ARMY POLITHECNIC SCHOOL

Project presented to:

DEPARTMENT OF LANGUAGES

APPLIED LINGUISTICS ENGLISH PROGRAM

"INFLUENCE OF THE ARTICULATION OF SPANISH SOUNDS IN THE PRODUCTION OF THE ENGLISH SOUNDS OF THE EFL PROCESS IN THE HERMANO MIGUEL PRIVATE HIGH SCHOOL OF LATACUNGA CITY AND A WORKBOOK WITH PRACTICAL EXERCISES"

BY

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QUITO, February - 2007

CERTIFICATION

We, MSc. Daniel Herrera Director and MSc. Renán Pérez, Co-Director, duly certify that the thesis under the title: INFLUENCE OF THE ARTICULATION OF SPANISH SOUNDS IN THE PRODUCTION OF THE ENGLISH SOUNDS OF THE EFL PROCESS IN THE HERMANO MIGUEL PRIVATE HIGH SCHOOL OF LATACUNGA CITY AND A WORKBOOK WITH PRACTICAL EXERCISES, has been reviewed and analysed, it has been found worth to be orally sustained.

Quito, February 2007.

MSc. Daniel Herrera   MSc. Rénan Pérez

Director   Co-Director

DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my husband and children, who are the most important in my life, especially my husband who has been my friend, my guide and support throughout the development of this project.

Marisol

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I want to thank to MSc. Daniel Herrera, Thesis Director and MSc. Renán Pérez, Co-Director, for their guidance on this project, because without their time and cooperation this work would not have been possible.

Marisol

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INTRODUCTION

Pronunciation is an important component of language as grammar and vocabulary. Teaching of pronunciation in a systematic way has been ignored for a long time. Non-native speakers often fail to produce the accurate pronunciation at word level that requires the appropriate articulation of the elements that are part of the system that generates sounds. It is important for non-native speakers to produce the sounds accurately and consistently. The correct articulation produces the important sounds of words of a phrase or sentence and has a profound effect on how easily people understand each other. A non-native speaker often has problems to catch and produce an adequate articulation and the correct sounds.

In most of the places of our country, and in this case Latacunga and specially Hermano Miguel School, the influence of Spanish in English is of remarkable consideration. Much of the pronunciation of the people use the forms that are used in Spanish, including those forms of pronunciation that is a characteristic of the people where they live or where they are from. Most of the people who teach English do not consider this situation that have to be considered for having better results in the English pronunciation.

This work is directed to help the studies of the understanding for acquiring the basic elements of English language pronunciation articulation and gives some helping for making this in a better way.

In Chapter I, there is a description of the situational frames. Here is established the problem setting, the problem formulation, the main problem, the secondary problem, the justification, the feasibility, the objectives and the hypothesis.

Chapter II, emphasize about the generalities of the production of English sounds and it makes a comparison in the production of the Spanish sounds. In this chapter there is a study about the problems that influences in the production of different sounds.

Chapter III, emphasize about the methodological design. It presents the results of the questionnaires that were applied to the teachers and the students of the "Hermano Miguel" school. The results are presented considering comments that are produced for the person that makes this investigation. This is a descriptive

and observational research methodology which is used most effectively within the educational setting. Descriptive research is valuable because it allows for the human element of research.

Chapter IV refers to conclusions and recommendations that are gathered from this work. It will be valuable that the recommendations that are expressed in this work can be translated to the teachers and students of the "Hermano Miguel" School.

In the annexes of this work it is included the questionnaires that were applied to teachers and students. The workbook that states the results and recommendations of this work, it is also presented in the annexes.

CHAPTER I: SITUATIONAL FRAME

1.1 PROBLEM SETTING

EFL teachers are realizing more and more that pronunciation is just as an important component of language as grammar and vocabulary and that the teaching of pronunciation in a systematic way has been ignored for a long time.

Non-native speakers often fail to express their emotion by raising or lowering intonation or sentence pitch. On the contrary, native speaker of English use a great deal of intonation to highlight the information they want to stress. Therefore, it is very important for non-native speaker to understand and acquire this language feature.

Accurate pronunciation at word level requires the appropriate articulation of the elements that are part of the system that generates sounds. It is important for non-native speakers to produce the sounds accurately and consistently. The correct articulation produces the important sounds of words of a phrase or sentence and has a profound effect on how easily people understand each other. A non-native speaker often has problems to catch and produce an adequate articulation and the correct sounds.

In most of the places of our country, and in this case Latacunga and specially Hermano Miguel School, the influence of Spanish in English is of remarkable consideration. Much of the pronunciation of the people use the forms that are used in Spanish, including those form of pronunciation that are a characteristic of the people where they live or where they are from. Much of the people who teach English do not consider this situation that has to be to considered for having better results in the English pronunciation.

This work aims at helping to study the understanding for acquiring the basic elements of English language pronunciation articulation and gives some helps for making this in a better way.

1.2 PROBLEM FORMULATION

Latacunga, one of the cities of the Central Region of Ecuador, has a lot of Schools, where, in most of them, English is taught as a foreign language. The private School "Hermano Miguel" is the one with problems related with pronunciation of the students that learn this language.

One of the problems related with the English learning is pronunciation when people have to speak, they are not understood. Teachers of English do not know what the problems of pronunciation are, and at the same time, students do not know where they are failing.

The Non-native speakers who have to learn the English language and have exercise pronunciation, are told what they can't do, not what they can. This work tries to focusing and determining the problems of pronunciation and the way to correct them.

How does the articulation of sounds of the native language influence in the pronunciation of some words of the English language?

In the Private School Hermano Miguel by making observation of the real situation in the place where I am working now, the problem is that the students include forms of speaking Spanish for the people of this section in their pronunciation, making that phonemes sound very differently from those that people who speak English have to do.

With the results of this investigation, I think they can be used as a guide for trying to correct those problems that means the influence of the way of speaking in the Hermano Miguel School.

This research is based on the premise that student performance is variable and that assessment and instruction must be planned and modified to meet the necessities and levels of students, taking into account the problems that people of this school presents for the English pronunciation.

1.2.1 MAIN PROBLEM

The students of Hermano Miguel Private High School, produce English language with a pronunciation that is influenced by the Spanish sounds

and influenced by the people that live in Latacunga or those places near it. The teachers teach EFL students to improve the pronunciation of the English language and to reduce error patterns which interfere with intelligibility. The teachers make efforts using the knowledge they have that in some cases is deficient.

When someone who speaks English listens to students of Hermano Miguel School, he or she can't understand some of the words that student is trying to say and the message isn't understood. This is because the articulation of sounds in Spanish influences in the pronunciation of sound words in English.

1.2.2 SECONDARY PROBLEMS

- The error patterns in pronunciation for Hermano Miguel students must be predictable and formal evaluation is not adequate.

- The Hermano Miguel students can't produce adequate sounds with minimal auditory stimulation and explanation.

- The Hermano Miguel students don't know the rules that exist for providing tangible information.

- The Phonetic placement and anatomical explanations are not used as a method for teaching English pronunciation.

- Intervention does not focus on articulation.

1.3 JUSTIFICATION

An implantation of English pronunciation improvement methodology is important for student/instructor interaction. EFL students keep their cultural heritage and must be assured that reducing their "accents" or bettering their English pronunciation abilities is not the losing of one's culture, but the improvement of a skill.

At the same time, EFL students are often self-conscious and frustrated about their accented speech and require continual encouragement. We must provide a supporting, reinforcing, and risk free environment and exhibit a strong sense

of humor. It is necessary to know where are the pronunciation problems for the student and for the teacher, making that this knowledge be applied in English teaching for getting better results and a better English pronunciation.

Because this research tries to help to teachers and students to make improvement in pronunciation determining what are the problems of the EFL students of the private schools Hermano Miguel in Latacunga, this justifies what it is intended to do with this work.

Another reason for justifying this work is that there are not similar studies in this city about it, and with the research that I am going to do; it will be the first step to beginning with similar jobs.

1.4 FEASIBILITY

These work that it is trying to do as a project of thesis, it is possible to make it due to there is the enough knowledge to develop it, it counts with the necessaries human and material resources that are required to do this job also there are the students in which the work will be developed and at the final the students will be the beneficiaries.

1.5 GENERAL OBJECTIVE

To make an alternative methodological proposal for the students to improve their pronunciation with the target sounds in Hermano Miguel High School.

1.6 SPECIFIC OBJECTIVE

- To make a diagnostic of pronunciation problems of consonants on the students of Hermano Miguel High School

- To get problems from the teachers some information about pronunciation.

- To make the methodological proposal to improve pronunciation of English learners in students of Hermano Miguel School in Latacunga City.

1.7 HYPHOTESIS FORMULATION

1.7.1 GENERAL HYPOTHESIS:

Spanish sounds affects in the articulation of some target sounds of the English language.

1.7.2 PARTICULAR HYPOTHESIS:

The teachers must be aware about the specific linguistic reasons for their difficulty in learning English phonological rules for pronunciation. There are linguistic reasons for student's English pronunciation problems. There are the difficulties in achieving correct production. There are methods that make an effective learning of pronunciation viable.

1.8 VARIABLE OPERATION

Dependent variable: The articulation of English sounds, the student's English pronunciation problems, the correct production, the effective learning of pronunciation.

Independent variable: The articulation of some Spanish sounds, the linguistic reasons, the difficulties in achieving correct production, the methods that make an effective learning.

CHAPTER II: THEORETICAL FRAME

2.1 ANTECEDENTS

One of the problems related with the English learning is the pronunciation when people of our country have to talk, they are not understood. Teachers of English do not know what the problems of pronunciation are, and at the same time, students do not know where they are failing.

The Non-native speakers who have to learn the English language and have exercise pronunciation, are told what they can't do, not what they can. This work tries to focusing on determining the problems of pronunciation and the way to correct them.

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With the results of this investigation, I think they can be used as a guide for trying to correct those problems that means the influence of the form of speaking in the Hermano Miguel School.

This research is based on the premise that student performance is variable and that assessment and instruction must be planned and modified to meet the necessities and levels of students, taking into account the problems that people of this school presents for the English pronunciation.

2.2 THEORETICAL AND CONCEPTUAL FOUNDATION

2.2.1 GENERALITIES OF PRONUNCIATION

It's easy to take the ability to speak for granted, but producing fluent speech without errors (speech that flows smoothly and is easily understood) is actually

a highly complicated process. When we speak, we must coordinate many muscles from various body parts and systems, including the larynx, which contains the vocal cords; the teeth, lips, tongue, and mouth; and the respiratory system[1].

Normal speech may seem effortless, but it requires precise timing, nerve, and muscle control. The ability to understand language and produce speech is coordinated by the brain. So a person with brain damage from an accident, stroke, or birth defect may have speech and language problems. "Articulation" is the production of speech sounds. Intelligibility is a measure of how well speech can be understood. Articulation refers to the actual speech sounds that make up words (i.e. "s, l, r"..), as well as how the sounds are put together to produce syllables, words, and sentences. Sometimes a person does not make speech sounds correctly due to incorrect placement or movement of the articulators (tongue, jaw, lips, velum). Articulation is the process by which sounds, syllables, and words are formed when your tongue, jaw, teeth, lips, and palate alter the air stream coming from the vocal folds[2].

"Phonology" is the science of speech sounds and sound patterns. Every language has rules about how sounds can be combined. If a person does not use the conventional rules for his/her language but develops their own, they may have a "phonological disorder". In this case, classes of sounds, rather than single sounds are affected.

Sounds can be classified in three ways: where in the mouth they are produced (place), how they are produced (manner), and whether the voice box is on or off (voice). A "phonological process" is an unusual rule that is being used and changes the place, manner, or voice of a group of sounds. Some phonological processes are: fronting, backing, gliding, cluster reduction, devoicing, stopping[3].

2.2.1.1 INCORRECT SOUNDS

There are many possible reasons why a person could be making incorrect sounds for his/her age. A person has an articulation problem when he or she

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[1] kidshealth.org/teen/diseases_conditions/ sight/speech_disorders.html
[2] www.onlineceus.com/resources/pages/ Speech_-_Language__Pathology/Articulation_and_Phonology/
[3] home.ica.net/~fred/anch10-2.htm

produces sounds syllables or words incorrectly. The listeners do not understand what is being said or pay more attention to the way the words sound than to what they mean. Most errors fall into one of three categories- omissions, substitutions, or distortions. An example of an omission is "at" for "hat" or "oo" for "shoe." An example of a substitution is the use of "w" for "r." which makes "rabbit" sound like "wabbit," or the substitution of "th" for "s" so that "sun" is pronounced "thun." When the sound is said inaccurately, but sounds something like the intended sound, it is called a distortion.

When you consider the possible impact an articulation problem may have on one's social, emotional, educational, and/or vocational status, the answer becomes obvious. Our speech is an important part of us. The quality of our lives is affected by the adequacy of our speech. In multi-cultural countries, the assessment and treatment of articulation/phonological disorders becomes more interesting. Not all languages have the same rules for combining sounds, nor do all languages have the same sounds. A person who is learning English as a second language must also learn a new sound system. They may have perfect articulation in their native language and are making errors in English only because they haven't yet learned all the new rules.

2.2.1.2 BILINGUAL EFFORTS

In order for any person to become bilingual, it is important that he or she receive meaningful exposure to two languages. For many hearing children, this happens naturally when there are two languages necessary for the child to negotiate his or her environment. However, for most bilingual children, a determined strategy must be implemented to provide full access to at least one language, or the child may be in danger of not fully developing either language. A number of different strategies can be employed, including designating specific people to use each language, setting specific times that each language is used, using one language in the home and one outside the home, or using both languages interchangeably.

2.2.2 THE SYSTEM OF GENERATING SOUNDS

The process of generating sounds begins when a speaker generates a message in his o her mind and he or she wants to transmit using the voice to another that is listening.

Figure 2.1 presents this process. The person that is generating the message is in the left side, while that who is listening is in the right side. When the message is present, is necessary to take this to a specific language that is formed of a set of phonemes that belongs to sounds that are part of words and that will be defined in accordance of the language in what the transmitter is in use. Taking care about the characteristics that we want to give to this message, it will have special forms related with the duration of the message, loud, rhythm, etc.

For phonemes becomes sounds, the transmitter must make a series of muscular actions that are controlled by the nervous system, that will result in vibration of the vocal chords, defining a position for all the sound production of the human system, producing what he or she wants to express. The orders that let the sound generation, must control the position of the all the elements of the system, as for example the position of the lips, tongue, chin, etc. [4]
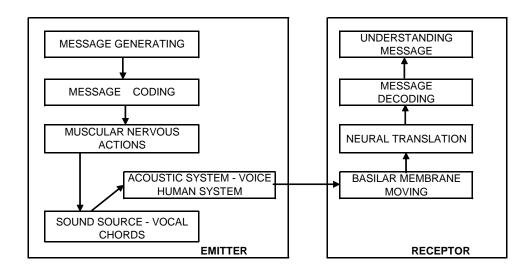

Figure 2.1: Voice production – perception system.

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[4] RABINER L. JUANG B.: Fundamental of Speech recognition. Prentice Hall New Jersey 1993

Another way for understanding the process of generating and receiving the voice is presented in figure 2.1. In this figure, we can see the different states of the process. For sending a message from the emitter to the receptor, is necessary the use of a communication channel and for sending the message, it can be used any technique of coding that is able to use.

VOICE GENERATION

| MESSAGE GENERATION | → | MESSAGE CODING | NEURO - MUSCULAR CONTROL | VOCAL SYSTEM | → |
| | | | | | COMMUNICATION CHANNEL |

VOICE RECOGNITION

| UNDERSTANDING MESSAGE | ← | MESSAGE TRANSLATION | NEURAL TRANSLATION | BASILAR MEMBRANA MOVEMENT | ← |
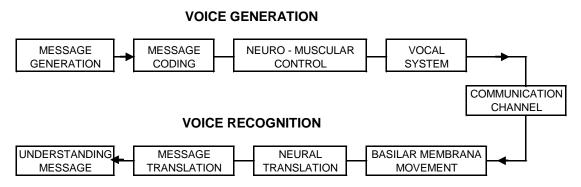
Figure 2.2: Another representation of voice generating and recognition

The words aren't produced in a separated way and the system can't have abrupt variations and must obey to slow variation. The message that is produced by the voice generating system will have characteristics that make of them a group.

2.2.2.1 GENERATING SOUNDS IN THE VOCAL SYSTEM

The generating is made by air that flows from the lungs to the mouth or nose. It is made different kind of sounds depending of the changing of the flow produced by the alteration of it for some part of the system, especially those that are members of the mouth. Other sounds are produced by the effect of the position of the lips or tongue that also changes the air flow [5].

Figure 2.3 identify those elements of the human body that their position results in sound generation. The parts that have mobility, as for example the lower lip, the lower teeth and the lower jaw, are known as articulators. The parts of the human body that are related with the sound generation and don't have movement are called "articulating places". When sound is generating, the

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[5] Barnwell T. – Nayebi K. – Richardson C., Speech Coding, John Wiley & sons, New York, 1996.

moving parts are directed to the non moving parts, determining the changing of the air flow in different ways[6] .
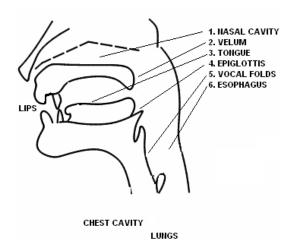
Figure 2.3: Vocal system elements

2.2.3. SPELLING AND PRONUNCIATION

It is necessary to make a distinction between the sounds of English and the spelling of English. The English spelling system often fails to represent the sounds of English in a straightforward manner. In other words, there is often no one to one correspondence between the sounds that we heard and the letters we see on a page.

It is possible for the combination of letters to represent only one sound. At the same time, it is possible for no sound to be represented by a particular letter.

After this examination of the English spelling system, we can begin to understand what led to George Bernard Shaw to suggest that the English spelling system could be used to spell the same words in different ways. Shaw's suggested spelling, at first glance, might seem quite ridiculous; however, it illustrates clearly the way in which a particular sound in English can be spelled in quite different ways.[7]

The lack of sound spelling correspondence as indicated in the paragraphs below, should no be taken to mean that there are not sound – spelling

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[6] Avery P. – Ehrlich S., "Teaching American English pronunciation", Oxford University Press, Boston, 1992.
[7] Avery P. – Ehrlich S., "Teaching American English pronunciation", Oxford University Press, Boston, 1992.pag. 6.

regularities in English. In fact, many of the consonant letters displays a consistent relationship to the sounds they represent.

Other consonant letters are also consistent in their pronunciation, but may appear in combination with another letter giving them a different pronunciation. The pronunciation of still another consonant letters can be predicted on the basis of their combination with vowel letters. The range of pronunciation of consonants letters is somewhat more predictable than the pronunciation of vowel letters. This is because there are many more vowel sounds in English than vowel letters in the Roman alphabet and because historical changes in the pronunciation of English have affected vowel sounds much more than consonants sounds. It is often the case that English spelling represents pronunciations that are now obsolete.

2.2.3.1 THE PHONETIC ALPHABET

Phonetic alphabets are designed (and necessary) for writing down utterances in a way that records how they sounded. Ideally, someone who never heard the original utterance should be able to recreate it simply by reading the written transcription out loud. More importantly, English spelling conventions are not consistent enough to be used in a systematic phonetic transcription.

The writer of a phonetic transcription facing a particular sound would have to choose between a numbers of different possible symbols. The reader of a phonetic transcription facing a given symbol could never be sure of what sound it was intended to represent. There would be problems even if there were some consistency in how a symbol was used. Tables 2.1, 2.2 and 2.3 presents the phonetic symbols chart.

Table 2.1: Phonetic chart symbol for consonants[8]

/p/	pen	/pen/	/b/	bet	/bet/	/h/	how	/haʊ/
/t/	ten	/ten/	/d/	den	/den/	/l/	leg	/leg/
/k/	cat	/kaet/	/g/	got	/gɒt/	/r/	red	/red/
/f/	fall	/fɔːl/	/v/	vet	/vet/	/w/	wet	/wet/
/s/	s	/səʊ/	/z/	zoo	/zuː/	/m/	man	/maen/
/θ/	think	/θɪŋk/	/ð/	this	/ðɪs/	/n/	no	/nəʊ/
/ʃ/	shirt	/ʃɜːt/	/ʒ/	vision	/vɪʒən/	/ŋ/	sing	/sɪŋ/
/tʃ/	chin	/tʃɪn/	/dʒ/	gin	/dʒɪn/	/j/	young	/jʌŋ/

Table 2.2: Phonetic chart symbol for vowels

/ɪ/	bit	/bɪt/	/ɔː/	saw	/sɔː/
/iː/	see	/siː/	/ɒ/	got	/gɒt/
/uː/	too	/tuː/	/e/	ten	/ten/
/ʊ/	put	/pʊt/	/ae/	pan	/paen/
/ə/	ago	/əˈgəʊ/	/ɑː/	father	/fɑːðə/
/ɜː/	shirt	/ʃɜːt/	/ʌ/	cup	/kʌp/

Table 2.3: Phonetic chart symbol for diphthongs

/eɪ/	page	/peidʒ/	/eə/	hair	/heə/
/ɪə/	near	/nɪə/	/aʊ/	now	/naʊ/
/əʊ/	so	/səʊ/	/ɔɪ/	join	/dʒɔɪn/
/aɪ/	five	/faɪv/	/ʊə/	pure	/pjʊə/

2.2.4. STRESS, RHYTHM AND INTONATION

English is a stress–timed language. In a stress–timed language, there is a tendency for stressed syllables to occur at regular intervals. The amount of time it takes to say a sentence is a stress-timed language depends on the number of syllables that receive stress, either major or minor, not on the total number of syllables. Unlike English, many languages of the world are syllable-timed. This mean that the amount of time required to say a sentence depends on the

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[8] http://www3.telus.net/linguisticsissues/chart.pdf

number of syllables, not on the number of stresses. The unstressed words are greatly reduced in comparison to the stressed ones[9].

When one approaches a new language like the Spanish with the intention of learning how to speak it, the first thing he notices and the last thing he masters is the inflection of the voice: the complex rise and fall, the rhythm, the lilt, the various kind of signal that marks what is emphasized, what parts are joined together, what parts are explicitly disjoined. No utterance can be made in either language without his carrying an intonation pattern, the components of which are "stress", that means the relative relation of prominence between syllables, "pitch", the highness or lowness of tone and the terminal junctures, that are certain features which signal the phrasing in speech.[10]

The flow of speech in any language is broken by pauses, that is to say short or long periods of silence, which usually comes at the ends of whole utterances or at the end of large parts of utterances such as sentences, clauses, and the like. Immediately before such pauses there are often special features of pronunciation, such as slight drawling of a vowel or a certain kind of change in pitch, which themselves signal the presence of the boundary just as much as the pause does. In fact, speakers, often do not make any appreciable pause at all at these important boundaries, but use only the other signaling feature we have mentioned[11].

These features, wherever they occur, are the terminal junctures, and the stretch of speech between the beginning of an utterance and the first terminal juncture or between two terminals junctures is called a phrase.The concept of a phrase in Spanish and English pronunciation is of considerable importance because most of the overriding phenomena of stress, pitch and rhythm in these languages operates in terms of phrases and are best described relative to phrases.

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[9] Avery P. – Ehrlich S., "Teaching American English pronunciation", Oxford University Press, Boston, 1992. pag.73.
[10] Stockwell P. – Bowen D.: "The sounds of English and Spanish". The University of Chicago Press. Chicago, 1998. pages 19-20.
[11] Bradd C. – Bruder M.: "Teaching English as a second language". Little, Brown and Company. Boston 1997. page 113.

2.2.4.1 STRESS

The ability to identify tonic stress in an English utterance is quite important in order to grasp the true force of the message. Depending on where it occurs, the utterance reflects emphasis, contrast and opposition, and new information. Individual utterances are not good enough for testing purposes because they are not contextualised and sufficient to motivate the testees. Therefore, an appropriate context, e.g. a dialogue, should be drawn[12].

In English, we do not say each syllable with the same force or strength. In one word, we accentuate one syllable. We say one syllable very loudly (big, strong, important) and all the other syllables very quietly.

The syllables that are not stressed are 'weak' or 'small' or 'quiet'. Native speakers of English listen for the STRESSED syllables, not the weak syllables. There are two very important rules about word stress:

a. One word, one stress. (One word cannot have two stresses. So if you hear two stresses, you have heard two words, not one word.)

b. The stress is always on a vowel

Word stress is the magic key to understanding spoken English. Native speakers of English use word stress naturally. Word stress is so natural for them that they don't even know they use it. Non-native speakers who speak English to native speakers without using word stress, encounter two problems:

a. They find it difficult to understand native speakers, especially those speaking fast.

b. The native speakers may find it difficult to understand them[13]

2.2.4.2 RHYTHM

Rhythm, actually, is timing patterns among syllables. However, the timing patterns are not the same in all languages. There are, particularly, two opposite types of rhythm in languages: stress-timed and syllable-timed. According to

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[12] http://iteslj.org/Techniques/Celik-EnglishSpeech.html

[13] http://www.englishclub.com/pronunciation/word-stress.htm

Mackay (1985), stress-timed rhythm is determined by stressed syllables, which occur at regular intervals of time, with an uneven and changing number of unstressed syllables between them; syllable-timed rhythm is based on the total number of syllables since each syllable takes approximately the same amount of time. English, with an alternation of stressed and unstressed syllables, is obviously stress-timed, while Spanish, with nearly equal weight and time in all syllables, is syllable-timed. These two languages, therefore, are very different in rhythm[14].

English words can be composed of one or more syllables. In all words of two or more syllables, one syllable (stressed syllable) is stronger than the others (unstressed syllables) in the same word. A stressed syllable is louder, longer, clearer, and higher pitched than unstressed syllables. Thus, the combination of stressed and unstressed syllables helps to create the word rhythm in English, which displays an alternate change in strength, length, and pitch of syllables. A common problem that the students have with English word rhythm is that they tend to give each syllable almost the same strength, length, and pitch.

2.2.4.3 INTONATION

Pitch is defined as the relative height of speech sounds as perceived by a listener and is what we are hearing when we refer to a voice being "high" or "low". The varying pitch levels throughout an utterance form what we hear as intonation: the "falling" or "rising" of the voice (Cruttenden, 1986: 4)[15]. Prominence is what we hear when a word "stands out" from those around it.

The primary physiological cause of both pitch and prominence in speech is the varying rate of vibration of the vocal folds, the acoustic correlate of which is fundamental frequency (F0). The correlation between pitch and fundamental frequency is non-linear: the frequency difference between two tones necessary for listeners to judge that the higher tone is twice as high as the other is much greater at high absolute frequencies than at low. However, as F0 frequencies are relatively low, that is, below 500Hz. pitch can for practical purposes be

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[14] http://chifenchen.tripod.com/papers/paper-2.html
[15] http://iteslj.org/Articles/Stibbard-Intonation/

equated with F0 (Cruttenden 1986: 4) and indeed the vertical axis of the CSL-Pitch display is labelled "Pitch".

Other factors are involved in prominence and intonation, including duration and loudness, loudness being the (again, non-linear) perceptual correlate of the acoustic feature amplitude. While these factors are relevant, they are generally recognised to be secondary in importance to fundamental frequency (Cruttenden, 1986: 2). Although the CSL-Pitch is capable of displaying energy levels and information on a number of other parameters, these were therefore not the focus of the project and with the occasional exception of duration where this was an important factor, were not discussed

Not all rises and falls in pitch that occur in the course of an English phrase can be attributed to stress. The same set of segments and word stresses can occur with a number of pitch patterns. The rise and fall of pitch throughout is called its intonation contour. English has a number of intonation patterns which add conventionalized meanings to the utterance: question, statement, surprise, disbelief, sarcasm, teasing. An important feature of English intonation is the use of an intonational accent (and extra stress) to mark the focus of a sentence. Normally this focus accent goes on the last major word of the sentence, but it can come earlier in order to emphasize one of the earlier words or to contrast it with something else[16]

2.3. FACTORS INVOLVED IN PRONUNCIATION DIFFICULTIES

While only a minority of the world's learners acquire language in an environment that is 'monolingual', most studies in language acquisition have reflected the essentially monolingual view of society and socialization that informs western science[17].

Researchers have thus tended to assume – however tacitly – a large measure of isomorphy between linguistic, political and cultural communities: such categorical distinctions are reflected in the terms 'L1', 'L2' and so on. In the western world inhabited by most authors of published research the 'L1' and the

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[16] http://www.umanitoba.ca/faculties/arts/linguistics/russell/138/sec3/inton.htm
[17] Garcia Mayo, Maria del Pilar (Editor). Age and the Acquisition of English As a Foreign Language.Clevedon, , GBR: Multilingual Matters Limited, 2003. p 23.

'L2' are not difficult to keep distinct because of their codification as 'standards'. By contrast, in the many societies where language blends are abundant and mother-tongues lack the norms that explicitly define western standard languages, it is often far from clear how to identify what 'language' is being spoken at any particular moment. Arguing that the standard approaches to modeling phonological acquisition fall short because (1) they address single languages as closed systems and (2) they exclude from consideration non-phonetic factors – lexical and pragmatic, for instance – which may be relevant to the acquisition process. Moreover, the very notion of a determinate target system against which transitional forms can be evaluated, while central to many acquisition studies, the phonology of a language variety is a composite of individual phonologies in which the shared structure inevitably has indeterminacies, fuzzy boundaries, and both dialectal and idiosyncratic variation.

Under the hegemony of the monolingual world view the patterns and complexities of multilinguals' language behaviour are marginalised. The multiple language development of the many whose lives belie the 'monolingual' model tend to be considered as the final challenge to any theory of language acquisition. Yet the very complexity of 'multilingual' development can also be seen as an invitation to theoretical reappraisal and as the default case which we should address first.

Following the monolingual perspective it may be thought that speakers with two or more languages develop and maintain a separate phonological system for each language. Yet although there has been comparatively little longitudinal research on multilingual phonological acquisition, there is evidence that in the process of multiple acquisitions the several languages may interact, so that the acquisition of each is qualitatively different from that of the monolingual speaker.

Laeufer shows from a variety of recent acoustic– phonetic studies that a third possibility is a 'super-subordinate' system, in which bilinguals have native-like values for one language and values which are very similar for the other language as well. Such a typology could obviously also be applied to speakers of more than two languages.

In the following, it will be use L1 to denote the language acquired earliest, and L2 as a generic term to refer to any language acquired subsequently. Consistent with the L1/ L2 distinction is the notional difference between (naturalistic) acquisition and learning (which can involve explicit study and/ or instruction): It will not attempt a consistent and sharp distinction.

2.3.1 SPEECH PERCEPTION, SPEECH PRODUCTION AND THEIR INTERACTION

In the broadest terms, we may conceive of phonological competence as 'a system of knowledge that includes both representations and processes'. Acquiring phonological competence in another language after the establishment of the mother-tongue can be seen as involving the perceptual phonetic processes and the perceptual reorganization of phonological categories', together with reprogramming at the level of motor commands until 'the production of an L2 sound eventually corresponds to the properties present in its phonetic category representation'. How acquirers progress in either case towards competence, and how along the way their perceptual and productive phonological learning interrelate, remain the central questions for investigation.

The core problem in speech perception is to explain how the listener maps acoustically varying productions onto constant phonetic categories. Much research on the perceptual categorization of speech sounds has gone into exploring the boundaries 'between' phonetic categories. In the child, it is not only the language of their environment that learner perceive in terms of phonetic category boundaries but unknown languages as well. In adults, by contrast, these perceptual category boundaries are sharp for known but not for unknown languages: confronted with speech in an unknown language, adult listeners tend to map it into the segment categories of their L1.

An alternative paradigm in speech perception research concentrates not on the boundaries between phonetic categories but their internal organization and the hypothetical ideal exemplar on the basis of which listeners differentiate between 'good' and less good exemplars of the categories suggestion is that a phonetic prototype assimilates non-prototypical members of the same category, as if it

were shrinking the acoustic– phonetic space towards it. For L2 learners, there is a Native-Language Magnet (NLM) effect: prototypes of the L1 constrain adult learners' abilities to perceive contrasts in the L2 by the 'pulls' they exert.

A competent listener is able to find phonetic constancies in the widely varying, idiosyncratic productions of the many different speakers they hear. Learners have to develop talker-independent phonetic representations that will enable them to do this and strategies for calibrating perceptual category dimensions to the norms of each individual talker they encounter.

Speech perception and production are often mutually facilitative. Prople who received training only in the production of new (English) contrasts improved significantly in their ability to discriminate the particular segments concerned. Yet while it is clear from research – as well as common observation – that while speech perception and speech production are interrelated, it is hardly helpful to view production as simply a mirror image of perception.

Other studies provide no clear evidence of any constant interrelation between perception and production but suggest a need for analyses that are developmentally differentiated. What Gerald Neufeld terms the phonological asymmetry between perception and production may also be related to learners' practical communicative goals: learners who are more successful in perceptually detecting segmental errors than in avoiding producing them may, in effect, be 'deprioritizing linguistic levels during production that do not contribute directly to meaning'. Moreover, at the sociolinguistic level of overall 'accent', perception and production may be less interdependent, in that a learner's ability to perceive distinctive phonetic detail in the speech of others may not correlate well with the accuracy of their own phonetic production. Flege (1988) found that the ability of non-natives to judge degree of foreign-accentedness was not simply inversely correlated with their own foreign-accentedness.

2.3.2 CONNECTIVE FACTORS

Many factors were responsible for variation in the language, such as the choice of a register and style appropriate to the circumstances of composition, the

educational level of the writer or speaker, and the area from which he originated. Another was bilingualism or language contact[18].

Adoption of a second language generally leads to changes in the adopted link language, or even in the native language of the speaker, and thus can have profound effects on linguistic change.' The link language may be said to be 'indigenised', as it takes on features in the different regions which may to some extent be due to interference from the first languages of the new speakers. The process of language learning produces changes in the language learnt, and these changes in some cases constitute regionalisms.

Various things are axiomatic in the study of second-language acquisition. First, the target language will be subject to modification. Secondly, not all modifications can be straightforwardly explained as due to interference from the first language of the learner. Thirdly, modifications may be 'relatively short-lived or limited to individual learners'. Fourthly, different learners show different modifications. Finally, 'in cases where the second language serves as a link language and is used in that capacity over an extended period, there is a greater chance that interlanguage phenomena may become a permanent feature can become cumulative and the results tend to become INSTITUTIONALIZED as the linguistic norm of an entire speech community'.

Of these five points, the third and fourth, are the transitory and individual character of a good deal of contact-induced change. Contact-induced change is more realistically identifiable in the microcontext that is in individual speakers or small communities where there is explicit evidence of bilingualism and language contact. It is probably true to say that, in so far as bilingualism has been studied in the ancient world as a determinant of language change.

Learning to acquire the pronunciation habits of a foreign language, however, involves a larger number of new skills, especially recognition skills. In order to hear the new language accurately enough to imitate it, the foreign learner must respond to a whole new sound system. Hearing correctly is not always easy,

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[18] Adams, J. N. Bilingualism and the Latin Language.
West Nyack, NY, USA: Cambridge University Press, 2003. p 425.

and he is handicapped not only by his lack of control of the new sound structure, but by his lack of knowledge of the new language in general[19].

2.3.3 LANGUAGE INFLUENCE

The development of individual bilingualism can be examined within the context of sociolinguistic factors (e. g. cultural beliefs, interactional patterns between the two language groups, and functional uses of the two languages), individual differences (e. g. motivation, personality variables — anxiety, extrovertedness), and learning situations (e. g. formal language training, informal language exposure). Differences in bilingual acquisition are often related to learning conditions[20].

In addition to its communicative (message) and cognitive (intelligence) functions, language has a social function. By this we mean that any utterance carries a social meaning in that it reflects the position of its speaker in the power relations in the society which confers a particular social value to this utterance. It can be said that the whole social structure is present in every language interaction and that every interaction is mapped onto the social structure. Language is not homogeneous any more than society is; variation is inherent in language because language behavior varies along social dimensions (e. g. social class). Languages and varieties of language (accents, dialects, sociolects, codes) have a recognized value on the linguistic market (Bourdieu, 1982) and can be placed on a hierarchical scale according to their distance from the official, legitimate norm.

Power relations between language varieties vary as a function of their speakers' access to the legitimate norm, and any discourse takes its social meaning from its relation to the linguistic market. Variations in discourse (i. e. in language behavior) are a result of the interplay between the objective dynamic forces of

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[19] Brumfit, Christopher J. Teaching English As a Foreign Language.
London, UK: RoutledgeFalmer, 1978. p 49.

[20]Ramirez, Arnulfo G. Bilingualism Through Schooling : Cross-Cultural Education for Minority and Majority Students.
Albany, NY, USA: State University of New York Press, 1985. p 44.

the market and the way in which the individual perceives, evaluates and responds to these forces[21].

Pronunciation behavior is linked to the market not only by its conditions of application (language use) but also by its conditions of acquisition (language acquisition/ learning). The different pronunciation varieties and their values are learned in particular markets, first in the family, then at school, and so on, that is in the individual's social networks. The interpersonal relations in the social networks are, therefore, the locus where the societal level and the individual level meet. The structures of social networks influence the individual's language behaviour: a dense, close-knit, multiplex network is a factor of ingroup solidarity, maintenance of local, non-standard norms, and resistance to pronunciation change; whereas a diffuse, loose and simplex network implies social mobility and is therefore open to code change and the influence of outside norms (Milroy, 1980).

2.3.4 SOCIAL AND EMOTIONAL FACTORS

Language and emotional development, and indeed the development of thinking, depend on the growth of the brain, which quadruples in size during childhood. Any factors which influence the development of the brain could also influence emotional and language development, and of course, the pronunciation.

This rapid growth in the brain, combined with observations about the rate of language learning in childhood, has led to ideas about 'critical periods'. It seemed that the critical period for learning language was before adolescence. In other words, if language hadn't developed in childhood, then it was unlikely to. It is certainly true that young children learn new languages (including sign languages) faster than older children or adults. Language learning does continue into adolescence and probably into adulthood (Nippold 1993)[22].

External influences can affect the way the brain develops. Connections in the developing brain are pruned or strengthened depending on how much they are

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[21] Blanc, Michel. Bilinguality & Bilingualism.
Port Chester, NY, USA: Cambridge University Press, 2000. p 20 - 35.

[22] Cross, Melanie. Children with Emotional and Behavioural Difficulties and Communication Problems.
London, GBR: Jessica Kingsley Publishers, 2004. p 31.

used, so the environment, including early interactions, can therefore affect brain structure and function. Cognitive, or thinking, skills can also influence the development of communication and emotional skills.

Temperament and personality are also relevant; some of us are more inclined to communicate than others, and the way we respond to others will affect their interactions with us. Other cognitive skills, such as memory and processing, are necessary for language and pronunciation development, particularly those which affect the ability to process speech. In order to learn language, it is necessary to be able to attend to language that is heard, to process it and gain meaning from it.

There haven't been many theories that have attempted to explain how language and emotional development could interact. Although language has long been accepted as relevant to thinking and social interaction, the importance of language for emotional functioning has only been acknowledged more recently.

Perhaps the most obvious link between emotion and language is that language is important for expressing and regulating internal states. Although we can think non-verbally, we tend to think about how we feel and share our feelings in words (Dale 1996). Some evidence for this comes from Bloom and Beckwith (1989), who considered the integration of language and emotion. Their observations suggest that the rate of a child's language development is strongly influenced by the child's emotional state.

Greenberg et al. (1995) have suggested a model of integration between emotional and language development. Initially, a baby's needs and emotions are directly expressed through behaviour and it is not until about the age of three that, as language develops, there is some symbolic mediation between the feeling and the behaviour. In other words, language can provide a moment of contemplation between the experience of an emotion and its expression. At this stage, the child can recognize and label basic emotions, and this is the beginning of reflective social planning and problem-solving.

Traditionally, language and emotional development have been studied separately and often by different professionals using incompatible theoretical frameworks. However, language and emotional development occur together

within an individual and they affect each other powerfully. Another important factor to consider is that both language and emotional development can be influenced by the environment, and in particular the relationships between careers and a developing child.

2.3.5 PHYSICAL CAUSES

To be able to identify a learner with a problem, one has to do careful observation. A symptom (medical term) is a sign or signs by which one can see that something is wrong. Some problems are easy to see in the physical appearance of the learner, and difficult or strange behaviour may be a symptom of deeper problems. Learners with problems find it hard to make proper progress in school. The developmental stage of a learner should also be kept in mind, e.g. for a young learner the death of a pet may be extremely traumatic, a new toy waiting at home may lead to distraction of though during school hours. For older learners who are going through puberty and onwards, the bodily changes that take place may make the learner irritable and tired. It is also during this stage that a critical attitude develops because of development of mental processes and the impression is that they are not disciplined or rude, because they dare to differ.

It is important to know what kind of temperament a learner has, because many of the following behaviour can also be connected to temperament. Some learners cannot control their temperamental behaviour, which is made worse by negative experiences, whereas a placid learner may become temperamental when something is wrong.

Memory can be modality specific (i.e. one remembers a picture of something that has been seen before, or one remembers words that one has heard before). It may be short term memory (a few moments ago) or long term (from the past) or just working memory.

Visualization is related to all memories and experiences, e.g. when you close your eyes and "see" or imagine yourself at the seaside, you can actually imagine yourself feeling the breeze and you can imagine you hear the sound of the surf and the taste of the salt water on your lips. Visualization is also

important to form a picture of the situation when you do Math problems and writing essays or read a book.

A physically disabled learner should be treated like any other intelligent learner. There may be nothing wrong with his intellect and they can usually cope with the regular schoolwork.[23]

2.3.6 EDUCATIONAL FACTORS

Prior experiences with pronunciation instruction may influence learners' success with current efforts. Learners at higher language proficiency levels may have developed habitual, systematic pronunciation errors that must be identified and addressed[24].

English education was considered in order to determine the effects of learning English as a Second Language (ESL) or English as a Foreign Language (EFL) (Johnson & Johnson and Richards). ESL refers to "the role of English for immigrant and other minority groups in English-speaking countries" while EFL refers to "the role of English in countries where it is taught as a subject in schools but not used as a medium of instruction in education nor as a language of communication within the country." In addition to these two categories, subjects born in the US were considered native born speakers who have received neither ESL nor EFL instruction. In order to account for the circumstances of the different generation speakers additional categories were considered.[25].

2.3.7 CULTURAL FACTORS

Language acquisition is intimately bound up with language socialization – socialisation to language as well as socialisation through language. Phonological acquisition is patently a social as well as a linguistic undertaking,

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[23] Ministry of Basic Education, Sport and Culture: Compensatory Teaching Facilitators Workshop 2001, General Problems & Directives for Referral. USA

[24] http://www.cal.org/caela/Nnotes81.htm

[25] http://www.ircs.upenn.edu/download/techreports/2001/01-12.pdf

since accent is a defining factor in social identity (Scherer & Giles, 1979). It is also at the social level that language attitudes and most learning motivations are determined; how much the individual acquirer cares about minimising their foreign accent will depend on social convention and personal predispositions. Smit and Dalton-Puffer (1997) found that high intrinsic motivation towards good pronunciation in the foreign language correlated with low anxiety and a high level of 'selfefficacy' (i. e. confident self-awareness), while extrinsic motivation was relatively independent of these other factors[26].

In the target language community is more likely to attain native like or near native pronunciation; a positive attitude does seems to be a prerequisite for high attainment. Acquirers' attitude will, in part, depend on the attitudes of native listeners towards them as non-natives, which are, in part, culturally determined (Cunningham-Anderson, 1997; Eisenstein, 1983) and often include stereotypical judgments.

Sociolinguists examine social and cultural influences on language and pronunciation behavior. Among the most important concepts to emerge are those relating to dialects and language standards. Sociolinguists have documented the presence of dialects in every language. These dialects, all of which are legitimate, are associated with educational, economic, social and historical conditions. To linguists, the word "dialect" refers to a way of speaking a language, and not to an incorrect way of speaking a language.

While all dialects of a given language are linguistically legitimate, some achieve social prestige. In literate, economically developed societies, the dialect spoken by those with the most formal education, the highest socioeconomic status and the greatest degree of political power tends to acquire the greatest social prestige. Typically, it becomes the standard for the culture, for writing and for education.

Standard dialects also provide a medium through which persons from different linguistic backgrounds can communicate with one another. Social and regional variations may exist within standard dialects as long as they conform to specified linguistic rules, largely grammatical in nature. Standard English,

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[26] Garcia Mayo, Maria del Pilar(Editor). Age and the Acquisition of English As a Foreign Language. Clevedon, , GBR: Multilingual Matters Limited, 2003. p 28.

therefore, should not be considered "Northern English" or "White English," since it is spoken, in one form or another, in all parts of the United States and by some members of all racial and cultural groups.

At the other end of the social spectrum, so called nonstandard dialects are generally spoken by the "have nots:" the powerless, the less educated, the less economically well off and the less socially prominent. While legitimate linguistically, these dialects tend to be unacceptable to the "haves" of society.

In American English, nonstandard dialects exist within all racial, ethnic and regional groups. Each dialect is a product of distinct social, historical, cultural and educational factors. All are legitimate in that they represent the concepts, needs and intentions of their speakers.

For a variety of reasons, including negative public attitudes and inadequate teaching models, nonstandard English speakers often do not effectively learn standard English in school. Without competence in standard English, students will fail academically and face diminished career, social and life options. Many students who do learn standard English do so at a great price: devaluation or rejection of their home or community dialect. When competence in standard English is coupled with rejection of one's own home or community dialect, it may lead to serious psychological and identity problems (Chambers, 1983).

In addition to differences in pronunciation, vocabulary and grammatical structures among cultural groups, variations also exist in the rules for general discourse in oral communication, covering such specific acts as narratives and conversation.

IAll definitions of culture agree that language is an important part of culture. There is a consensus that culture is a complex entity which comprises a set of symbolic systems, including knowledge, norms, values, beliefs, language, art and customs, as well as habits and skills learned by individuals as members of a given society. This definition, which was first put forward by Tylor (1873), has been elaborated on by many scholars[27].

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[27] Blanc, Michel. Bilinguality & Bilingualism.
Port Chester, NY, USA: Cambridge University Press, 2000. p 198.

Language is a component of culture along with other entities like, for example, values, beliefs and norms; language is a product of culture, transmitted from one generation to the next in the socialisation process; it also moulds culture, that is to say, our cultural representations are shaped by language. However, unlike other components of culture, language interacts with it in specific ways: for language is a transmitter of culture; furthermore, it is the main tool for the internalisation of culture by the individual.

2.3.8 OTHER FACTORS

Many of us believe that learners have certain characteristics which lead to more or less successful language learning. Such beliefs are usually based on anecdotal evidence, often our own experience or that of individual people we have known. For example, many teachers are convinced that extroverted learners who interact without inhibition in their second language and find many opportunities to practice language skills will be the most successful learners. In addition to personality characteristics, other factors generally considered to be relevant to language learning are intelligence, aptitude, motivation, and attitudes. Another important factor is the age at which learning begins[28].

The term 'intelligence' has traditionally been used to refer to performance on certain kinds of tests. These tests are often associated with success in school, and a link between intelligence and second language learning has sometimes been reported. Over the years, many studies using a variety of intelligence ('IQ') tests and different methods of assessing language learning have found that IQ scores were a good means of predicting how successful a learner would be. Some recent studies have shown that these measures of intelligence may be more strongly related to certain kinds of second language abilities than to others.

There is evidence in the research literature that some individuals have an exceptional 'aptitude' for language learning. Learning quickly is the distinguishing feature of aptitude. The 'aptitude' factor has been investigated

[28] Mercer, Neil(Editor). English Language Teaching in Its Social Context. Florence, KY, USA: Routledge, 2000. p 28.

most intensively by researchers interested in developing tests which can be used to predict whether individuals will be efficient learners of a foreign language in a classroom setting. The most widely used aptitude tests are the Modern Language Aptitude Test (MLAT) and the Pimsleur Language Aptitude Battery (PLAB). Both tests are based on the view that aptitude is composed of different types of abilities.

A number of personality characteristics have been proposed as likely to affect second language learning, but it has not been easy to demonstrate their effects in empirical studies. As with other research investigating the effects of individual characteristics on second language learning, different studies measuring a similar personality trait produce different results. For example, it is often argued that an extroverted person is well suited to language learning. However, research does not always support this conclusion.

Although some studies have found that success in language learning is correlated with learners'scores on characteristics often associated with extroversion such as assertiveness and adventurousness, others have found that many successful language learners do not get high scores on measures of extroversion.

Another aspect of personality which has been studied is inhibition. It has been suggested that inhibition discourages risk-taking which is necessary for progress in language learning. This is often considered to be a particular problem for adolescents, who are more selfconscious than younger learners.

Several other personality characteristics such as self-esteem, empathy, dominance, talkativeness, and responsiveness have also been studied. However, in general, the available research does not show a clearly defined relationship between personality and second language acquisition. And, as indicated earlier, the major difficulty in investigating personality characteristics is that of identification and measurement.[29]

There has been a great deal of research on the role of attitudes and motivation in second language learning. The overall findings show that positive attitudes

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[29] Guiora, A., Beit-Hallahami, B., Brannon, R., Dull, C. and Scovel, T. (1972) 'The effects of experimentally induced changes in ego states on pronunciation ability in a second language: An exploratory study', Comprehensive Psychiatry p. 421.

and motivation are related to success in second language learning (Gardner 1985). Unfortunately, the research cannot indicate precisely how motivation is related to learning.

Motivation in second language learning is a complex phenomenon which can be defined in terms of two factors: learners'communicative needs and their attitudes towards the second language community. If learners need to speak the second language in a wide range of social situations or to fulfill professional ambitions, they will perceive the communicative value of the second language and will therefore be motivated to acquire proficiency in it. Likewise, if learners have favorable attitudes towards the speakers of the language, they will desire more contact with them. Robert Gardner and Wallace Lambert (1972) coined the terms integrative motivation to refer to language learning for personal growth and cultural enrichment, and instrumental motivation for language learning for more immediate or practical goals. Research has shown that these types of motivation are related to success in second language learning.

On the other hand, we should keep in mind that an individual's identity is closely linked with the way he or she speaks. It follows that when speaking a new language one is adopting some of the identity markers of another cultural group. Depending on the learner's attitudes, learning a second language can be a source of enrichment or a source of resentment. If the speaker's only reason for learning the second language is external pressure, internal motivation may be minimal and general attitudes towards learning may be negative.

One factor which often affects motivation is the social dynamic or power relationship between the languages. That is, members of a minority group learning the language of a majority group may have different attitudes and motivation from those of majority group members learning a minority language. Even though it is impossible to predict the exact effect of such societal factors on second language learning, the fact that languages exist in social contexts cannot be overlooked when we seek to understand the variables which affect success in learning. Children as well as adults are sensitive to social dynamics and power relationships.

In a teacher's mind, motivated students are usually those who participate actively in class, express interest in the subject-matter, and study a great deal. Teachers can easily recognize characteristics such as these. They also have more opportunity to influence these characteristics than students' reasons for studying the second language or their attitudes toward the language and its speakers. If we can make our classrooms places where students enjoy coming because the content is interesting and relevant to their age and level of ability, where the learning goals are challenging yet manageable and clear, and where the atmosphere is supportive and non-threatening, we can make a positive contribution to students' motivation to learn.

Clearly, cultural and age differences will determine the most appropriate way for teachers to motivate students. In some classrooms, students may thrive on competitive interaction, while in others, co-operative activities will be more successful.

The relationship between a learner's age and his or her potential for success in second language acquisition is the subject of much lively debate.

It has been widely observed that children from immigrant families eventually speak the language of their new community with native-like fluency, but their parents rarely achieve such high levels of mastery of the spoken language. To be sure, there are cases where adult second language learners have distinguished themselves by their exceptional performance. One explanation for this difference is that, as in first language acquisition, there is a critical period for second language acquisition. The Critical Period Hypothesis suggests that there is a time in human development when the brain is predisposed for success in language learning.

In educational research, it has been reported that learners who began learning a second language at the primary school level did not fare better in the long run than those who began in early adolescence. Furthermore, there are countless anecdotes about older learners (adolescents and adults) who have reached high levels of proficiency in a second language.

Experience and research have shown that native-like mastery of the spoken language is difficult to attain by older learners. Surprisingly, even the ability to

distinguish between grammatical and ungrammatical sentences in a second language appears to be affected by the age factor.

The learner's age is one of the characteristics which determine the way in which an individual approaches second language learning. But the opportunities for learning (both inside and outside the classroom), the motivation to learn, and individual differences in aptitude for language learning are also important determining factors in both rate of learning and eventual success in learning.

Intelligence, aptitude, personality and motivational characteristics, learner preferences, and age have been found to influence second language learning. The study of individual learner variables is not easy and that the results of research are not entirely satisfactory. This is partly because of the lack of clear definitions and methods for the individual characteristics. It is also due to the fact that these learner characteristics are not independent of one another: learner variables interact in complex ways. So far, researchers know very little about the nature of these complex interactions. Thus, it remains difficult to make precise predictions about how a particular individual's characteristics influence his or her success as a language learner.

Nonetheless, in a classroom, a sensitive teacher, who takes learners'individual personalities and learning styles into account, can create a learning environment in which virtually all learners can be successful in learning a second language.

2.4 CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS BETWEEN SPANISH AND ENGLISH ARTICULATORS SOUNDS

2.4.1 PHONEMIC AND PHONETIC CONSONANT CONTRAST

    a. Contrast of English and Spanish Stops
       If /p/, /t/ or /k/ are pronounced at the beginning of a word, a strong puff of breath will be left. It is called aspiration. The puff of air creates a variation of the basic phoneme in English.

If /p/ , /t/ or /k/ are pronounced in the middle or end of a word, that aspiration will not be there. If you say "beak", the aspiration will not happen.

In "Stop", the active articulator touches the passive articulator and completely cuts off the airflow through the mouth. English and Spanish stops include: [p], [b], [t], [d], [k], [g]. The problems are presented in following consonants:

- / b / production

Spanish		English	
/ b /			
1. < b > baraja	/ ba.raxa /	1. < b > crab	/ .kræb /
2. < v > vaca	/ .baka /	2.< bb > rubber	/ .rəbər /

Contrastive presentation

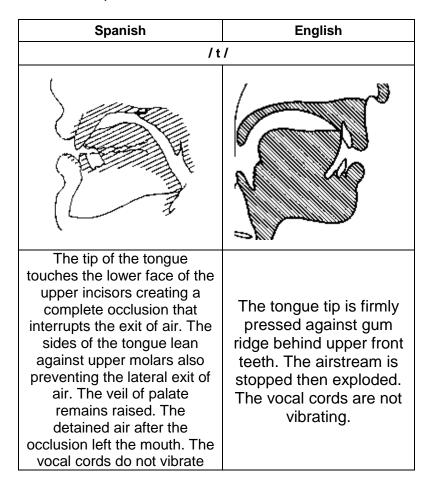| Spanish	English
/ b /	
The lower lip makes contact with the upper lip creating a complete occlusion completes that interrupts the exit of air. The veil of the palate remains raised. The detained air after the occlusion left the mouth when the lips are opened. The vocal cords vibrate	The top lip touches the bottom lip. Air is completely stopped and then released. / b / is voiced.

/ b / phonemic and phonetic features

Spanish			English		
/ b /		**Voiced, bilabial, oral, stop**	**/ b /**		**Voiceless, bilabial, oral, stop**
Allophones	[b]	Voiced, bilabial, oral, stop	Allophones	[-b-]	Voiced, bilabial, oral, stop
	[-b-]	Voiced, bilabial, oral, fricative			

- / t / production

Spanish		English	
/ t /			
1. < t > atender	/ aten.der /	1. < t > pot	/ .pat /
		2.< tt > letter	/ .lɛtər /
		3.< th > Thomas	/ .taməs /

Contrastive presentation

Spanish	English
/ t /	
The tip of the tongue touches the lower face of the upper incisors creating a complete occlusion that interrupts the exit of air. The sides of the tongue lean against upper molars also preventing the lateral exit of air. The veil of palate remains raised. The detained air after the occlusion left the mouth. The vocal cords do not vibrate	The tongue tip is firmly pressed against gum ridge behind upper front teeth. The airstream is stopped then exploded. The vocal cords are not vibrating.

/ t / phonemic and phonetic features

Spanish			English		
/ t /		**Voiceless, apico-dental, oral, stop**	**/ t /**		**Voiceless, bilabial, oral, stop**
Allophones	[t]	Voiceless, apico-dental, oral, stop	Allophones	[tʰ-]	Voiceless, apico alveolar, oral, stop, strongly aspirated
				[-t-]	Voiceless, apico-alveolar, oral, stop, unaspirated
				v[-t-']v	Voiceless, apico-alveolar, flan
				V[-t-]n	Voiceless, glottal, stop, nasal, released
				V[-tⁿ]	Voiceless, apico-nasalized, stop.
				[-t']	Voiceless, apico-alveolar, oral, stop, unreleased
				[-t̄]	Voiceless, apico-alveolar, oral, stop, released

- / d / production

Spanish		English	
/ d /			
1. < d > andar	/ an.dar /	1. < d > date	/ .deyt /
2. < d > ciudad	/ syu.dad /	2. < dd > ladder	/ .lædər /
3. < d > beldad	/ bel.dad /	3.< ld > should	/ .ʃUd /

Contrastive presentation

Spanish	English
/ d /	

The end of the tongue touches the inner face of the superior incisors creating a complete occlusion that interrupts the exit of air. The sides of the tongue lean against upper molars also preventing to the lateral exit of air. The veil of palate remains raised. The detained air after the occlusion left the mouth. The vocal cords vibrate	The tongue tip is firmly pressed against gum ridge behind upper front teeth. The air stream is stopped and then exploded. The vocal cords are vibrating.

/ d / phonemic and phonetic features

Spanish			English		
/ d /		**Voiced, apico-dental, oral, stop**	**/ d /**		**Voiced, apico-alveolar, oral, stop**
Allophones	l/n[d]	Voiced, apico-dental, oral, stop.	Allophones	[d]	Voiced, apico-alveolar, oral, stop.
	r/v[-δ-]v	Voiced, apico-interdental, oral, fricative.		v[-r-]v	Voiced, apico-alveolar, oral, flap.
	[θ]	Voiced, apico-interdental, oral, fricative.			
	[Ø]	Zero allophone		r[-?-]v	Voiceless, glottal, stop, nasal, released.

b. Contrast of English and Spanish fricatives.

The active articulator doesn't touch the passive articulator, but gets close enough that the airflow through the opening becomes turbulent. English fricatives include [f], [v], [θ], [ð], [ʃ], [ʒ], [s], [z] and [h]. Spanish fricatives include [f], [s], and [x]. The principal problems are:

- / v / production

Spanish		English	
/ v /			
1. < v > = < b > vaca	/ .baka /	1. < v > vest	/ .vɛst /
		2.< lv > halve	/ .hæv /

Contrastive presentation

Spanish	English
/ v /	
Does not exist	
	The top teeth are close to the bottom lip. Air flows between the teeth and lip. / v / is voiced

/ v / phonemic and phonetic features

Spanish		English		
			/ v /	**Voiced, labiodental, oral, fricative**
Allophones			Allophones	[v]	Voiced, labiodental, oral, fricative.

- / s / production

Spanish		English	
/ s /			
1. < s > senil	/ se.nil /	1. < s > sent	/ .sɛnt /
2. < z > paz	/ .pas /	2.< ss > class	/ .klæs /
		3. < st > listen	/ .lisən

Contrastive presentation

Spanish	English
/ s /	
The edges of the tongue leans to both sides of the mouth against the gums and the inner face of upper molars. The front of the back of the tongue maintains this contact against the alveoli of the superior incisors leaving an opening by where the air left. The tip of the tongue descends and leans against the lower incisors. The front of the back of the tongue slightly becomes convexo. The veil of the palate remains raised. The vocal cords do not vibrate	The tip of the tongue is close to the gum behind the top teeth. Air flows between the tongue and the gum. / s / is voiceless

/ s / phonemic and phonetic features

Spanish			English		
/ s /		**Voiceless, apico-alveolar, oral, fricative**	**/ s /**		**Voiceless, apico-alveolar, oral, fricative**
Allophones	[s]vl.c	Voiceless, apico-alveolar, oral, fricative.	Allophones	[s]	Voiceless, apico-alveolar, oral, fricative.
	[-s-] t.	Voiceless, apico-dental, oral, fricative.			
	[-z-]vd.c	Voiced, apico-alveolar, oral, fricative.			
	[-z-] d	Voiced, apico-dental, oral, fricative.			
	[h]	Aspirated "s"			
	[Ø]	Zero allophone			

- / z / production

Spanish		English	
/ z /			
1.<z> and <s> = /s/ zona	/ .sona /	1. < z > razor	/ .reyzər /
2. vez	/ .bes /	2.< zz > buzz	/ .bəz /

Spanish	English
/ z /	
Does not exist as phoneme but as allophone of / s /	
	The lip of the tongue is close to the gum behind the top teeth. Air flows between the tongue and the gum. / z / is voiceless

/ z / phonemic and phonetic features

Spanish		English		
		/ z /		**Voiced, apico-alveolar, oral, fricative**
Allophones		Allophones	[z]	Voiced, apico-alveolar, oral, fricative.

- ## / θ / production

Spanish		English	
/ θ /			
1.<θ> happen as an allophone of / d / ciudad	[.sju.ðaθ]	1. < th > thank	/ .θæŋk /

Contrastive presentation

Spanish	English
/ θ /	
Does not exist as phoneme but as allophone of / d /	
	The tip of the tongue is close to the top teeth. Air flows between the tongue and teeth. / □□□□is voiceless.

/ θ / phonemic and phonetic features

Spanish		English		
		/ θ /		**Voiceless, apico-interdental, oral, fricative**
Allophones		Allophones	[θ]	Voiceless, interdental, oral, fricative.

- / ð / production

Spanish		English	
/ ð /			
1.*[ð]* happens as an allophone of */d/* verdad	[ber.ðaθ]	1. < th > that	/ .ðæt /

Contrastive presentation

Spanish	English
/ ð /	
Does not exist as phoneme but as allophone of / d /	
	The tip of the tongue is close to the top teeth. Air flows between the tongue and teeth. / ð / is voiced.

/ ð / phonemic and phonetic features

Spanish		English	**Voiced, apico-interdental, oral, fricative**
		/ ð /	
Allophones		Allophones [ð]	Voiced, apico-interdental, oral, fricative.

- / ʃ / production

Spanish		English	
/ ʃ /			
1.*[ʃ]* does not exist		1. < sh > should	/ .ʃud /
		2. < s > insurance	/ in.ʃurəns /

Contrastive presentation

Spanish	English
/ ʃ /	
Does not exist	
	The middle of the tongues is close to the gum behind the top teeth. Air flows between the tongue and the gum. / ʃ / is voiceless

/ ʃ / phonemic and phonetic features

Spanish		English	
		/ ʃ /	**Voiceless, fronto-palatal, oral, groove, fricative**
Allophones		Allophones [ʃ]	Voiceless, fronto-palatal, oral, groove, fricative.

- / 3 / production

Spanish		English	
/ 3 /			
1. / 3 / does not exist		1. < ge > garage	/ gə'ra3 /
		2. < s > measure	/ .me3ər /

Contrastive presentation

Spanish	English
/ 3 /	
Does not exist	
	The tongue is in the same position as [ʃ]. The airstream is continuous without interruption. Vocal chords are vibrating.

/ 3 / phonemic and phonetic features

Spanish			English		
				/ 3 /	**Voiced, fronto-palatal, oral, groove, fricative**
Allophones			Allophones	[3]	Voiced, fronto-palatal, oral, groove, fricative.

c. Contrast of English and Spanish affricates.

Affricates can be seen as a sequence of a stop and a fricative which have the same or similar places of articulation. They transcribed using the symbols for the stop and the fricative. if one wants to emphasize the affricate as a "single" sound, a tie symbol can be used to join the stop and the fricative (sometimes the fricative is written as a superscript). It is also called affricated stop. English affricates include /tʃ/, /d3/. Spanish affricate only includes /t ʃ/. The principal problems are:

- / t∫ / production

Spanish		English	
/ t∫ /			
1. < ch > mucho	/ .mut∫o /	1. < ch > church	/ .t∫ərt∫ /
		2.< tch > match	/ .mæt∫ /
		3. < t > furniture	/ .fərnɪt∫ər/

Contrastive presentation

Spanish	English
/ t∫ /	
Taking convex form, the tongue rises to make contact with an ample zone of the hard palate. To each side of mouth of this contact the tongue extends from superior molars towards the upper side. The front part of the back of the tongue adheres to the palate and the alveoli, after which the air is retained for a little of time. After the alveolipalatal occlusion, the frontal part of the back of the tongue separates gradually creating narrowness, by where the air escapes producing friction with the vocal organism. The veil of the palate remains raised. The vocal cords do not vibrate	The middle of the tongue is close to the gum behind the top teeth. Air is stopped and then pushed through the space between the tongue and the gum. / t∫ / is voiceless.

/ tʃ / phonemic and phonetic features

Spanish		Voiceless, apico-alveolar lamino fronto-palatal, oral, affricate	English		Voiceless, apico-alveolar lamino fronto-palatal, oral, affricate
/ tʃ /			/ tʃ /		
Allophones	[tʃ]	Voiceless, apico-alveolar lamino fronto-palatal, oral, affricate	Allophones	[tʃ]	Voiceless, apico-alveolar lamino fronto-palatal, oral, affricate.

- / dʒ / production

Spanish		English	
/ dʒ /			
/ dʒ / does not exist		1. < g > legend	/ .lɛdʒənd /
		2.< dg > edge	/ .ɛdʒ /
		3. < di > cordial	/ .kɘrdʒəl /

Contrastive presentation

Spanish	English
/ dʒ /	
Does not exist	
	the middle of the tongue touches the gum behind the top teeth. Air is stopped and then pushed through the space between the tongue and the gum. / dʒ / is voiced.

/ dʒ / phonemic and phonetic features

Spanish			English	
			/ dʒ /	**Voiced, apico-alveolar lamino fronto-palatal, oral, affricate**
Allophones			Allophones	[dʒ]	Voiced, apico-alveolar lamino fronto-palatal, oral, affricate.

d. Contrast of English and Spanish nasals.

The soft palate can be lowered, allowing air to flow out through the nasal cavity. English nasal include [n], [m], and [ŋ]. Spanish nasals include [n], [m], and [ŋ]. The principal problems are:

- / ŋ / production

Spanish		English	
/ ŋ /			
< ŋ > is an allophone of / n /		1. < n > English	/ .iŋgliʃ /
		2.< nge > tongue	/ .təŋ /

Contrastive presentation

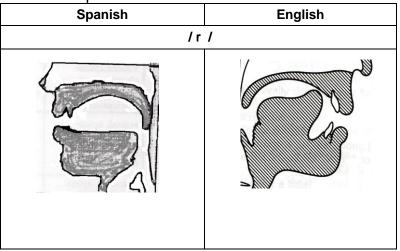| Spanish	English
/ ŋ /	
Does not exist as a phoneme but as allophone of / n /	
	The back of the tongue touches the back of the roof of the mouth. Air is stopped and the flows through the nose. / ŋ / is voiced.

/ ŋ / phonemic and phonetic features

Spanish			English		
			/ ŋ /		**Voiced, dorso-velar, nasal, continuant.**
Allophones			Allophones	[ŋ]	Voiced, dorso-velar, nasal, continuant.
				k_g [-ŋ-]g_k c.	Voiced, dorso-velar, nasal, syllabic.

e. Contrast of English and Spanish R-sounds.

Retroflex sounds are made with tongue tip curled back. The English R-sound certainly counts as an apico-postalveolar and has a legitimate claim on the symbol even without a retracted diacritic. The tongue tip is certainly more curled back for and / r / than for any other sound of English.

Spanish / r / is a tap consonant. English / r / is a retroflex consonant; their manner of articulation are phonetically different. Spanish r-sound includes / r / -tap, and / r /-trill. English r-sound only includes / r / - retroflex.

Spanish		English	
/ r /			
< r >		1. < r > river	/ .rɪvər /
Paro	/ paro /	2.< rr > carrot	/ .kærət /

Contrastive presentation

Spanish	English
/ r /	

The Spanish r is trilled and is produced by rapidly touching the tongue tip to the upper gum ridge one or more times	The tongue tip is curled upward but does not touch the roof of the mouth. The airstream is continuous and the vocal cords are vibrating.

/ r / phonemic and phonetic features

Spanish			English		
/ r /		**Voiced, apico-alveolar, oral, flap (tap)**	**/ r /**		**Voiced, apico-alveolar, oral, retroflex, semiconsonant.**
Allophones	[r]	Voiced, apico-alveolar, oral, flap.	Allophones	Vd.c.+[r]	Voiced, apico-alveolar, oral, retroflex, semiconsonant.
	vl.c+[r]	Voiceless, apico-alveolar, oral, flap.		Vl.c.[r]	Voiceless, apico-alveolar, oral, retroflex
	[r]t/d	Voiced, apico-dental, oral, flap.		[-r-]	Mid, central vowel.

CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGICAL DESIGN

3.1 TYPE AND DESIGN OF THE INVESTIGATION

The research that I made was descriptive and observational. In this case the data were collected by observing the process which may be well understood. There are a number of problems associated with observational studies.

An observation may seem out of the ordinary provoke curiosity:

- About how things work,

- Why they happen or

- What causes them

Observations provide the basic information leading to the formation of hypotheses; the first step in the scientific method is developing observational skills. Practice is needed in order to make good observations.

Observations need to be:

- relevant, ie, directed towards a clearly defined objective:

- accurate; ie, related to a scale wherever possible

- Repeatable, ie as error free (precise) as possible.

In order to observe to what extent our predictions regarding English sound difficulty for Spanish learners are supported by empirical data, a set of words including all potential 'problem' sounds will be written and presented to Spanish learners of English to tell what they problems in pronunciation are. The main objective we tried to observe in the design of the word is the phonological properties related with articulation of words they are to include rather than the words' semantic appropriateness and/or frequency of occurrence in up-to-date English.

First, teachers, in a questionnaire, presented the problems in pronunciation they have detected, and this let to prepare the adequate questionnaire that was applied to the students.

The data were collected in the "Hermano Miguel" School in Latacunga City. The research was conducted under relatively similar conditions for all the subjects

who participated in the study. The investigator with a data sheet in the classroom, asked the students to make pronunciation of the first detected problems in consonants sounds pronunciation that was gathered from teachers. The length of each of these sessions took between five to eight minutes per learner. The time for the experiment, last for about six hours. The acquired data was analyzed from a statistical method that defined the most common pronunciation problems. With these results it was possible to make a workbook that explains the problems and the way to correct them.

3.2 POPULATION AND SAMPLE

In most experiments it is rarely possible to take measurements from every individual in the population either in a laboratory situation or in the field. A sub set or sample is used to estimate the values that might have been obtained had we measured every individual in the population.

A sample is made up of a series of sampling units which depend on the type of variable being measured; sampling should allow sufficiently reliable information about the particular population under investigation.

The type of sampling or rather where the sampling occurs determines how much control the investigator has over the individuals studied. If the sampling is to take place in the laboratory then the investigator has much greater control in the design of the experiment. Design is critical in determining the sampling strategy and analysis of results.

When estimating population parameters from sample statistics, the sample size is important; larger sample sizes usually result in greater statistical reliability. However optimum sample size is a balance between statistical and practical considerations.

Although tables can provide a useful guide for determining the sample size, you may need to calculate the necessary sample size for a different combination of levels of precision, confidence, and variability. The approach to determining sample size is the application of one of several formulas.

For populations that are large, Cochran (1963:75) developed the following equation to yield a representative sample for proportions[1].

$$ n = \frac{Npqz^2}{(N-1)e^2 + pqz} \qquad (3.1) $$

Which is valid where N is the population, n is the size of sample, Z is the confidence margin (1 - equals the desired confidence level, e.g., 95%), e is the confidence margin, p = proportional probability that is true and q = proportional probability that is false. In this cases, $p = q = 0,5$. The value for Z is founded in statistical tables which contain the area under the normal curve. The value of e is 0.5.

In this case, the student of the high level of the "Hermano Miguel" School, are 420, representing the population. Considering Z = 1.96 (for 95% of confidence level), e = 10 % of error, $n= 78.3$

The sample for teachers is all population that is to say, seven teachers.

3.3 FIELD WORK

Field work is a general descriptive term for the collection of raw data in the natural and social sciences, such as in archaeology, biology, ecology, environmental science, geology, geography, geophysics, paleontology, anthropology, linguistics, and sociology. It is more technically known to scientific methodologists as field research.

Field work, which is conducted in situ, can be contrasted with laboratory or experimental research which is conducted in a quasi-controlled environment. In survey research, field work refers to face-to-face or telephone interviewing.

Field work may differ depending on whether the subjects of study are in their habitat, alive, dead, or buried in the earth. The excavation of fossils and archaeological sites constitutes field work; so does the interviewing or observation of people to learn their languages, their folklore, and their social

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[1] Jany J: Investigación Integral de Mercados. Mc Graw Hill, Bogotá, 2000, Second Editión.

structures. Especially when humans themselves are the subject of study, protocols must be devised to reduce the risk of observer bias and the acquisition of too theoretical or idealized explanations of the actual workings of a culture.

The aim of the field work in sociology is more general, it refers to the part of investigation that is done out of the sociological laboratory using inquire or observation. It is used for investigations directed to the community or for the social education based in the communitarian school[2].

The field work is one of the core parts of the research. The data collect is the work that must be made in situ that must have to be done by the people assigned to get the data.

When designing the field work, it must be considered the following points:

- The people that are going to get the data must be prepared

- The times that are going to be used must be defined

- There must be control methods.

The people who makes the field work must have and adequate attitude toward those who are answering the questionnaire. They must talk in a secure and a good way, and he or she does not must insist to people who don't want to answer[3].

When executing this work, the students were asked, and they answered without problems, because they were ready to respond when the questionnaire were developed in the classroom. The questionnaire was applied for the person who is responsible of this work.

3.4 DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS

Data collection instruments are tools used to collect data about a program or program component. If the data already exists, it is a matter of going to the

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2 http://es.wikipedia.org/wiki/Trabajo_de_campo

[3] http://www.soyentrepreneur.com/howto/howto4.html

appropriate place or person and asking for it. If the data you want does not exist, you need to collect it. There are a few general ways to collect data.

You can either observe what happens (using any of your senses to collect data), you can ask other people, or you can review documents. Getting data from other people involves either a questionnaire or some kind of an interview. You are asking people either to write down their responses or to tell you their responses so you can record them[4].

After developing the data collection instruments, There was ensured the quality of the instrument. First, there were submitted drafts of the data collection instruments to the director of this work for review and make revisions. □Next, it was piloted the test of the instruments on a small subset of the group where the data were collected, to determine if the instrument does in fact collect the type of information you intended to collect. When was pilot-tested the data collection instrument, it was given the questionnaire to individuals, and there was actually observed them as they try to complete it. When they have questions or seem to be having difficulty understanding something on the questionnaire, they asked me directly. At the end I discussed the questionnaire with them and get their input about what is good, and what needs improvement. When I was unable to observe the individuals or group as they complete the survey, you made an appointment to discuss the questionnaire with them afterwards. This input was invaluable when I made improvements to the questionnaire.

In this work, the inquiry that was applied to teachers is presented in the annex "A". The inquiry that was applied to students is presented in annex "B". The expressed lines where considered to get a better design of the instrument used to get data.

3.5 DATA ANALYSIS AND PROCESSING

Raw data is collected during scientific investigations which need to be transformed into some format that allows interpretation and analysis between

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[4] https://foia.aphis.usda.gov/vs/property/apps/manuals/review/PDF_Files/dataclct.pdf

the variables. Data can be presented in a variety of formats such as tables, graphs, maps, diagrams illustrations, flow charts etc.

Once data has been displayed in an appropriate format and all investigative tasks were completed then understanding what it means is a matter of interpreting and analyzing the data so that conclusions can be drawn.

Because data collection and analysis processes tend to be concurrent, with new analytic steps informing the process of additional data collection and new data informing the analytic processes, it is important to recognize that qualitative data analysis processes are not entirely distinguishable from the actual data.

The theoretical lens from which the researcher approaches the phenomenon, the strategies that the researcher uses to collect or construct data, and the understandings that the researcher has about what might count as relevant or important data in answering the research question are all analytic processes that influence the data. Analysis also occurs as an explicit step in conceptually interpreting the data set as a whole, using specific analytic strategies to transform the raw data into a new and coherent depiction of the thing being studied.

In quantitative research we classify features, count them, and construct statistical models in an attempt to explain what is observed. Firstly, it would usually make sense to look at data for each independent variable. Display the frequencies for each nominal or ordinal variable[5]. By the time you get to the analysis of your data, most of the really difficult work has been done. It's much more difficult to: define the research problem; develop and implement a sampling plan; conceptualize, operationalize and test your measures; and develop a design structure. If you have done this work well, the analysis of the data is usually a fairly straightforward affair.

Descriptive Statistics are used to describe the basic features of the data in a study. They provide simple summaries about the sample and the measures. Together with simple graphics analysis, they form the basis of virtually every quantitative analysis of data. With descriptive statistics you are simply describing what is, what the data shows. In most research studies, the analysis

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[5] http://www.studentbmj.com/back_issues/0701/education/new.html

section follows these three phases of analysis. Descriptions of how the data were prepared tend to be brief and to focus on only the more unique aspects to your study, such as specific data transformations that are performed.
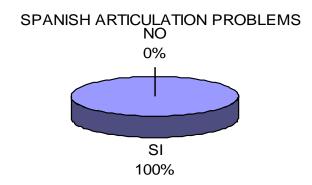
3.5.1 QUESTIONNAIRES APPLIED TO THE TEACHERS

The collected data from seven teachers in the "Hermano Miguel" School were the following:

Question 1:

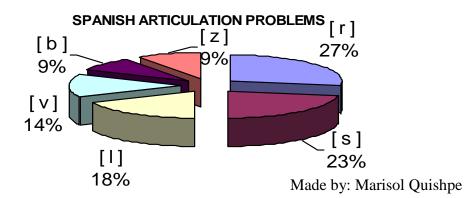Have you found articulation problems in a same consonant in Spanish?

Response 1:

Yes: 7,   No: 0

SPANISH ARTICULATION PROBLEMS
NO
0%

SI
100%

Made by: Marisol Quishpe

All the teachers of the "Hermano Miguel" School think that there are differences in production of the same sounds in Spanish. There are influences in producing the same sound for the social status, places where the students are from, family influence, age, and others.

Question 2:

If you have found differences producing the same sound in Spanish, what sounds?

Response 2:

r: 6, s: 5, ll: 4, v:3, b:2 y z:2.

SPANISH ARTICULATION PROBLEMS

[r] 27%

[z] 9%

[b] 9%

[v] 14%

[l] 18%

[s] 23%

Made by: Marisol Quishpe

Teachers think that sound / r / produces most differences in pronunciation from student that are studying in the "Hermano Miguel" School. Sound / r / is produced in a different way making sometimes voiced, other voiceless, other apico-alveolar and in other cases apico-dental.

Sound / s / in Spanish, is produced in different ways. Some students produce it as a / s / sound of English, and sometimes is produced as a / z / sound of English.
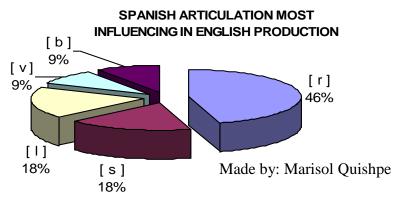
Sound of / ll /, too, is different for students that studies in "Hermano Miguel" School. The word "gallo" in Spanish is produced in a different way in Loja, Esmeraldas or Latacunga. For teachers, other words like b, v or z, have different pronunciation in students.

Question 3:

In the differences found in Spanish, what most affects in producing English sounds?

Response 3:

r: 5, s:2, b:2, m:1, n:1.

SPANISH ARTICULATION MOST INFLUENCING IN ENGLISH PRODUCTION

[b] 9%

[v] 9%

[r] 46%

[l] 18%

[s] 18%

Made by: Marisol Quishpe

Teachers think that letter r produces more influence in English production. Sound of letter / r /, is different for Spanish production and this sound makes a different pronunciation in English. The trilled r in Spanish is translated to English, forgetting the retroflex of r in this language.

Spanish "ll" and "s", at the same time, produce bad pronunciation of the same sounds in English, sometimes, "s" in English is produced voiced and apico-dental.
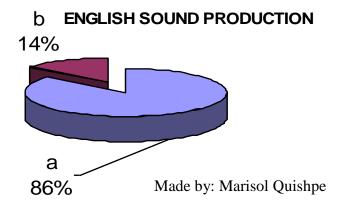
Question 4:

For your students, where do you found most problems producing sound in English?

a. In sounds that do no exist in Spanish

b. In sounds that do exist in Spanish but with variations

Response 4:

a: 6, b:1.

b **ENGLISH SOUND PRODUCTION**

14%

a

86%

Made by: Marisol Quishpe
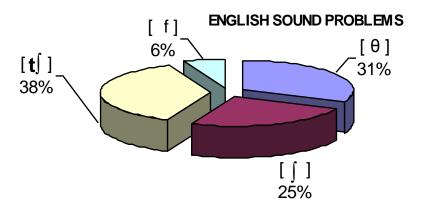
Teachers think that is more difficult producing English sounds that there are not in Spanish. For students is more difficult to produce sounds that they do not know that are available than others that are similar to those that they produce in their own language.

Question 5:

From sounds that are not produced in Spanish, number in order of importance those that have more problems.

Response 5:

θ = 5, $\int$ = 4, **t** $\int$ = 6, f =1.

ENGLISH SOUND PROBLEMS

[f] 6%

[**t**∫] 38%

[θ] 31%

[∫] 25%

Made by: Marisol Quishpe

Teachers think that principal problem in the production of sounds that are not produced in Spanish is the " ∫ " sound. Teachers do not know the use of phonetics symbols.
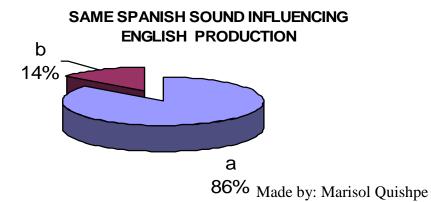
Question 6:

Do you think that differences for a same sound produced in Spanish influences in producing sounds in English?

a. Yes

b. No

Response 6:

a: 7, b:0.

SAME SPANISH SOUND INFLUENCING ENGLISH PRODUCTION

b 14%

a 86% Made by: Marisol Quishpe

Teachers think that differences for a same sound produced in Spanish influences in producing English sounds.

Question 7:

What recommendations will you do for making a better pronunciation of sounds that are not produced in Spanish?

Response 7:

The responses are:

- Listen and imitate sounds

- Listen CD or movies

- Making examples through listening

- Practicing more

- Practicing problematic sounds

- Making a work sheet for practicing and self evaluation

- Recognizing vowels and consonant sounds

- Producing phonemes

- Taking care of articulation

Question 8:

What recommendations will you do for making a better pronunciation of sounds that are similar to those produced in Spanish?

Response 8:

The responses are:

- To teach the right articulation of vowels and consonants

- Listen CD or movies

- Making examples through listening

- Practicing more with examples that let to learn.

- Practicing problematic sounds.

- To make a guide for pronunciation

- Recognizing vowels and consonant sounds

- To teach and produce phonemes

3.5.2 QUESTIONNAIRES APPLIED TO THE STUDENTS

The collected data presents the problems for students in pronunciation that teachers think that are important. The collected data from students in the "Hermano Miguel" School was taken from the upper levels, and they were the following:
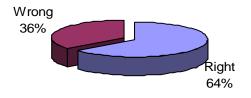
a. Analyzed sound: "r"

Word using "r" at the beginning: Red

Results:

Analyzed Students = 84; Right = 54; Wrong = 30

Production of sound "r" at the beginning

Wrong
36%

Right
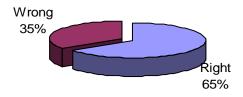64%

Made by: Marisol Quishpe

Comments: From the applied questionnaire, the presented problem is due to incorrect position of the tongue making a trilled sound similar to the produced in Spanish. Most of students make a correct pronunciation.

Word using "r" in the middle: Sorry

Results:

Analyzed Students = 84; Right = 42; Wrong = 42

Production of sound "r" in the middle

Wrong 50%   Right 50%

Made by: Marisol Quishpe

Comments: From the applied questionnaire, the presented problem is due to incorrect position of the tongue making a trilled sound similar to the produced in Spanish.

Word using "r" at the end: Are

Results:

Analyzed Students = 84; Right = 55; Wrong = 29

Production of sound "r" at the end

Wrong 35%

Right 65%

Made by: Marisol Quishpe

Comments: From the applied questionnaire, the presented problem is due to incorrect position of the tongue making a trilled sound similar to the produced in Spanish. Most of students make a correct pronunciation.
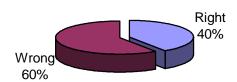

b. Analyzed sound: "s"

Word using "s" at the beginning: Study

Results:

Analyzed Students = 84; Right = 34; Wrong = 50

Production of sound "s" at the beggining

Made by: Marisol Quishpe

Comments: From the applied questionnaire, the problem is that students include the Spanish sound "e" in pronunciation at the beggining. Spanish presentation makes this wrong pronunciation.

Word using "s" in the middle: Pencil

Results:

Analyzed Students = 84; Right = 84; Wrong = 0

Comments: From the applied questionnaire, there is no problem. The reason of these results is due to the similarity to the Spanish sound. The influence of the Spanish pronunciation makes this sound right.

Word using "s" at the end: Yes

Results:

Analyzed Students = 84; Right = 84; Wrong = 0

Comments: From the applied questionnaire, there is no problem. The reason of these results is due to the similarity to the

Spanish sound. The influence of the Spanish pronunciation makes this sound right.

c. Analyzed sound: "l"

Word using "l" at the beginning: Late

Results:

Analyzed Students = 84; Right = 84; Wrong = 0

Comments: From the applied questionnaire, there is no problem. The reason of these results is due to the similarity to the Spanish sound. The influence of the Spanish pronunciation makes this sound right.

Word using "l" in the middle: Yellow

Results:

Analyzed Students = 84; Right = 84; Wrong = 0
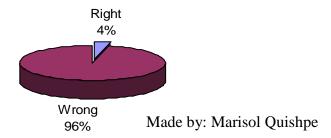
Comments: From the applied questionnaire, there is no problem. The reason of these results is due to the similarity to the Spanish sound. The influence of the Spanish pronunciation makes this sound right.

Word using "l" at the end: Fall

Results:

Analyzed Students = 84; Right = 84; Wrong = 0

Comments: From the applied questionnaire, there is no problem. The reason of these results is due to the similarity to the Spanish sound. The influence of the Spanish pronunciation makes this sound right.

d. Analyzed sound: "v"

Word using "v" at the beginning: Very

Results:

Analyzed Students = 84; Right = 3; Wrong = 81

Production of sound "v" at the beginning

Right
4%

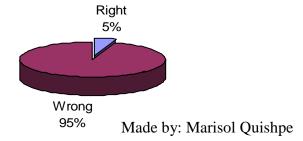Wrong
96%   Made by: Marisol Quishpe

Comments: From the applied questionnaire, the presented problem is due to production of bilabial sound "b" and not the dental-labial sound "v". Spanish pronunciation influences in this production.

Word using "v" in the middle: Every

Results:

Analyzed Students = 84; Right = 4; Wrong = 80
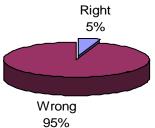
Production of sound "v" in the middle

Right
5%

Wrong
95%   Made by: Marisol Quishpe

Comments: From the applied questionnaire, the presented problem is due to production of bilabial sound "b" and not

the dental – labial sound "v". Spanish pronunciation influences in this production.

Word using "v" at the end: Move

Results:

Analyzed Students = 84; Right = 4; Wrong = 80

Production of sound "v" at the end

Right
5%

Wrong
95%

Made by: Marisol Quishpe

Comments: From the applied questionnaire, the presented problem is due to production of bilabial sound "b" and not the dental – labial sound "v". Spanish pronunciation influences in this production.

e. Analyzed sound: "b"

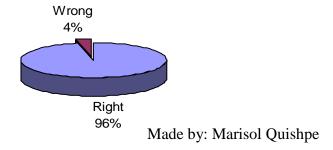Word using "b" at the beginning: Be

Results:

Analyzed Students = 84; Right = 84; Wrong = 0

Comments: From the applied questionnaire, there is no problem. The reason of these results is due to the similarity to the Spanish sound. The influence of the Spanish pronunciation makes this sound right.

Word using "b" in the middle: Baby

Results:

Analyzed Students = 84; Right = 84; Wrong = 0

Comments: From the applied questionnaire, there is no problem. The reason of these results is due to the similarity to the Spanish sound. The influence of the Spanish pronunciation makes this sound right.

Word using "b" at the end: Cab

Results:

Analyzed Students = 84; Right = 81; Wrong = 3

Production of sound "b" at the end

Wrong
4%

Right
96%

Made by: Marisol Quishpe

Comments: From the applied questionnaire, there is a little of problems. The reason of these results is due to the similarity to the Spanish sound. The influence of the Spanish pronunciation makes this sound right. Some students do not make the sound of "b", they made the sound "f".
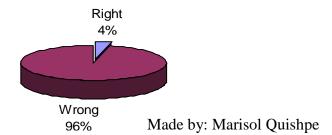
f. Analyzed sound: "z"

Word using "z" at the beginning: Zoo

Results:

Analyzed Students = 84; Right = 3; Wrong = 81

Production of sound "z" at the beginning

Right
4%
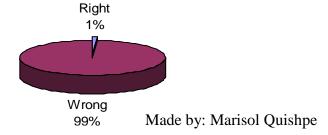
Wrong
96%   Made by: Marisol Quishpe

Comments: From the applied questionnaire, the presented problem is due to production of a voiceless, apico-alveolar and fricative sound "s" and not the voiced sound "z", that requires this sound in English. Spanish pronunciation influences in this production.

Word using "z" in the middle: Busy

Results:

Analyzed Students = 84; Right = 1; Wrong = 83

Production of sound "z" in the middle

Right
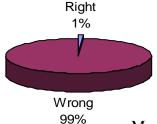1%

Wrong
99%   Made by: Marisol Quishpe

Comments: From the applied questionnaire, the presented problem is due to production of a voiceless, apico-alveolar and fricative sound "s" and not the voiced sound "z", that

requires this sound in English. Spanish pronunciation influences in this production.

Word using "z" at the end: Is

Results:

Analyzed Students = 84; Right = 1; Wrong = 83

Production of sound "z" at the end

Right
1%

Wrong
99%

Made by: Marisol Quishpe

Comments: From the applied questionnaire, the presented problem is due to production of a voiceless, apico-alveolar and fricative sound "s" and not the voiced sound "z", that requires this sound in English. Spanish pronunciation influences in this production.
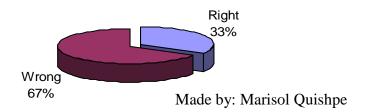
g. Analyzed sound: "θ"

Word using "θ" at the beginning: Thank

Results:

Analyzed Students = 84; Right = 28; Wrong = 56

Production of sound "θ" at the beginning

Right
33%
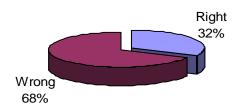
Wrong
67%

Made by: Marisol Quishpe

Comments: From the applied questionnaire, the presented problem is due to production of a voiced, apico-dental, oral and stop of sound "d" (38%) or a voiceless, apico-dental, oral and stop of sound "t" (62%), instead of a voiceless, apico-interdental, oral and fricative sound "θ", that requires this sound in English. Spanish pronunciation of "d" and "t" influences in this production.

Word using "θ" in the middle: Nothing

Results:

Analyzed Students = 84; Right = 27; Wrong = 57

Production of sound "θ" in the middle

Right
32%

Wrong
68%

Made by: Marisol Quishpe

Comments: From the applied questionnaire, the presented problem is due to production of a voiced, apico dental, oral and stop of sound "d" (22%) or a voiceless, apico-dental, oral and stop of sound "t" (78%), instead of a voiceless, apico-interdental, oral and fricative sound "θ", that requires this sound in English. Spanish pronunciation of "d" and "t" influences in this production.

Word using "θ" at the end: Month

Results:

Analyzed Students = 84; Right = 19; Wrong = 65

Production of sound "θ" at the end

Right
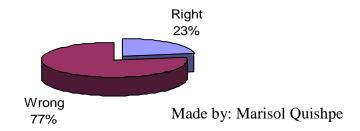23%

Wrong
77%

Made by: Marisol Quishpe

Comments: From the applied questionnaire, the presented problem is due to production of a voiced, apico-dental, oral and stop of sound "d" (20%) or a voiceless, apico-dental, oral and stop of sound "t" (80%), instead of a voiceless, apico-interdental, oral and fricative sound "θ", that requires this sound in English. Spanish pronunciation of "d" and "t" influences in this production.
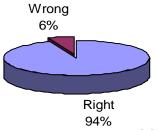
h. Analyzed sound: "ʃ"

Word using "ʃ" at the beginning: Shoe

Results:

Analyzed Students = 84; Right = 79; Wrong = 5

Production of sound "ʃ" at the beginning

Wrong
6%

Right
94%

Made by: Marisol Quishpe

Comments: From the applied questionnaire, there is a little of problem. Some students produce the sound "ʒ", "s" or "tʃ"

instead of the English sound "ʃ". Spanish pronunciation influences in this production.

Word using "ʃ" in the middle: Machine

Results:

Analyzed Students = 84; Right = 37; Wrong = 47

Production of sound " ʃ" in the middle

Wrong
56%

Right
44%

Made by: Marisol Quishpe

Comments: From the applied questionnaire, the presented problem is due to production of a voiceless, apico-alveolar, lamino-fronto-palatal sound "tʃ", instead of a voiceless, fronto-palatal, oral, groove and fricative sound "ʃ", that require this sound in English. Spanish pronunciation of "tʃ" influences in this production.

Word using "ʃ" at the end: Spanish

Results:

Analyzed Students = 84; Right = 84; Wrong = 0

Comments: There is no problem in production of sound "ʃ" at the end of a word. Spanish pronunciation influences in this production.

i. Analyzed sound: "t∫"

Word using "t∫" at the beginning: Chair

Results:

Analyzed Students = 84; Right = 83; Wrong = 1

Comments: From the applied questionnaire, there is no problem. The reason of these results is due to the similarity to the Spanish sound. The influence of the Spanish pronunciation makes this sound right.

Word using "t∫" in the middle: Teacher

Results:
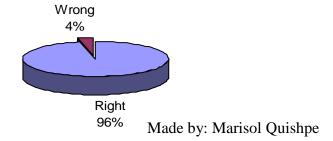
Analyzed Students = 84; Right = 84; Wrong = 0

Comments: From the applied questionnaire, there is no problem. The reason of these results is due to the similarity to the Spanish sound. The influence of the Spanish pronunciation makes this sound right.

Word using "t∫" at the end: Much

Results:

Analyzed Students = 84; Right = 81; Wrong = 3

Production of sound "t∫" at the end

Wrong
4%

Right
96%

Made by: Marisol Quishpe

Comments: From the applied questionnaire, there is a little of problems. The reason of these results is due to the similarity to the Spanish sound. The influence of the Spanish pronunciation makes this sound right. Some students produce "∫" or "s" sound.

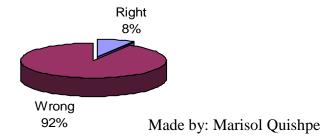**j. Analyzed sound: "ð"**

Word using "ð" at the beginning: The

Results:

Analyzed Students = 84; Right = 7; Wrong = 77

Production of sound "ð" at the beginning
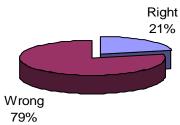
Right
8%

Wrong
92%

Made by: Marisol Quishpe

Comments: From the applied questionnaire, the presented problem is due to production of a voiced, apico-dental, oral and stop of sound "d" (96%) or a voiceless, apico-dental, oral and stop of sound "t" (4%), instead of a voiced, apico-interdental, oral and fricative sound "ð", which requires this sound in English. Spanish pronunciation of "d", specially, influences in this production.

Word using "ð" in the middle: Father

Results:

Analyzed Students = 84; Right = 18; Wrong = 66

**Production of sound "ð" in the middle**

Right
21%

Wrong
79%

Made by: Marisol Quishpe

Comments: From the applied questionnaire, the presented problem is due to production of a voiced, apico-dental, oral and stop of sound "d", instead of a voiced, apico-interdental, oral and fricative sound "ð", which requires this sound in English. Spanish pronunciation of "d", influences in this production.

Word using "ð" at the end: Breathe

Results:

Analyzed Students = 84; Right = 8; Wrong = 76

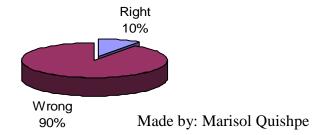**Production of sound "ð" at the end**

Right
10%

Wrong
90%

Made by: Marisol Quishpe

Comments: From the applied questionnaire, the presented problem is due to production of a voiced, apico-dental, oral and stop of sound "d" (38%) or a voiceless, apico-dental, oral and stop of sound "t" (62%), instead of a voiced, apico-interdental, oral and fricative sound "ð", that requires this

sound in English. Spanish pronunciation of "d" and "t" influences in this production.

CHAPTER IV: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

4.1 CONCLUSIONS

The following are the conclusions:

- Spanish articulation for producing sound influences in the production of English sounds, making easy to produce those sounds that are similar to those of English, and making a wrong pronunciation in the case that the sounds are different from those in English.

- If the students are guided in a better way for pronunciation, they will have a better results in the production of the sounds that are difficult to produce, especially those sounds that are not similar to those that are produced in Spanish.

- A wrong pronunciation of sounds can make a different meaning to those that are trying to direct to the person that is receiving the information. In some cases a wrong pronunciation doesn't make any change in the sense of information.

- Most of Teachers in the "Hermano Miguel" School do not have the basic knowledge about phonetics, this lack of knowledge influence in the better production of the sounds in English for a better pronunciation.

- In the developed analysis, I have discovered that most of the sounds are not well produced, but some of them do no affects the meaning that is trying to give.

- Teachers of "Hermano Miguel" School do not really know what are the really problems that students presents in the production of the English sounds. In the applied questionnaire, I found out that there are problems that teachers do not considered, and there are other problems they think exist where there are not.

- There are different forms of producing the same sound in Spanish for the same consonant, and this influences in the production of English sounds for students.

- I found out that there are not differences between the productions of English sound for students of different levels of the "Hermano Miguel" School.

- Students of the "Hermano Miguel" School, produce wrong sounds, because they do not make the right articulation that must be make for producing English sounds.

- There are students that make right production of sounds in English. It was not analyzed the reasons for this production and this would produce a new research.

4.2 RECOMMENDATIONS

- Teachers must reinforce the problems that students presents in the production of English sounds. It is necessary that teachers investigate where there are problems and act about them.

- Teachers must know where there is a wrong production of sounds that might produce a different meaning. This knowledge will let teachers to reinforce English production where the problems are presented.

- For the teachers of the "Hermano Miguel" School it is necessary to improve their knowledge about phonetics, articulation and producing of sounds. The workbook that is presented in this work will help them for a better applying in the production of sounds.

- Teachers must reinforce the application of the right articulation in the production of the different sounds of English. Teacher must know the form of articulation for every sound in English, and they should know the differences with Spanish Language production.

- It will be useful to investigate the reasons why some students make a right production of English sound for taking into account this situation for translating it to the students of the "Hermano Miguel" school.

- Teachers of the "Hermano Miguel" School, makes the following recommendations for producing a better English pronunciation:

  - Listen and imitate sounds

  - Listen CD or movies

  - Making examples through listening

  - Practicing more

  - Practicing problematic sounds

  - Making a work sheet for practicing and self evaluation

  - Recognizing vowels and consonant sounds

  - Producing phonemes

  - Taking care of articulation

- It is necessary that students of the Army Polytechnic School have a full understanding of the process for their graduation. This knowledge will let the students to make less time in the development of their work.

- Some works related to this research, must be develop to make a better understanding of English pronunciation problems. This knowledge will make better students in the EFL program.

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LINKS

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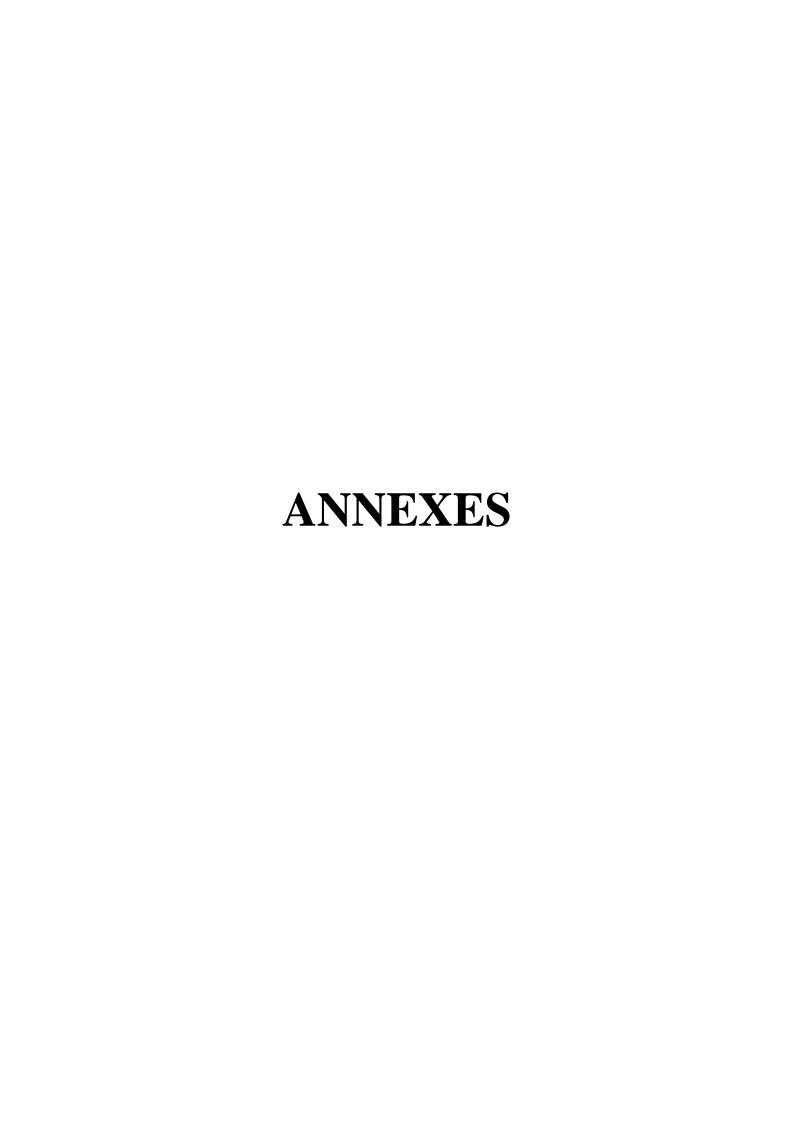http://www.cal.org/caela/Nnotes81.htm

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ANNEXES

ANNEXE A

VARIABLES TO BE CONSIDERED

VARIABLES TO BE CONSIDERED

For Teachers:

1. Spanish problem identification
2. English problem identification
3. Methodological solution for making a better production of English sounds.

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR IDENTIFYING PROBLEMS BY TEACHERS.

1. Have you found problems in the articulation of the same consonant in Spanish?

   YES ☐   NO ☐

2. If you found it, which are these sounds? :

3. About the differences that you found, what is the most influences for articulating the production of English sounds?

4. For your students, where are the most problems in sounds production in English?

   a.) In sounds that do not exits in Spanish. ☐

   b.) In sounds that are produced in Spanish with variations.   ☐

5. From the sounds produced in Spanish, name those that present more problems.

6. Do you think that the differences in Spanish sound production for the same consonants, influence in English pronunciation?

   YES ☐   NO ☐

7. Which recommendations would you do for getting a better pronunciation of sounds that are not produced in Spanish?

8. Which recommendations would you do for getting a better pronunciation of English sounds that are produced in a similar way as Spanish with variations?

VARIABLE – ASKED QUESTIONS RELATION

VARIABLE / PREGUNTA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
English problems identification			X	X	X	X		
Spanish problems identification	X	X				X	X	X
Methodological solutions to improve the pronunciation problems							X	X

Note: For students, there will be made questionnaires after the results of this question.

ANNEXE B

TEACHERS QUESTIONNAIRE

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TEACHERS IN THE IDENTIFICATION OF ARTICULATION PROBLEMS (PRONUNCIATION) THAT STUDENTS PRESENTS.

The following questionnaire will let us determine the articulation problems that influences in the pronunciation of English sounds from "Hermano Miguel" students.

Teacher's name: _____

Put a tick, and then fill in the blanks the requested information.

1. Have you found problems in the articulation of the same consonant in Spanish?

    YES ☐   NO ☐

2. If you found it, which are these sounds? :

    a. _____

    b. _____

    c. _____

    d. _____

    e. _____

3. About the differences that you found, what is the most influences in the articulation of the production in English sounds?

    _____

4. For your students, where are the most problems in sounds production of English sounds?

    a.) In sounds that do not exits in Spanish. ☐

    b.) In sounds that are produced in Spanish with variations.   ☐

5. From the sounds produced in Spanish, name those that present more problems.

    a. _____

    b. _____

    c. _____

    d. _____

6. Do you think that differences in Spanish sound production for the same consonant, influences in English pronunciation?

<div align="center">
YES ☐   NO ☐
</div>

7. Which recommendations would you do for getting a better pronunciation of sounds that are not produced in Spanish?

a. _____

_____

b. _____

_____

8. Which recommendations would you do for getting a better pronunciation of English sounds that are produced in a similar way as Spanish with variations?

a. _____

_____

b. _____

_____

Thank you for your help

ANNEXE C

OBSERVATION QUESTIONNAIRE

OBSERVATION QUESTIONNAIRE FOR PRONUNCIATION

The questionnaire to be applied to the students, it is made to observing and listening the pronunciation of the students, about the words in the following list

The first group belongs to sounds that exist in Spanish with variation. The second one, belongs to sounds that there is not in Spanish.

The interviewer, in this case, is the person who is making the research; it will present the list of the words to the students. She will observe and listen to the pronunciation and will register any special case about the produced sounds.

The considered words belong to problems that have been obtained from the analysis of the information that was obtained from the teachers of the "Hermano Miguel" High School.

SYMBOL	INITIAL POSITION	MIDDLE POSITION	FINAL POSITION
/ r /	red	sorry	are
/ s /	study	pencil	yes
/ l /	late	yellow	fall
/ v /	very	every	move
/ b /	be	baby	cab
/ z /	zoo	busy	is
/ θ /	thank	nothing	month
/ ∫ /	shoe	machine	Spanish
/ t∫ /	chair	teacher	much
/ δ /	the	father	smooth

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR GETTING THE INFORMATION ABOUT PRONUNCIATION

The following questionnaire is made to know the pronunciation problems. Please help me to get the information that I need for the analysis.

Next you have a list of English words that you have to pronounce when you see the signal from the interviewer.

WORD LIST
1. red
2. sorry
3. are
4. study
5. pencil
6. yes
7. late
8. yellow
9. fall
10. very
11. every
12. move
13. be
14. baby
15. cab
16. zoo
17. busy
18. is
19. thank
20. nothing
21. month
22. shoe
23. machine
24. Spanish
25. chair
26. teacher
27. much
28. the
29. father
30. smooth

Thank you for your help

ANNEXE D

INTERVIEWER GUIDE

INTERVIEWER GUIDE

Reference: _____   Level: _____

ORD.	WORD	RIGHT	WRONG	OBSERVATION
1	red			
2	sorry			
3	are			
4	study			
5	pencil			
6	yes			
7	late			
8	yellow			
9	fall			
10	very			
11	every			
12	move			
13	be			
14	baby			
15	cab			
16	zoo			
17	busy			
18	is			
19	thank			
20	nothing			
21	month			
22	shoe			
23	machine			
24	Spanish			
25	chair			
26	teacher			
27	much			
28	the			
29	father			
30	smooth			