very important. In this case, processing proposals, intonation plan stratifies on syntactic as more moving to a permanent one. Characterized in the above the differences and common moments in the intonation of the main types of Kazakh and English sentences should be the subject of constant attention of the teacher and help students in mastering the English intonation, which is an integral part of linguistic communication.

### **Listening and pronunciation**

Unless you are fortunate enough to have very small classes, it will be difficult to give much individual attention to students' pronunciation. Students must therefore learn to rely on their ears to tell them whether their pronunciation approximates that of native speaker models. However, many students are not in the habit of listening carefully before attempting to repeat. In fact, they have often been trained for years to immediately repeat whatever the teacher says, no matter how vague their impression is of the jumble of sounds they are trying to reproduce. Another problem is that while students are listening to the teacher's spoken model, their attention is often focused more on preparing to repeat than on listening. The teacher's sentence consequently serves less as a model for pronunciation than as a starting shot announcing that students should try to speak.

The first approach to pronunciation is thus helping students develop the habit of listening carefully before they speak. To do this, the first time you say a word or sentence, ask students to listen just listen. They should not murmur the utterance quietly after you; instead they should concentrate on fixing the sound in their memories. It is helpful if you repeat the model utterance several times before asking students to repeat; this not only allows them more chances to listen but also helps students break the habit of blurting out a response as soon as you finish.

Exercises which require listening but no oral response may also help sharpen student listening skills. Minimal pair drills are particularly good for helping students learn to hear the difference between similar sounds. Minimal pairs are words that are pronounced exactly the same with the exception of one sound (Ex: pin--pen, bid--bit). Sample exercise: To help students learn to hear the difference between the short "i" and "e" sounds, ask students to raise their pen when you say the word "pen" and a pin when you say "pin."



Training students' ability to hear sound distinctions will not necessarily result in good pronunciation. However, students who have not clearly heard a sound obviously have less chance to produce it correctly than those who listen carefully.

### **The role of teaching Pronunciation in FLT**

Teaching English pronunciation is an area of language teaching that many English teachers avoid. While there are many textbooks and instruction manuals available, as well as books on the theories and methodologies of language teaching there is comparatively little on learning pronunciation.

Why? Is it because we don't need to teach pronunciation or because it cannot be taught?

Certainly, we need to teach pronunciation. There is a big difference between a ship and a sheep and a pear and a bear! When teaching any language as a foreign or second language, our first goal for our students is basic communication, and that can't happen if no one can understand what they are saying.

#### **How NOT to Teach Pronunciation**

When teachers decide to focus on pronunciation practise many of them make the mistake of trying to teach pronunciation along with introducing vocabulary. This can work with students who have a "good ear," or who perhaps speak a related language. However it can be hit and miss with students whose mother tongue has no relation to the target language.

This brings us back to the question of whether pronunciation can be effectively taught at all? The answer is yes, of course it can be taught, it's just that the way many textbooks tell us to teach it is actually one of the least effective.

Most textbooks will have you drill pronunciation with repetition of the vocabulary. Some of the better ones will have you work on it with spelling, which is an important skill, especially in English with its many irregularities and exceptions. Very few will start you and your students where you need to start, however, and that is at the level of the phoneme.

#### **Start with Phonemes (but not necessarily phonetic script)**

The dictionary defines "phoneme" as "any of the perceptually distinct units of sound in a specified language that distinguish one word from another, for example p, b, d, and t in the English words pad, pat, bad, and bat." This definition highlights one of the key reasons that we must, as language teachers, start our pronunciation instruction at the level of the phoneme. If a phoneme is a "perceptually distinct unit of sound" then we have to realize that before students can consistently produce a given phoneme, they must be able to hear it. Thus the first lessons in pronunciation should involve your students listening and identifying, rather than speaking.

Introduce your phonemes in contrasting pairs like /t/ and /d/. Repeat the phonemes in words as well as in isolation and ask the students to identify them. In order to visually represent the differences they are listening for, you may want to draw pronunciation diagrams for each sound showing the placement of the tongue and lips.

You might also consider teaching your students the necessary symbols from the phonetic alphabet, because although T and D are written differently in English, the TH in "there" and the TH in "thanks" are written exactly the same, despite the difference in pronunciation. This isn't essential, and really works best with adults rather than children, but it is worth it for any students who are highly visual or analytical learners.

You can play all sorts of matching games with this material to make the drills more fun and less stressful. You can have students play with nonsense sounds and focus on the tiny differences between contrasted phonemic pairs, the key being to get them to hear the phoneme.

All these games are included in the English Language Games Digital Book for adults with 163 games and activities!

From Recognition of Phonemes to Practise

Once they can hear and identify a phoneme, it's time to practice accurate production of the sound. For this, pronunciation diagrams are useful. Your students need to be able to see where to put their lips and tongues in relation to their teeth. Most sounds are articulated inside your mouth and students have no idea what you are doing in order to produce that particular noise. If you have ever tried to teach a Japanese student how to say an American /r/, then you have experienced the frustration of trying to get a student to produce tongue movements they can't see. There are books out there with diagrams, and with a little practice you can probably produce sketches of them yourself. If you can't, get hold of a good reference book so that you can flip to the relevant pages. Your students will thank you for this insight into the mouth, especially since there is no danger of the embarrassment of bad breath with a drawing.

While this may sound time consuming and unnatural, you have to realize that you are in the process of reprogramming you students' brains, and it is going to take a while. New neural pathways have to be created to learn new facial movements and link them with meaning.

In the classroom, we are recreating an accelerated version of the infant's language learning experience. We are providing examples and stimulus through grammar and vocabulary lessons, but with pronunciation lessons we are also breaking down language to the point of babbling noises so that our students can play with the sounds, as infants do, and learn to distinguish meaningful sounds on an intuitive level while making use of more mature analytical skills that an infant doesn't have.

If you regularly take ten minutes of your lesson to do this kind of focused phonemic practice, your students articulation and perception of phonemes will see improvement after several weeks, and you will get them all to the point where you can practice pronunciation on a word or even a sentential level.

Pronunciation games for children can be found in this English Language Games for Children book: English Language Games for Children

Moving on to Pronunciation of Words

The progress will be more pronounced with younger students, but even adults will begin to give up fossilized pronunciation errors when reciting



vocabulary words in isolation. It's time to make the next leap – correct pronunciation in the context of natural conversation. Make no mistake; this is a leap, not because it is more physically challenging, but because you are about to address a completely different set of barriers.

When we teach on the phonemic level, we are struggling to expand physical and neurological limitations. We are taking irrelevant noises and making them significant to our students, while trying to teach them a greater range of articulation with their mouths, tongues, and lips. But when we work on pronunciation at a lexical or sentential level, we are dealing with complex emotional, psychological, and cultural motivations that require their own kind of re-education.

### Three Big Barriers to Good English Pronunciation

Anxiety, learned helplessness and cultural identity are the three biggest barriers to students' successful adoption of a second language. Not every student will have all of these problems, but it is a sure thing that all of them will have at least one of these problems to a greater or lesser extent. As English teachers we have to find ways to bring these problems to our students' attention in non-threatening ways, as well as suggest tools and strategies for dealing with them.

Anxiety is a fairly straightforward problem to discover. Students who feel a lot of anxiety in speaking are generally well aware of the situation and they know that it is impeding their progress. The impact on pronunciation specifically can be seen in their unwillingness to experiment with sounds, a general lack of fluency that makes it hard to blend sounds correctly, and poor control of the sentential elements of pronunciation, such as intonation and syllable stress. The best remedy for anxiety is highly structured, low- pressure practise. In other words – games.

Jazz chants, handclap rhymes, reader's theatre, and dialog practise from textbooks can all be helpful. Structure and repetition reduce the pressure on the students and allow them to focus on pronunciation and intonation. Classroom rituals, like starting the lesson with a set greeting and reading aloud a letter from the teacher are also excellent ways to integrate pronunciation practise into the rest of the lesson while reducing stress for the student. Rote phrases, drilled for correct pronunciation, will eventually be internalized and the correct pronunciation will improve overall pronunciation. [58]

Learned helplessness is much harder to bring to a students attention, and may be difficult for the teacher to recognize. The term "learned helplessness" comes from psychology and refers to the reaction people and animals have to a hopeless situation. Basically, after trying something several times and consistently being unable to get a positive result, we shut down. We stop trying. If students are getting negative feedback on their English skills, especially pronunciation, and if they try to improve but feel they haven't, then they stop trying. You might think they are being lazy, but in fact they simply don't believe they can improve. They have already given up.

Luckily, once it is recognized, the fix is pretty easy: stay positive, praise frequently and specifically, and periodically tape students speaking so that they can hear the difference after a few months. If you can coax even a little progress out of

a student, then tell the student exactly what they just did right (For example: The difference between your short /a/ and short /e/ were really clear that time! Let's do it again!). Tape the students reading or reciting a passage at the beginning of the year, then tape the same passage every couple of months. Play the tapes for you student and let them hear how much they have improved over the course of a few months. They will probably impress themselves, and you!

Finally, the question of cultural identity has to be dealt with. Students that don't want to be assimilated into an English speaking society aren't going to give up the things that mark them as different. An accent is a clear message about one's roots and history, and many people may be unwilling to completely give it up. As teachers, we need to ensure that students' can be easily understood by others, but we don't have to strive for some hypothetical Standard English pronunciation. In fact, we should highlight for our class that after a certain point, accents don't matter much at all.

Some fun activities that can help your students become more sensitive to the subject of accents are doing impersonations, listening to native regional accents and teaching you a phrase in their own language.

Impersonations can be done as a class. Students can impersonate famous people, like John Wayne or Nicholas Cage, or they can impersonate teachers – always a fun activity! The idea is to have them take on a whole different identity and try out the pronunciation that goes with it. Often, your students will produce the best English pronunciation of their lives when impersonating someone else. Be sure to tape them for this as well, since it proves that they can use English pronunciation in a conversation or monologue.

### **Correcting learners' pronunciation mistakes.**

I had many students who have obtained an amazing vocabulary and whose grammar is the envy of other students. It is just too bad that no one can understand what they are saying. As an ESL teacher, your first priority is to help your students develop their pronunciation skills. Without proper pronunciation, other aspects of English such as vocabulary and grammar become useless if a student cannot be understood when he uses the language.

While pronunciation is the most important component of any ESL class, it is usually also the least interesting in the eyes of the students. Here are some tips to help you make the most out of teaching pronunciation to your ESL students:

- Never be shy to correct your students' pronunciation in class. Wait until the student has completed the thought and then ask the class to repeat words that you think were not pronounced properly. Never interrupt a student in mid sentence.

- When you are teaching an ESL class about a particular topic, always spend at least 10 minutes teaching the pronunciation of new vocabulary words to students. As they use the vocabulary words, correct pronunciation as necessary.

- Use fun methods to teach pronunciation. One such method is by using a stick (or some kind of pointer) to point at each word. When you point, the students should repeat the word. If you don't point, there should be complete silence. There will always be a student or two who will still say the word after you have pointed three or four times and suddenly stop. You can make a competition to see who is



paying attention. Divide the classroom into five teams and give each team pictures of the vocabulary words or actual objects if they are available. When you call a word, the team that is responsible for that word should stand up and say the word in unison. As the game progresses, you can try to trick the teams by saying a vocabulary word but pointing at a team that is not responsible for the word. You can grade each team (using stars on the board) based on how every team member reacts, loudness, and togetherness.

–Always focus both on the group and individuals when practicing pronunciation. Having the group repeat after you is helpful, but it is also important to have individual students repeat after you to make sure that bad pronunciation does not get hidden in the group.

–Never allow your students to laugh at one another during pronunciation practice. Being laughed at can seriously damage a student’s inspiration to want to learn English. It is important to promote an environment where students can feel very comfortable with speaking out loud in class.

–If your students are having trouble with a particular word or sound, ask them to watch your mouth as you repeat the word. They can attempt to imitate the shape of your mouth which will help improve their pronunciation.

### **2.2.1 Ways to correcting pronunciation errors through poetry**

New ways of correcting spoken errors

#### 1. Collect the errors for later

You can then correct them later in the same class (with a game like a grammar auction or just eliciting corrections from the class) or in a future class (for example writing error dictation pairwork worksheets or using the same techniques as can be used in the same class). Make sure you give positive reinforcement as well, e.g. “Someone said this sentence, and that is really good.”

#### 2. Facial expression

For example, raise an eyebrow, tilt your head to one side or give a slight frown. Most people will do this naturally, but there is a slight chance a teacher’s expression will be too critical or too subtle for your students to pick up on, and you can (amusingly) practice facial expressions in a teaching workshop by participants communicating certain typical classroom messages (“move over there to work with this person”, “work in pairs” etc.) using just their heads and faces, including feedback on spoken errors in that list.

#### 3. Body language

The problems with using body language to show errors could also be that it is taken as very serious criticism or that it is too vague. Possibilities include using your hands (rolling a hand from side to side to mean “so-so attempt”; making a circle by moving your index finger to mean “one more time”; or a cross with fingers, open palms or even forearms to show a very clear “no” or “wrong”-probably only suitable for a team game etc where the responsibility is shared), head (tilted to one side to mean “I’m not sure that sounds correct”), or shoulders (hunched to reinforce “I don’t understand what you are saying”). Again, practising

this in a teaching workshop can be useful, as can eliciting other body language teachers could have used after an observation.

#### 4. Point at the correct language

If you have something on the correct form easily accessible on the whiteboard, in the textbook or on a poster, just pointing at it can be a subtle but clear way of prompting students to use the correct language. What you point at could be the name of the tense or word form they are supposed to be using, a verb forms table or the actual correct verb form, a grammatical explanation, or another grammatical hint such as “future”, “prediction” or “polite”.

#### 5. Repeat what they said

This can mean repeating the whole sentence, one section of it including the wrong part, the sentence up to the wrong part, the sentence with the wrong part missed out (with maybe a humming noise to show the gap that should be filled) or just the wrong part. You can illustrate that you are showing them an error and give some hint as to which bit is wrong by using a questioning tone (for everything you say or just for the wrong part). This method is overused by some teachers and can sound patronising if used too often or with the wrong tone of voice, so try to mix up the different versions of it described here and to alternate with methods described in the other tips.

#### 6. Just say the right version

The students can then repeat the correct version or tell you what the difference between the two sentences was and why their version was wrong. Because the students don't do much of the work in this way of being corrected, it might not be as good a way of remembering the correction as methods where you give more subtle clues. Its advantages are that it is quick and suits cultures, classes and students that think of elicitation as shirking by the teacher. It can also be more face-saving than asking them for self-correction, as trying to correct themselves risks making even more mistakes. The “right version” could mean the whole sentence or just the correction of the part that was wrong. In the latter case, you can then ask them to put it into the sentence in the right place and repeat the whole thing.

#### 7. Tell them how many mistakes

This method is only really suitable for controlled speaking practice, but can be a very simple way of giving feedback in that situation. Examples include “Most of the comparatives were right, but you made two mistakes” and “Three words are in the wrong position in the sentence/ are mixed up”. Make sure you only use this method when students can remember what you are referring to without too much prompting.

Other useful language:

“Very good, but you made just one mistake with the passive”

(For a tongue twister) “Good attempt/ Getting better, but in two places you said /sh/ where it should have been /s/. Can you guess which words?”

#### 8. Use grammatical terminology to identify the mistake

For example, “(You used) the wrong tense”, “Not the Present Perfect”, “You need an adverb, not an adjective” or “Can change that into the passive/ indirect



speech?” This method is perhaps overused, and you need to be sure that the grammatical terminology isn’t just going to confuse them more.

Other useful language:

“Because that is the present simple, you need to add the auxiliary (verb) ‘do’”

“Say the same sentence, but with the comparative form”

#### 9. Give the rule

For example, “‘Since’ usually takes the Present Perfect” or “One syllable adjectives make the comparative with –er, not more + adjective” This works best if they already know the rule, and you at least need to make sure that they will quickly understand what you are saying, for example by only using grammatical terminology you have used with them several times before.

#### 10. Give a number of points

This is probably best saved for part of a game, especially one where students work together, but you can give each response a number of points out of 10. The same or other teams can then make another attempt at saying the same thing to see if they can get more points. If you don’t want students to focus on accuracy too much, tell them that the points will also give them credit for good pronunciation, fluency, politeness, persuasiveness and/ or originality of ideas.

Useful language:

“Very good fluency and very interesting, but a few basic mistakes, so I’ll give your team a score of (IELTS) 5.5. Practice your script in your team again for 5 minutes and we’ll try it one more time”

“You got all the articles right this time, so I’ll give you 9 out of 10”

#### 11. Just tell them they are wrong (but nicely)

Positive ways of being negative include “nearly there”, “getting closer”, “just one mistake”, “much better”, “good idea, but...”, “I understand what you mean but...”, “you have made a mistake that almost everyone does/ that’s a very common mistake”, “we haven’t studied this yet, but...” and “much better pronunciation, but...” With lower level and new classes, you might have to balance the need to be nice with the need to be clear and not confuse them with feedback language that they don’t understand, perhaps by sticking to one or two phrases to give feedback for the first couple of months. It can also be useful to give them translations of this and other classroom language you will use, for example on a worksheet or a poster.

#### 12. Tell them what part they should change

For example, “You need to change the introduction to your presentation” or “Try replacing the third word with something else”.

#### 13. Ask partners to spot errors

This is a fairly well-known way of giving feedback in speaking tasks, but it can be a minefield if the person giving feedback has no confidence in their ability to do so or in how well the feedback (i.e. criticism) will be taken, and even more so if the person receiving the feedback will in fact react badly. This method is easier to do and easier to take when they have been told specifically which language to use while speaking and so to look out for when listening, usually meaning

controlled speaking practice tasks. The feedback can be made even simpler to give and collect and more neutral with some careful planning, e.g. asking them count how many times their partner uses the target form as well as or instead of looking for when it used incorrectly.

14. Try again!

Sometimes, students don't need much help at all but just a chance to do it again. This is likely to be true if you have trained them well in spotting their own errors, if there was some other kind of mental load such as a puzzle to solve that was distracting them from the language, or if they have had a chance to hear someone else doing the same speaking task in the class or on a recording.

Useful language:

“One more time (but think about the grammar more this time/ but concentrating on making less mistakes instead of speaking quickly)”

“Give it another go”

“Do you want one more chance before you get the final score”.

15. Remind them when you studied that point

For example, “Nearly right, but you've forgotten the grammar that we studied last week” or “You've made the same mistake as everyone made in the last test”.[24]

### **Correcting Without Hurting**

Many teachers, especially if they are new to teaching ESL classes, may be a little intimidated by the prospect of having to teach pronunciation. But, just like almost every thing else, if the process is broken down into small manageable steps, the task is not all that daunting. This site is an attempt to do just that- to break the process of teaching pronunciation down into smaller steps.

Why is proper pronunciation important? Because without correct pronunciation- no matter how vast the students vocabulary may be, no matter how well the student understands and uses grammatical rules, no matter what their level of reading or writing skills may be- if they don't use correct pronunciation it may be very difficult for listeners to understand what they say. And that is a huge hindrance to communication. In addition, some research indicates that if a student can not pronounce a word correctly, they may not be able to hear it when spoken by another person either, which furthers hinders communication.

Students from different languages have different pronunciation difficulties. Not all sounds in the English language are common to other languages. For example, some languages do not have an 'r' sound, so students use a similar sound 'l' instead. So when a students says "What a lovely libbon", the native English is totally confused. Or maybe in a student's native tongue there is no distinction between 'b' and 'p'. Just imagine the misunderstanding that will result if a teachers says "I need to be on that bus" and the student hears "I need to pee on that bus".

When teaching pronunciation, teachers are giving feedback to their student about how they are saying things. This feedback includes what the problem is and what they need to do to correct it. This feedback may include where to place the tongue in the mouth to say particular words, or how the lips should be formed, or the action of the tongue when saying specific sounds.



Mastering proper pronunciation is not just a matter of learning individual sounds. Many students can hear and make the different sounds for all the vowels and consonants in English. Unfortunately, they also have to contend with the sound changes that occur with different letter combinations resulting from linking or reduction of vowels and consonants, not to mention stress, pitch, and intonation differences between their native tongue and English.

That's basically all there is to teaching pronunciation- giving feedback and ensuring that the student uses the feedback to improve their speaking skills. That along with providing adequate practice to the students to hear the sounds and practice making the sounds. Remember (as some research implies) if a student can't say a sound, they won't be able to hear it either.

### **Problems of correcting students' pronunciation**

Look at these statements about correction of students' oral work. What do you think?

Advanced students need loads of correction, beginners hardly any. When you start to learn a language you need to be able to communicate imperfectly in lots of situations, not perfectly in a few. The teacher's job is to support learners as they blunder through a range of communicative scenarios, not badger them because they forget the third person -s. With advanced learners the opposite is usually the case.

The jury is out on the question of whether correcting students, however you do it, has any positive effect on their learning. There is some evidence, though, that time spent on correcting learners may be wasted.

Research into Second Language Acquisition has suggested that it may be that some language forms can be acquired more quickly through being given special attention while others may be acquired in the learners' own time, regardless of teacher attention. This helps explain, for example, why intermediate learners usually omit third person -s just like beginners, but often form questions with do correctly, unlike beginners.

There is little point correcting learners if they don't have a fairly immediate opportunity to redo whatever they were doing and get it right.

Learners need the opportunity for a proper rerun of the communication scenario in which they made the error, if they are to have any chance of integrating the correct form into their English. Whether the error was teacher-corrected, peer-corrected or self-corrected in the first place is of relatively minor importance.

Lots of learners and teachers think correction is important.

Is this because it helps them to learn and teach or helps them to feel like learners and teachers?

The problem with some learners is they don't make enough mistakes.

Accurate but minimal contributions in speaking activities are unlikely to benefit learning as much as inaccurate but extended participation. Learners can be hampered by their own inhibitions and attitudes to accuracy and errors, the teacher's attitude and behaviour (conscious or unconscious) to accuracy and errors or the restricted nature of the activities proposed by the teacher.

Teachers spend too much time focussing on what students do wrong at the expense of helping them to get things right.

When giving feedback to learners on their performance in speaking English, the emphasis for the teacher should be to discover what learners didn't say and help them say that, rather than pick the bones out of what they did say. This requires the use of activities which stretch learners appropriately and the teacher listening to what learners aren't saying. That's difficult. [59].

Correction slot pro-forma

Here is a sample correction slot pro-forma which has been filled in with some notes that a teacher took during a fluency activity for a pre-intermediate class of Spanish students:

Pronunciation

I go always to cinema

She have got a cat...

Does she can swim?

Swimming bath my fathers

“Comfortable”

“Bag”– said “Back”

intonation very flat (repeat some phrases with more pitch range)

Bodega

Ocio

Yo que se

I don't ever see my sister

Have you seen Minority Report?

Good pronunciation of AMAZING

Why use this pro-forma?

It helps teacher and students identify errors.

It helps you as a teacher to listen and give balanced feedback.

And how to use it ?

It has been divided into four sections. The first two, Grammar/Vocabulary and Pronunciation, are pretty evident and are what teachers look out for as 'mistakes' in most cases.

The third slot, L1, means the words that students used in their own language during the exercise. We believe that in a fluency-based activity, if a student can't find the right word in English, they should say it in their own language so as not to impede the flow. An attentive teacher (who also knows her students' L1) will make a quick note of it and bring it up later, eliciting the translation from the class. If you are teaching a multi-lingual class, you can still use this column. You don't have to know the translations. You can prompt the learners to come up with those.

The column reminds us to include successful language in feedback. Too often in correction slots the emphasis is on what went wrong. Here the teacher can write down examples of good things that happened. This is especially true if the teacher notices that the students are using a recently taught structure or lexical item, or if they have pronounced something correctly that they had trouble with before.



### Other suggestions

You can copy your filled-in version and hand it out to groups of students to save writing on the whiteboard. Or simply use it to help you note down language in an organized way.

You can fill out separate sheets for each group of students as you listen or even for each individual student (this would obviously work best with very small classes!). You can pass them round, have students correct their own, each others, whatever.

The advantage of using a set form is that by doing this, you keep an ongoing record of mistakes that can be stored and exploited for revision lessons, tests or as a filler for the end of a class. [60]

### **Today I Saw a Butterfly**

Today I saw a butterfly,  
as it floated in the air;  
Its wings were spread in splendor,  
Unaware that I was there.  
It was such a thing of beauty,  
It was a sight to see;  
It was the perfect masterpiece,  
Full of grace and majesty.  
I found myself thinking,  
to what can this compare?  
And then, of course, I thought of you,  
And I wished that you were there.  
God sure was extra careful,  
When He formed and fashioned you;  
You too, became a masterpiece,  
Yet God is still not through.  
He's daily making changes,  
that other folks can't see;  
You're already true perfection,  
At least you are to me.

### **An Angel**

An Angel kissed my tears away  
today when I was sad.  
I wasn't feeling quite myself  
my day had been so bad.

I felt a warmth brush by me  
that quickly dried my tears;  
A gentle, kind, and loving touch  
that seemed to hold me near.

Immediately, I felt so much better  
and the day seemed brighter, too.  
I guess that's just the way you feel  
when an Angel comforts you.

### **What A Wonderful World**

I see trees of green, red roses, too  
I see them bloom, for me and you  
And I think to myself  
What a wonderful world.

I see skies of blue, and clouds of white,  
The bright blessed day,  
The dark sacred night  
And I think to myself,  
What a wonderful world.

The colour of the rainbow,  
So pretty in the sky  
Are also on the faces,  
Of people going by  
I see friends shaking hands,  
Saying "How do you do?"  
They're really sayin': "I love you".

I hear babies,  
What a wonderful world,  
Yes, I think to myself cry,  
I watch them grow,  
They'll learn much more,  
Than I'll ever know  
And I think to myself,  
What a wonderful world

### **A Poem for Each & Every Day**

May you have...

Enough happiness to keep you sweet,  
Enough trials to keep you strong,  
Enough sorrow to keep you human,  
Enough hope to keep you happy,  
Enough failure to keep you humble,  
Enough success to keep you eager,  
Enough friends to give you comfort,  
Enough wealth to meet your needs,



Enough enthusiasm to look forward,  
Enough faith to banish depression,  
Enough determination to make each day better than yesterday!

**I Really Miss You,  
My Friend**

I really miss you  
I have other friends  
whom I talk to  
but it's not the same  
You have such  
a deep understanding  
of who I am  
I hardly have to  
speak any words  
and you know just  
what I am saying  
I really miss you  
and I want to be sure  
that you know  
that no matter where I go  
whom I meet  
or what I do  
I'll never find  
as deep a friendship  
with anyone as I  
have with you

**Tomorrow Is a New Day**

Sometimes we do not feel  
like we want to feel  
Sometimes we do not achieve  
what we want to achieve  
Sometimes things that happen  
do not make sense  
Sometimes life leads us in directions  
that are  
beyond our control  
It is at these times, most of all  
that we need someone  
who will quietly understand us  
and be there to support us  
I want you to know

that I am here for you  
in every way  
and remember that though  
things may be difficult now  
tomorrow is a new day

**I Can't Wait to  
Be with You Again**

You don't know  
how much I miss you  
I live each day  
as it comes  
functioning in all my tasks  
smiling when needed  
even laughing at times  
but inside I am so alone  
each minute seems like an hour  
each hour seems like a day  
What makes this time bearable  
are my thoughts of you and  
knowing that I will  
be with you soon

ONLY Y2M11H



## CONCLUSION

Speaking is so important in my opinion, in acquiring and using a language, and language-competence covers so many aspects. Phonetics, both theory and practice constitute the basis of speaking above all other aspects of language in my opinion. Speaking is a tool of communication. Many teachers, especially if they are new to teaching ESL classes, may be a little intimidated by the prospect of having to teach pronunciation. But, just like almost every thing else, if the process is broken down into small manageable steps, the task is not all that daunting. This site is an attempt to do just that- to break the process of teaching pronunciation down into smaller steps.

Why is proper pronunciation important? Because without correct pronunciation- no matter how vast the students vocabulary may be, no matter how well the student understands and uses grammatical rules, no matter what their level of reading or writing skills may be- if they don't use correct pronunciation it may be very difficult for listeners to understand what they say. And that is a huge hindrance to communication. In addition, some research indicates that if a student can not pronounce a word correctly, they may not be able to hear it when spoken by another person either, which further hinders communication. The students can then repeat the correct version or tell you what the difference between the two sentences was and why their version was wrong. Because the students don't do much of the work in this way of being corrected, it might not be as good a way of remembering the correction as methods where you give more subtle clues. Its advantages are that it is quick and suits cultures, classes and students that think of elicitation as shirking by the teacher. It can also be more face-saving than asking them for self-correction, as trying to correct themselves risks making even more mistakes. The "right version" could mean the whole sentence or just the correction of the part that was wrong. In the latter case, you can then ask them to put it into the sentence in the right place and repeat the whole thing.

The best way is: while they are talking or reading in class, you shouldn't interrupt them in the middle of the conversation or text. Let them finish first and then you can correct pronunciation mistakes by using those words and phrases frequently in different ways, making students take part in activities too. Don't directly correct the student who's made a pronunciation mistake. This will cause him/her to lose self confidence and be discouraged.

Students from different languages have different pronunciation difficulties. Not all sounds in the English language are common to other languages. For example, some languages do not have an 'r' sound, so students use a similar sound 'l' instead. So when a student says "What a lovely libbon", the native English is totally confused. Or maybe in a student's native tongue there is no distinction between 'b' and 'p'. Just imagine the misunderstanding that will result if a teacher says "I need to be on that bus" and the student hears "I need to pee on that bus".

When teaching pronunciation, teachers are giving feedback to their student about how they are saying things. This feedback includes what the problem is and what they need to do to correct it. This feedback may include where to place the

tongue in the mouth to say particular words, or how the lips should be formed, or the action of the tongue when saying specific sounds. One of the most difficult parts of learning to speak English is the correct pronunciation of plural nouns and verbs. Many of these words simply add a suffix such as "s," "es" or "ed" to the original word, and this can be challenging for many English as a Second Language, or ESL, students to pronounce. The key to improving pronunciation of plurals is consistent practice and correction combined with listening.

Mastering proper pronunciation is not just a matter of learning individual sounds. Many students can hear and make the different sounds for all the vowels and consonants in English. Unfortunately, they also have to contend with the sound changes that occur with different letter combinations resulting from linking or reduction of vowels and consonants, not to mention stress, pitch, and intonation differences between their native tongue and English.

That's basically all there is to teaching pronunciation- giving feedback and ensuring that the student uses the feedback to improve their speaking skills. That along with providing adequate practice to the students to hear the sounds and practice making the sounds. Remember (as some research implies) if a student can't say a sound, they won't be able to hear it either.



## Bibliography

1. Celce-Murcia M., Brinton D., Goodwin J. Teaching Pronunciation: A Reference for Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages. – Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1996.
1. Z.M. Bazarbaeyeva, Kazakh intonation, Almaty, pp. 283-287, 2008
2. A.A. Isengeldina, Sonor consonants of Kazakh, Bulletin of the Academy of Sciences of the Kazakh SSR, 1960, no.3.
3. J.K. Kaliev, Some problem of teaching methods of foreign languages, Kazakhstan school, 1962,no. 8.
4. S.K. Kenesbayev, Modern Kazakh language. Phonology and morphology. Alma-Ata, 1962
5. P.S. Kuznetsov, “On the phonology of stress”, Reports and philological faculty of Moscow State University, 1948.
6. R.M. Mullina. Kazakh language, Part 1, Phonetics, Alma - Ata, 1958
7. A.A. Reformatsky, Education pronunciation and phonology. "Psychological Science". M, 1959, no. 2. O.Tolegenov, General modeling and purposeful meaning of simple sentences types. Almaty, pp.15-18, 1968
8. V.N. Vitomskaya, Fundamentals of English phonetics. Moscow, 1948, pp. 62-67
9. Brown, H. D. (2000). Principles of language learning and teaching. Longman, Inc.
10. Burt, M. K. (1975). Error analysis in the adult EFL classroom. TESOL Quarterly, 9: 53-63.
11. Chandler, Jean. (2003). “The efficacy of various kinds of error feedback for improvement in the accuracy and fluency of L2 student writing”, Journal of Second Language Writing, vol.12, 3, pp.267-296.
12. Corder, S.P. (1971). Idiosyncratic dialects and error analysis. International Review of Applied Linguistics, (9): 147-159.
13. Ferris, Dana. (2001). “Error feedback in L2 writing classes. How explicit does it need to be?”, Journal of Second Language Writing, vol.10, 3, pp. 161-184.
14. Ferris, Dana. (2004). “The grammar correction debate in L2 writing: Where are we, and where do we go from here? (and what to do in the meantime...?)”, Journal of Second Language Writing, vol.13, 1. pp. 49-62.
15. Gascoigne, C. (2004). “Examining the effect of feedback in beginning L2 composition”, Foreign Language Annals, vol. 37, 1, p.71.
16. Hendrickson, J. M. (1980). Error correction in foreign language teaching: Recent theory, research, and practice // K. Croft. Readings on English as a second language (2nd ed.).
17. Cambridge, MA: Winthrop Publishers.
18. Jame, C. (1998). Errors in language learning and use. Addison Wesley Longman Limited.
19. Bell M. (1996). Teaching pronunciation and intonation to E.F.L. learners in Korea. Retrieved on 14 October, 2004. – p.255
20. Brown H. Principles of language learning and teaching. New York: Pearson Education. 2000. – p.365

21. Dalton D. Some techniques for teaching pronunciation. *The Internet TESOL Journal*, Vol. III, No. 1, January. Retrieved on 14 October, 2004, from
22. <http://iteslj.org/Techniques/Dalton-Pronunciation.html>
23. Fraser H. (1999). ESL pronunciation teaching: Could it be more effective?
24. *Australian Language Matters*, 7 (4). Retrieved on 14 October, 2004. – p. 136
25. Hammond R. M. Foreign accent and phonetic interference: The application of linguistic research to the teaching of second language pronunciation. Ed. Eckman, P. *Second Language Acquisition: Theory and Pedagogy*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates. 1995. – p. 260
26. Hansen D. A study of the effect of the acculturation model on second language acquisition. Ed. Eckman, P. *Second Language Acquisition: Theory and Pedagogy*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates. 1995. – p. 158
27. Jones R. Beyond 'listen and repeat': Pronunciation teaching materials and
28. theories of second language acquisition. *System*, 25:1, 1997. – p. 103-112.
29. Krashen S. & Terrell, T. *The Natural Approach*. Hayward, CA. Alemany, 1983. – p. 125
30. Lenneberg Eric H. *Biological Foundations of Language*. John Wiley and Sons Inc, 1967. – p. 206
31. La Porta G. A critical look at the critical period hypothesis, 2000. – p. 212
32. Lim J. A new look at the critical period hypothesis. *The Applied Linguistics Association of Korea*, 10, 2003. – p. 111
33. Molholt G., Lane, L., Tanner, J. & Fischer, L. Computer graphics in the language lab. *THE Journal*. Vol. 15 No. 3, 1988. – p.155
34. Nari A., Cucchiarini, C., & Strik, H. Effective feedback on L2 pronunciation in ARS-based CALL. Paper presented at the workshop of the Computer Assisted Language Learning, Artificial Intelligence in Education conference, San Antonio, TX.
35. Rajadurai J. An investigation of the effectiveness of teaching pronunciation to Malaysian TESL students. *Forum*, Vol 39 No 3, July – September, 2001. – p.95
36. Robertson P. Teaching English pronunciation skills to the Asian learner. A cultural complexity or subsumed piece of cake? *Asian EFL Journal*, June, 2003. – p. 175
37. Thompson S., Taylor K., & Gray, H. Pronunciation with an Eye on Multiple Intelligences. *WATESOL Convention Fall 2001*. – p. 102
38. Terrell T. Teaching Spanish pronunciation in a Communicative Approach. *American Spanish Pronunciation - Theoretical and Applied Perspectives*, ed. Bjarkman, P. and Hammond, R. Washington, DC: Georgetown University Press, 1989. – p. 146
39. Vitanova G. & Miller, A. Reflective practice in pronunciation learning. *The Internet TESOL Journal*, Vol. VIII, No. 1, January, 2002. – p. 209
40. Wennerstrom A. Why suprasegmentals? *TESOL Matters*, Vol. 9, No. 5.
41. Pennington, M.C., *Phonology in English Language Teaching*, Addison Wesley Longman, Essex, U.K., 1996. – p. 301
42. Stenhouse L., 'Research as a basis for teaching', in Stenhouse, L., *Authority, Education and Emancipation*, Heinemann, London, 1983. – p. 196



43. Whitehead J., Analysis of Individual Educational Development: A Basis for Personally Oriented Action Research, in Shipman (ed.), Educational Research, Principles, Policies and Practice, Falmer Press, Lewes, 1985. – p. 223
44. Alptekin C. Towards intercultural communicative competence in ELT. *ELT Journal*, 2002. – p. 80
45. Annamalai E. Nativization of English in India and its effect on multilingualism. *Journal of Language and Politics*, 2005. – p. 310
46. Bansal R. K. The intelligibility of Indian English. Hyderabad: Central Institute of English and Foreign Languages, 1969. – p. 89
47. Bowler, B. S. Cunningham (1999). *New Headway Pronunciation Course Pre-Intermediate*, Oxford: Oxford University Press
48. Bowler, B. S. Cunningham (1999). *New Headway Pronunciation Course Intermediate*, Oxford: Oxford University Press
49. Dalton, C. B. Seidlhofer (1994). *Pronunciation*. Oxford: Oxford University Press
50. Dombek, Petr. "Proč si hloupí lidé myslí, že jsou nejchytřejší? Vlastní neobjektivita je potvrzena vědci. [Why Stupid People Think They Are The Smartest? Their Own Lack Of Objectivity Is Confirmed By Scientists]" National Geographic. GrowJOB Institute, 28 Feb. 2013. Web. 13 Feb. 2013.
51. Available from: <[http://www.national-geographic.cz/detail/proc-si-hloupilide-mysli-ze-jsou-nejchytrejsi-vlastni-neobjektivita-je-potvrzena-vedci-39473/#.UWP-oOje\\_H1.facebook](http://www.national-geographic.cz/detail/proc-si-hloupilide-mysli-ze-jsou-nejchytrejsi-vlastni-neobjektivita-je-potvrzena-vedci-39473/#.UWP-oOje_H1.facebook)>
52. Gimson, A. Ch. (2008). *Gimson's Pronunciation of English*. London: Arnold.
53. Hancock, M. (2007). *English Pronunciation In Use: Elementary*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
54. Hancock, M. (2003). *English Pronunciation In Use: Intermediate*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
55. Heineberg, Martin. "FAQ's: The English Language". British Council, 11 Mar. 2013. Web. 12 Mar. 2013.)
56. Krashen, S. (1985). The Input Hypothesis. London: Longman.
57. Madden (Eds.), Input and Second Language Acquisition (pp. 235-253).
58. Kenworthy, J. (1987). Teaching English Pronunciation. Harlow: Longman
59. Lane, L. (2010). Tips for Teaching Pronunciation: A Practical Approach. York: Long-man
60. Jones, D. (1992). *The Pronunciation of English*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press