The Teaching of English Phonology in the Japanese Context:
A Comparison of Two Approaches
by
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The Ministry of Education has made it mandatory that in 1994 an "oral communication" element be included in the secondary school English curriculum. Furthermore, the age of the university choosing the student has ended, and with a declining student population, the era of the student choosing the school or university has begun. These pressures are forcing some institutions and teachers, both foreign and Japanese, to reassess their classroom procedures. With phonology the two main approaches are based on two differing theories, one which emphasizes the study of segmentals, and the other the study of suprasegmentals. These approaches are sometimes referred to as top-down and bottom-up approaches. Although they both fall within the area of systemic knowledge, the role of schematic knowledge in language learning must not be overlooked. Schematic knowledge is knowledge of the topic area and of the mode of communication. Systemic knowledge is linguistic knowledge. Widdowson states, *on any particular occasion of meaning negotiation the more familiar the schematic content or mode of communication, the less reliance needs to be placed on systemic knowledge, and vice versa* (1991:105). Before examining the two approaches in terms of their suitability and promise for teaching English phonology to Japanese learners, a brief summary of the development of phonology pedagogy will be provided. This will be followed by an assessment of the Japanese context.

The Development of Phonology Theory and Pedagogy

For a long period American structuralism strongly influenced the theory of phonology. Bloomfield and others claimed that a representation of the significant sound properties of utterances was a sequence of phonemes and as such the *fundamental task for a theory of phonology was clearly to provide an adequate definition of what phonemes were* (Anderson:286). It was not until Firth presented his doubts about the validity of segmentation in his seminal paper "Sounds and Prosodies" (1948) that the idea of prosody was considered. The notion of prosody represented *the first substantial challenge within twentieth-century linguistics to the notion that division of the utterance into phonetic segments provides the essential basis for further analysis* (Anderson:185). Firth's approach to linguistic problems in pursuing the notion of meaning as 'function in context' was influenced originally in the early 1930's by Malinowski's 'context of situation'. It is interesting to note that similar ideas were emerging as a result of specific problems encountered in the study and teaching of Japanese. At Yale in 1942 Kennedy thought that Chinese, and therefore Japanese, could be taught and learned like any other language (Miller:1970:xii). Any other language referred essentially only to Indo-European languages. Therefore language study was approached along the methodological lines of the American

descriptive school. Bloch, when appointed director of the Japanese language program, soon encountered problems in trying to operate in a structuralist paradigm. In Bloch's analysis of Japanese phonemics, weaknesses of a purely structural approach were exposed, *apparently simple and elegant principles disappear into a welter of particularities. The treatment of suprasegmentals caused particular difficulty* (Anderson:313).

In 1957 Chomsky, Halle, and Lukoff presented a case for the necessity of abandoning structuralist assumptions to arrive at a coherent analysis of English suprasegmentals (Anderson:314). However, this abandoning of structuralist assumptions took time and in the 1960's most methodologies were still based on such assumptions, particularly the audio-lingual method. In Japan, and many other countries, institutions installed language laboratories as they were believed to be the best way to learn English phonology. In certain cases it was thought that language laboratories could replace the teacher. Initial teacher and student enthusiasm was soon displaced by disappointment and disillusionment.

The emergence in the early 1970's of naturalist and communicative theories of language learning resulted in structuralism falling into disrepute. However, because the explicit teaching of phonology had come to be associated with structuralist and behaviorist theory, such teaching was also considered to be unnecessary. Many teachers felt and still feel that no special attention need be given to phonology and that acquisition will occur naturally, especially through 'communicative' activities. It is worth noting that historically British linguistics has had a rather different tradition from that of the continental Europe or North America. Two characteristics dominate: its insularity and an emphasis on pragmatism rather than principles (Anderson:169). Householder (1952) in reviewing Daniel Jone's book *The Phoneme* summarizes, "The European asks: 'Is it true?', the American: 'Is it consistent', the Englishman: 'Will it help' (In Anderson:170). From this academic environment with Firth and his students at the School of Oriental and African Studies at London University came the theory of prosodic analysis.

English as a Second Language (ESL) v English as a ForeignLanguage (EFL)

It is not only the theory of phonology which has influenced the choice of approach. The context of language learning in North America is as ESL. Primarily learners are either immigrants or the children of immigrants, or students wishing to enter universities. Being in the target language (TL) environment affords varying degrees of exposure but far more than is possible in the EFL situation. Europe is an EFL situation. Britain is a mixture of both but historically affords European students short summer courses. Furthermore, while students and teachers in the EFL context try to compensate for this in the classroom and by giving students the opportunity to use self-study materials outside the class, this exposure is more likely to be passive, placing an emphasis on comprehension. Even when it is interactive, it is usually within the classroom, and therefore has a degree of artificiality. The key point here is the amount of exposure, even if it passive, like watching TV. Students gradually acquire naturally suprasegmental features of English and their interlangauge progresses accordingly. This encourages teachers to place an emphasis on fossilized segmental features.

The Japanese Context

The students' ability is influenced by a number of factors. The following comments are based on personal experience, discussion with colleagues, examination of texts, and a series of extended interviews with students from several universities concerning their background to language learning, particularly in junior high school and senior high school. First, the emphasis in junior high school and high school is on preparing students for entrance examinations. As these exams usually contain no listening or speaking section, even if teachers wish to develop these skills, they will have no direct bearing on students' performance in the examinations. Much of the lesson is conducted in Japanese and concentrates on grammar explanations and translations of difficult reading passages. Second, although there are many Japanese teachers who have good pronunciation and speak English well, they do not always choose to do so. Students interviewed commented on this, and also on the reluctance of teachers to use English, even when they have good ability. Third, some texts have tapes and sometimes students were provided with individual tapes but no use was made of them in class. The texts usually emphasize grammar and reading and do not lend themselves to oral work. Students commented on the lack of feeling, unnaturalness, and flatness of intonation not because of the teachers but because of the text and the method. Fourth, contrary to British university courses, in which it is mandatory that language students spend six months or a year in the target language country, in Japan students can only do this during the vacation, at their own expense, and usually with no organizational assistance from their university. Fifth, the use of katakana increases the risk of fossilized pronunciation. Some books and texts have the katakana above or below the English. In a few cases students were made to write the katakana form above the English. Sixth, although texts sometimes contain information about the pronunciation of certain sounds, the amount of explanation or time devoted to this in class is limited. Usually there is no review or follow-up at a later stage. Seventh, the phonological system of Japanese is fundamentally different from English. The theory of these underlying differences is rarely offered. As a result students fall into four broad categories.

1. Students who accept and learn English pronunciation and spelling without questioning as to why it is what it is.
2. Students who are puzzled or frustrated by the inconsistencies but when they ask questions they get unsatisfactory answers. Their progress is hindered or halted.
3. Students who regard it as a strange system or code and make no further attempt to understand.
4. Students who consult by themselves the explanations in dictionaries or texts, and successfully learn how to speak and use the pronunciation system, even if they do not understand why. This last group is in the minority.

Eighth, although from 1994 almost all schools will have a 'teaching assistant' from an English speaking country, the opportunities for speaking are still very limited. It is probably this last reason that has the greatest bearing on the discussion about the value of various approaches to phonology.

The Two Approaches: Top-down and Bottom-up.

In the following section a number of issues will be addressed. Suggestions from two papers will be examined for their bearing on the Japanese context, keeping in mind the fundamental ESL v EFL distinction. Pennington's paper is representative of the top-down suprasegmental approach and Acton's is representative of the bottom-up segmental approach. The Top-Down approach is well outlined in Brown and Yule's *Teaching the Spoken Language*. The role of top-down and bottom-up processing is clearly explained in the teacher's guide to the supplementary listening text *Listen For It*. It must be reiterated that nowadays proponents of one approach do not disregard the role of the other. Rather that they place greater emphasis on one, and that this is reflected in the type and order of exercises and materials produced for self-study, the classroom, and the language laboratory. This emphasis is also reflected in the amount of classroom time devoted to phonology activities.

Cultural Proximity

Acton comments on the students poor communication skills but does not classify exactly what they are. He fails to give any background on the nationalities of the students and one is left wondering what measures he takes to accommodate the differences. Although each European country likes to consider itself culturally different from neighboring ones, there are still more points of common reference than for students from Asian cultures. Whether in the ESL or EFL environment, it will be easier for somebody who is or was originally from a Caucasian European culture to move from deference politeness strategies to solidarity ones: Brown and Levinson's terms. Beebe and Takahashi claim that in the case of Japanese learners, for the developmental curve of any one individual we would expect phonological and morpho-syntactic transfer to rise to their peaks earlier than pragmatic transfer since pragmatic transfer requires more fluency to surface (1987:153). Pragmatic transfer is defined as first language (L1) sociocultural competence in performing speech acts. This is an area where Japanese are particularly weak. The logical conclusion is therefore that cultural factors are likely to have a negative influence on the learner's performance, even though when in isolation their interlanguage phonology is no longer dominated by the L1. It would be unfair to criticize Acton or the bottom-up approach as not being culturally sensitive. Rather to state that with this approach there is a greater risk that the influence of such factors will be overlooked.

The Level of the Student

Acton is addressing the problems of higher level students. Neither category of learner, the ESL student or the advanced student, will be in the majority within Japan and only in language schools or companies will there be small classes of less than twenty students. Major's Ontogeny Model (Figure 1)
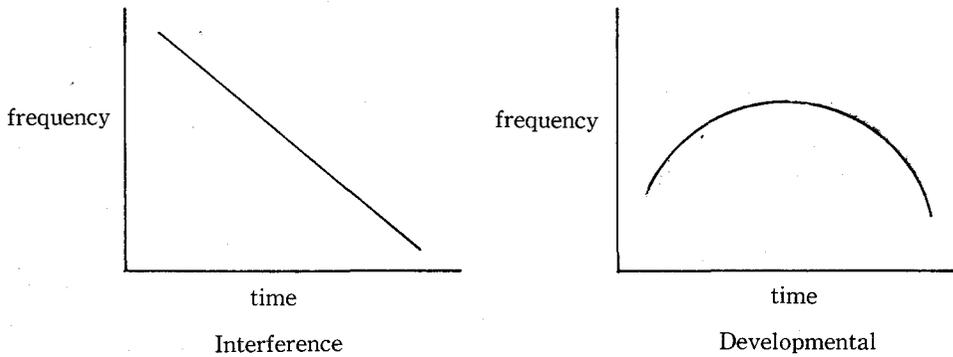
Figure 1   Relationship of interference and developmental processes to time

demonstrates the nature (interference or developmental) and frequency of learner errors. With advanced students the number of errors is low. At this level, although some questions remain as to whether overt correction is effective, the bottom-up approach may have rewards for individual or small group remedial work. However, for this to be successful, students must be provided with a breakdown of information about their progress and the nature of their errors. Something which Acton fails to recommend to do. However, for the elementary learner interference processes prevent developmental processes from surfacing (Major1987:103). Not all learners understand or become aware of what is hindering them, so some say there is a theoretical argument for explicit phonology teaching activities. The problem is that errors have stylistic variation. Dickerson demonstrated with Japanese learners that there was not only linguistic variation but also non-linguistic variation. With linguistic variation of the English /r/ he noted six variants and that this variability was systematic depending on whether the /r/ was before high, mid, or low vowels (Figure 2 Dickerson 1977:19). However the stylistic or non-linguistic constraints such as the nature of the task - word lists WL, dialogue reading DR, or free style FR - for /r/ produced systematic style shifts in the interlanguage phonology. Figures 3-4 (Tarone 1987:77)

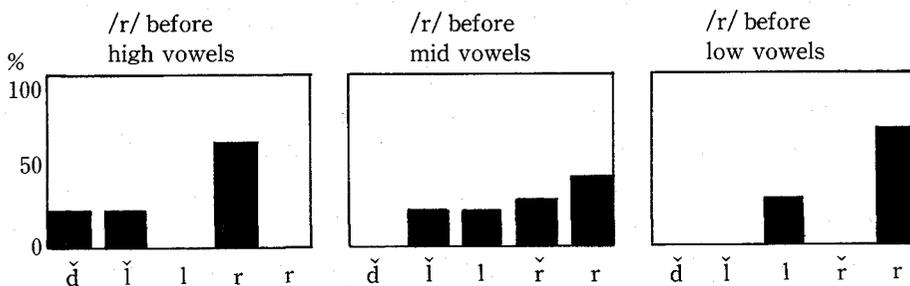OP (Oral Production) = f (Proficiency Level) (Style: WL > DR > FS)

Figure 2   Variants Used for English /r/

[ď]   voiced nonretroflexed flap
[ǐ]   voiced lateral flap
[l]   voiced lateral
[ř]   voiced retroflexed flap
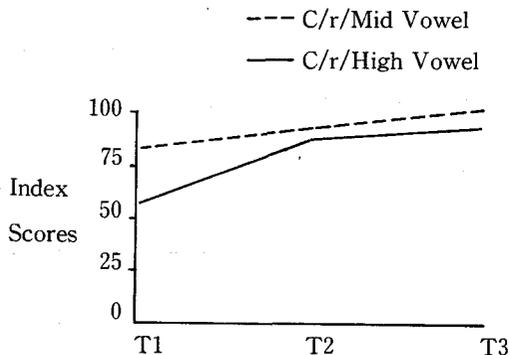[r]   voiced retroflexed semiconsonant
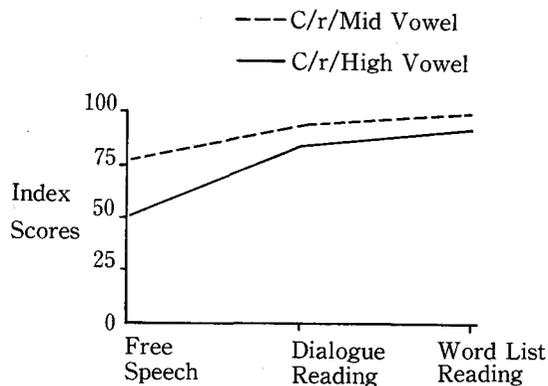
Figure 3　Two Environments of /r/ Over Time

Figure 4　Style Stratification for
Two Environments of /r/

Motivation

With the traditional segmental approach there is an assumption that the responsibility for success in the course is placed on the students. This implies that a high level of motivation is present, for example from those driven to the program by the threat of not being promoted (Acton:72). One of the explicit objectives of Acton's course, preparing students for continuing to improve their pronunciation after the course finishes, will be difficult, unless they are interacting with native speakers. This typifies the ESL / EFL dilemma. In Japan the level of motivation is more varied, and although whole classes devoted to such remedial work do exist, generally they have been tried and found unsuccessful.

Critical Period Hypotheses and Psychological Factors

Some theories argue for a critical period beyond which pronunciation improvement is no longer possible. These are based on physiological constraints like Lennenberg's (1967) 'brain lateralizaton', or cognitive constraints like the onset of Piaget's 'formal operations'. It is refreshing that Acton does not adopt such a stance. However, there is a danger that too much attention to segmental correction will lead to discouragement. Ways of rectifying the fossilized features in the Acton's *preparation for change* section chiefly address psychological factors: what Acton terms inside-out change. Recognition that the speaker is at ease is important for creating an environment conducive to improving oral production. Guiora (1972) found that the imbibing of a limited amount of alcohol was beneficial in relaxing students. His main point was identity with the target culture or "ego permeability', something which, in the Cultural Proximity section, was not considered valid in the Japanese context. However his desire to relax students is. The reference to overcoming fears of appearing foolish is important in Japan. Older learners do not wish to have their weaknesses exposed before younger ones. Students themselves are reticent to speak in front of large groups for fear of making any kind of mistake. Activities which force someone to speak by themselves in front of a large class must be carefully thought out, or there is a likelihood that hesitancy and shyness will be heightened not reduced. This can only have a negative effect on pronunciation. Nozaki describes the difference in attitudes to active participation in conversation; the western-style being like

volleyball and Japanese style being more akin to bowling in which everybody is allowed a turn(1993:28). Rather than getting frustrated with students, it is better to think of the passivity as a cultural 'silent period' or a kind of eavesdropping.

Topic Control

Acton's 'Conversational Control' correctly isolates the importance of topic control in informal dialogue. It is a way of helping students compensate for their lack of sociocultural competence. However, he makes no mention of training given to NNS to identify the listener's interests or to offer the kind of formulaic conversational gambits that allow the introduction of a topic. This area affects both top-down and bottom-up processing, but he makes no mention of the suprasegmental features of stress and intonation.

Monitoring Strategies

This is one of the weakest of Acton's proposals, because it seems to be a return to the traditional bottom-up approach. With formal exercises, working on sounds in isolation by themselves, not in conversation, removes the context and the suprasegmental features. This is proposed for the first half of the course. It is this kind of exercise that led to the exodus from language laboratories. As Dickerson's study showed, such formal exercises are also theoretically weak, because they may not result in improvement in unplanned / free speech. If remedial phonemic work is deemed necessary, if possible, it should be carried out in a context. There also needs to be some kind of diagnostic test. Acton does not mention one and even without one, certain L1's have predictable special difficulties. Therefore, individual training or self-study programs should be offered. Teaching English Pronunciation (123-161) outlines the difficulties of some of the major languages. (See Appendix).

Non-Verbal Correlates of Pronunciation

1. Tracking

The first stage of this activity is repeating after the speaker. It is unclear how, learners focus on intonation, stress, and rhythm, independent to some degree of the lexical content(Acton:77). If this lexical content is separate from form, then the content, which is usually stressed, is not regarded as central to the exercise. Therefore, the meaning has been removed from the exercise. This seems to be an attempt to include some suprasegmental practice, but in a mechanical way inviting all the old criticisms.

2. Mirroring

This means mimicking and is something that can be successfully used: Both Acton and Pennington recommend this. It is a good way of counterbalancing the emphasis on the bottom-up approach. Mimicry is recognized as an important skill for successful language learners (Stevick 1989:4,97). Now an ever increasing amount of authentic and other suitable material is available. Japanese students like to act out the short sequences. With a script students can mark the stress and intonation. Mimicry seems a much better way from which to approach the teaching of phonology because in Widdowson terms the visual mode affords access to higher

levels of schemata (1990:102). Knowingly or otherwise, Acton is affording credence to the top-down approach. Such activities reduce the teacher's work load, speed contextualisation, and increase student levels of interest. They also offer the teacher a framework within which to mention or remind students of any anticipated phonemic difficulties.

Prosody

This could be regarded as the kernel of phonology, and includes not only the rhythm and intonation of phrases and sentences, but also stress, pitch, and tone of word differences which occur between languages. Pennington devotes a large section to meaning and teaching approaches and places an emphasis on stress and rhythm. Japanese students have no understanding of the strong and weak "stress-timed" English language as opposed to their own "mora-timed" language. However, if presented to students, they soon are able to locate the main and secondary stresses, and similarly with intonation. Perception of the process is the key. Any procedure which helps this is recommended, especially the use of visual support and also computers. Fluency will occur later. The important point is, that once the students have grasped the main principles, it becomes easier to explain segmental changes such as reduced vowels in weak-stressed words.

Phonological Fluency.

English is clearly marked with regard to the extent to which it allows coarticulation (Pennington:27). Junctural differences separate differences in referential meaning. Marked means that with a universal typology of languages the feature is less common. White states that there are two independent issues:

1. The question of the linguistic characterization of markedness.
2. The question of the psychological correlates of markedness such as difficulty and lateness of acquisition(1989:117).

If the second language(L2) feature is not present in the learner's L1, initially the learner will not be aware of it. There is a risk that the learner will never fully acquire / learn this feature, even if the learner becomes or is made aware of it. Compared with other languages vowels are marked because they lose their distinctive articulation or color and centralize towards the schwa when not stressed. Of the teaching approaches Pennington suggests, recreating conditions of fluent contextualised speech is difficult. It is interesting how she demonstrates a similar weakness to Acton. Of the maximal pair examples given, some of the pairs sentences would be eliminated in normal conversation because of not fitting the situation. Therefore, the risk of the same criticism of using decontextualised materials can sometimes be made with top-down approach, as is often done with bottom-up minimal-pair practice.

Voice Quality and Gesture

Pennington treats these as two separate areas but here for pedagogic purposes they are viewed together. Culture-specific settings convey different nuances of identity and role, may have

positive or negative meanings, and may be more or less marked than English. Pennington suggests recognition and imitation practice based on tape recordings. In the Japanese context voice quality is best introduced together with her fourth area of gesture. Japanese culture looks askance at exhibitionism and, if measured on a universal scale of restrained to exaggerated, Japanese gestures would classify as being restrained. However, students are not shy and positively enjoy role play activities, because they are free from some of the behavioral constraints normally required in Japanese society.

Further Recommendations for the Japanese Context

These recommendations seek to offer a blend of both top-down and bottom up approaches. However, before making the recommendations, another two questions need to mentioned.

A Should phonology be taught?
B If the answer to A is yes, how should it be taught?

From these questions five positions result

1. Those who feel points should be presented and practiced separately from other materials.
2. Those who feel that points should be presented and practiced explicitly within a context.
3. Those who feel that points should be presented explicitly within a context but not necessarily practiced.
4. Those who feel that points should be dealt with, but that the students should not be explicitly made aware of the purpose.
5. Those who see no value in specific phonology activities.

This paper has sought to be eclectic and hopes that teachers are too. However, the general arguments presented so far suggest that a combination of 2, 3, and 4 is best. 1. is regarded as the traditional bottom-up approach. Pica comments *formal instruction, in its current state, may have had no effect on pronunciation accuracy, because it fails to involve learners in active exchange of ideas, and thus contradicts basic tenets of linguistic and second-language acquisition theory* (1984:3). The activities she offers are a mixture of 2 and 4. Dickerson also emphasizes 2 stating, *our exercises, however, move quickly to meaningful communication* (137) and concludes the role of formal rules is to provide self-evaluation for purposes of self correction (147). 3 is a form of consciousness-raising (CR) which is dealt with later in the CR section.

Provide an Overview

At the university level, there is a need to present a theory of the nature of English phonology. As stated earlier in this paper many first year students have never been shown this when at the junior high school level. For Japanese students there is a role for giving explicit details of such areas, in frequent small doses rather than a few large ones. Stockwell and Bowen as far back as

1965 in a list of a *preferred pedagogical sequences* made their first priority basic intonation features and patterns including stress, pitch, juncture, and rhythm. For segmental features with large classes use diagrams to show the tongue, teeth, and various lip positions, and the contrasts for sounds which are only allophonic in Japanese. A diagrammatic representation contrasting the two vowel systems, and encouraging students to place their fingers in their mouths helps them to feel and recognize the lower to upper, and back to front tongue positions and movements. It is worth explaining that the variants of the first and second formants of lower back cardinal vowels are close and vary between dialects (Figure 5 Catford:161), and that in
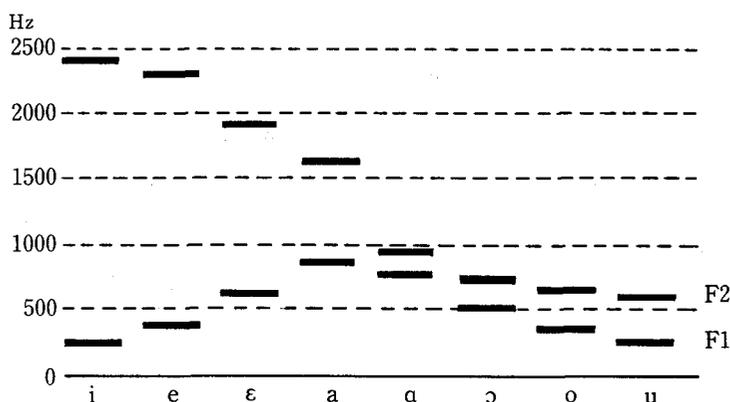

Figure 5　First and second formants of Cardinal Vowels

some cases there is no distinction: U.S. West Coast v U.K Received Pronunciation. For consonants, a demonstration or the use of a video and epidiascope also help. Opportunities should be given to try to practice the sound. Some sounds may appear to be the same but are different such as the labiodental English /f/ and the voiceless bilabial fricative Japanese /f/. Some argue that such explanations are unnecessary and that the developmental stages of their interlangauge will rectify such errors. Certainly the /f/ example would not be high on a list of vowels and consonants to be presented but as Stevick clearly outlines in *Success with Foreign Languages* some students will make use of this information either immediately or in the future.

Although explanation of spelling usually is not necessary at the university level, some students find interesting the historical explanation as to why there are variations (Stubbs:43-69). At the beginning of junior high school this kind of explanation would help students who are confused. If students do not know how to a use dictionary's phonetic transcription they should be taught how.

Consciousness Raising

The above recommendations are very controlled and more traditional in method. Consciousness Raising seeks to increase students awareness through inductive and deductive procedures. For example, in Japan the use of 'gairaigo' in Japanese and the names of foreign shops like fast-food chains provide a wealth of information. Students are surprised when they realize the differences in spelling between the romanized spelling of the katakana forms and the true

English spelling. The CR approach would be

1. To list the Japanese and English spellings or offer listening practice and see if the students can discover the rules themselves. The list could be presented or the students could gather their own examples individually or in groups.

or

2. To state the rules and see if students can recognize or predict from examples which would be correct.

Listening practice can be amusing and makes students aware of the reduction of vowels to the schwa and of the main and secondary stresses. Use of student experiences abroad, if they have some, or of the numerous 'foreigners in Japan stories' make interesting anecdotes: the person who wanted a hot dog and instead got a cup of coffee. Japanese students seem to be able to pick out the stressed words in a sentence fairly easily, if asked to listen to and identify them. Having recognized reduced vowels within words, they find it easier to understand that the same process occurs in sentences and that initially this is the reason for their difficulty in catching what is being said. Some would regard CR as being no different from traditional methods. However, one of the key points of true consciousness raising is that there is no pressure on the learner to produce. It links with Krashen and Terrell (1983) in improving learner's monitoring ability.

Materials

Although many non-authentic supplementary materials are available for use, authentic sources are also a rich source, particularly magazines and videos.

For initial introduction of the sound system, the amount of foreign words in katakana, often with varying nuances, is so great as to make them unreadable to older Japanese. Group projects on discovering the differences and why can prove successful. This also allows for individual learner interests and differences. The use of music videos and movies with short segments of twenty seconds to one minute in length can to help identify the stressed words and the nature of the intonation. Short video sequences introduced with the sound only mean that activities can be turned into quizzes or games where students try to guess the context: where it is, who is talking, what has happened. The final showing can provide the answer. It would also be interesting to use other languages to give students a wider perspective. Satellite broadcasts from different countries afford increasingly more easy access to a variety of authentic material. Both Acton and Pennington recognize the importance of non-verbal gestures. Discovery and inference exercises using video are an interesting lead into role-play activities. Classifying these gestures into a Parent, Adult, and Child (P-A-C) psychological / sociological framework using Berne's Transactional Analysis (1964:28-32) is another activity which may speed comprehension. It also offers a framework for comparing these to and classifying verbal P-A-C clues (Harris 1973:90-92). Interactive video, where segments are imported into the computer and materials are designed around them, offer activities that may be perceived as being more interesting. Unfortunately both video and computer materials in this area are expensive and not many institutions have facilities for the software. However, in the future these materials will offer

more individualized opportunities for students to work by themselves, either in class time or in media or language centers in academic institutions.

Dictation

This activity should not be regarded as meaningless as Davis and Rinvolucri argue in *A New Methodology for an Age-Old Exercise* (1988:1-8). When asked to write down the dialogue, some of the language they perceive as being spoken is surprising, even with the additional visual information. This can be a valuable source of feedback for the teacher. Forming exercises on the basis of these mistakes is useful and interesting.

The Language Laboratory (LL.)

The language laboratories of today are far more pleasant than those of twenty years ago. As opposed to the claustrophobic and isolatory nature of the individual booths, nowadays LLs. usually resemble normal classrooms except for the small television, headphones, and tape facilities. There is no longer any reason for being reluctant to make use of such facilities. Again the key point is to offer a variety of activities.

Conclusion

Of the two approaches, in the Japanese context it is probably preferable to make more use of the top-down approach. Technology is allowing teachers to present material to students which affords access to higher schemata. Particularly important in this process is the use of visual media including video because where *language itself is sequential the visual element is multidimensional. Images, unlike language, do not have starting and ending points. Language, however, exists in time; limitations upon our capacity to 'attend' to language are such that language content has to be 'strungout' in non-random order. Images are thus spatial; language is temporal* (Rutherford,1987:68). Our learning processes are multi-faced yet we sometimes impose, unnecessarily, temporal parameters upon our students. Kellerman, in discussing the role of vision in listening, states strongly that *in using audio-taped input, we are temporarily inflicting a handicap equivalent to the loss of sight* (1990:272). The same statement can be made concerning the teaching of phonology. This is not a proposal to ignore bottom-up activities. Specific tasks and consciousness-raising activities on individual sounds are important. However, the top-down approach should take priority. Materials should be designed with a context where possible. In the selecting and making of materials, most important of all is to consider the interests and level of motivation of the students. If we are prepared relinquish our prescriptive attitudes, authentic and non-authentic materials can be made to construct a base from which to produce intrinsically motivating learning activities.

Appendix　　Useful Reference Materials and Texts

Clear Speech by Judy Gilbert (Cambridge University Press 1984) provides intermediate and

advanced students practice in pronunciation and listening comprehension, segmental and suprasegmental. The Student's book has a practical non-technical style.

Current Perspectives on Pronunciation: Practices Anchored in Theory edited by Joan Morley (TESOL 1987) contains papers on the recent work of teachers, researchers, and linguists who have a special interest in pronunciation.

Headway Intermediate Pronunciation by Bill Bowler and Sarah Cunningham (Oxford University Press 1990) can be used for self-study or in the class.

Teaching English Pronunciation by Joanne Kenworthy (Longman 1987) is another of the very useful books of the Longman Handbooks for Language Teachers series.

Teaching American English Pronunciation by Peter Every and Susan Ehrlich (eds.) (Oxford 1992) is the most recent and a useful contribution to the field.

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