CHAPTER ONE

1.0 Introduction

The structure of this chapter begins with the background about the study which introduces statement of the research problems, significance of the study, objectives of the study, questions of the study, hypotheses of the study, as well as the delimitations of the study.

1.1 Background of the study

Education is a developmental process that provides knowledge, skills and experiences to generations so as to be able to communicate fluently, effectively and Intelligibly for the life enjoyment. This process could be achieved via the study of language (linguistics) in terms of phonological features under the frame work of segmental and suprasegmental features. Jenkins claims that it is in the area of pronunciation that L2 varieties diverge most from each other linguistically and therefore it is this area that most threatens intelligibility and the majority of communication breakdowns are due to pronunciation errors. There are several factors that combine to create the perception of natural fluent speech. One is the process of modification of speech sound. He added that the process of accentuation, rhythm and modification contribute to various features that characterize connected speech. These include: rhythm, liaison, assimilation, juncture and elision). (qtd in Rogerson-Revell 2011). Morley (1991) Viewed that the methodology of teaching must change from emphasizing segmental elements of pronunciation to suprasegment-all elements of pronunciation and from linguistic competence to communicative competence (qtd in Gilakjani 2012). Richard .C Jack etal (2002) stated that the features which give speech the qualities of being

natural and normal include…using of pausing, rhythm, intonation, stress, rate of speaking, using of interjections and interruptions. The current researcher observes that many of English Language learners even at university level show breakdown in their communicative competence and they are unable to speak intelligibly. Therefore, the current researcher wants to conduct a research on this area to investigate the influence of using English language phonological features on developing L2 learners' verbal Communication skills.

1.2 Statement of the study problem

Communication has become one of the most important factors for education, development and stability in this modern world (globalization). Foreign language Communicators should be well equipped with the features that make their communication more fluent, intelligible and effective. However, as an English language teacher at Sudan English language teaching Institute as well as schools and some Sudanese universities, the researcher observers that some aspects of phonological features are only taught at colleges of art and education but some others like thought group is neglected and very limited attention is given to the teaching of sounds at secondary levels. In addition to that, Throughout the handling of courses the researcher observes that most of the students are not able to speak intelligibility and some others of them are not capable to understand and to catch up with the audios and the videos that are designed by native speakers and are used in our classrooms in teaching oral skills.

Most second language learners face various phonological problems such as using of segmental and suprasegmental features as well as communication fillers while they try to use the second or target language.

These are the problems which this research attempts to proffer solution to. In particular, the work is interested in sorting out phonological features that can facilitate oral communication skills. Using English Language phonological features correctly is still one of the main problems that face L2 learners. In response to these problems, the current researcher intends to investigates the using of English language phonological features to develop L2 students' oral communication skills at ALFashir university, college of education to find out some new insights that will add some contributes to fill the knowledge gap.

1.3 Significance of the study

Traditionally, education has been largely concerned with reading and writing, and language teaching has been no exception until relatively recently, the emphasis in English teaching has been on these two skills, but the advent of communicative approaches has caused significant change. communication involves all four skills; listening, speaking, reading and writing... in practicing spoken English, pupils should from the beginning be taught features which are characteristically found in spoken English such as contraction and ellipsis. Correct pronunciation, word and sentences stress and intonation should also be emphasized since they are important to intelligibility. (Ministry of Education, UAE 1998:51) "Many experts agree that because of the link between nuclear stress placement and speech clarity at both segmental (e.g. vowel quality and length) and suprasegmental levels (e.g. stress, rhythm and phrasing), this is one area …which is important for L2 pronunciation learning, regardless of the level of proficiency aimed at" Rogerson-Revell 2011).

Pronunciation in the past occupied a central position in theories of oral language proficiency. But it was largely identified with accurate pronunciation of isolated sounds or words. The most neglected aspect of

the teaching of pronunciation was the relationship between phoneme articulation and other features of connected speech. Traditional classroom techniques included the use of a phonetic alphabet (transcription), transcription practice, recognition/discrimination tasks, focused production tasks, tongue twisters, games, and the like. When the Communicative Approach to language teaching began to take over in the mid- late - 1970s, most of the above-mentioned techniques and materials for teaching pronunciation at the segmental level were rejected on the grounds as being incompatible with teaching language as communication. Pronunciation has come to be regarded as of limited importance in a communicatively-oriented curriculum. Most of the efforts were directed to teaching supra-segmental features of the language -rhythm, stress and intonation, because they have the greatest impact on the comprehendsibi-lty of the learner's English [Celce-Murcia et al 1996:10].

This study is proposed to be conducted in the field of education. Therefore, the educational colleges, institutions and the communities will benefit from the findings of the study. It will also fill the knowledge gap in the literature and the previous studies related to the current study. The study attempts to find out the influence of using English language phonological features on developing L2 learners' verbal communication skills which provide some knowledge and information to contribution to the field of education. The most significant aspect is the intention of adding some new insights to the existing linguistic theories to be used and generalized the result of the study to be added to the learners' improvement and proficiency as well as contributing to all programs of English language teaching and learning.

1.4 Objectives of the study

This study attempts to achieve the following objectives, to:

1. Investigate L2 learners' awareness and their ability to use phonological features and the changes that are being attached to their communication skills.

2. Find out the influence of Phonological features that improve L2 learners' communication skills.
3. Evaluate L2 learners' attitude towards using phonological features in their communication.
4. Identify some areas of difficulties in learning phonological features and to provide some solutions to facilitate the learning process.

1.5 Questions of the study

The current study attempts to answer the following questions:

1. To what extent do the contextualized segmental features (assimilation liaison, elision, juncture, blending, germination, plural and past morpheme) have positive influence on developing L2 learners' communication skills?
2. How far do suprasegmental features (stress, intonation, rhythm, thought group) have effect on the development of L2 learners 'communication skills?
3. To what degree do oral communication fillers (ah, ow, oh, er, ooh, oi...) influence the Learners' communication skills?

1.6 Hypotheses of the study

1.Contextualized segmental features (assimilation, liaison, elision, juncture, blending, germination, plural and past morpheme) show positive influence on developing L2 learners' communications kills.

2. Suprasegmental features (stress, intonation, rhythm, thought group)

have positive influence on the development of L2 students' oral communication Skills.

3.Oral communicational fillers (ah, ow, oh, er, ... etc.) have positive influence on the development of learners' oral communication skills.

1.7 Limitation and delimitation of the study

the researcher conducts the study in north Darfur state (Al-Fashir University), the disordered and war-torn area which might cause some difficulties during the conductance of the research. Although the study sample will be selected randomly from the population (learners of English major), the results of the study could be generalized to all university learners in the Sudan.

1.8 Tools

Some tools such as (computer, projector, tape recorder… etc.) would be used to collect the data from the participants.

1.9 Summary

The structure of this chapter begins with the background of the study which introduces statement of the research problems, questions of the study, hypotheses of the study, objectives of the study, and significance of the study as well as study population and sampling in addition to methodology of the study and the instrument that precedes the delimitation of the study and finally the definition of key terms.

1.10 Definitions of key concepts

1.10.1 Features

Aspects or characteristics of a speech that arise from the way the sound is articulated or it sounds to the ear. ‘Voicing’ is a feature that varies according to whether or not the vocal cords vibrate during the articulation of a sound /z/ is voiced, for example. other features include ‘manner ‘or what sort of gesture or position is used to make a consonant sound a ‘stop’ involves blocking the airstream completely for a fraction of a second, as for /p/, while a ’fricative’ involves creating a narrow opening through which air escapes, as for /f/. Suprasegmental features …are ‘overlaid’ on syllables or words. one such feature is stress, where the accent is in a word. In ‘potato’, the stress falls on the second syllable; in ‘promise’ on the first.

1.10.2 Segments

A segment is a speech sound such as /m/ or /I/. /m/ for example, is created by vibrating the vocal cards (feature: voiced), closing the mouth at the lips (feature: bilabial), and lowering the soft palate so that air can escape through the nose (feature: nasal). These three gestures occur simultaneously. the result is a voiced bilabial nasal, /m/ thus, segments are units that are built up from features; features are the building blocks for segments

CHAPTER TWO

Literature Review and Previous Studies

2.0 Introduction

This introductory paragraph exposes two parts; Part one is relevant literature review and part two is previous studies. Literature review is divided into three sections; section one segmental features, section two suprasegmental features and section three filler sounds. Previous studies are divided into three categories; international, regional, and local studies. Finally, some comments are being presented.

2.1 Literature Review

2.1.1 Section One

2.1.1.1 Segmental Features

2.1.1.1.1 Airstream Mechanism of Consonants and Vowels

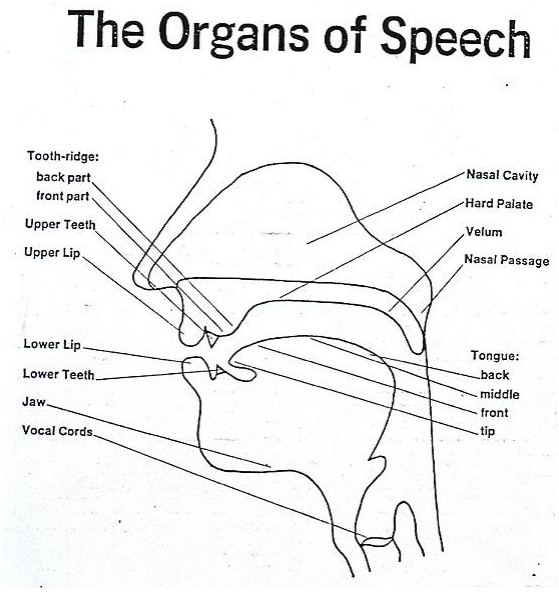


Figure (2.1) shows organs of speech. (Source: Ahmed, Muneer2014.TEFLer's Inn).

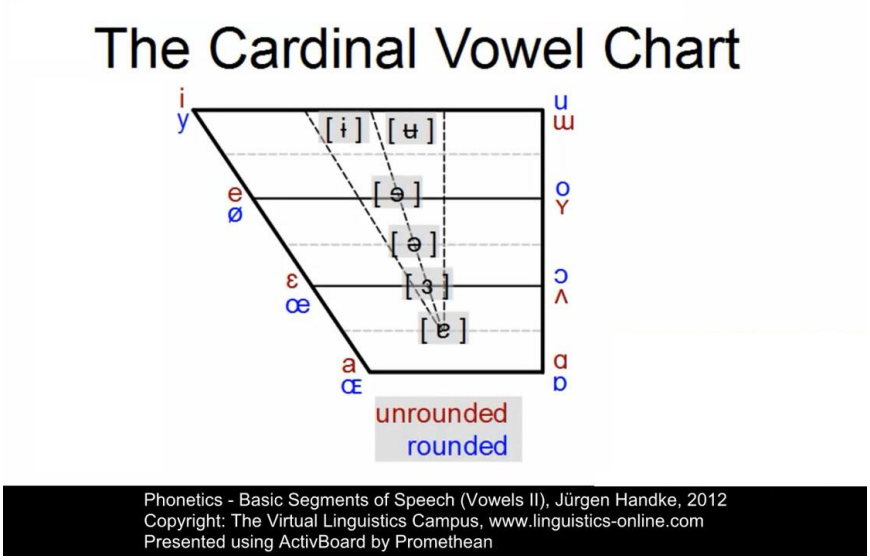


Figure (2.2) shows the cardinal vowel chart.

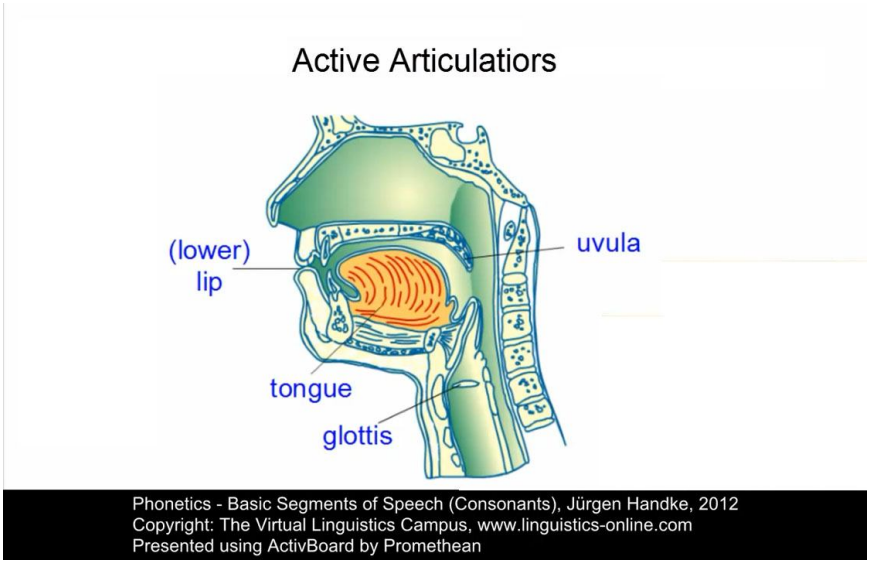


Figure (2.3) shows active articulators.

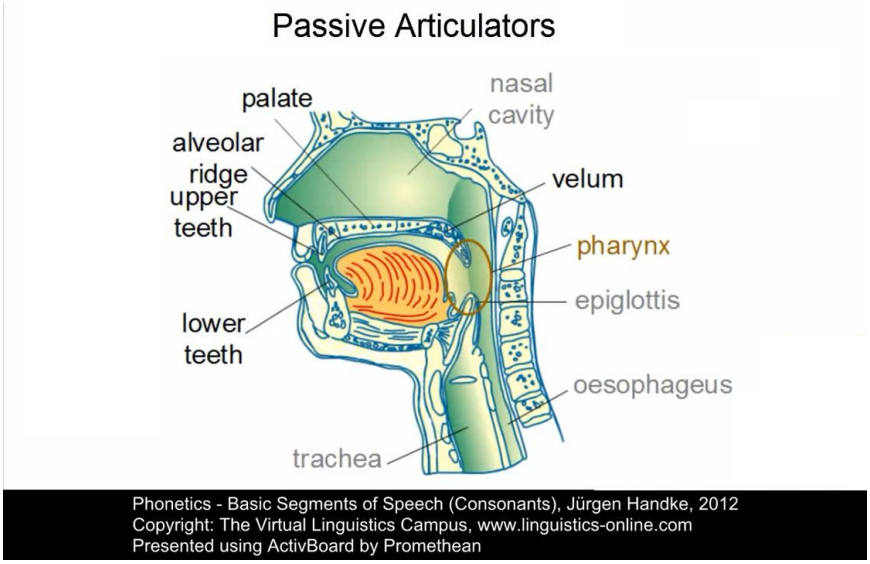


Figure (2.4) shows passive articulators.

Bethesda, MD (2002) explains that the mechanism of human express thoughts, feelings, and ideas orally to one another through a series of complex movements that alter and mold the basic tone created by voice into specific, decodable sounds. Speech is produced by precisely coordinated muscle actions in the head, neck, chest, and abdomen. Speech development is a gradual process that requires years of practice. During this process, a child learns how to regulate these muscles to produce understandable speech. The lungs muscles articulators and the air come to play roles in the speech production.

Mcmahon (2002:35) states that both consonants and vowels are produced on pulmonic egressive airstream where the initiator is the lunge and the rest of the respiratory system … E.g. the labial nasal / m/, is strictly a pulmonic egressive labial nasal. Roach (2009:20) adds "*What features distinguish one consonant from another may be put on the articulation or on the place of articulation … ".*

Pirijandi (2005) adds an interesting point about phonemes is that they are not always pronounced with the same pronunciation. In fact, the co-text and environment of the occurrence of a phoneme plays a crucial role in the way the phoneme is pronounced. All of us have the experience of changing the sound /n/, unconsciously of course, into the sound /m/ in such Persian words as /ʃænbe/ (meaning Saturday) so that the word is pronounced as /ʃæmbe/. In fact, the /b/sound following the /n/ sound causes this pronunciation difference. For the most part, these pronunciation differences are surface phenomena. In other words, our brains form the exact pronunciations of words (i.e., similar to those found in standard dictionaries). When the brain orders the vocal organ to vocalize these words, the physiological shortcomings of the human vocal organ cause these pronunciation differences. Many phonologists use the phrase 'Ease of Pronunciation' to refer to this physiological phenomenon. We can now conceptualize two types of pronunciations: phonetic and phonemic. Phonemic representation refers to the pronunciation of words as they exist in our minds; phonetic representation refers to the pronunciation of words as they are actually pronounced by our tongues. We should, however, be aware that only a very limited number of phonemes have different phonemic and phonetic representations. Take the phoneme /p/ in English as an example. When this phoneme appears in word-initial contexts, it is pronounced with puff of air. This phenomenon is known as aspiration. In non-word-initial contexts, however, the phoneme /p/ is reduced to a phoneme which stands between the phonemes /p/ and /b/. Phonologists have developed two types of phonetic writing system to capture these differences: (a) one in which only the mental (phonemic) representation of phonemes is shown, and (b) one in which the actual-speech (phonetic) representation of phonemes is shown.

The former is called broad transcription while the latter is called narrow transcription. Broad transcription only utilizes a basic set of symbols. Narrow transcription utilizes the same set of symbols with the addition of diacritics and other symbols. The second difference between broad and narrow transcriptions is that phonemes represented in broad transcription are put between two slant lines // whereas phonemes represented in narrow transcription are put inside square brackets [ ]. Take the following examples:p /p/ [p] and [pʰ]l /l/ [l] and [ɬ]The different representations of a phoneme in narrow transcription are calledthe allophones of that phoneme. Take the following examples: a. The phoneme /p/ has two allophones: unaspirated [p] and aspirated [pʰ·]. spit /spɪt/ [spɪt] Peter /ˈpi:tə/ [ˈpʰi:tə] slap /slæp/ [slæp] b. The phoneme /l/ has two allophones: light [l] and dark [ɬ]. c. The phoneme /k/ has two allophones: aspirated [kʰ] and unaspirated [k].eg. look /lʊkʰ/ [lʊk], black /blækʰ/ [blæk], kill /kʰɪl/ [kɪɬ]. Allophones of a phoneme are in complimentary distribution. That is, they cannot occur in the same context. For example, [ph] comes at the beginning of a word while [p] occurs in other contexts. Another point to notice about allophones is that the differences between them are phonetic rather than phonemic. A phonetic difference does not cause a change in meaning. A phonemic difference, however, brings about a change in meaning. For instance, the difference in words like ship /ʃɪp/ and sheep /ʃi:p/ is phonemic because these two words have two different meanings. Therefore, we cannot consider /ɪ/ and /i:/ to be allophones of a basic phoneme. Words like sheep /ʃi:p/ and ship /ʃɪp/ are called minimal pairs. Traditionally, minimal pairs were defined as pairs of words that differ in one and only one phoneme. Take the following examples: thy /ðaɪ/ thigh /θaɪ/ ship /ʃɪp/ sheep /ʃi:p/ bow /baʊ/ wow /waʊ/ kill /kɪl/ keel /ki:l/ If one of the words in a minimal pair is repeated, a minimal set will

result. Take the following examples: thy thigh thigh ship ship sheep bow wow bow keel kill kill One classic book with a good number of minimal pairs in it is the American PDs (or American Pronunciation Drills). The American PDs is still widely used in phonetics classes in a good number of language schools throughout the world. It should be noted that some phonologists are inclined to use the diacritic symbols that represent primary and secondary stress in ordinary writing too. In this case, the symbol ´ is used to represent primary stress and the symbol ` to represent secondary stress. In phonetic transcription, however, the symbol ˈ is used for primary stress and the symbol ˌ for secondary stress. The other difference is that in ordinary writing, the symbols appear over the vowels that carry them. In phonetic transcription, on the other hand, the (ˈ) symbol is put at the top left corner and the symbol (ˌ) at the bottom-left corner of the syllables that carry them in British English. In American English, the ˈ symbol appears at the top-right corner and the symbol (ˌ) at the bottom-right corner of the syllables that carry them. Take the following examples: dèmonstrátion /ˌdemənˈstreɪʃən/ /demˌənstreɪˈʃən/, àristócracy /ˌærɪˈstɒkrəsɪ/ /ærˌɪstɒkˈrəsɪ/, hèrmeneútics /ˌhɜ:mɪˈnju:tɪks/ /həˌmɪnu:ˈtɪks/.(The/ə/ sound in American English stands for the /ɜ:/ sound of British English, and is pronounced as a combination of /ə/ and /r/ sounds).(P.28)

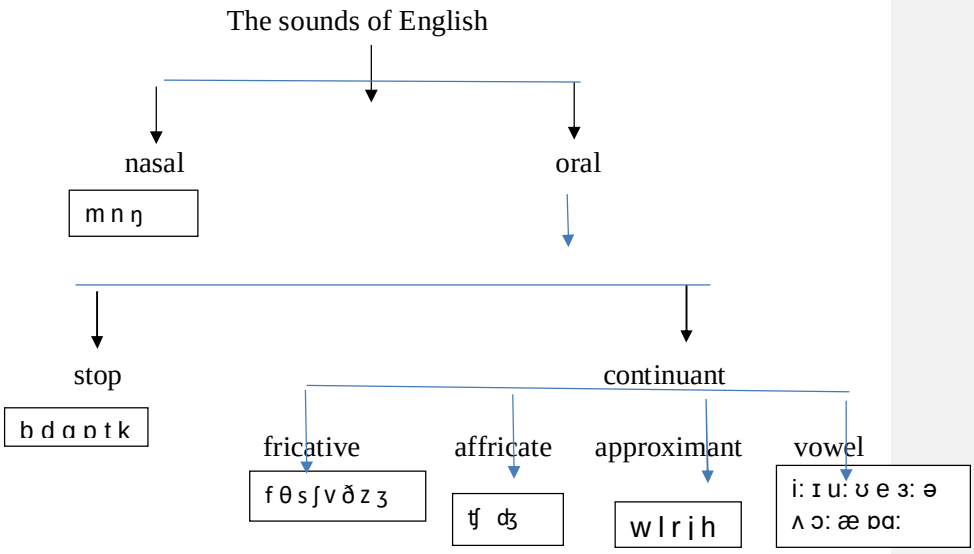


Figure No (2.5) shows sounds of English (source: Foiskola 2009: 50)

As described by kreidler (2004:48-67). There are different analyses of English vowels; Different dialects of English have somewhat different system of vowels these differences from different parts of the world from understanding on another but they are enough to be noticeable. Physical features like length which vowels occur.

Table No (2.1) shows RP vocalic system (source: Foiskola 2009 :50)

1.stability of participation		Monophothongs-12				Diphthongs-8
2.length of participation		Long: i: u: ɜ: ɔ: ɑ:		Short: ɪ u e ə æ ʌ ɒ		
3.degree of muscular		Tense i: u: ɜ: ɔ: ɑ:		Lax: ɪ u e ə æ ʌ ɒ		
4.lip participation		Rounded labialized: ʊ u: ɒ ɔ:		Unrounded (nonlabialized): ɪ i: e ɜ: ə æ ʌ ɑ:		
5.vertical movement of the tongue		6-Horizontal movement of the tongue				
		Fully front	Front retracted	Central mixed	Back advanced	Fully back
High close	Narrow variety	i:				u:

	Broad variety		ɪ		ʊ	
Mid(mid-open)	Narrow variety	e		ɜː		
	Broad variety		ə ʌ			
Low open	Narrow variety					ɔː
	Broad variety		æ			ɒ ɑː

2.1.1.1.2 Assimilation in the Communication

Birijandi parviz etal (2005:144) explains the phenomenon of assimilation he says The longue cannot always more quickly enough to get from one position to another in order to articulate the next sound or the mouth is too busy anticipating the following sound. Lodge (2009:145) says in any utterance a speaker uses a particular sequence movement of his or her articulators but in no sense changes one articulation in to another during speech. Mccully, (2009:185) adds that It seems to be a natural human tendency to anticipate what comes next in any string of speech. Rogerson (2011:162) has viewed that in natural fluent speech it is quite common for phonemes at word boundaries to be influenced by each other, that is, a sound belonging to one word can cause changes in sounds belonging to neighboring words. Roach (2009:121) sees that assimilation is something which varies in extent according to speaking rate and style it is more likely to be found in rapid casual speech and less likely in slow careful speech. However, Alkhuli (2002:152) sees that sound … often tends to gain more similarity for the purpose of articulation easiness the sound may influence a following one or preceding one… a voiced sound may become voiceless or a voiceless one may become voiced. A sound may change its point or, manner of articulation to be more similar to its neighboring sound. For Katam, Francis (1996) having assimilation results

in smoother, more effortless and more economical transition from one sound to another. However, Handke, Jurgen (2012) views assimilation as an obligatory in present day he says in present day English the pronunciation with fused consonants is usually obligatory.

2.1.1.1.3 Types of Assimilation

According to Skandera etal (2005:90) assimilation is of different types these are; assimilation is a means of maintaining the natural, isochronous rhythm of English language. He classified it as follows: assimilation of regressive direction such as: This year / ðɪs jɪə/ becomes / ðɪj jɪə/, Bright color / braɪt kælə/ becomes / braɪk kælə/, Light blue / laɪt blu: / becomes / laɪp blu: /.Asimlation of progressive direction such as: Those year / ðəʊsjɪə/ becomes / ðəʊʒjɪə/, Ribbon /rɪbn / becomes /rɪbm /, Reckon / rekn / becomes / rekŋ /. Assimilation of consonant change which is divided into assimilation of place; Alveolar+ biliabial becomes biliabial /t/ becomes /p/ before biliabial; eg: right place /raɪp pleɪs/, might buy becomes /maɪp baɪ/. /d/ becomes /b/before biliabial, eg: good by /gʊd baɪ/ becomes /gʊb baɪ/, should put /ʃʊd pʊt / becomes /ʃʊb pʊt /. /n/ becomes / m / before biliabial; eg: ten men /ten men/ becomes /tem men/, seen water/si:n wɔ:tə/ becomes /si:m wɔ:tə/. Alveolar + velar becomes velar. /t/ becomes /k/ before /k/ and /g/; eg : might come / maɪt kʌm/ becomes /maɪk kʌm/, that girl /ðætgɜ:l/ becomes /ðækgɜ:l/ . /d/becomes /g/ before /k/ and /g/; eg: should come /ʃʊd kʌm/ becomes /ʃʊg kʌm/, should go /ʃʊd gəʊ/ becomes/ ʃʊg gəʊ/. / n/ becomes /ŋ/ before /k/ and / g /; eg: one cup / wʌn kʌp/ becomes / wʌ ŋ kʌp/, main gate / meɪn geɪt/ becomes /meɪ ŋ geɪt/. Alveolar + dental becomes dentalized; eg: get there / get ðeə/ becomes /get ðeə /, tenth /tenθ / becomes / tenθ /, bad thing /bæd θɪŋ/ becomes /bæd θɪŋ /. Assimilation of manner, there is only regressive Assimilationofalveolar consonant; Plosive + fricative becomes fricative;

eg. That side becomes / ðæssaɪd/, thatzoo becomes /ðæz zuː/, good songbcomes / gʊs sɒŋ/ and bad zone becomes /bæz zəʊn/. Plosive + nasal becomes nasal; eg. That night becomes /ðæn naɪt/ andgood night becomes /gʊn naɪt/. Assimilation of voice; There is only regressive assimilaton of voice in find consonant (lenis) + initial consonant (fortis) consonant final becomes devoiced; eg: have to / hæv tuː / becomes /hæʃ tuː /, bad tongue / bæd tʌŋ / becomes / bæt tʌŋ / , big car / bɪ g kɑː/ becomes / bɪk kɑː/ , I like that black dog /aɪ laɪk ðæt blæk dɒg/ becomes/ aɪ laɪg ðæd blæg dɒg/ .

Kridler (2004) adds other type of assimilation, calls it mutual assimilation. He said:

the tongue tip touches the alveolar ridge for /t d/. As the tongue is released air moves through the groove (of the tongue) and friction results eg: 1-train, drain, strain 2-rain, brain, grain. contact is generally farther back for / t d / than when these consonants precede vowels so, / t/ and /d / are assimilated to / r/ in place of articulation and / r/ is assimilated to / t d / in becoming fricative.

2.1.1.1.4 Linking and Intrusion (laision) in Communication

As stated by O'Connor (1998) one thing in saying word groups is saying them fluently, smoothly, with no gaps or hesitation in the middle. When you know what words you have to say you should be capable of saying them without stumbling over the sounds and sequences of sounds.in English as we have seen, one word is not separated from another by pausing or hesitating; the end of one word flows straight on to the beginning of the next. To improve your fluency, try the method of lengthening word group. Here is an example: I went home on the Sunday morning train. First say the short group: I went home smoothly; if you stumble, say it again, until you are sure that you can do. Then add the next three words and say: I went home on the Sunday, also without

stumbling. Now add the word (morning) and say the whole thing from the beginning; and finally add the word (train). Don't be satisfied until you can say it without hesitation and with your best English sound and rhythm. One difficulty which often affects foreign learners is connected with a vowel at the beginning of a word, especially if it begins a stressed syllable.eg: He is always asking awkward questions. where /ɔ:lw ɪz/,/ ɑ:skɪŋ / and /ɔ:kw əd / all begin with a stressed vowel. English speakers glide smoothly from the final sound of the word before to the initial vowel of the following word with no break, no hesitation… many speakers of other languages separate the two words by a glottal stop and this gives a very jerky effect in English. /hi:z ɔ:lwɪz ɑ:skɪŋ ɔ:kwəd kwestʃənz/. When the final sound of the word is a consonant it will help if you imagine that it belongs to the following word, and we might transcribe our example:/hi: zɔ:lwɪ zɑ:skɪ ŋɔ:kwəd kwestʃənz/. This will stop you make a gap before a vowel. If the final sound of the word before is a vowel there are various ways of avoiding the gap: Using gentle /j/ sound before /ʌ eɪ ɔɪ aɪ / when end in / ɪ /. eg: /ði: j ʌ ð ə / gentle / j /sound distinguishes between the occurrence of boundaries in pair phrases e.g: my ears /maɪ j ɪəz/ and my years / maɪ jɪəz / where / jɪəz/ has longer and stronger / j / than the short and gentle glide before / ɪəz/. Similarly, in using the linking /w/ -sound e.g. To others /tu: ʌðəz/, go in /g əʊ w ɪn/, how old /haʊ w ɒld/, two eyed / tu: w aɪd/ and too wide / tu: waɪd/. The vowel /ɜ: / and /ə / can always be linked to a following vowel by / r / e.g: her own /hɜ: r əʊn/, forever / fər evə/ and this is also true for /ɪə, eə ,ʊə / e.g: clear air/klɪə r eə /, share out / ʃeə r aʊt/, poor Eve / pʊə r i:v/. Again it may help to attach the / r/ sound to the following word: e.g. her own /hɜ:rəʊn/, clear air /klɪəreə/. When / ɔ: / or /ɑ:/ occur at the end of a word and vowel immediately follows we also use /r/ as a link if the spelling has

the letter <r> in it, but not otherwise, so /r/ occurs in: more and more / m ɔ: r ən m ɔ: / but not in: Saw off /sɔ: ɒf/ and it also occurs in < far a way > /fɑ: r əweɪ /. When we go from /ɔ:/ or /ɑ:/ to a following vowel without a linking /r/ we glide smoothly one to the other with no interruption of the voice by a glottal stop. (P.100).

Verbal (2009:7) says each segmental phoneme has a definite number of allophones differ in their distribution…, the articulation of allophones within words and at the junctures of the words in the flow of speech merge and interpenetrate each other…for joining the sounds together…v+c, c+c, and v+v. Roach (1998:138) says that an essential part of acquiring fluency in English is learning to produce connected speech without gaps between words and this is the practical importance of linking.

Skandera etal (2005:109) explains that:

In non- rhotic accent, the/ r/ phoneme is articulated only before a vowel, not before a consonant or pause eg:/ fɑ: r əweɪ/. Intrusion in a word initial position (prosthesis) does not usually occur in English ln a word-internal position (epenthesis) eg:/ d r ɔ: ɪ ŋ / and/pli:z/.more specific term vowel between tow consonants is anaptyxis. Intrusion in a word final position is called paragoge / mi:dɪə ɪvent/ and / tʊ ɪŋgləɳd /.

Birjandi (2005:105) elaborates the extension of linking says that linking is not limited to the /r/ sound, it can also be used by /j/ and /w/, in English the [+ tense, - low] vowels [i: u: e ɔ:] are predictably followed by a glide …. The end of one word attaches to the beginning of the next word. This is also true for initial numbers and spelling …it helps a great deal toward making you sound like a native speaker. There are for main points where liaisons happen in English; first C followed by V including /w/, /j/ and the liquid /r/. E.g. American accent /əmer k n æ k sə n t/, L A /

e h leɪ /, 909-5068 / naɪ nəʊ naɪn, faɪ vəʊ sɪk seɪt /. Secondly; C followed by C of place of articulation .eg: I just did n't get the chance/ aɪdʒʌ sdɪdən geð ə ʧæns / I have been late twice / aɪvbɪn leɪtwaɪs /. Thirdly; V followed by V. eg:go away/gəʊ əweɪ /, I also need the other one/ aɪɑ: lsəʊ ni:d ðəʌðə wʌn /, the idea of space travel is new / ðəaɪdɪə əvsp eɪ s trævə lɪz nu: / Fourthly; / t / + /j/ becomes / ʧ / as in what is your name? / w ʌ ʧ ə r n eɪ m /, don't you like it? /dəʊnʧə laɪ ɪt /, actually/ æ ʧ ə l ɪ /. / d / followed by / j / becomes / ʤ / as in what did you do? / w ʌ (d ɪ) ʤ ə d u: /, would you help me / wʊʤʊ hep mi: / did you like it? / d ɪ ʤ ə l aɪ k ɪt /, graduation / grædʒ eɪʃən /, / s / followed by / j/ becomes / ʃ /as in insurance / ɪnʃʊrəns /, sugar / ʃ u: g ə /. / z / followed by / j / becomes / ʒ /as in how's your family? / h aʊ ʒə fæ m ɪ l ɪ /, Who is your friend ? / h u: ʒ ə f r e n d /, causual / kæ ʒ ʊ w l /, usual / j u: ʒ ʊ w l /. Ammar (1975.17). Adds that the sounds before and after the t sounds, namely vowel sounds, the r sound, l sound, m sound and n sound all can alter (change) the letter t pronunciation. The t sound is also dependent on its placement in a word and syllable stress for determining the most likely pronunciation. On the other hand, Ogden, Richard (2009:105) adds that African American vernacular English as being mostly non – rhotic, sometimes drops/ r /, eg: story/ s t ɔɪ /, Paris/ p æ s /, carol/kaɪ /. From the point of view of modern speakers, linking and intrusive -r are the same phenomenon. However, Handke (2012) states that some linking phonemes that provide the gaps between the words have three linking phonemes in present day English.eg:/ði: ərəʊmə əv ti: gri:tɪd ju: əz ju entəd ɑ: ɒfɪs/ The aroma of tea greeted you as you entered our office. Mc Mohon (2002:140) provides that producing two vowels side – by – side appears to be rather difficult for speakers, and on intrusive consonant may allow more fluid and less hesitant speech. Regerson–Revell (2011:177)

explains the role of linking in increasing perceptions of fluency, he says that the most valuable aspect of linking for L2 learners is that, it can increase perception of fluency as it enables the production of connected speech, without breaks between words. The accented speech is shown by the insertion of phonemes as Edwards (2008:196) says at the segmental level accented speech is signaled by the omission or insertion of phones, the substitution of one phone for another or the production, of phones that differ at the subphonemic level from native-like. However, Gussman (2002) says that afinal /r/ is not possible when the next word begins with a consonant or when there is a pause … it is only the presence of following vowel that allows a preceding / r / to be pronounced. eg: the verb (answer) in (answer it) and (answerable) / ænsərɪt / and / ænsərəbl /. Albert (2008:35) states his ideas on this side says that any find sound can be practiced in new way through linking words together. This helps concentrate students' minds on the particular sound…it also helps with listening comprehension since words in thought groups typically run together. Eg: The boats entered the water. <boatsssentered> and <she has less of everything.> <lessss of>.

2.1.1.1.5 Elision in Communication

Skandera et al (2005:109) views that elision is an important means of making the pronunciation easier, and consequently of maintaining the natural, isochronous rhythm of English. Elision can be described of two categorizations; based on the kind and the position of the sounds omitted. Elision in grammatical words resulting in weak forms. The categorization based on the kind of sounds omitted distinguishes between a- elision of consonants to simplify consonant dusters eg: clothes/klaʊəz/, twelfth /twelfθ/ is pronounced /twelθ/, next, please /kstpl/ is pronounced

/nekspli:z/. b- elision of vowels; can occur in unstressed syllables of polysyllabic words, before or after a stressed syllable or after a stressed syllable and after one of fortis plosive, /ptk/ with aspiration eg: /phteitəʊ/, /thdei/. If an elided vowel is followed by /n,l/ or /r/, however, the gap is sometimes filled by transforming that consonant in a syllabic consonant eg: <tonight> /təna it/ is pronounced /tnait/,<polce> /pəli:s/ is pronounced /pli:s/, <correct> /kərekt/ is pronounced /krekt/. c- elision of whole syllable can occur when the syllables are unstressed, most typically just before or after a stressed syllable, especially when the elided syllable contains a consonant that is repeated in the following syllable. eg: <library> /laibrari/ is pronounced /laibri/ and <particularly> /ptikj ələli/ is pronounced /pətikəli/ the position of the sound‹s› omitted distinguishes between a- elision at the beginning of a word (aph‹a› eresis) e.g. telephone → phone b- elision in the middle of a word (syncope) or (syncopation) eg: particularly → /pətikjəli/ c- elision at the end of a word (a pocope) or (a apocopation) … (back-clipping) eg: <advertisement> to <ad>, <hippopotamus> to <hippo>, <laboratory> to <lab> … or for-and-aft clipping: eg: <influenza> becomes <flu> and <Elizabeth> becomes <liz>.

Handke, (2012) sees elision as the influence of context he adds to say that elision happens under the influence of context and there are flanking and internal elisions. Flanking is such as <last time> /lɑ:st taım / becomes /laıstaım/, <kon'tbe> /kɑ:ntbi:/ becomes /kɑ:mbi:/. Internal elision effects both vowel and consonant. eg: <frightening> /fraıtəniŋ/ becomes /fraıtniŋ/ <windscreen> /windskri:n/ becomes /winskri:n/.

Roach (2009:27) adds that elision of vowel in English usually happens when a short, unstressed vowel occurs between voiceless consonant, eg:

in the first syllable of 'perhaps', 'potato', the second syllable of 'bicycle' or the third syllable of 'philosophy'. In some cases, we find a weak voiceless sound in place of the normally voiced vowel that would have been expected. Elision also occurs when a vowel occurs between an obstruct consonant and a sonorant consonant such as a nasal or a lateral: this process leads to syllabic consonants as in (sudden→/sʌdŋ/), (owful→/ɔ:fl/). Elision of consonants in English happens most commonly when a speaker 'simplifies' a complex consonant cluster: (acts→/æks/) rather than /ækts/, (twelfth night→/twelθnaɪt/ or /twelfnaɪt/) rather than /twelfθnaɪt/. In the realization of reduction and its impact on elision, Foiskola etal (2009:36-50-51) explain that in rapid colloquial speech, reduction may result in vowel elision, the complete omission of the unstressed vowel which is also known as zero reduction … likely to occur in a sequence of unstressed syllables. eg: Has he done it? [hæzhidnnit]→[həzhi, dnnit]→[əzi,dnnit]→[zi,dnnit].Historicalelisions are initial consonants as in <write, know, knight>, the medial consonants /t/ as in<fasten, listen, whistle, castle>.

Rogerson-Revell (2011) states that:

"in natural fluent L_1 English speech, quite a lot of sounds not only change … but are not actually pronounced. In a sense, elision is a simplification and an economy made in rapid colloquial speech … It occurs as contraction of verb forms (auxiliaries, and modal auxiliaries)." p167

Pirjandi et al (2005:147) explain the view of elision said:

The sound that are elided are those sounds that are so weakly articulated, that they no longer have any auditory significance … meaning does not suffer from this contraction … the faster the speech, the more likely that sounds and syllables will be elided … when a vowel is elided, it is usually a weak vowel (schwa) when a consonant is elided, it is usually because of it is in an environment with other consonants.

Edwards (2008:202) state the following views towards the phenomenon of elision, he said:

At the segmental level, accented speech is signaled by the omission … of phones, the substitution of one phone for another, or the production of phones that differ at the subphonemic level from native-like segments … sound substitution m L_2 speech may occur when the L_1 does not contain the L_2 target phone, or when the L_2 target appears in a position prohibited by the L1.

2.1.1.1.6 Juncture in Communication

As stated by Skandera et al (2005:74-75) there are phonological and phonetic features that mark the beginning and the end of linguistic units … the boundary between syllables, words and clauses … there are four ways (signals) of realizing juncture: Firstly; pauses filled with hesitation noises such as ‘er’, and ‘um’. Secondly, restrictions on the possible positions and combinations of phonemes (phonotactics), certain phonemes and phoneme combinations never occur at the beginning, within or at the end of linguistic unit. Thirdly, by the suprasegmental features of (stress and intonation) loudness, pitch and duration. Fourthly, through the rule-governed phonetic processes that take place when phonemes occur at the beginning or end of linguistic units, such as the partial devoicing of some lenis consonant in word-initial position, and the full devoicing of these consonants in word-final position … may be come from allophones in complementary distribution. eg: /ðætstʌf/ a- That stuff b- That's tough. (/s/ is less fortis intensity). He further more adds to explain the most common typology of juncture; "open" eg: <nitrate> … it is not the boundary signals, but the context that helps to distinguish the separate words <at all, a tall> … such a broad concept of juncture overlaps considerably with the concept of Liaison.

Roach (2009:127) says that linking r" and "intrusive r" are special cases of junctures; we need to consider the relationship between one sound and the sounds that immediately precede and follow it … what is it that makes perceptible the difference between /maɪtɜ:n/ and /maɪtɜ:n/? The answer is that in one case the /t/ is fully aspirated (initial in 'turn'), and in the other case it is not (being final in 'might'). In addition to this, the /aɪ/ diphthong is shorter in 'might' … the position of a word boundary has some effect on the realization of the /t/ phoneme. The context in which the words occur almost always makes it clear where the boundary comes, and the juncture information is then redundant.

As Gimson (1989:305) states that the situation of the word boundaries has an impact on the meaning of an utterance. The phonemic sequence /pi:stɔ:ks/ may mean <pea stalks> or <peace talks> according to the situation of the word boundaries (i.e. /i:−st/ or /i:st−tɔ:/).

As stated by Alkhuli (2002:200) juncture has a communicative role in a sense that the plus /t/ juncture influences the phonemes before and after it. Before the plus juncture, stops are unreleased, and continuant consonant, vowels and glides are lengthened e.g., night + rote …, concerning phonemes after the plus juncture, voiceless stops are aspirated and continuants are shortened, e.g., that's + tough, that + stuff … juncture also prevents the clustering of consonants before and after it. The plus juncture also exists between secondary and primary stress, e.g., much m'ore, hot s'un. Rising juncture makes the end of an utterance accompanied by arise in the pitch of the voice, especially at the end of yes-no questions, e.g., Have you seen him lately? ↗ Falling juncture makes the end of an utterance by falling the pitch of the voice, e.g., He came quickly. ↘ sustained juncture is symbolized as /→/. It is used in speaking (inside the sentence not at its end) almost where commas are

used in writing. It is used between the subject and the predicate of a sentence, e.g., My son → is coming tomorrow (optional juncture), before and after the oppositive structure, e.g., Ali→ my friend → is leaving soon. And between the words of a series, e.g., He bought a book→ a pen→ a bag → and many other things.

2.1.1.1.7 Quantitative and Qualitative Reduction

Foiskola et al (2009) illustrates the modification of vowels in a speech chain traced in the directions, they are either quantitative or qualitative or both. These changes of vowels in a speech continuum are determined by a number of factors such as the position of the vowel in the word, accentual structure, tempo of speech, rhythm, …, etc. The decrease of the vowel quantity or in other words the shortening of the vowel length is known as quantitative modification of vowels, which may be illustrated as follows: The shortening of the vowel length occurs in unstressed positions, eg: blackboard [ɔ:], sorrow [əʊ] (reduction). In these cases, reduction affects both the length of the unstressed vowels and their quality. Form words often demonstrate quantitative reduction in unstressed position. eg: Is → he or she to be blamed? – [hi:] but of last he has come. – [hi]. The length of a vowel depends on its position in a word… Phonetic environments. English vowels are said to have position length, eg. Knee – need – neat. The vowel [i:] is the longest in the final position. It is obviously shorter before the lenis voiced consonant [d], and it is the shortest before the fortis voiceless consonant [t]…Qualitative modification of most vowels occurs in unstressed position. Unstressed vowels lose their "color", their quality, which is illustrated by the examples below: In unstressed syllables vowels of full value are usually subjected to qualitative changes, eg. man [mæn] – sportsman [spɔ:tsmən], conduct ['k ən'dʌkt]. In such cases the quality of the vowel is reduced to

the neutral sound [ə]. Slight degree of nasalization marks vowels preceded or followed by the nasal consonants [n], [m], e.g. never, no, then, men accommodation.

McMahon (2002:140) adds, the bulk of these segmental phonological processes are characteristic of fact and casual speech referred to as connected speech process. These involve either assimilation or reductions … in some cases vowels, however, do not only reduce in fast speech: they are deleted … such as processes do not always affect, however, sometimes both vowels and consonants… many of these processes therefore have a similar rational, in making life easier for speaker, and allowing speech tempo to be kept consistently fast.

2.1.1.1.8 The Phonological Shape of the Plural Morpheme

Thakur (2002) Formulates the discipline of phonological features of morphemes as follows: The phonological shape of the plural morpheme depends on the final sound of the noun to which this morpheme is added. Thus /s /, /z/and / ɪ z /are the three phonologically determined allomorphs of the plural morpheme in English, where the past-tense morpheme in a regular verb is realized as /t/, /d/ or / ɪ d / depends, similarly, on the final sound of the base form of that verb… therefore, /t/, /d/ and / ɪ d/ are the three phonological conditioned allomorphs of the past-tense morpheme in English. When the phonological shape has been determined by its place in relation to the adjoining morpheme, the process is morphologically conditioned morph. e.g.* nation/neɪʃn /./neɪʃn + morpheme <al> becomes / næʃnəl/ so, /neɪʃn / becomes / n æ ʃ n/ under the influence of < -al>.*photo / f ə ʊ t ə ʊ/ , / f ə ʊ t ə ʊ/ + <-graphy> becomes / f ə t ʊ g r ə f ɪ / so, / f ə ʊ t ə ʊ/becomes / f ə t ʊ/ under the influence of < -graphy >. He further added the following rules: The plural morpheme < s >

becomes / s /, / z / or / ɪ z /. 1-If a noun ends in a voiceless sound other than /s/, /ʃ /or /ʧ/, the plural morpheme at the end of that noun is realized as / s /. E.g. caps /k æ p s/, hats /h æ t s/, parks /p ɑ: k s/, roots / r u: f s /, births / b ɜ: θ s/. 2-If a noun ends in a voiced sound other than /z /, /ʒ/ or /ʤ/ the plural Morpheme at the end of that noun is realized as / z /. e.g. cities/ s ɪ t ɪ z/, Cows /k ə ʊ z/, beds /bedz/, bottles /b ʊ ttl z/, dogs / d ʊ g z /, homes/h ə ʊ m z/, pens /penz/, songs /s ʊ ŋ z /.3-If a noun ends in /s /, / z /, /ʃ /, / ʒ /, /ʧ/, or / ʤ/, the plural morpheme of that noun is realized as / ɪ z /. E.g. horses /h ɔ: s ɪ z /, mirages /m ɪ r ɑ: ʒ ɪ z /, brushes /brʌ ʃ ɪ z/, prizes /p raɪ z ɪz /, torches / t ɔ: ʧ ɪz/, languages /l æ ŋ g w ɪ ʤ ɪ z /. The four types of exceptions to these pluralization rules are as follows: i. Nouns in which the consonant of the end of the base is changed before the plural morpheme is applied.a./ θ / →/ð/ + /z/ e.g. bath /b ɑ: θ/ → baths/bɑ: ðz/mouth /maʊθ/, mouths / m a ʊ ð z/. b./ f /→ / v / + / z / e.g. half / h ɑ: f/ →halves/h ɑ: vz/, knife /n a ɪv z /. c. / s / → / z / + /ɪ z / e.g. house / h aʊ s / → houses / h aʊ zɪ z /. ii. Nouns in which the plural morpheme is realized in terms of a vowels change .eg. foot iii. Nouns in which the plural morpheme is realized in form of a zero-morph e.g. dear, Japanese, Lebanese, Portuguese, Chinese, sheep, Swiss. I. Nouns in which the plural morpheme is realized as / ən / or /n /with or without a change in the base. Eg. ox→ oxen, child → children.4-The genitive morpheme and the third person singular number present tense morpheme are identical with the pluralization rules stated above. The exception to these rules are: i. In the case of proper nouns ending in / z /, the genitive morpheme is realized as / ɪ z/ or as zero the regular form being is / ɪ z /. Eg: Dickens Dickens'(s) /d ɪ k ɪ n z ɪ z /, Forbes'(s)ii. In the following two types of examples the genitive suffixes have a zero realization. a. In a number of fixed expressions, eg: for Jesus' sake, for goodness sake. b. In

the case of Greek names of more than one syllable, eg: Sophocles' plays, Socrates' disciple,' friend. iii. In the case of plural nouns ending ''s'', the genitive suffix is realized as zero. Eg: boys' hostel, students' union, teachers' flats. 5-The Past morpheme [ed] becomes /t/, /d/or/ ɪ d/. a. If a verb ends in a voiceless sound other than /t/, the past tense morpheme or past participle morpheme in that verb is realized as/t/, e.g.: hoped /h ə ʊp t /, talk /t ɔ: l k t /, missed /m ɪ s t /, marched /m ɑ: ʧ t /, pushed /p ʊ ʃ t /, rushed /r ʌ ʃ t /. a. If a verb ends in a voiced sound other than /d/ the past tense morpheme or the past participle morpheme in that verb is realized as/d/ eg: played / p l e ɪ d /, cried /k r a ɪ d /, bombed /b ʊ md /. b. If the verb ends in /t/ or /d/ the past-tense morpheme or the past participle morpheme is realized as /id/.eg: parted /p ɑ: t ɪ d/, decided/d ɪ s a ɪ d ɪ d/, nodded /n ʊ d ɪ d/. The exception to this rules are: c. Verbs in which all the three forms are the same: e.g.: cut → cut → cut, hit → hit→ hit, put → put→ put cost → cost →cost, burst → burst → burst. verbs in which three forms are different from each other: eg: do → did→ done, choose → chose → chosen, go → went →gone a. Verbs in which the past tense form in the same as the past participle form: eg: bring → brought →brought, find →found →found. teach →taught→ taught, buy →bought →bought b. verbs in which the base form is the same as the past participle form: eg: come → came → come 6. The morpheme operates only as a prefix. the rules of its phonological realization is: i. If a word begins with /i/.eg: legal →illegal, logical→ illogical legible → illegible ii. If a word begins with /m/, /p/or/b/ the negative morpheme [in-] prefixed to that word is realized as / ɪ m / Eg: mobile →immobile, Probable → improbable, Balance → imbalance iii. If a word begins with /r/, the negative morpheme [in-]prefixed to that word is realized as/ ɪ r /. Eg: regular → irregular, Rational → irrational iii. If a word begins with

/k/or /g/, the negative morpheme [in]prefixed to that word is realized either as / ɪ n/or as / ɪ ŋ /. e.g. coherent → incoherent, complete →incomplete, gratitude →ingratitude-If a words begins with /f/or/v/, the negative morpheme prefixed to that word is realized as/in/. e. g: formal →informal, valuable →invaluable, valid → invalid. f-If a word begins with /t/, /d/, /s/, / ʤ/or/n/, the negative morpheme[-in] prefixed to that word is realized as /ɪ n/. e. g: tolerable → intolerable, declinable → indeclinable, sane → insane, sincere → insincere, justice→ injustice, numerable → innumerable-If a word begins with a vowel, the negative morpheme [in-] prefixed to that word is realized as /ɪ n/. e.g. active →inactive, operable →inoperable, organic → inorganic.7. What the added or replaced in the case of the morphological modification of a word is not a word element but a sound or at the most a cluster of sounds. The four principle types of modification in English are: i. The medial vowel in the root is replaced by another vowel. e.g. eat→ ate, fight→ fought, get →got, meat →met, shoot → shot. ii. The find consonant in the root is replaced by another consonant. e.g. bend → bent, build →built, spend → spent iii. The medial vowel in the root is replaced by another vowel and at the sometime, an additional consonant (usually the consonant /t/) is added at the end of the root. e.g. teach → taught / t ɔ: t /, catch → caught /k ɔ:t /, leap → leapt / l e p t /, sleep → slept /slept/ iv. The medial vowel in the root is replaced by another vowel and at the same time, the consonant or the consonant cluster at the end of the base is replaced by another consonant or consonant cluster. e.g. catch → caught / k ɔ: t /, teach → taught/t ɔ: t /, lose →lost /l ʊ s t /, think→ thought / θʊ t /.

2.1.1.1.9 The Concept of Intelligibility

Richards (1987) Says that:

"…the intelligibility of speech is due to various factors including accent and intonation, the listener's ability to predict parts of the message, the location of pause in the utterance, the grammatical complexity of the sentences, and the speed with which utterance are produced." p.144

The ability to decode poorly realized pronunciation, to unconsciously or consciously reformulate while listening to inaccurate sounds or deviant features. This is an ability that experienced teachers of ESOL develop to a high degree. It is a skill that all native speakers share to some extent. It is skill, however, that tends to be minimally developed in those who are approaching the language as learners. Parker and Graham (2002:8)

As stated by Ray and Seely (2015:8) there must be at least one vehicle for developing fluent oral expression - a way for students to express themselves orally in their own words, not memorized lines. This must include a way for them to develop an often ignored aspect of fluency – connected speech in which they say one sentence after another.

2.1.1.1.10 Communication and Intelligibility

According to Parker and Graham (2002:195) they view these concepts as bounded "Terms such as communicative effectiveness and comfortable intelligibility are often bounded about. The easiest case of communication task place between two persons. The speaker conveys a message to the listener, through speech and sometimes aided by gestures. It may also entail one person speaking to crowd or many people conveying a message to one person. Thus true communication cannot take place without a speaker and a listener. There is a certain relationship of give and take that

exists between the two. It is clear that for a complete act of communication there must be cycle. As Gray and Wise put it, if we speak to some who gives no evidence of having heard, the act of communication has not been completed; we must have knowledge that he has heard and responded in some way (1959:10)". In other words, they are saying that we can only talk of effective communication when the speaker is intelligible to the listener or when both are mutually intelligible. Communication and intelligibility are therefore closely related phenomena. Any form of communication involves some degree of intelligibility. In other words, communicative expressions are ways of making things intelligible. Furthermore, mankind uses language to communicate. Constraints exist in communication, being phonological, morphological, and lexical – there is also shared understanding of the meaning of words. Both speakers and listener feel involved and see the process from the point of view of give and take and not as a one-sided affair. (ibid). Uddin (2013:17-36) says that in the process of developing oral Proficiency, speaking skills comes late. It is a productive skill which comes after receptive skills i.e. listening. In English as a second language context, speaking is perhaps the most important of the four language skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing. Cater and Nunan (2001) adds: "speaking is a linguistic activity which… consist of several elements: …pronunciation (sounds)…'fluency ease of (ease of speech)". According to Sylor (2005) having a command of standard pronunciation is a very important tool of a good pronunciation in English. Proper pronunciation means reproducing the sound of the word through speech in such a way that any speaker of the language would effortlessly know and understand the message. Improper pronunciation causes a breakdown

in communication and requires more effort to understand. qtd in Adair (P.7).

Roach (2009:90) adds “the relationship between strong and weak syllables and the overall prosodic characteristics of words and sentences are essential to intelligibility’’. Gibert (2009) adds that in English, changes in pitch help listeners follow the speakers meaning because these melodic signals provide cohesion and contrast. Not do they tell listeners what is new information, but they also help listeners to understand how the speaker intends to make connections with what came before (orientation) and will follow in the conversation. Skandera etal (2005) states that without the reduction and weak forms an isochronous rhythm would be impossible to maintain…yet, by distorting the natural, isochronous rhythm, second- language varieties (largely) sacrifice those parts of the message of on utterance that are (mainly) expressed by strong stress and thereby reduce intelligibility. Richards etal (2002) adds that in communication between native and non-native speakers or between second language speakers with different level and of proficiency, accommodation may serve to promote intelligibility.

However, Gimson (1989) illustrates the concept of intelligibility saying that if an attempt is made to approximate to native English speech from, the achievement may lie somewhere between two extremes" asset of distinctive elements which correspond in some measure to the inventory of the RP phonemic system and which Is capable of conveying a message efficiently from a native English listener’s stand point, given that the listener has had time to turn in to the speaker’s pronunciation … and high acceptability, i. e a form of speech which a native listener may not identify as non- native. Which conveys information as readily as would a

native's and which arrives at this result though precision in the phonetic (allophonic) realization of phonemes and by confident handling of accentual and intonational patterns? Too much should not be made of phonetic and phonological niceties, … with in a defined context and with an adequate stock of words and basic syntactic patterns, considerable intelligibility can be achieved even though the pronunciation is seriously deformed, restricted intelligibility … it is the spoken from of transmission that phonetic and phonological interference from the indigenous language may erect a formidable insignificant barrier for listeners from communities where English is a native language. If the interference is such that no attempt is made to do other than use the sound system and prosody of the indigenous language, however effective this may be within the country with native English speakers may break down. (P.316-317)

2.1.1.1.11 Factors Hindering Intelligibility in Communication

The speaker's speech may be full of self-corrections, hesitations and Grammatical restructurings. Listeners will find such a speaker very difficult to understand. It has been found that speakers who hesitate a lot also tend to have pronunciation problems (ken worthy 1987). Another factor impeding intelligibility is rapid speech when a speaker speaks too quickly, this can also hinder intelligibility. The issue of speed has, however, been seen to be less of an issue because two people or speakers may have the same speed of speed of speech but one turns of more intelligible than the other. Idiosyncratic speech habits may also affect intelligibility. Some individuals develop certain unique speech habits that can confuse listener, especially those who are not familiar with speech habits. This is one of the serious factors to consider when selecting speakers to represent a given variety. Those with idiosyncratic speech

habits are not supposed to be included in such experiments. Noise is equally a very sensitive point in that many commentators tend to talk about noise as a factor that militates against speech intelligibility. It is good to always think of noise in terms of the degree. It is true that communication is often surrounded by many uncertainties. Ken worthy (1987) reports cherry's (1968:273) view on these uncertainties: Uncertainties of speech sound or acoustic patterning, e.g. variations, intones or loudness. Uncertainties of language and syntax, vocabulary and usage. Environmental uncertainties, e.g. street noises telephone bells, background chatter. Recognition uncertainties, e.g. the peculiar past experiences of the listener, his familiarity with the speaker's speech habits, knowledge of the language, subject matter etc. ken worthy (1987:279). It is rare for communication to take place in completely ideal conditions. That is, avoiding all the factors that's hinder intelligibility). The core chiefly comprises segmental features but also placement, or sentence stress (see Jenkins, 2002 for a complete description.) In her study of ELF interaction, she further observed that NBESs accommodated to each other, thereby increasing intelligibility, by converging on more target-like forms and reducing L1 transfer features when dealing with these high risk core areas. Although pronunciation has been described as "possibly the greatest single barrier to successful communication" (Jenkins, 2000, p. 83), phonology is only one aspect of a speaker's language output, and other linguistic variables are perceptually salient for ELF interlocutors. Meierkord (2004) investigated the syntactic forms produced in 22 hours of conversation between outer and expanding circle speakers. Despite finding some "extreme divergences" from the rules of inner circle varieties, she found that these did not impede comprehensibility. This concurs with Jenkins (2000) who found that

grammatical miscues played a minor role in comprehensibility in ELF interaction. It is noteworthy, however, that Meierkord describes ELF as a "syntactically heterogeneous form of English" (2004, p. 128) in which she found unstable and unsystematic features, and she surmises that we are some way from the development of a standard international form of English. Lexical variation is likely to impede comprehension in the form of variety specific idioms (Jenkins, 2000; Seidlhofer, 2001) or in the use of localized vocabulary terms (Nelson, 1995). But perhaps more common with the cline of proficiency that is inevitably present in ELF interaction is vocabulary that is unknown to one or other of the participants (Meierkord, 2004). As with other aspects of language structure, pragmatics in cross-varietal contexts of English has typically dealt with NS/NNS interaction with inner circle varieties as the fulcrum (Gumperz, 1992; Pickering, 2001). Meierkord focuses on conversational data in ELF interactions and observes that there is a high degree of negotiation and collaborative achievement as revealed by participants' choice of behaviors such as pausing to allow transitions between conversational topics, choosing safe topics and using politeness strategies such as back-channels and routine formulaic expressions. She suggests that participants employ these strategies in order "to create a variety which assures a maximum of intelligibility" (2000, p.10). A rather different interpretation of these kinds of behaviors is given by House (1999) 'Interactions in English as a Lingua Franca and the Myth of Mutual Intelligibility', cited in Seidlhofer (2001). House argues that these behaviors are rather a reflection of a "palpable lack of mutual orientation" (p. 82) which may be designed to disguise a lack of solidarity between participants and pass over trouble spots (House, 1999, cited in Seidlhofer 2001, p. 143; see also House, 2002, for further discussion).Finally, at the level of discourse

structure, two initial studies suggest that while on one hand, ELF interlocutors may use more transparent information structuring devices such as topicalization structures to ease listener understanding (Meierkord, 2004), at the same time, speakers may transfer variety-specific features into international settings such as the use of discourse particles rather than acoustic cues to distinguish between new and old information in Singaporean English (EeLing Low, forthcoming). Clearly, these studies represent the beginning of a fruitful area of research. (qtd.in Lucy Pickery P2)

2.1.1.1.12 Factors Helping Intelligibility in Communication

When customers hear your voice on the other end of the line, they imagine the person behind the voice. If they like what they hear in the voice, chances are they will perceive you as knowledgeable and confident. If they don't like your voice, it makes them want to disconnect or speak to a supervisor. Your voice is your best vehicle for making the customer trust you. To exceed customer expectations, your voice must consistently sound upbeat, warm, under control and clear. Understanding your voice: All of us are born with a particular voice. It is our trademark. Most of us do not have a radio announcer's voice. However, unless there is a congenital defect, any voice can be improved by pausing and breathing. To improve the tone of your voice: 1. Make sure you are breathing from the diaphragm. Many people are shallow breathers. This can cause the voice to sound strident. 2. Drink lots of water to keep the voice sounding pleasant all day long. The ordinary person uses up a quart of water an hour. When you talk all day long on the phone, it is important to keep the vocal cords lubricated. 3. Avoid caffeine. It is a diuretic. 4. Sit up straight. Posture does affect breathing. 5. Use gestures to make your

voice sound energetic. It is especially important to use gestures when you are tired. They will give your voice additional power and will help you to emphasize words or phrases to get your point across. 6. You automatically warm up the tone of your voice when you smile. Your customers will notice the difference. Keep a mirror on your desk and notice if you are smiling while talking. 7. If your voice is particularly high or low, exercise the range of your voice by doing a sliding scale. You can also expand the range of your voice by singing. 8. Tape record your voice and play it back. Would this be a voice that says, "I care?" 9. Practice speaking at a slightly lower octave. Deeper voices have more credibility than higher pitched voices. It will take getting used to pitching your voice down an octave, but it will be worth the effort. It is also what on-air radio personalities have had to learn to do. 10. Get feedback on the tone of your voice. Ask your manager or a trusted friend. Your voice sells people on your knowledge level and professionalism. It helps you to gain their support when difficulties arise. Make it sound the best it can by pausing and breathing and by maintaining it with good posture, big gestures and plenty of water. Filek, Judith (2001)

The effect of context in intelligibility cannot be overlooked studies on intelligibility have proved that context is a very crucial factor in intelligibility. This may explain why the major investigation on the subject tended to give preference to connected speech (Bansal 1969; Tiffen 1974). Suggests that intelligibility can be increased 123 to 14 times when a context is supplied. The possibility may to be high as fry as fry suggests but the general tendency is that context greatly enhances intelligibility. One of the major listener factors with regard to intelligibility is familiarity. Familiarity can either be with the speech of an individual or within a given variety. If thus, if the listener is familiar with

or exposed to the speech habits of the speaker, this will ease intelligibility. In a like manner, if the listener is familiar with or exposed to given variety of English, this will equally affect the degree of intelligibility. Many surveys on intelligibility have proven that familiarity stands out as one of the key factors that foster intelligibility. Those surveys that tend to select subjects who are familiar with the speech habits of the speakers or the variety of English under investigation end up with very high intelligibility scores. A case in point is Smiths (1992) survey, whose findings show familiarity as a very important factor in respect of the listener decoding the speaker's message. That probably why he recommends that familiarity should be taken into consideration if we want to reduce the rate of intelligibility failure among speakers of different varieties of English. Larry Trask (2001) equally points out that intelligibility is not fixed, but improves over time, as speakers become more familiar with one another's speech. This helps them to adjust their speech accordingly... This account shows us not only how the concept of intelligibility is complex one, but also the influence of exposure and familiarity with respect to intelligibility testing. Furthermore, smith (1992) observes that Language proficiency is probably why we always take the level of education of the subjects we use in investigations into serious consideration. Scholars are still to agree on the basic level of education that qualifies a person or speaker to be called a speaker of an educated variety of English, especially when it comes to the new varieties of English…The bulk of current research in listener factors can collectively be described as investigating the effect of listener familiarity in relation to a number of different variables. A particularly significant area is listener experience with phonological representations of the target language. Field (2003, p. 36) argues that the "no invariance" of

phonemes, i.e., the lack of a single, 'ideal' representation suggests that listeners may store multiple representations of the phonemes and that the more we are exposed to a certain production, the more intelligible it will be. Major et al. (2002) suggest something similar for prosodic variables. Finding that Chinese and Japanese listeners understood Spanish accented English as well as standard American English, the authors speculate that this result is related to a similarity of prosodic rhythms in Spanish, Chinese and Japanese, specifically, the lack of vowel reduction. Another factor associated with interactional success in NS-NNS research is listener attitude (Lippi-Green, 1997; Rubin, 1992). Smith and Nelson (1985) suggest that a listener who expects to understand a speaker will be more likely to find that speaker comprehensible than one who does not. Although the effect of listener attitude in ELF interactions has rarely been studied (although see Dalton-Puffer, Kaltenboeck and Smit, 1997), an innovative study by Lindemann suggests a possible model of how this research might proceed. North American English speakers who had relatively positive or negative attitudes toward Koreans were matched with Korean speakers and asked to complete a map task. Qualitative and quantitative differences between the two groups revealed that North American partners with negative attitudes often failed to provide feedback to their Korean partners and "problematized their contributions" (2002, p. 431). Only two of the pairs in this group did not successfully complete the task, yet all six pairs rated their interactions as unsuccessful. As Lindemann (forthcoming) states, "[This] suggests that listeners may react negatively to certain accents (and thus claim to find them unintelligible) even when we would expect that the features of those accents themselves do not directly impede intelligibility." Additional variables that may affect intelligibility or perceived comprehensibility to

a greater or lesser degree for listeners include familiarity with a particular speech event, topic, or specific interlocutor, listener specific factors such as level of tiredness (Field, 2003) or situation specific factors such as environmental noise (Rogers, Dalby & Nishi, 2004; van Wijngaarden et al., 2002a; van Wijngaarden et al, 2002b). There are currently very few studies addressing these variables in ELF contexts. (qtd.in Lucy Pickery P2)

2.2 Section two

2.2.1 Suprasegmental Features

2.2.1.1 The Nature of the Stress

Vowels and consonants can be thought of as the segments of which speech is composed. Together they form the syllables that make up utterance. Superimposed on the syllables are other features known as suprasegmentals. These include variations in the stress and pitch. Variations in length are also usually considered to be suprasegmental features, although they can affect single segments as well as whole syllables. Ladefoged and Johnson (2010:25) Gilbert, Judy. B (2011) uses prosody pyramid to link between these features, she says:

"suprasegmentals or the prosody pyramid is the system makes possible for students to understand these features together…English communication depends on this system."

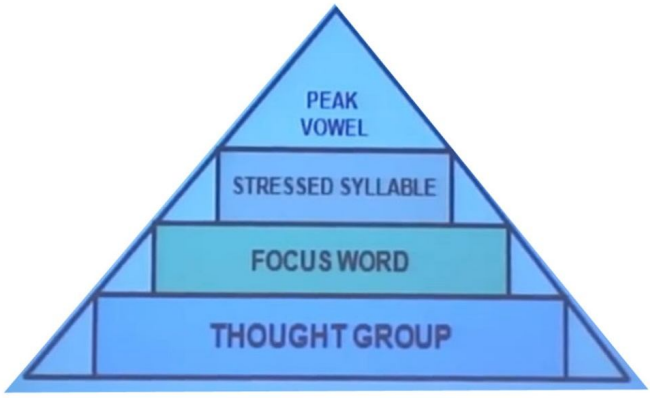


Figure (2.6) shows the prosody pyramid. Cambridge University press

Picture (2.1) shows stress levels. from Http://www.wikihow.com

The concept of stress that the production of stress is generally believed of depend on the speaker using more muscular energy than is used for unstressed syllable … when we produce stressed syllable, the muscles that we use to expel air from the lungs are more active, producing higher more subglottal pressure. It seems probable that similar things happen with muscles in other parts of our speech apparatus … from the perceptual point of view; all stressed syllables have factor in a sequence of identical syllables (e.g. ba: ba:ba: ba:). If one if one syllable is made louder than others, it will be heard as stressed … it is very difficult for a speaker to make a syllable louder without changing other characteristics of the syllable such as; the length of the syllable … if one of the syllable in ... "nonsense' word ba: ba: ba: ba: is made longer than the others, there is quite strong tendency for that syllable to be heard as stressed…Every syllable is said on some pitch… if one syllable of ...a word is said with a pitch that is noticeably different from that of others, this will have a strong tendency to produce the effect of prominence. For example, if all syllables are said with low pitch except for one said with high pitch, then the high – pitched syllable will be heard as stressed and the others as

unstressed. A syllable will tend to be prominent if it contains a rowel that is different in quality from neighboring vowels. If we change one of the rules in our ' nonsense' word (e.g. ba: ba: ba: ba:) the "odd" syllable bi: will tend to be heard as stressed ɪ, ʊ and ə (syllable consonants are also quite common) stressed syllables occur against "a background" of weak syllables, so that their prominence is increased by contrast with these background qualities these factors work together in combination, though syllables may sometimes be made prominent by means of only one or two of them. Roach (2009:93)

Nathan (2008:33-35) thinks that there is no absolute definition of a stressed syllable but only one compared to surrounding syllables … it is often longer; or louder, or the location for a sharp pitch jump. in addition, recent phonetic research has shown that the actual articulatory movements in stressed syllables … linguists in Great Britain generally believe that there is only one level of stress – stress is said to be binary, that is; either there or not …if the word is said as a question, the sharpest rise falls on the first syllable, and if it is said as a statement the sharpest fall falls on the first syllable … referred to as the tonic syllable e.g. ˈelevator ˌoperator.

Mc Mohan (2002:128) says, the factors of stress are three: the vowels … are produced with high fundamental frequency … heard as higher pitch. The duration is stressed syllable is greater and intensity and these heard as louder.

2.2.1.2 Functions of Stress in Communication

Birjandi etal (2005:111) pointed out these points that stress is the safest way to reduce and phrases don't have little pauses between them … in such a situation, stress or prominence can help indicate where the

boundaries are. This will make life easier for the listener … stress helps the listener to determine what the speaker means…it is important in the process of speech perception. E.g./kən'vɜ:t/ is a verb, \ˆkɒnvət \ is a noun and \kəntˈræst/ verb, \ˆkɒntræst\ noun … stressed words are key to excellent pronunciation and understanding of English. Stress in English will help … to improve … understanding and speaking skills. e.g: The beautiful mountain appeared transfixed in the distance. (14 syllables) he can come on Sunday as long as he doesn't have to do any home work in the evening (22 syllables) there are five stressed words in each sentence so, take the same time to speak.

Parker and Graham (2002) argue that:

"As a practicing teachers of English we remain convinced that a reasonable amount of attention to this feature of the pronunciation of English produce enormous benefits in our learners' pronunciation and in their ability to understand connected spoken English." P.53

2.2.1.3 Weak Syllable in Communication

"English is stressed- timed, which means that stressed syllables are equal in timing.In order to fit our words into this pattern, we tend to (squash)or compress other syllables or words occurring between stresses, in order to keep up with more or less regular rhythm. Therefore, compressing or "weakening "some sounds is necessary to keep the rhythm of English. And this is why English people speak fast. Sultan" (2012:14).

Rogerson- revell (2011:178) conceptualizes his views says an ability to recognize and produce the main accentuation patterns is important in order to understand other and to be understood clearly. what is significant about English is the alternation of strong and weak syllable and the degree of contrast between highlighted, or stressed syllable and reduced or weakened ones. Therefore, teaching learners to lengthen stressed and shorten unstressed one is important to intelligibility…English has

unusually high number of weak form and contracted form and these are much more common than strong forms in fluent speech. They are not signs of 'careless, speech but normal phonological processes and they are not restricted to very informal speech. Avoidance of the use of contracted forms will not usually result in misunderstanding but will make speech sound as less fluent and more unnatural native speaker of English.

However, Mccarthy (2008:) views that:

> "*The traditional statement that lexical words are stressed and grammar function words are not being only a general and tendency, not a rule, even though some consider it a useful fact to import to leaners."* P.97

According to Roach (2002) the following syllables are weak schwa, ɪ. The vowel ə (schwa)'better, /betə/, ii. a close front unrounded vowel in the general area i: and ɪ (symbolized i) happy/ hæpi/, iii. a close rounded vowel in the area of u: and u (symbolized u) 'thank you, /θænkjʊ/ spelling …Will not tell us which syllable in a word or utterance should be weak ... but it will give … a rough guide to the correct pronunciation of weak syllables … examples: Spelt with <a> strong pronunciation would have /æ/ 'attend, /ətend / 'character, /kærəktə/ 'barracks, /bærəks/. Spelt with <ar> strong pronunciation would have/ ɑ:/ 'particular, / pətɪkjələ/, monarchy, /mɒnəkɪ/ 'molar, /məʊlə/. Adjective endings spelt <ate > strong pronunciation would have /eɪ/, inimate ,/ɪnɪmət/ , accurate /ækjərət/ , desolate ,/desələt/ ,(although three are exceptions to this : private is ususally /paɪvɪt/. Spelt with <o >strong pronunciation would have /ɒ/ or/əʊ/ , tomorrow , / təmɒrəʊ/ ,potato'/pəteɪtəʊ/ 'carrot, /kærət/. Spelt with <or> strong pronunciation would have /ɔ:/ forget/fəget/ ambassador /æmbæsədə/ 'opportunity, /ɒpətju:nətɪ/. Spelt with <e>strong pronunciation would have /e/, settlement, /setlmənt/, violet /vaɪələt/, postmen /pəʊstmən/. Spelt with <er> strong pronunciation would have

/ɜ:/ perhaps/ pəhæps/, strong, /strɒŋgə/, superman /su:pəmæn/.Spelt with <u>, strong pronunciation would have /ʌ/, Autumn /ɔ:təm/, support/ səpɔ:t/,halibut / hælıbət / . Spelt with <ough>there are hany pronunciation for the letter sequence <ough> through/ θʌrə/, borough/ bʌrə /, iix. Spelt with <ou> strong pronunciation might have /aʊ/, gracious/ greıʃəs/, callous, / kæləs/. 2- close front unrounded /i/ in word final position in words spelt with final <y> or<ey> (after one or more consonant letters) e g. happy / hæpı/, valley, /vælı/ and in morpheme –find position when such words have suffixes beginning with vowels, e.g. happier, /hæpıə/, easiest/ i: ziəst/, hurrying /hʌriŋ/ In prefix such as those spelt <re>, <pre>, <de> if precedes a vowel and is unstressed, for example in, react, / riækt/, preoccupied, /priɒkjəpaı/, deactivate, /diæktıveıt/. In the suffixes spelt <iate>, <ious> when they have two syllables for example in, appreciate, / əpri:ʃieıt , hilarious , /hieərıəs/.In the following words when unstressed, <he, she, we, me, be > and <the> when it precedes a vowel. 3- Close back rounded vowels /u/: /u/ is most frequently found in the word (you, to, into, do) when they are unstressed and not immediately preceding a consonant, and ‘though, and ‘who, in all positions when they are unstressed. This vowel is also found before another vowel within a word, as in, evacuation, /ıvækjʊeıʃən/, influenza, /ınfluenzə/.

2.2.1.4 Syllabic Consonants

As said by Roach (2002) syllable in which no vowel is found, in this case a consonant, stands the, either l, r or a nasal stands the peak of the syllable instead of the vowel … indicated by means of a small vertical mark (̩) for example, cattle/kætl̩/, … it is not unusual to find two syllabic consonants together. Examples are, national /næʃn̩l̩/, literal/ lıtr̩l̩ /, visionary/ vıʒn̩ri/, vetern / vetr̩n̩/.

2.2.1.5 Degree of Stress

Skandera, etal (2005:236) views that a strong form, is that pronunciation variant of a given word which contains a strong vowel and from which on vowel have been omitted or (elided), like /hæd /, /ɒv/ strong form … can be stressed or unstressed. A weak form is a pronunciation variant which contains a weak vowel, or from which one more sounds have been omitted, or both, like /əd/, /ə/, / ə v/. some words have more than one weak form: e.g. <had>, <has> /d/, /əd/, /d/… the degree to which a word is weakened … depends on such factors as communicative situation and social class.

Katamba (1996) adds many linguists today recognize that prominence is a relational concept… stress is not an integral part of a vowel ... it depends on the appearance of the word as a noun or as verb, nouns are first syllable stressed and verbs are second syllable stressed. This shows that stress is an auto segmental property of the entire word ... stress is not an inherent properly of any vowel feature its location in the phonetic representation of a word may depend on the presence of certain affixes or as a noun or as a verb. E.g. Nation national nationalist nationalize. Nationality nationalistic nationalization.

Nathan (2008:32) adds Traditionally it has been defined with loudness, but stress syllables are not necessarily louder … they are equal louder longer and exhibit a sharp pitch jump … there is no absolute definition of a stressed syllable, but only one compared to surrounding syllables … the actual articulatory movements in stressed syllables are longer than these in the surrounding syllables. Gussenhoren (2004:20) explains more, says that "Stress is relative, that you con not establish its degree of presence,

unless there are other syllables with different degrees of presence of stress to measure it by".

Table (2.2). Shows the degree of stress, position in the structure, Phonetic correlates, and examples (Gussenhoren 2004:20)

Degree of stress	Position in structure	
Unstressed	Weak syllables in a foot	Qualitative and durational reduction, steep spectral. e.g. po- and -to in potato
Stressed/unstressed	Strong syllable in a foot	Vowels without qualitative and durational reduction. less steep spectral tilt eg. Caul - and flow-in cauliflower. In the utterance; I like cauliflower.
Accented	Stressed syllable with an intonational pitch accent	Strong syllable in foot, and so like stressed, but additionally with pitch configuration heard as 'sentence accent,.eg. caul- in the utterance; I like cauliflower.

Al Khuli (2002:190) says that the idea of primary stress in English is free it can be taken by any syllable of any position, but always by the nucleus of the syllable, i.e. phoneticians have specified four degrees of stress: Primary / / /, secondary \ ^ \, tertiary \ \ \ and weak stress /ˇ/… for the sake of simplification, some authors or phoneticians talk about three stresses only instead of four: primary, secondary, and weak … some others talk about two stresses only: primary and weak.

Beare, Kenneth (2017) explained the types of word stress, said improving sentence intonation is one of the key elements in English pronunciation. tonic stress, emphatic stress, contrastive stress and new information stress. Tonic Stress: Tonic stress refers to the syllable in a word which receives the most stress in an intonation unit. An intonation unit has one

tonic stress. It's important to remember that a sentence can have more than one intonation unit, and therefore have more than one tonic stress. Here are some examples of intonation units with the tonic stress **bolded**. He's **wait**ing. He's **wait**ing / for his **friend**. He's **wait**ing / for his **friend** / at the **sta**tion. Generally, the final tonic stress in a sentence receives the most stress. In the above example, 'station' receives the strongest stress. There are a number of instances in which the stress changes from this standard. Here are short explanations for each of the changes with example sentences to illustrate. Emphatic Stress: If you decide to emphasize something, you can change the stress from the principal noun to another content word such as an adjective (big, difficult, etc.), intensifier (very, extremely, etc.) This emphasis calls attention to the extraordinary nature of what you want to emphasize. For example: That was a difficult **test**. - Standard statement. That was a **difficult** test. - Emphasizes how difficult the test was. There are a number of adverbs and modifiers which tend to be used to emphasize in sentences that receive emphatic stress. Extremely, terribly, completely, utterly, especially… etc. Contrastive Stress: Contrastive stress is used to point out the difference between one object and another. Contrastive stress tends to be used with determiners such as 'this, that, these and those'. For example: I think I prefer **this** color. Do you want these or **those** curtains? Contrastive stress is also used to bring out a given word in a sentence which will also slightly change the meaning. **He** came to the party yesterday. (It was he, not someone else.). He **walked** to the party yesterday. (He walked rather than drove.). He came to the **party** yesterday. (It was a party not a meeting or something else.). He came to the party **yesterday**. (It was yesterday not two weeks ago or some other time.). New Information Stress: When asked a question, the requested information is naturally

stressed more strongly. For example: Where are you from? - I come from **Seattle**, in the USA. What do you want to do? - I want to go **bowling**. When does class begin? - The class begins at **nine o'clock**.

2.2.1.6 Word Stress Patterns

"*Syllable stress pattern depends on several factors, including the number of syllables in the word the language of origin of the word, and whether the word has a suffix or not"* (Reynolds, 2013)

2.2.1.6.1 Content Words

If a word is monosyllabic, it takes a primary stress on its syllable e.g, c'ome, g'o, g'et, s'it, c'ar, tr'ain, sh'ip, pl'ane, … if the second syllable of a bisyllabic verb contains a long vowel or diphthong or end with at least two consonants, the second syllable usually takes a primary stress, e.g, ann'ounce, subtr'act, ins'ist, bel'ieve. If the final syllable of the bisyllabic verb has a short vowel and one (or no) final consonant, the first, syllable usually take primary stress, e.g., 'open, 'enter. The second and third rules usually apply to the two – syllable adjective as well, e,g. , corr'ect, al'ive, aw'ake, asl'eep, abl'aze h'appy, l'ovely r'a'iny cl'oudy. Two – syllable adverbs, conjuctions, and prepositions usually behave like two – syllable verbs, e.g., beh'ind, ab'ong, bel'ow, 'over qu'ickly. Two – syllable nouns behave differently, if the second syllable has a short vowel, the primary stress comes on the first syllable e.g. c'argo, ph'arynx, l'arynx, d'ozen. Otherwise, it comes on the second syllable, e.g, ballon, taboo, design. A word ending in -ous, -graphy, -ial, -ic, -ion –ty or - tive take a primry stress on the syllable before these suffixes, e.g. cour'ageous, phot'ography, adv'erbial, hist'oric, op'inion, nov'elty, cr
eative. A word ending with –ate takes a primary stress on the third syllable before the end, e.g, 'Illustrate, hesitate anticipate. Compound

nouns that are made of two units take a primary stress on the first unit, with a tertiary stress on the second unit e.g., bl'ackb'oard, s'uns'et, s'unr'ise, cl'assro'om. Compound adjectives with -ed suffixed at the end of the second element usually take a primary stress on the end of the second element, e.g. ill-tempered, half–finished, kind-hearted. Compound functioning adverbially usually take a primary stress on the second element, e.g., words- w'ise, clock w'ise, south – w'est. many of the two syllable words that function as nouns and verbs take primary stress on the first syllable if nouns and on the second if verbs, e.g., 'import, imp'ort, 'insult, ins'ult, d'esert, des'ert, pr'esent, pres'ent … this does not apply to all similar words, e.g. resp'ect, res'ult (for both nouns and verbs). A words made of more than three syllables usually takes a primary stress on the third syllable from the end, e.g. probab'ility, punctu'ality, possib'ility, univ'ersity … words stress is more often caught than taught through exposure and practice. Alkhuli (2002)

According to Edwards (2004:194) stress pattern changes for the following reasons: According to their surrounding context. E.g. thirteen, thirteen days. When suffixes are added. E.g. photograph, photography. And according to change of meaning. E.g. produce (noun), produce as (verbs).

2.2.1.6. 2 Complex Word Stress

The primary stress is on the first syllable of the suffix. If the stem consists of more than one syllable, there will be secondary stress on one of the syllables of the stem. This cannot fall on the last syllable of the stem and is; if necessary, moved to an earlier syllable. For example, in, Japan /dʒə'pæn/, the primary stress is on the last syllable. But when we add the stress- carrying suffix, - ese, the primary stress is on the suffix and the

second stress is placed not on the second syllable but on the first: Japanese, / ʤæpən'ni:z/. Roach (2002).

Table (2.3) shows complex word stress

-ee	-eer	-ese	-ette	-esque
Refugee /refjʊʤi:/	Mountaineer /maʊntɪ'nɪə/	Portuguese / pɔ:ʧə'gi:z/	Cigarette / sɪgr' et/	Picturesque / pɪkʧr' esk/
Evacuee /ɪvækjʊi:/	Volunteer / vɒlən'tɪə/	Journalese / ʤɜ:nl' i:z/	Launderette / lɔ:ndr' et/	

2.2.1.6. 3 Suffixes that do not Affect Stress Placement

Roach (2002). Farther adds that the suffix do not affect stress placement are; -able, -age, -al, -en, -ful, -ring, -ish, -like, -less, -ly, -mest, -ness, -ous, -fy, -wise, -y. Suffixes that influence stress in the stem, the primary stress is on the last syllable of the stem.<-eous>: advantage / əd' vɑ:n tɪʤ /; advantageous / æ dvən' t eɪʤəs/ .<-graphy>: photo /' fəʊtəʊ /; photography / fə' tɒgrəfi / .<-ial>: proverb /' prɒvɜ:b / ; proverbial /prə' vɜ:b ɪəl /.<-ic>: climate /' klaımıt / ; climatic / klaım ætık / .<-ion>: perfect / p ɜ: f ɪ k t /; perfection /pə' fe kʃn / .<-ious>: injure ' ınʤə / ; injurious / ın' ʤ ɔ:riəs /.< -ty >: tranquil /'træŋkwıl/; tranquility /træŋ'kwıləti/.<-ive>: reflex /' ri:fleks /; reflexive / rı' fleksı v / When the suffixes <- ance> , <-ant> and <-ary> attached to single – syllable stems, the stress is almost always placed on the stem. When the has more than one syllable, the stress is on one of the syllables in the stem … If the final syllable of the stem is strong, that syllable receives stress. For example: Importance/ ım' pɔ:tns / centenary/ sen'ti:nri/ . Otherwise the syllable before the last one receives the stress: inheritance/ ın'herıtəns/; military /' mılıtri/. Prefixes: Stress in words with prefixes is governed by the same rules as those for words without prefixes. (2002:104 - 107).

2.2.1.7 Sentence Stress

Sentence stress deals with the stresses taken by the various words of a sentence. e.g., The two boys broke the three windows yesterday. normally, the primary stress comes on the last word in the sentence i.e., Yesterday. However, this primary stress may come on any word of this sentence for emphasis. We may stress (the) to emphasize definiteness, stress (two) to Emphasize the number, stress (boys) to emphasize the doer, stress (broke) to emphasize the action, stress (three) to emphasize the number of windows, or emphasize (windows) to emphasize object. Contrastive stress…emphasizes the word and at the same time negates the other alterative. Alkhuli (2002:199)

However, Ogden (2009) adds that in English, when words are repeated, it is normal for the stress to shift to a different word from the first time round. e.g. K: she is really nice isn't she. J: → she is nice. The 'nice, in line 2 is deaccented.

Table (2.4) shows rules of stress. Source: Sultan (2013)

WORDS TYPE		Where the stress	Examples
Two syllables	Nouns	On the first syllable	Center Object Flower
	Verbs	On the last syllable	Release Admit Arrange
Compound	Nouns (N+N) (Adj+N)	On the first part	Desktop Pencil case Bookshelf Greenhouse

	Adjectives (Adj+p.p)	On the last part (the verb part)	Well-meant Hard-headed Old-fashioned
	Verbs (prep+verb)		Understand Overlook Outperform
Phrasal verbs	On the particle	On the particle	Turnoff Buckle up Handout
Words with added ending	ic	The syllable befor the ending	Economic, geometric electrical
	-tion,-cion,-sion		Technician, graduation, Cohesion
	-phy,-gy,-try,-cy,-tly,-al	The third from the last syllable	Photography, biology, geometry
	-meter		Parameter, thermometer Barometer

Rules	Applied to	Examples
Stress on the 1 syllable	Most 2 syllable nouns	NOTEbook, LAMpshade, PRESenet, Rebel
	Most 2 syllable adjectives	HAPpy HANDsome GRACEful
Stress on the 2 syllable	Most 2 syllable verbs	PreSENT,reBEL seLECT in VITE
Stress on penltamte syllable (the syllable which is 2 to the last)	Words ending in ie	BioLOGy . PSYCHie
Stress on penltamate(the syllable which is 2 to the last)	Words ending in -tion and -sion	teleVIsion revoLUtion inVENtion preCItion
Stress on ante penltamate(the syllable which is third from	Words reding in –ty,-phy,-gy,-ey	biOgraphy aBLLity ALLergy

end)		
Stress on ante penultimate(the syllable which is third from end)	Words ending in -al	Psychological , mythological
Stress on the 1 part	Compound nouns	WHITEbaord . STAIRway
Stress on the 2 parts	Compound adjectives	HighHEELED , red , HAIRED
Stress on the 2 parts	Compound verbs	Overflow

	Total syllable	Stressed syllable
Photograph	3	#1
Photographer (<er>moves the stress placement from 1 to 2)	4	#2
Photographic <IC>changes to penultimate	4	#3

2.2.1.8 Communicative Function of Intonation

Using phonological features has a communicative value as stated by Parker and Graham (2002:11) as a very general rule of thumb, it can be claimed in English that the broader the level of phonology analysis, the more serious the communicative consequences of non-acquisition. Thus "big" features of pronunciation like intonation, rhythm and stress would seem to have greater communicative value that smaller single sound features.

Kleinschmidt, Karen (2017) adds intonation refers to the way a person's voice rises and falls while speaking. It is used to put emphasis on a particular word or detail as you are speaking or to express a question or excitement, according to the International Association of Conference

Interpreters. For example, you may use a monotonous tone of voice, if you are stating facts or an enthusiastic tone of voice while giving a sales pitch. Common tones that convey emotions include aggressive, persuasive, friendly or disappointed. The volume of your voice as well as the timing and pace of your words help set the tone of the conversation.

McCarthy (2008:104) adds the intonation … undoubtedly has advantages… in its concern with the management of longer stretches of discourse and with turn taking and topic farming and doing away with tone groups certainly avoids an analytical difficulty. Gilbert (2008) explains two functions of intonation. Firstly, to contrast new information and old information. e.g. Reporter: Follow that car!

Cab Driver: Which car?

Reporter: The blue one, the blue one with a bad guy in it.

Secondly, to separate thought groups. A. She likes pie and apples. B. She likes pineapples. How many things does she like? A. Jane said, "my dog is clever." B. "Jane," said my dog, "is clever." Who is speaking?

As said by Skandera (2005) the structural function signals the grammatical or structural role of an utterance, determine, for example whether it is a question a request, or an instruction. The accentual function affects the prominence of a syllable, and thus plays a role in focusing stress on particular words in connected speech. The attitudinal function conveys the speaker's personal orientations towards what they say, or gives us clues about who the speakers feel – whether they are uninterested. Excited or ironic. And the discourse function works the turn–processes in an exchange between speakers.

Alkhali (2002:207) explains the pattern of intonation as follows:

a. /232 / →, e.g., 2The3b'oy2 → with incomplete utterance. b. /231↑ /, e.g.,2The boy is 3 h'ere1↓with statement and wh questions. c. /233 ↓/, e.g., 2Has he 3c'ome3 ↑with yes \ no question. d. /31 ↓ /, e.g., 3C'ome here1↓ with imperatives and exclamations. e. / 41↓/, e.g., 4 St'op here 1↓ with imperatives and exclamations.

Pirjandi et al (2005:128) points out that intonation in American English is the tools for an achieving at last five important aims: a. Expressing new information, b. showing contrast (c) expressing meaning pronunciation, and e, showing mood or personality, confident or nervous, or informed or unfamiliar. e.g. a. Dogs eat bones. They eat them. b. Bob studies English, but he doesn't use it.

I didn't say he stole the money; someone else stole it.
I didn't say he stole the money, that is not true at all.
I didn't say he stole the money, l only suggested the possibility.
I didn't say he stole the money, may be he just borrowed it.
I didn't say he stole the money, but rather some other one.
I didn't say he stole the money; he may have stolen some jewelry.
Photography / fətɒgrəfɪ/ and photograph / fəʊtəgræf/.
Lade (2001:250) adds the pitch factors…indicate the personal characteristic of the speaker, whether the speaker is male or female and, to some extent, his or her age…whether the person is clam or angry, happy or sad…all languages use pitch to mark the boundaries of syntactic units…syntactic information is the only linguistic information convoyed by pith in English.

2.2.1.9 Pitch and stress similarity and diversity

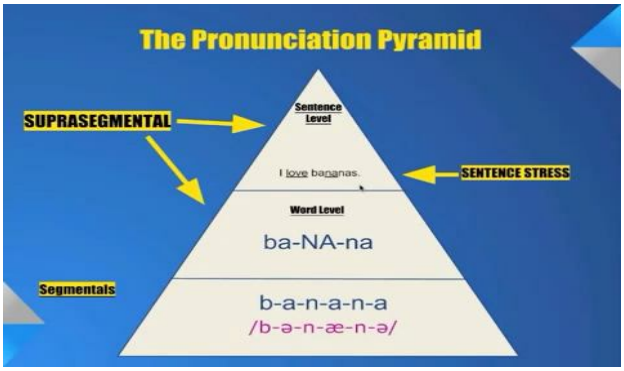


Diagram (2.7) shows the pronunciation pyramid. From Reynolds (2013). Intonation /Video 4.

Alkhuli (2002) says pitch is similar to stress in several ways: first, both are suprasegmental, which accompany segmental. Second, both are relative, not absolute…they are depending on their relative status in certain speech at a certain time. Third, both are to ken by syllable: each syllable in a word takes a certain level of stress and pitch. Fourth, a change in either stress or pitch may cause a change in meaning. However, pitch depends on the number of the frequencies of a vocal cord per second, and this number is dependent on the tension degree of the vocal cards, whereas stress involves an increased activity of all related organ.

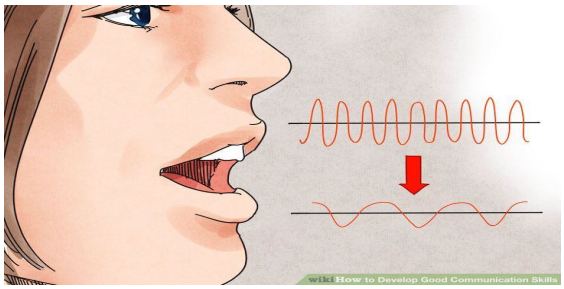
Katamba (1996:256) adds it would be wrong to classify languages as either tonal or into- nation because all languages have intonation…one of the issues has tightly received a good deal of attention from phonologists is the way in which intonation meshes together with stress in a stress language, and with tone in a tone language.

A synthesis of the kingdom (1958) and the Roach (1991) models of tonetic description was the basis upon which the awareness-raising

activities were conducted. Roach's (1991) classification of tones is concise... in Kingdon's classification, English intonation is systematically divided into two major types—Static and Kinetic. the static tones (level tones) include the high level tone and the low level tone and the kinetic tones include tone I high (IH, tone marked as /), tone I low (IL, tone marked as /), tone II (tone marked as \), tone III (undivided, tone marked as \ /) and tone III (divided, tone marked as \ /). In teaching intonation, the researcher followed Kingdon's advice by ensuring from the outset that he had a clear understanding of what stresses and tones actually entailed. An emphasis was also placed on the differences between the kinetic and static tones. This is because "the active elements of intonation are the tones" (Kingdon, 1958: 3). As Kingdon further explains, in the Kinetic tones "the pitch of the voice is moving upwards or downwards or first one and then the other—during the whole duration of the tone". The change taking place in pitch may be concentrated on a stressed syllable or it may begin on a stressed syllable and end on an unstressed syllable. The Static Tones are the level (high and low level) tones, which are accompanied by stress, highlighting the importance of the words in the sentence. Both theoretically and in actual fact, except the explicit changes of pitch in which the high level tone has the value of a full stress and the low level tone has the value of a partial stress or falls in the lower half of the voice change, other changes in the tone are less evident. He also says that in the Kinetic Tones the pitch of the voice is changed by adjusting the length and the tension of the vocal cords. So, the whole process of raising TEFL students' awareness of the importance of discourse intonation through two stages was practical. Asking how they interpreted the meanings of different intonation patterns, the affective input of the speaker and the general tone of the discourse in interaction was one way

to achieve the goal of improving communicative competence as well as efficacy in teaching. As stress co-occurs with changing pitch (Roach, 1991; Tench, 1996), the potential difficulty that might arise from reading aloud a complete discourse or completing a connected speech utterance looms larger. This was mainly because, when asked, they said that they did not have any clear awareness of the functions of intonation in expression. So, at this stage, teaching the participants to locate the stress of individual words and stressed words in a connected discourse preceded that of the intonation of larger discourses. Kingdon (1985) notes that the Static tones are comparatively easier to learn. So the static tones were taught first. This was mainly because there are fewer variations in this type of the tone—the high Level tone (tone mark |) and the Low Level Tone (tone mark |). As stated above, the Kinetic tones are more complicated, they convey different speaker-intentions. Because of this, comparatively more classroom time was devoted to the teaching of the kinetic tones than the static tones. The Kinetic tones comprise 5 basic tone types— tone I (High, tone mark /), Tone I (Low, tone mark /), tone II (High Falling\/), tone III (Divided, tone mark \ /)…(qtd in Zhang, Lawrace Jun)

2.2.1.10 Pitch Types



Picture (2.2) shows pitch movements. Http://www.wikihow.com

As stated by Ladefoged (2001:23) the pitch of the voice is determined by several factors … the tension of the vocal folds, an increase in the flow of air out of the longs, the variations in the position of the vocal folds in different phonation types. Lodge (2009:110) sys **t**he movement of the vocal cords together and a part during vibration produces a series of fluctuation in air pressure with relatively regular peaks and troughs. If we measure the rate of which the peaks occur in terms of numbers of complete opening and closing movements (cycles) percent gives the indication of pitch.

Gimson (1989) adds:

"*causal speech has longer intonation groups and contains fewer stressed syllables then formal speech … the occurrence of strong forms in more formal situations results from the additional stresses of formal rhythms. The alternation of strong and weak form is entirely in both formal and casual styles of speech: weak form occurs unless the grammatical word is stressed. Since stresses are more frequent in the intonation groups of formal speech strong forms may occur more often." P.309*

Alkhuli (2002:206-207) explains the pitch into four types: First, the low pitch / 1 / usually comes at the end of the utterance, especially at the end of statement and wh-Questions, e.g., He came late1↓. second, the mid pitch |2| …usually comes at the beginning of the utterance and continues with normal unemotional speech until before the end (unfinished action), e.g., 2He came late. It also comes immediately before and immediately after the sustained juncture |→ | if such a juncture appears in speech, e.g., the boy2→2 is not here. Pitch |2| is the most common pitch in speech. Third the high pitch. It is usually taken by the syllable that takes the primary stress in the utterance, e.g., 2He came 3l'ate1↓. Forth, it is the highest pitch and it is used with exclamations, imperatives, or very emotional parts of speech, e.g., 4catch me1↓. After pitch |2| is the

juncture /→ /, after pitch | 1 | is the 'symbol' | ↓ | and after pitch |3| is the symbol'| ↑ |if the utterance begins with word having a primary stress, the intonation pattern loses the initial pitch |2|, and it becomes like this: |4 1 ↓ | or |3 1↓ |, e.g. 4c'ome here1↓.

Birjandi etal (2005:137) views the pattern of intonation as six forms; Falling intonation is used in statements, wh-questions, confirmatory tag questions. Rising intonation is used in yes – no questions, repeated, rhetorical or emotional question, and question – statement. Rising- falling intonation is used in two- part statements. Falling – rising intonation is used for smoothing and politeness. Take off intonation can freely be used for grumbling. Level intonation is used by priest learners of English never need it.

As pointed out by Marlett (2001:201) punctuation devices, such as commas, question marks, exclamation marks, underlining, and italicization, are only imprecise indications of some of the major intonation patterns in languages. Roach (2002:163) adds intonation and stress are the local equivalents of written punctuation, that when these are transcribed it would be unnecessary or even confusing to include punctuation as well.

2.2.1.11 Thought Group

The idea of thought group is raised here by Bui, Khoa (2011) speaking clearly and being understood when speaking English is not just about pronouncing vowels and consonants correctly or even using the correct rhythm, stress, and connected speech pronunciation rules another key to speaking clearly and being understood is pausing between group of words in your sentences. There are no solid rules dividing sentences into thought groups it depends into the ideas that you are trying to convey and your

briefing pattens. Some guide lines are added:1. Punctuations: Comma, period, semicolon, colon, parentheses. e.g. When I was a boy, / I like fishing. // Now Iam a young man, / I like travelling. //2. Grammar units: A. Noun phrases: Article + adjective + noun. e.g. A beautiful woman/ and her dog/ entered the meeting room. // B. Verb phrase: i. Verb + Adverb. e.g. Ran quickly ii. Verb + object, e.g. Dink the beer iii. Auxiliary verb + main verb e.g. Had been cooked. C. Prepositional phrase: Preposition + noun e.g. With my family.

The concept of thought group is illustrated by Reynolds (2013) thought group (TG) or tone unit is an idea used primarily in spoken context to indicate to the listener how the particular words in the group relate to each other. TG often chunked (grouped) together, usually by the followings: I. Intonation pattern: Appropriate recognition of pauses. Appropriate recognition of focus.TG involves a fairly broad category. This can be defined by: Collocations, numbers and punctuations. Collocations are groups of words that naturally go together, ore often culturally or contextually defined, and are often distinguished by their grammatical relationship (though not necessarily defined by it).

Bacon and eggs. Fish and chips. Would you like … cream or sugar?
Would you like … cake or Pepsi?

ii. Numbers: Many numbers are considered to be TG, mostly because they involve specially patterns of stress, pauses, and intonation to help distinguish them from each other. Examples include: Date, Math problems, Addresses, Personal numbers including phone numbers, credit cards social security.

Dates: August 5, 1978
Address: 1421 Main Street, New York, NY 00178
Numbers: 1(415) 334-6987

Social security numbers: 123-45-9990

Credit card Numbers: 4111 5556-9012-2134

Math problems: 5- (2 x 2) =What?

(3x3) +7 = What?

iii. Series: A series involves a list of at least three items. The intonation will rise on the first two words and then fall on the 3rd word.

I visited the museum, the library, and the park.

v. Depends on who is actually saying the information.

John said, "The boss is absent."

''John,'' said the boss, "is absent."

He further explains …in sentences that are longer, we generally divide the sentence up into shorter units; rhythmic units (called meter or measure) much like with poetry and music. a measure has four beats, a beat equals quarter of note (sometimes half note), a note matches syllable stress of the word itself, these units provide an opportunity to take a quick break or pause to prepare for the next rhythmic unit. This happens after 1.an extended subject phrase. e. g. Workers at the factory/ get to leave early on Fridays.2. After the object of the phrase. E.g. I fixed a tomato and lettuce sandwich / for my friend.3. If the sentence is compound, the pause is at the connector. E.g. She is not all tired/ but it's still early. 4. At a comma or semicolon.

Figure (2.8) shows pause and rhythmic unit in speaking, the circles below the measures indicate stressed syllables (notes), beats are between the notes. From Http://www.Kentonest.org/class-websites/video 3.

Smith (1992) comments that thought group is a group of approximately two to five words that form a unit of meaning. A thought group could also be called a phrase or sense group. The following sentence has three thought groups: The English language / uses thought groups / for clear communication. Phrasal stress is the stressing of one syllable in a thought group and the lessening of stress in all other syllables in the group. The syllable that receives phrasal stress is usually the syllable with primary stress in the last stressed word in the thought group: E.g. The English language. Phrasal intonation is the regular pattern of pitch change in thought groups. In American English the syllable with phrasal stress is pronounced with a high-level pitch. All other syllables are pronounced with a mid-level pitch. The English language sentence-final intonation is the lowering of pitch on the syllables following the phrasal stress in the last thought group in a sentence for clear communication.

2.2.1.12 The Importance of Thought Group in Communication

one of the most important aspects of your pronunciation is the way you use thought groups, stress, and intonation. If you are unable to deliver spoken English patterns like a Native-English speaker, your students may become tired, irritated, or unable to concentrate. If you can develop native speaker-like thought groups, stress, and intonation, your students will be able to respond positively to the content of what you are teaching instead of becoming distracted by the way in which you teach the content. Smith etal (1992)

The division of speech into thought group is important for the speaker as well as the listener, allowing time for speech planning and decoding. In

speech … we rely only on prosodic cues to know which words are grouped together. We regularly use several cues to signal thought group boundaries often coincide with syntactic boundaries. These are: (a) A pause (b) a fall in pitch (c) lengthening of the last stressed syllable (the subtlest signal) (d) key change. In slow, careful speech it is easier to hear the use of pauses to signal the end of a thought group. E.g.\\when you're ready to pay\\ (pause)\\ please go to the cash desk\\ (pause)\\ However, if more rapid speech, there is less time to produce or hear pauses so the use of pitch fall is important. The fall in pitch signals finality and the bigger the fall, the greater the degree of finality signaled. So, a slight fall would typically signal the end of an idea or thought group; \\ This is the ten o'clock news\\. A bigger fall might indicate the end of comment: \\ It will be wet and windy tomorrow\\ While an even bigger fall could signal the end of a speaker's turn and an invitation to others to speak: \\ and that's the end of the news\\. The final stressed syllable is often lengthened as well to help signal the end of the thought group. In connected speech, it is not always easy to divide up utterances in such a syntactically not way as there is a lot of interference from performance features such as hesitation, trailing off, failures to complete utterances. Thought group can minimally consist of a single word, as in: \\ Jane \\ or several words: \\ has any one seen Jane\\. Rogerson- revell (2011:181-182).

Lane (2010:55-56) adds appropriate thought group benefits the student in two ways, organized in to short, meaning full units, the student's message is more comprehensive. In addition, the brief pause or holding of the end of thought group slows the student down, giving him more time to make lexical, grammatical, and pronunciation choices. A thought group includes at least one content (stressed) word and often corresponds to a

grammatical structure (e.g., verb phrase, prepositional phrase, or short close). E.g.,

It's not too l'ate to find a r'oom at a national p'ark this s'eason.

Thought group also have their own intonation pattern. At the end of an eternal (non-final) thought group, intonation usually rises a little, a signal that the speaker has more to say, but may also fall a little. The sentence above is repeated below; showing the rhythmic and intonational cues that mark it is thought groups.

It's not too late to find a room at a national park this season.

Hold/lengthen hold/lengthen hold/lengthen

Because this nonfinal intonation changes difficult for students and teachers to hear, the meaning focus should be on the rhythmic cues, the lengthening or pausing to the end of a thought group. There are no fixed rules for determining in advance what the thought groups in a given sentence should be. Meaning is a factor, but so, too, are rate of speaking (fewer thought groups are used in faster speech) and style of speaking (more thought groups are used in public speaking). The sentence above, for example, could also be broken into two or three thought groups:

It's not too late to find a room at a national park this season.

It's not too late to find a room at a national park this season.

Kreidler (2004:162) says that the faster a person speaks, the longer and fewer the tone unit; the slower the speech, the shorter and more numerous the tone units it depends partly on the tempo of speech because speakers can, to a large degree, control the, chunking, the way they want to do… sometimes two sentences may have the same sequence of words but still have different meaning because the words but still have different meaning because, the words go together in different syntactic groups. For instance,

I’d like bread and butter or cheese> can mean I’d like (bread) and (butter or cheese), or I’d like (bread and butter) or (cheese)>. The way an utterance is divided into tone units by the speaker does not necessarily remove ambiguity, but it may. Ordinarily a tone unit contains at least one word, it is possible to divide a poly syllabic into tone units (e.g.\ab\so\lute\ly\), but that is not very common. A very nice way to highlight the importance of thought group is through an activity in 'Speaking Clearly' that looks at mathematical equations. Compare the following:

(A + B) x C = Y (A plus B, multiplied by C, equals Y) A + (B x C) = D (A, plus B multiplied by C, equals D) Say these two equations to yourself & note when you have to pause. Each pause means an end of a thought group & the start of another. So how it is interpreted depends how the utterance is separated into chunks. After an activity like this, there are a series of equations read out which when calculated give an answer. If the thought groups have been interpreted correctly, then the right answer will be given. (2 + 3) x 5 = 25 and 2 + (3 x 5) = 17With a listening text, after explaining the concept of thought groups with examples on the board, get your students to mark the groups on a short text. Then they can listen to the tape to see if they were right. We mark the groups with slash marks at the beginning & the end of each group. Here is a short text, similar to one in the book, with the thought groups marked: A./Who shall we invite to party? / b./Well, we could ask Helen. / a. Ok, // but what about Ben. / b. /ok//we could ask Helen and, // and don’t forget Josh. /a. /Yes, // josh// what about Sarah and John? / b. /ok. // so that’s Helen and Ben, // Josh // and Sarah and John. / b. /Yes. / The division of the thought groups in line 6 tells us that Josh will be going on his own but Helen will go with Ben & Sarah with John.

2.2.1.13 Structure and Recognition of Thought Group

As katamba (1996:256) says for the purpose of intonation analysis, the English tone units have internal organization: (Pre - head) head tonic (tail) e.g.‖ he will| phone you when| all| the children are back. ‖

ph H TS T

Normally pitch is low in the pre – head, more or less level high in the head and falling on the tonic; in the tail the pitch pattern established on the tonic is simply continued. The most common direction of pitch movement on the tonic is downward … frequently pitch moves down on the tonic syllable and remains down until the end of the utterance that it is at beginning. Falling intonation is the unmarked intonation pattern in English.e.g.

'James Thurber was born in O'hio.

The widespread tendency to drop pitch as the end of an utterance approaches might have a physiological explanation. Possibly, as the speaker gradually runs out of breath, there is less and less air to cause the vibration of the vocal cords and consequently they vibrate more sluggishly and the pitch of the utterance goes down.

Hancock (1995) says:

> *"Within the tone unit, one word is emphasized by the speaker, and the stressed syllable in this word is the tonic syllable in the tone unit. The pitch movement, or tone, begins on this tonic syllable and continues to the end of the tone, unit. E.g. A: How long have you lived here? B: About two years, how long have you lived here? Here;" b" emphasizes <you> to signal a change in the subject of the conversation from B's personal history." P.10*

Gilbert (2008:46) summaries the rules of the focus word and thought group, he says that the stressed syllable of a focus word is extra-long, clear, and has a pitch change. The focus word in a sentence is usually a

content word. Structure words are usually de-emphasized to contrast with the focus words. This contrast makes it easier for the hearer to notice the focus word. At the beginning of a conversation, the last content word in a clause or sentence is usually the focus word. After conversation begins, the new thought in each sentence is the focus word. There is often a long pause and a fall in pitch at the end of a thought group to signal that the thought group is finished, so the listener will have more time to think about what you just said. There is one focus word in each thought group. Allen at el (1973) add that there will normally be on pauses within a tone group- but there are often pauses between tone groups …many grammatical words have a form which cannot occur before a tone group boundary" 1 \\ Who's is that for? \\ 2\\ It's for John.\\ 3\\ I don't think he can go\\ 4\\ Ah, but I can. \\ … a tone group is frequently characterized by an overall pitch pattern in which there is a recognizable peak with a smooth falling- away on both sides … each tone group will contain only one tonic word —that is only one word which is lengthened and bears a morning tone … when an utterance is said in isolation, the tonic is usually placed on the last lexical in the tone group which is the focal or tonic, word. E.g. A: The meeting's supposed to be at three. B: I suppose Henry will be late. The mark might be: \\ I suppose Henry\\ will be late\\. This means Henry is well known to make a habit of being late and people are tired of this habit. \\ I suppose Henry will be late\\ Henry may reasonably be expected to be delayed … the most neutral intonational choice is the word 'late' … this is because the most usual arrangement of the English sentence appears to be to state what is known of the beginning of it and to add the new piece of information at the end of it to move from the known to the unknown .In general when any lexical word follows the tonic in the same tone group you will find that, that lexical word has already been

mentioned or is implied by the context when the tonic is not on the last lexical word in the tone group it is possible to see that there is a direct relationship between its placing and what has previously been said in the conversation as in (3) What did you buy? I bought a trendy black suit. Did you get address? I bought a trendy black suit. You said you were going to get something super but Susan says you've just got an ordinary black suit. I've got a trendy black suit. Occasionally a non-lexical word bears the tonic the mores on to the verbal auxiliary the implication is often said to be contrastive or 'contradictory' intonation. Eg: I think she is pretty. She is not pretty. This is the one I want. Any words preceding the tonic in same tone group (stressed or unstressed) must arranged in a smooth pitch contour and not bounce out of the overall pitch movement. There are two types of pre-tonic: One type occurs when there are two important points of information within one tone group in a message though the tonic is still the most prominent only one tonic –only one word bearing a moving, curving tone, for example when a human subject is the actor: John's gone to the meeting. Peter got up and punched him. It was the secretary who saw him first. There is a tendency for the pre – tonic to start high and slide (or step) gradually down until it reaches the tonic. When it reaches the tonic, the pitch starts from high again. The contour looks like:

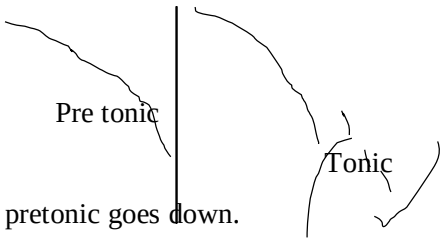


Figure (2.9) shows pretonic goes down.

Another type of pre tonic occurs in passive sentences, and in sentence where subject is already ‘given, there is a tendency to start low in the pre tonic and to slide smoothly up to the tonic, so the contour looks like this

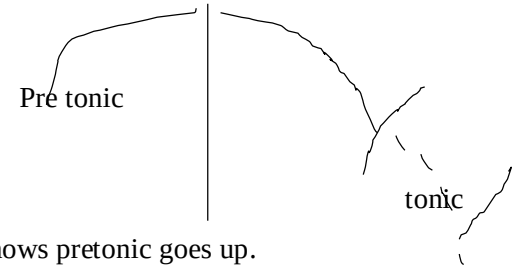


Figure (2.10) shows pretonic goes up.

eg: They said the car was stolen by a man in a mask. (p.50,51,52)

As presented by Reynolds, Jon (2013) focus word is changed to help represent the most important ideas shared in conversation. This means that we will often place the focus on new information, in order to help emphasize the overall direction of the conversation. Capital letters are used to indicate the focus words. A: I just bought a Hat. B: What KIND of hat? A: ABEACH hat. B: It’s really nice! A: THANKS! Another example of changing FOCUS involves when speaker wants to clarify or correct mistaken information given in an exchange or conversation. In these situations, sometimes the speaker will place focus on a structure word, especially if that is where the mistaken idea is located. A: you’re studying American HISTORY, RIGHT? B: No, EUROPEAN History. A: I have two friends I want to INTRODUCE you to. This is JAMES and this is STEVEN.B: Actually, MY name is Steven, and THIS is James. A: OPPS! SORRY!>. Often a speaker may just want to place special emphasis in order to draw attention to the idea. Again this doesn’t always have to be a content word. It could also be structure word if the speaker is trying to high light a certain idea. Can you BELIEVE it? Just saw THE Julia Roberts at mall! The meeting starts AT 10, no LATER! +May be

the person had been late to a previous meeting and the speaker want to emphasize when the short time is for this meeting.

2.3 SECTION THREE

2.3.1 Filler Sounds

2.3.1.1 fillers in Oral Communication

Picture (2.7) shows filler sound. From Http://www.wikihow.com

As stated by McCarthy (2008:127) there are also linguistic means of not taking the turn when one has the opportunity, or simply of making it clear to the speaker that we are attending to the message. These are usually referred to as back – channel responses, and consist of vocalization such as: mm, ah-ha and short words and phrase such as: yeah, right, Sure.

Holden (1980:4) adds that in real life, people misunderstood each other, interrupt, and get distracted by other people or by things they see and hear. They react- and communicate – not only through word, but also facial expression, gesture and non – verbal sounds (those utterances represented in written dialogue by mm, hm, er, ah, etc.) …these features of oral communication, however, are ones which come as a shock to most learners when they… are unprepared for the 'coughs and hesitations, outside world. It is up to the teacher to prepare them for this element of the unexpected. There is a danger that students are not expected to these

features of real language, some of these features are: Non – standard intonation patterns, variation in tempo, the use of pause, stammers and errors in articulation, Incomplete sentences Repetition, silence fillers such as well you know sort of mm, err and silence which are filled by grimaces and gestures as well as gestures which amplify the meaning of words. e.g. The wish to have the window shut might produce the following very different pieces of language. a. In business meeting, with colleagues he does not know very well, I say would, um … would any one mind if we … if we had the err… window shut? Just for a bit. b. At home, to a member of his family who likes fresh air, Oh, for goodness, sake, shut that bloody window!'.

Crystal etal (1975) add that people in text books, it seems, are not allowed to get interrupted, talk at the same time, switch, speech styles, manipulate the rules of the language to suit themselves, or fail to understand. In a word, they are not real. Real People, as everyone knows, do all these things, and it is this which is part of the essence of informal conversation. The foreign learner will of course be quite conversant with these features from his native language already; it is part of our purpose to extend his feel for such matters in English. (p.7).)… use of fillers is not about the more common use of this oral strategy but it signals a developed strategic competence used in conversations among competent users of languages: not to let your interlocutor take or "steal" the floor before you finish your turn. (qtd in Basurto 2015)

Varabel (2009:127) adds the general feature of the conversational style talk is "non-fluency". Informal spontaneous conversation is characterized by a high proportion of "errors" involving hesitation phenomena, entire range of vocalic, clusters, sounds, …, e.g. m m m m, sshh, ah, bn, etc. also, one can hear whistle, laughs, giggles, clearings of the throat, snorts

and sniffs. Soars, etal (2009:2 4-25) add when we speak (in any language!), we can be vague and imprecise. We also use fillers, which don't mean very much, but fill the gaps! E.g. hey! ouch! yuk! phew! Uh – oh, whoops – a – daisy, oops. Eg: oops, I didn't see you.

Table (2.5) shows using of fillers. Source: Hewings (2003)

	Common meaning	Pronunciation	written	Examples
1-	Now I understand	/ɑ:/(short; falling tone)	ah	'It's not working because it's not plugged in! , 'Ah , of course.,
2-	That is really pretty or nice	/ɑ::/ (long; falling tone)	Ah or ahh	'and here's photo of my baby daughter., 'Ah, isn't she pretty.,
3-	That hurts	/aʊ / (falling tone)	ow	'ow, I've cut myself.'
4-	I'm disappointed	/əʊ/ (falling tone)	oh	'Sorry, Jim's already left., 'Oh, what a pity.,
5-	I'm thinking what to say next.	/ɜ: / (level tone)	er	'What do you want to do?, 'Er, I'm not sure.,
6-	That's horrible disgusting.	/ɜ: :/ or /i: :/ (both long falling tone)	Urgh / ee	'This cheese has gone mouldy. Look! 'urgh, it smells revolting.,
7-	Iam looking forward to something.	u:/ (falling tone)	ooh	Shall we get out for a meal? 'ooh, that would be nice.,
8-	Angrily, getting someone's attention, usually to stop them doing something they shouldn't.	/ɔɪ / (falling tone; usually said loudly)	oi	'Oi! Get off my bike!

Being a key concept, hesitations are pauses with varying length, which are not usually left unfilled. They occur when the speakers are in the need

of words or when they plan their next utterance. Speakers do this by stretching sounds, repetitions or fillers (Rieger, 2003, p.41). As for another key concept, disfluencies; they can be defined as phoneme which interrupts the flow of speech. Disfluencies are about silent pauses, fillers, false starts, grammatical errors and hesitations. As hesitations and disfluencies are inevitable and in fact, natural, some speakers prefer to resort some filler words or pause fillers. What a speaker wants to convey while using fillers may be actually a signal showing that he is in a cognitive process; in other words, he is thinking. As suggested in O'Connell and Kowal (2005), Chafe (1980) claimed that the main reason for hesitating is the creation of speech production. According to Chafe, hesitations do not interfere with the speaking; on the contrary, "pauses, false starts, afterthoughts, and repetitions do not hinder that goal, but are steps on the way to achieving it." Wiese conducted a study in which he focused on the fact that L1 and L2 production are different processes, and proposed that L2 speakers need more time to plan their speech than L1 speakers do, and thus have less automatization (Khojastehrad, 2012, p.12). This may mean that hesitation occurs to the non-native speakers more often than the native ones. qtd. Erten, Selcen (2014:85)

The definition or categorization of fillers is seemingly a vague issue. However, in this paper, the term filler will be used. Fillers are discourse markers speakers use when they think and/or hesitate during their speech. Clark and Fox Tree (2002, p.97) claimed that fillers served a communicative function, having a place in the speaker's vocabulary. Nonetheless, they are not for primary message in a communication. They rather convey collateral messages. In other words, the use of a filler only helps the meaning. It's not the meaning in the communication. Nevertheless, according to Clark and Fox Tree (ibid), fillers can be used

to convey a variety of interpersonal messages such as ‘holding the floor’. However, according to Corley and Stewart (2008, p.592), considering fillers in the sense of communication function is not that certain. Fillers are used when the speaker is uncertain about his next utterance or he has choices to make in his utterance, but this does not prove that the speaker signals there will be a delay in his speech due to an uncertainty. In fact, it may be hard to determine why a speaker hesitates by using some fillers. Seemingly, considering such a complex process in his brain during the speech, being certain about why he hesitates is not quite possible. If this process is working in the brain of an L2 speaker, things may be even more complex. According to Tottie (2001, p.174), however, linguists or psycholinguists indicated that fillers are often treated as flaws in speech. This way of thinking is not different from one of some scholars in that discourse markers are the signal of ‘lazy and careless speech’. On the contrary, though, some scholars stress the positive aspects of fillers. Spontaneous speech is often a better communication means than fluent, read speech as Swerts pointed out (1998, p.486). qtd.in Erten, Selcen (2014:85)

Robby, Kukurs (2011) conceptualizes the significance of fillers says that you may like it or not, but every English speaker be it native or foreign is bound to hesitate at some stage during a conversation. While excessive hesitation is a sure sign of an English fluency issue whereby you constantly keep mixing up things in your head while speaking, in moderate amounts it doesn’t indicate any serious fluency problems. It’s just normal that you would pause a little bit when you’re not sure on how to put it in the right words – and I’m not talking about you being unable to choose the right English words here. I’m talking about situations when you’re asked some question that you can’t give a straightforward answer

to; or situations when you're a bit tired or just can't seem to be able to gather thoughts for some reason. It can also happen when you speak in your native language, so you don't have to feel as if you're unable to communicate in English properly just because your brain doesn't fire on all cylinders on this particular day. Some will probably judge your spoken English skills by those occasions when you hesitate a little bit, but you shouldn't really mind them or else you risk putting your sanity on the line. Anyway, there is something that any foreign English speaker should know about hesitation if they want to sound natural, so read on if you want to find out how to hesitate like a native English speaker! You must have often heard about how important it is to be able to formulate your thoughts clearly and coherently when speaking in English, isn't that right? It's nearly as important, though, to know what to say when you have pause in the middle of a sentence. You might not be as fluent as a native English speaker, but if you know how to use such hesitation filler words as 'well', 'you know', 'you see' and others, you are so much less likely to experience awkward moments of silence which would most likely send a signal to your conversation partner that you're stuck in the middle of sentence and that you don't know what to say. As a result, the person you're speaking with will own take initiative in their hands in terms of conducting the conversation and that will leave you feeling frustrated and unsatisfied with your spoken English performance. So if you know how to use these simple gap filler words and phrases properly, you can save yourself loads of frustration**.** Imagine that you're having a formal conversation (yes, you can certainly use these hesitation fillers in a more formal setting as well!) with a customer at the information desk in a shopping mall you're working at, and the customer asks you: "Can you tell me, please, if there are any shops in this mall selling sports

memorabilia? “You’re starting your reply with “Yes, you can get all sorts of sports memorabilia in …” and then you suddenly forget the name of the shop. You know the way it happens sometimes – you just can’t remember the simplest things, so you’re trying to bring back the shop’s name while the customer waits. You have to admit that if you don’t say anything to fill the silence while you’re trying to remember the name of the shop, it would turn into an awkward situation. The customer would be staring at you expectantly and you’d be frowning back at him and he wouldn’t have a clue whether you trying to remember something or you’re experiencing sudden toothache…Your response could be the following – “Yes, you can get all sorts of sports memorabilia in … what do you call it… Hold on… I have it right there… Yes! It’s called ‘Collector’s Paradise’ and it’s located on the second floor down at the very back of the mall!” This way you can buy more time while you’re trying to remember the name of the shop, and most importantly – you’re avoiding the awkward silence! Another benefit of using such hesitation filling words and phrases is in binding the words together in a sentence. Even if you’re not trying to buy more time to remember something specific, you’ll still find yourself pausing between sentences as you speak, and you’ll also sometimes need to choose the best way to put a certain thing to your conversation partner. Even a simple sentence “I don’t know” will sound so much better if you begin it with “Well… I don’t know!” or else you run a risk of making sounds like “errr…” or “ahh….” or even use sounds or short exclamation words in your own language which probably wouldn’t go down well in a more formal setting, say, a job interview. I have actually heard some foreign English speakers use their native language while they’re trying to think of how to say a certain thing in English and I have to say it does sound weird… It’s

definitely worth making it your habit to use ‘well’ and ‘like’; even if you use them excessively, it will still sound ten times better than saying something that your conversation partner doesn’t understand all !It’s worth noting that these hesitation filler words I’m going to give you in this blog post are different from the small talk phrases I published some time ago. While technically you can use some of those small talk phrases to fill awkward pauses – like “that’s a good question…” or “to be honest with you…” – the phrases below are very specific in that they serve only the purpose of filling a pause in your speech and for the most part they’re very short – just a couple of words long. So here are typical English words and phrases you can use to fill a pause while you’re trying to think of how to continue the sentence that you just began OR you’re about to begin and you just don’t best. Well… probably the most popular English word used to buy time while considering the question you’ve just been asked. So if you have a habit of making a simple ‘eh…’or ‘ah…’sound to fill gaps in your speech, I’d definite suggest starting using ‘well…’instead. “You’re half an hour late today, did anything happen?” “Well… (thinking on whether to reveal the whole truth) I was out last night and simply forgot to set the alarm clock You see… – this filler phrase comes in handy when you’re explaining something to the person you’re having a conversation with and you’re hesitating a bit while thinking on how to explain the whole thing in detail. “Robby, how come you still haven’t created a Mac version of your English Harmony System ?” “You see… (thinking about the arguments to present in order to explain the issue) Actually it’s quite an expensive process and that is what’s been holding back my plans of creating the System’s Mac version!” All right…normally you’d use this phrase as an affirmative reply. But it can also be used as a hesitation filler while you’re coming up

with the best way to put it into word “Jessie said she wouldn’t attend the meeting today, so I’m not sure if there’s any point in having one today. “Jessie’s not attending? All right… all right… (accepting the fact and considering the consequences) I guess we have to call the meeting off indeed!” I see…this short phrase literally meaning “I understand” works as a self-reassuring mantra you can also use to fill the void while you’re dwelling upon the matter at hand; it’s very similar to the previous one “all right”. “I’m not sure if we can push the order through today, we haven’t enough capacity to manufacture all the necessary parts.” So you can’t make up the entire order today… I see… I see… (thinking on a possible solution to the problem) Well… Can you finalize the parts that have been manufactured by now so that the customer gets at least something? You know… – this very common English short phrase “you know” isn’t really used to fill awkward pauses; it’s normally added onto the end of a sentence to make the conversation more casual – “Drinking has always been Jim’s way of dealing with problems, you know but it can be used as a hesitation filler just as successfully: “Is this all you could accomplish with the new machine? “Well You know (overcoming the need to be defensive and thinking on how to explain the situation) I haven’t received formal training on this machine so I had to figure it all out myself! “Like… – this word is used so frequently in spoken English that many consider it a bad habit – and indeed, on many occasions it is used excessively – “And then she was like “What else do you want me to do?” It’s like she’s making me responsible for her choices, like.” As a pause filler, however, the word ‘like’ is brilliant and it can be used just like the previous one – ‘you know’. “Do you know why Jack got into a fight last Saturday?” (if you’re wondering why I didn’t say – “Do you know why did Jack got into a fight” – read this article about embedded questions!) “We had a few

drinks in a bar, and then he became like… (considering which words would better fit Jack's description at that time) a completely different person! He started making stupid comments about others and that's how it all started. What do you call it… this filler phrase can be used while you're trying to remember a word or a name that's just slipped your mind? "Has the … what do you call it… courier delivered the package yet?" You can follow up all these hesitation fillers with sounds like "ahhm…", "ahh…", "ehh…" and it's nothing to be ashamed of. In real life you'll be pronouncing the last letter of the hesitation filler very long – "wellllllllllll…." and right after that – if the pause hasn't ended yet – you may add the "ahh…" or "ehrr…" sound if appropriate. It will, in fact, come naturally to you and you'd have to work pretty hard not to use such sounds while hesitating! You can repeat the question you are asked at the start of your reply to buy even more time. "What do you think about what just happened?" "What I think about what just happened… Well… You know… Sometimes things are much different from what they seem to be. First I have to talk to James to find out why he acted out like that. "You can also – and this is very important for spoken English fluency! – start a new sentence right after the pause; you don't necessarily need to continue the same sentence" The reason why it happened is… well… it's actually hard to say! "Many foreign English speakers strive for perfection so they'd try to finish off the sentence they've started, but on many occasions it's simply not possible because you don't know what to say or a new idea crosses your mind. We foreigners often don't want to be seen as unable to speak English properly, so we're afraid leaving the initial sentence unfinished. That, in turn, can have a detrimental effect on our fluency – by trying to finish the initial sentence you risk getting tongue-tied and unable to say anything at all.

Lo (2017) Emphasizes the influence of voice on communication skills says that learning to speak with authority and confidence can make you more successful in the workplace, and even help your dating life. Communicating with a trembling monotone voice can send the message that you lack confidence and adequate social skills. Although it can be difficult to develop strong communication skills, doing so can have a positive impact on both your business and personal interactions. Kiranbabu, Ramadugu (2018) adds in oral communication situations paralanguage plays an important role while speaking or listening. The speaker or listener makes use of sounds like Hmm 'ha', or clicks his tongue or chuckles. These sounds, though do not have a semantic value (meaning), are in fact important prompters in maintaining an unbroken communication chain. They are effective tools of listening. Empathetic listening (ability to imagine and share another person's feelings, etc.) is characterized by the use of para-language. Our speech is affected by the volume of our voice, the speed of articulation and such sounds made by clicking of our tongue, chuckling, etc. We come across people whose voices quiver when excited. Some others raise the decibel level of their voice. These are people who shriek or shout when provoked. All these lead to an evaluation of the personality of the communicator…It is possible to communicate an unpleasant information pleasantly or good news badly. When you tell someone, you have done a great job', it is your statement and the tone together show the receiver whether you are complimenting him or ridiculing him. A complimentary tone is distinctly different from a sarcastic tone…In oral communication situations, listening plays an important role. Listening is different from hearing. One can hear all noises and sounds and yet could be a poor listener. Listening is hearing attentively and responding appropriately. Only a good listener

can become a good speaker. Attentiveness begins with the posture a listener adopts while he is listening. If a person inclines towards the speaker, it means that the speaker is not clear either in the message or in his articulation. If the listener tilts his head backwards, it shows that he is indifferent. A Good listener is proactive. He is, as they usually say, all ears. He responds appropriately using paralanguage. He says, Hmm, yeah, yes come on now and then. He asks questions and verifies facts. A listener's role in an oral communication situation is as important as a speaker's role. Listening in communication has several beneficial results. Good listening leads to getting useful and updated information. Good listening creates a better understanding and rapport between the speaker and listener. Good listening leads to better decisions. Good listening provides the best feed back to the speaker.

Table (2.6) shows interpersonal function of filler. Source: Castro, Claudia (2009:73)

To initiate discourse, including claiming the attention of the hearer	Opening frame	so; okay; now
To close discourse	Closing frame	ok; right; well
To aid the speaker in acquiring or relinquishing the floor	turn-takers (Turn givers)	um; eh; and
To serve as a filler or delaying tactic used to sustain discourse or hold the floor	(Turn keepers)	okey; well; now
To indicate a new topic or a partial shift in topic	Topic switchers	and; because; so
To denote either new or old information	Information indicators	so; then; because
To mark sequential dependence	Sequence/relevance	well; I mean; you know; like

To repair one's own or others discourse	Repair	well; I mean; you know; like
Subjectively ,to express a response or a reaction to the preceding discourse including also backchannel Signal of understanding and continued attention while another speaker is having his/her turn.	Response/reaction Backchannel signals	yeah, oh; ah; but; oh yeah; well; eh; oh really? mhm; uh huh; yeah
Interpersonally, to affect cooperation or sharing, including confirming shared assumptions, checking or expressing under, requesting confirmation, expressing difference saving face (politeness)	Cooperation, agreement Disagreement Checking understanding	okay; yes; yeah; mhm but; no ah; I know; yeah; mhm; yes

2.3.1.2 The Concept of Communication

Rckheit and Strohner (2008:208) say that Language use is intentional behavior. Speakers formulate their utterance with the goal of having their intentions recognized and recipients. To do this successfully requires a variety of skills. There is basic linguistic competence, of course the phonological skills.

Ahammed etal (2012) says that nothing happens in the professional world without communication. It propels the management process and serves as a lubricant for its smooth operation. Communication helps the professionals in their managerial tasks like planning, organizing, executing, staffing and controlling. Interaction among people is essential in every organization and proper communication helps the organizations to achieve their goals. Communication is vital to the survival, sustenance and proper growth of any organization. The origin of the word 'communi-

cation' is from the Latin word "Communico" or "Communicare" which means "to share". Communication can be defined as "the transfer of ideas, feelings, plans, messages or information from one person to another". Communication will be effective only when it gets the desired action or response. He classified the types of communication into the following: Verbal communication: Professionals are spending a lot of their time in speaking and listening to others. During this time, they use language as a medium of communication. This type of communication is known as verbal communication. During verbal communication an individual uses spoken and written words. Communication through spoken words is oral communication and communication through written words is written communication. During oral communication, there is face to face interaction between the sender and the receiver. In this type of communication there could be two or more than two persons who use spoken language as a medium of communication. When we make presentations, deliver speeches, participate in group discussions, appear for interviews, or simply interact with some body, we are involved in oral communication. In written communication the sender uses written mode to transmit the message. Reports, proposals, letters, books, e-mails etc. are the examples in this category. This type of communication is used for documentation in organizations. Personal Communication: It is the communication that takes place within one's own self. Individual reflection, contemplation, meditation …etc. are some of the examples of this. This type of communication encompasses communicating with the divine and with spirit in the form of prayers, rites and rituals. Interpersonal Communication: This is a direct, written or oral type of communication between two or more persons. Through conversation between individuals there occurs maximum interaction through words

and gestures. Extra personal Communication: Sometimes we communicate with non-human entities like birds, animals etc. we speak to parrots, or cow and our pet dogs, cats etc. to follow our instruction. They respond with happiness by moving around us or by wagging their tails. This type of communication is extra personal communication. Mass Communication: The books, press, cinema, T.V, radio, internet etc. are the tools of mass media. The communication through these media to the public is an example of mass communication. The speeches delivered by political leaders or by prophet to the public is also an example of mass communication. Media Communication: It is the communication that takes place through electronic media like computer, mobile phones, LCD, Video etc. Among these, the computer is one of the most influential media in every official and business world. Today communication has become an inevitable factor in our daily life like breathing, eating and sleeping. Communication Network: Communication is like a tool to measure the success and growth of an organization. The success of a business depends on the quantity and quality of information flowing through its personals. Therefore, the information should flow as early as possible to the customer and this will help for the smooth operation of the various departments in an organization or business. Different Types of Communication Flow Communication in a professional organization flows at different layers and levels. The different types of communication flows in an organization are given below. 1) Horizontal, 2) Vertical (upward or downward), 3) Cross wise, 4) Spiral There may be various directions within an organization (eg: among the people of same rank in an organization). This will create a better co-ordination between the department and helps the effective decision making. If there is a discussion between a production manager and the supply manager about

the production in a particular month, it will be an example of horizontal communication. When the production manager instructs the workers, it will be an example of downward communication. Here the information moves from the higher authority to its subordinates. If the superior reports to the production manager regarding the state of production it will be an example of upward communication. Sometimes the managements circulate reports or information to all the workers in an organization (eg: announcing bonus, incentives… etc.). It is an example of spiral communication. Sometimes communication flows between persons who belong to different levels of hierarchy and who have no direct reporting relationships. Such a type of information helps to bring cooperation among the members and for the expansion of the organization. This is an example of diagonal communication. In organizations, sometimes there will be informal communication between the personal and professional groups. Such a type of communication flow is known as grapevine. (eg: rumors about the expansion of a business, promotion of an employee etc). This type of communication may create both negative and positive impact on the environment within an organization. Barriers to Communication During communication, mistakes and errors happens occasionally due to various reasons. If there are such problems the communication should follow the following steps to rectify the mistakes. 1. Identify the problem 2. Find out its cause 3. Select and apply the best solution.

2.3.1. 3 Features Connected with Voice

Titze, Ingo (1994) explains that voices are as distinctive as our faces - no two are exactly alike. Some of the traits that make our voices unique can be formed into well-defined categories; fundamental frequency (high and low) and intensity (loud or soft), are examples. Other attributes fall into a general set of

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characteristics called vocal qualities. Register is generally considered in the category of voice qualities, although unlike the others, it tends to be quantal, rather than continuous perceptually. Those characteristics such as tightness, resonance or nasality aren't easily defined - perhaps because they tend to be present along a continuum. If we were to create an equation for an individual's unique voice, it might look something like this: Voice Quality = vocal tract configuration + laryngeal anatomy + learned component. The shape of an individual's vocal tract is partly genetic, partly learned. Necks are long or short; pharynxes may be narrow or wide. While these attributes are genetically determined (except for configurations due to trauma or disease), individuals may also manipulate vocal tract shape. Highly trained singers have many tricks to change the contours of their vocal tracts to improve the sound coming out of their mouths. Lip rounding lengthens the vocal tract, for example. Likewise, laryngeal anatomy is partially determined at birth: the length of one's vocal folds is determined by genes. However, the general hydration of one's vocal fold tissues or muscular agility of laryngeal muscles can be at least partly controlled by vocal health and training. The learned component of the equation could also be called vocal habits. These would be items such as rhythm and rate of speech and vowel pronunciation. Rhythm, obviously, includes mannerisms such as periodic pauses to search for the right word, while rate refers to the speed of an individual's syllables and speech. (The average rate of speech for English speakers in the United States is about 150 words per minute, by the way.) A speaker's habits also influence how much air pressure is used to produce sound and how s/he uses laryngeal muscles to open and close the vocal folds. So, should we be surprised that family members often sound alike? After all - for most of us - the home and the gene pool of our siblings, parents and children are shared. The average person easily recognizes familiar or famous voices, yet would have difficulty describing them in words. Language has not

been as well developed for vocal characteristics as it has for appearance. People can be tall, bald or wrinkled, but how do we describe how they sound? Despite their training, vocologists and voice researchers also disagree about exact descriptions of vocal qualities

Table (2.7) shows voice qualities: Source Titze, Ingo (1994)

Commented [h3]:

Voice Quality	Perception	Physiologic component
aphonic	no sound or a whisper	inability to set vocal folds into vibration, caused by lack of appropriate power (air pressure) or a muscular/tissue problem of the folds
biphonic	two independent pitches	two sources of sound (e.g., true folds and false folds, or two folds and whistle due to vortex in air)
breathy	sound of air is apparent	noise is caused by turbulence in or near glottis, caused by loose valuing of laryngeal muscles (lateral cricoarytenoid, interarytenoid and posterior cricoarytenoid).
covered	muffled or 'darkened' sound	lips are rounded and protruded or larynx is lowered to lower all formants so a stronger fundamental is obtained
creaky	sounds like two hard surfaces rubbing against one another	a complex pattern of vibrations in the vocal folds creates an intricate formation of subharmonics and modulations
diplophonic	pitch supplemented with another pitch one octave lower, roughness usually apparent	a period doubling, or subharmonic
flutter	often called bleat because it sounds like a lamb's cry	amplitude changes or frequency modulations in the 8-12Hz range
glottalized	clicking noise heard during voicing	forceful adduction or abduction of the vocal folds during speech

hoarse (raspy)	harsh, grating sound	combination of irregularity in vocal fold vibration and glottal noise generation
honky	excessive nasality	excessive acoustic energy couples to the nasal tract
jitter	pitch sounds rough	fundamental frequency varies from cycle to cycle
pressed	harsh, often loud (strident) quality	vocal processes of the arytenoid cartilages are squeezed together, constricting the glottis, and causing low airflow and medial compression of the vocal folds
pulsed (fry)	sounds similar to food cooking in a hot frying pan	sound gaps caused by intermittent energy packets below 70 Hz and formant energy dies out prior to re-excitation
resonant (ringing)	brightened or 'ringing' sound that carries well	epilaryngeal resonance is enhanced, producing a strong spectral peak at 2500-3500 Hz; in effect, formants F3, F4 and F5 are clustered
rough	uneven, bumpy sound appearing to be unsteady short-term, but persisting over the long-term	modes of vibration of the vocal folds are not synchronized
shimmer	crackly, buzzy	short-term (cycle-to-cycle) variation in a signal's amplitude
strained	effortfulness apparent in voice, hyperfunction of neck muscles, entire larynx may compress	excessive energy focused in laryngeal region
strohbass	popping sound; vocal fry during singing	sound gaps caused by intermittent energy packets below 70 Hz and formant energy dies out prior to re-excitation
tremulous	affected by trembling or tremors	modulation of 1-15 Hz in either amplitude or pitch due to a neurological or biomechanical cause
twangy	sharp, bright sound	often attributed to excessive nasality, but probably also has an epilaryngeal basis
ventricular	very rough (Louis Armstrong-type voice)	phonation using the false folds anterior rather than the vocal folds; unless intentional due to damage to the true folds, considered an abnormal muscle pattern

		dysphonia
wobble	wavering or irregular variation in sound	amplitude and/or frequency modulations in the 1-3 Hz range
yawny	quality is akin to sounds made during a yawn	larynx is lowered and pharynx is widened, as people do when yawning - hence the name

Non-native pronunciations of English result from the common linguistic phenomenon in which non-native users of any language tend to carry the intonation, phonological processes and pronunciation rules from their first language or first languages into their English speech. They may also create innovative pronunciations for English sounds not found in the speaker's first language. The speech of non-native English speakers may exhibit pronunciation characteristics that result from such speakers imperfectly learning the pronunciation of English, either by transferring the phonological rules from their mother tongue into their English speech ("interference") or through implementing strategies similar to those used in primary language acquisition. They may also create innovative pronunciations for English sounds not found in the speaker's first language. The age at which speakers begin to immerse themselves into a language (such as English) is linked to the degree in which native speakers are able to detect a non-native accent; the exact nature of the link is disputed amongst scholars and may be affected by "neurological plasticity, cognitive development, motivation, psychosocial states, formal instruction, language learning aptitude", and the usage of their first (L1) and second (L2) languages. English is unusual in that speakers rarely produce an audible release between consonant clusters and often overlap constriction times. Speaking English with a timing pattern that is dramatically different may lead to speech that is difficult to understand.

More transparently, differing phonological distinctions between a speaker's first language and English create a tendency to neutralize such distinctions in English, and differences in the inventory or distribution of sounds may cause substitutions of native sounds in the place of difficult English sounds and/or simple deletion. This is more common when the distinction is subtle between English sounds or between a sound of English and of a speaker's primary language. While there is no evidence to suggest that a simple absence of a sound or sequence in one language's phonological inventory makes it difficult to learn, several theoretical models have presumed that non-native speech perceptions reflect both the abstract phonological properties and phonetic details of the native language. Non-native pronunciations may be transmitted to the children of learners, who will then exhibit a number of the same characteristics despite being native speakers themselves. For example, this process has resulted in many of the distinctive qualities of Irish English and Highland English which were heavily influenced by a Goidelic substratum.

Ahammed, etal (2012) The important features connected with voice are: Rate; It is the number of words that utter per minute. Don't speak too fast or too slow while speaking, keep average speed, a rate between 125 and 150 words per minute is ideal in professional situation. Listen and understand your listeners and make sure that they are comprehending and digesting the ideas. Pauses; Speech without pauses appears unnatural and hasty. Pauses display sense of security and feeling of assurance. Pauses help the listeners to comprehend ideas. Speech in a hurry creates confusion. Rightly timed pauses add values to what we say. Avoid wrongly placed pauses. Omit vocalized pauses (sounds) like hmm, err, aa, oh…etc. Omit over use of expressions like "you know", "I mean", "actually", 'basically', in fact, okay, well, right…etc. Volume; A person's

volume has an important role in deciding his personality. People with low voice lacks confidence. People who maintain an inadequate volume while speaking to others reflect their lack of conviction of ideas. Such people can never appear or emerge to the master of the situation. Some people speak very loudly and this indicates their arrogance. Listeners never like such people. While speaking, observe the expressions on the faces of the audience or the back benchers to know whether they are confused, if so, it indicates that the speaker is not audible enough. We should try to maintain enough volume while speaking to other people. He further states the following communication barriers: Verbal Barriers: Some communicators believe that they can communicate fluently and clearly. But there are some verbal barriers like verbal attack, speaking loudly, unnecessarily, and using complex words and phrases etc. When and individual blames, criticizes or questions the other, verbal barriers are created. The following reasons may also create verbal barriers in the communication environment. Some communicators speak without proper planning and preparation. They fail to communicate the purpose of communication. This may result in miscommunication in the communication process. Selection of wrong variety of Language: Language is a tool of communication and so it should be used appropriately. It should become suitable to the context and situation. Imagine a lawyer using his argumentative language to convince his wife to get a cup of tea from the kitchen. A situation like this will create negative result and will become boring and improper. Wrongly decoded and badly encoded messages: The sender may have clarity with proper expression, choice of correct words and correct punctuations etc. while transmitting a message. Bombastic language with improper sentences may cause confusions to the listeners. Badly or wrongly decoded

messages may lead to hilarious situations for the people involved. Semantic gap: Semantic gap or distortions may happen deliberately or accidently. Ambiguous sentences may create confusing situations. As an example look at the following adverbial statement. When we read this, raises the question, “less than what?”. Is the product sold to less number of people or offered at a less price?”. Message like this may put the people in confusion and so such ambiguous sentences should be avoided during communication. Difference in Perception of a message: During conversation, we use various types of words that can be interpreted in many ways. Different people perceive a particular situation in different ways. As an example suppose there occurs a dispute between a worker and his superior in a company. A third person is appointed to inquire into the matter. During the investigation, he may get different types of opinion and narrations from different groups. In such a situation, one needs to communicate from various perspectives. He should verify the matter from different points of view and then come to a conclusion. Variation in Language: Language has regional varieties (dialects) and individual varieties (idiolects). Certain words and expressions are culture specific. The meaning of a word or usage may change from country to country. (as an example the word “Side walk” in America changes as ‘pavement’ in Britain. ‘Apartment’ in America, changes as ‘flat’ in Britain and ‘house’ in India.) So while using the words the communicator should be very conscious about the meaning and situation.p.147

Lo (2017) emphasizes the influence of voice on communication skills says that learning to speak with authority and confidence can make you more successful in the workplace, and even help your dating life. Communicating with a trembling monotone voice can send the message that you lack confidence and adequate social skills. Although it can be

difficult to develop strong communication skills, doing so can have a positive impact on both your business and personal interactions.

Kiranbabu (2018). Argued that in oral communication situations…the speaker or listener makes use of sounds like Hmm 'ha', or clicks his tongue or chuckles. These sounds, though do not have a semantic value (meaning), are in fact important prompters in maintaining an unbroken communication chain. They are effective tools of listening. Empathetic listening (ability to imagine and share another person's feelings, etc.) is characterized by the use of para-language. Our speech is affected by the volume of our voice, the speed of articulation and such sounds made by clicking of our tongue, chuckling, etc. We come across people whose voices quiver when excited. Some others raise the decibel level of their voice. These are people who shriek or shout when provoked. All these lead to an evaluation of the personality of the communicator…It is possible to communicate an unpleasant information pleasantly or good news badly. When you tell someone, you have done a great job', it is your statement and the tone together show the receiver whether you are complimenting him or ridiculing him. A complimentary tone is distinctly different from a sarcastic tone…In oral communication situations, listening plays an important role. Listening is different from hearing. One can hear all noises and sounds and yet could be a poor listener. Listening is hearing attentively and responding appropriately. Only a good listener can become a good speaker. Attentiveness begins with the posture a listener adopts while he is listening. If a person inclines towards the speaker, it means that the speaker is not clear either in the message or in his articulation. If the listener tilts his head backwards, it shows that he is indifferent. A Good listener is proactive. He is, as they usually say, all ears. He responds appropriately using paralanguage. He says, Hmm,

yeah, yes come on now and then. He asks questions and verifies facts. A listener's role in an oral communication situation is as important as a speaker's role. Listening in communication has several beneficial results. Good listening leads to getting useful and updated information. Good listening creates a better understanding and rapport between the speaker and listener. Good listening leads to better decisions. Good listening provides the best feed back to the speaker.

2.4 Previous Studies

2.4.1 Introduction

This module presents the previous studies that have been conducted in the scope related to the current study as well as comments on this respect. These studies are divided into three categories: International, regional and local. However, there are few attempts exerted concerning the local studies of phonological features.

2.4.2 Categories of Previous Studies

2.4.2.1 International Studies

Erten (2014) has studied the thesis entitled; Teaching English Filler Words and students' Usage of them: A study conducted at Osmangazi University. Turkey, preparation School. Submitted for M.A degree. The study was qualitative and the Method was interview. The most important results are:

. For some students teaching fillers is not possible or purposeful, because people acquire them when they are ready or their language level develops.

. It might not be wrong to state that when the students are taught fillers, they use them.

Osman (2015) has Investigated the study entitled; The Impact of Intonation on Students' Listening and Speaking Skills. A study Submitted for PhD at Sudan university of science and technology. The study is descriptive and practical. The method is test and interview. The most important results are:

. Students did not notice intonation in the listening and speaking course they have studied, and they did not regard it as important before studying it.

. Few of the students have limited contact with native speakers, and most of the do not have listening and speaking activities outside the class room.

Zhang (2009) has studied the topic entitled; The pronunciation Problems of English Learners in China. the researcher adopted comparative method. Finally, the researcher reached the following results:

. In order to learn well, the second language learner should pay attention of the importance of the English pronunciation.

. Prior pronunciation instruction and learner's insufficient knowledge of phonology and phonetics to a large extent affecting the acquisition of English pronunciation.

Alam (2003) has studied the topic; Improving Oral Communication Skills of Pakistani Public Schools' Students. Four students were being selected. He adopted the qualitative method using he following tools for data collection: observation, interview (three class rooms) and audio recording. Finally, the researcher has come out with the following findings:

. High quality of teaching of speaking and listening has direct impact on children's learning and their standard of achievement.

. Though the results of the present study are in favor of the phonetic factor in stuttering, the fact that non – emphatic and the voiceless

consonants were stuttered more than their emphatic and voiced counterparts.

. The discrepancy in the frequency of stuttering on a given sound when it is in word initial position as compared with the frequency of stuttering on that sound when it is the initial sound of other syllables of the words.

Sersen (2011) Has researched the topic; Authentic–speech Technique for Improving the Sound – recognition Skills of Student of Roi – EtRajabhat University. Sixty-four participants took part in this study. Two research instruments were utilized: oral test and questionnaire. The study has shown the following results:

. Exposure to native or non–native accent during early stages of the sound recognition learning experience is important.

. sound recognition is a pre-requisite to sound comprehension and can even affect spelling in as much as students will spell in accordance with what they perceive to hear.

. The oral proficiency must be improved by taking fluency as first step because it encourages learners using English as medium of instruction.

. Students must be provided with opportunities to practice language in the classrooms.

Gilakjani (2012) has investigated the topic entitled; The Factors Effecting Learners' English pronunciation Learning and the Strategies for Instruction. Islamic Azad University, Iran. The research has shown the following points:

. Intelligible pronunciation is seen as an essential component of communicative competence.

. The content of the course should be integrated class, with the content emphasizing the teaching of suprasegmental, linking pronunciation with listening comprehension and allowing for meaningful pronunciation practice, with the teacher acting as a "speech coach" rather than as a mere checker of pronunciation.

Lintunan (2005) has examined the phonemic transcription and its effect on learning the subjects of the study were 34 Finnish first – year university students. The data were collected from three separate test for both pronunciation and transcription the results of the test were compared quantitatively the study suggests that phonemic transcription is on effective teaching method for foreign Language learners of English. It was shown that those subjects who were the best transcribers were also the ones whose pronunciation developed the most during the test period.

2.4.2.2 Regional Studies

Attien (2002) has explored the topic; Language Factors in Stuttering: phonetic difficulty, the seventy – four Jordanian subjects of the study, randomly chosen, are thought to represent various soul economic statues and wide age range. They were classified into three age groups. The speech sample collected is quite comprehensive since it included both oral readiness and conversational speech and covered a wide range of responses that ranged from one- word utterances to long complex sentences. The research has shown the following finding:

There were significantly and consistently more suffering on content words than on function words.

Rajab (2013) has studied the thesis entitled; Development of Speaking and Writing Skills of Arabic EFL Learners. The participants were 169

university level male Saudi students. He designed a test for data collection.

. The results indicated that students reached a high level of understanding of letter- to- symbol representation – the IPA system – and oral test results-proved that phonological awareness can help Saudi students at tertiary level education improve their writing and speaking skills.

. Learning the phonetic transcription codes helped them develop a sense of autonomy and competence when using monolingual dictionaries.

Martin (2012) has conducted the topic; A Review of Stress what it is and how to Teach it. The researcher has reached to the following results:

Word stress plays an important role in intelligibility and deserves to be studied in all English classes –not just pronunciation classes – and by all students regardless of their general language proficiency levels. Teaching word stress can occur as part of any lesson provided that the teacher is empowered with the theoretical knowledge of word stress and the enthusiasm to teach it. Less proficient learners should be made aware of word stress whereas more experienced learners can better cope with learning rules associated with word stress. Of the rules discussed in this article, phonological similarity may be the best one to start with as early and late bilingual picks this up well.

Mehmet (2001) has studied: Teaching English Intonation to EFL/ESL Students, his study has argued for the inclusion of intonational features of English in the syllabuses designed for the teaching of English as a second/foreign language, and provided a practical framework of English intonation, which is based on the present author's experiences. Intonation, the non-grammatical, non-lexical component of communication, is an

inseparable component of utterances. Speech without intonational features is no more than a machine output. Intonation is a paralinguistic device in vocal communication. It reveals many facets of the communication process taking into consideration all factors present in the discourse context. Therefore, it is an indispensable part of speech. Tones are important discourse strategies to communicate effectively; simply, it is not what you say, it is how you say it. Therefore, a proficiency in intonation is a requirement for non-native learners of English for a better communicative discourse with native or nonnative speakers of English. The article discusses the importance of communication in order to maintain organizational success. The article argues that school administrators must be effective communicators in order to empower teachers. Recognizing the content and relational aspect of verbal messages, and realizing the importance of perceptions, positive reinforcement, active listening, flexible listening styles, … are all essential for effective communication.

2.4.2.3. Local Studies

Ibrahim (2016) conducted a research entitled; Investing Pronunciation Problems among Sudanese University Students for PhD: Khartoum state. The researcher adopted the descriptive statistical method; the tool for data collection is interview for students and questionnaire for university teachers. The most important result in the research was that; university students 3rd year in Khartoum state face problems in pronouncing some English consonant sounds e.g. bilabial plosive, labiodentals fricative, plato-alveolar fricative, plato-alveolar affricates and dental fricatives.

Badawi (2015). Has studied the thesis entitled; Problems Encountered by Non-Native Speakers in Understanding Connected Speech of English

Native Speakers. A thesis submitted for MA degree. Sudan University of Science and Technology College of Graduate Studies. The researcher used descriptive and qualitative methods to collect the data of the study and to show the changes that happen during the connected speech by investigating some constituents and their roles in connected speech. In concluding this chapter, the researcher got the following results according to the data collection:

. The connected speech has great importance in interacting with the native speakers.

. The majority of non-native speakers lack the proper knowledge, because of poor knowledge during their study in the university.

. Great numbers of non-native speaker neglect taking part in any sort of activities or exercise to improve and support the knowledge and practice.

. The results showed that a lot of non-native speakers are not conscious enough to the factors which form the connected speech and their role in the changes which happen during the speech.

. Some of non-native speakers know about the factors which are responsible for changing the sounds in connected speech.

. Exercises and drills through the media and other recorded tapes provided the non-native speakers with necessary knowledge and help them in finding out the difficulties they face, besides helping them to improve their knowledge and performance.

2.5 Comments on the Previous Studies

The study which was conducted by Zhang (2009) is about the pronunciation problems of English learners in china, that which was

conducted by Alam (2013) is about the improving oral communication skills Pakistani public schools' students. The study that was conducted by Attien (2002) is on the language factor in stuttering and the study that has been conducted by Gilakjani (2012) is on the factors affecting EFL learners' English pronunciation learning and the strategies for instruction. Abker, Ibrahim Abdallah (2016) conducted a research entitled; investing pronunciation problems among Sudanese university students. The most important result in the research was that; university students 3rdyear in Khartoum state face problems in pronouncing some English consonant sounds. Mohamed, Areig Osman (2015). Has conducted the study entitled: The impact of Intonation on Students' Listening and Speaking Skills. Submitted for PhD The study is descriptive and practical. The method is test and interview. The most important results are: Students did not notice intonation in the listening and speaking course they have studied, and they did not regard it as important before studying it. few of the students have limited contact with native speakers, and most of the do not have listening and speaking activities outside the class room.

Although these studies are interrelated and similar to the current study in their theoretical framework, that is why the current researcher have benefited from them however, still there is a gap between these studies and the current one; The current study links between phonological features: segmental, suprasegmental features and filler sounds.

2.6 Summary

Chapter three presents the theoretical frame work and previous studies in addition to comments on previous studies. Theoretical frame work is divided into three sections: Section one concerns with segmental features which focuses the following variables: Air stream of mechanism of

consonants and vowels, assimilation in the communication, types of assimilation, linking and intrusion in communication, elision in communication, juncture in communication, quantitative and qualitative reduction to keep fast, the concept of intelligibility, communication and intelligibility, factors hindering intelligibility in communication, factors helping intelligibility in communication, the phonological shape of the plural morpheme, section two concerns with suprasegmental features, that focuses the following variables: Nature of stress, function of stress, function in communication, syllabic consonants, degree of stress, word stress patters (content words, complex word stress, suffix that do not affect stress placement), sentence stress, communicative fruition of stress, pitch and stress similarity and diversity, pitch types, thought group, the importance of thought group in communication, structure and recognition of though, section three presents the filler sounds which concerns with fillers in oral communication, the concept of communication, features connected with voice.

Previous studies are divided into three categories, international, regional and local studies as well as Comments on the previous studies.

CHAPTER THREE

Methodology

3.0 Introduction

This chapter explains the methodology of the study. In that, it will describe the method, population and sampling the procedures of data collection as well as statistics and the summary.

3.1 Research Method

The researcher adapts the qualitative and experimental method. And wants to use oral – aural pretest and posttest as well as written test to measure the subject's ability towards using phonological features intelligibly and influentially on developing the oral communication skills. In addition to that, the researcher structuralizes a questionnaire (scale type) for 42 university teachers in Khartoum state to support the questions and the hypotheses of the research.

3.2 Population and Sampling

The total population of the study is 100 students from university of ALFashir (male/ female) of academic year 2017 – 2018 semester six, majoring in English language. Their ages are around 20 years old. They have background about English language phonological features. The researcher selects 30 subjects using stratified random sampling technique to represent the total population in the influence of using phonological features on developing L2 learners' verbal communication skills. To secure participant's anonymity and ensure their safety in regards to this study, the following measures are taken: 1. Formal letter is submitted to the admin of AlFashir University shows the mission, reviewed and

accepted by faculty of education, 2. The participants are given an informed consent letter, allowed time to read, ask questions, and given the choice to sign under no pressure, 3. The research objectives were explained to the participant, 4. The participant's identity was protected throughout the research by use of a pseudonym, index numbers 5. No materials were kept with the participant's real name on them, 6. Research materials and notes were kept in a secure location, and 7. There were no negative or positive consequences from participating in this study.

3.3 Procedures for Safety

To secure my participant's anonymity and ensure their safety in regards to this study, the following stipulation were taken: 1) formal letter is submitted to the admin of AlFashir University shows the mission, reviewed and accepted by faculty of education, 2) the participants are given an informed consent letter, allowed time to read, ask questions, and given the choice to sign under no pressure, 3) the research objectives were explained to the participant, 4) the participant's identity was protected throughout the research by use of pseudonyms,5) no materials were kept with the participant's real name on them, 6) research materials and notes were kept in a secure location, and 7) there were no negative or positive consequences from participating in this study.

3.4 Procedure of Data Collection

Procedure of data collection includes Pre-test and post-test for the subject, as well as questionnaire for 42 university teachers in Khartoum state to support the questions and the hypotheses of the research. Firstly, before giving any teaching treatment process, each member of the 30 participants (English Language major) will be exposed to pretest in listening, speaking and reading skills including phonological features;

segmentals and suprasegmentals and the scores will be registered. Then, the participants will be taught the phonological features which have been mentioned above for five weeks (equal 24 hours). These include the following phonological features (independent variables): 1. Assimilation 2. Liaison 3. Elision 4. Juncture 5. Rhythm 6. Stress 7. Intonation 8. Thought groups 9. Communicational gap fillers.

3.5 Validity and Reliability of the Study

"instrument adopted from previously published work are likely to be valid and reliable" (Al-samawi, 2000:119). However, the questionnaire of this study has been judged by the following validators: Dr. Ogone John Obiero. Department of English Language, Aljouf University KSA, Dr. Abdallah Mahassna. Department of English Language, Aljouf University KSA, Dr. Allassene Dijaw. Department of Business Administration, Aljouf University KSA and Dr. Badreldin Mohamed. Department of Business Administration, Aljouf University KSA.

3.6 Pretest Procedures (oral, listening and written)

3.6.1 Oral

Kaye, Paul (2016) says that speakers need to be able to recognize, understand and use the communicative functions of speech. This means what speakers actually communicate with their choices of intonation and stress, changes in volume and tone. These features can be evaluated through observation of the speaker's performance and comparison against a standard. As we are evaluating communicative functions, it is relevant to evaluate a speaker from these perspectives: a. Does the speaker use intonation and stress effectively to support their message? b. Does the speaker manage volume and tone appropriately to support

communication? C. Does the speaker use pauses, repetition and noises appropriately to support communication? Participant will be looking at the videoMP4adapted from moral stories under the title (Kaalu the Thirsty Crow) then tells the story verbally in the pretest and posttest using the English Language phonological features; assimilation, intrusion, linking, elision, germination, plural and past morphemes. The subject also articulates the sentence "She got a dog" to show the function of intonation in the speaking pretest and posttest, their sounds will be compared with the sound of a native speaker. Meanwhile the participant speaks, the voice will be recorded for analysis to evaluate the influence of using English Language phonological features on developing L2 learners' verbal communication skills.

3.6.2 Listening

After the listening, students will circle the multi choice questions for connected speech.

. They draw circle round the letter of the correct phrase to identify the juncture that differentiates the sequence of the sounds.

. They show the implemented sound in the use of connected speech.

. Say a sentence(s) using different pitch levels to show different meanings; completion of a thought and a surprise.

. They put the marks (**.** And?) in front of pair words to show the influence of pitch change on changing the meaning in the speaking.

. They tick (√) the sentence they hear from the pair sentences to show the influence of using thought in communication.

3.6.3 Written

. They tick marks to realize the use of plural morpheme and the past morpheme.

. They insert the boundary marks (**|, ||**) where necessary in the text to show the thought groups effect in changing the meaning.

. They insert the intonation patterns (↑, ↓) at the end of 'wh' and 'yes, 'no 'questions.

. They match pair similar sentences A with B in C to show the influence of stress in changing the meaning.

. They the stress on the right syllable and on the word to show the effect of stress.

. They fill the spaces with a right filler (fillers are given in the box) to show their meaning in the communication.

The researcher records and writes the answers (vary according to subjects' perception from: correctly perceived / incorrectly perceived / misperceived) of each participant on the paper individually for analysis to see the participants' reaction towards the using of English language phonological features and their influence on developing the L2 learners' communication skills. Meanwhile the participant tells the story his/her voice will be recorded for analysis to evaluate the influence of using English Language on developing L2 learners' verbal communication skills.

Table (3.1) shows speaking checklist for evaluating connected speech.

Index no of the subject	Phonological feature of connected speech	correctly used	Not used	Notes
	Assimilation Linking Intrusion Elision gemination			

Table (3.2) shows speaking checklist for evaluating intonation/ pretest result.

Intonation								
Sentence: She got a dog	Falling pitch (completion)				Rising pitch (surprising)			
	No of Correct responses	%	No of incorrect responses	%	No of Correct responses	%	No of incorrect responses	%

Table (3.3) shows speaking checklist for evaluating intonation/posttest result.

Intonation								
Sentence: She got a dog	Falling pitch (completion)				Rising pitch (surprising)			
	No of Correct responses	%	No of incorrect responses	%	No of Correct responses	%	No of incorrect responses	%

3.7 Course Contents

Participants will be taught a course of English Language phonological features (treatments) for 12 weeks which will be covering the following variables:

The process of articulation, phonetic symbols, cluster sounds, minimal pairs, homophones, homographs, syllables, aspects of connected speech, stress, intonation, thought group and communication fillers.

3.7.1 Lesson Plan

The lesson plan includes: Presentation, Practice and Production.

3.7.2 Presentation

The researcher explains the above contents by using videos and films which are presented by the native speakers. (see the memory flash attached)

3.7.3 Practice

It ranges from listening to authentic materials up to choral technique, individual work, pair and group work as a preparation for practice to develop fluency in the communication skills. See Richard, Jack etal (2002)

3.7.4 Production

This is based on communicative learning and task-based approach activities (segmental, suprasegmental and communication fillers). The follow up and the home work pronunciation activities to reinforce the cyclicality of the practice so as to investigate the influence of using

English Language Phonological features on developing L2 Learners' verbal communication skills.

3.8 Post-test Procedures

After they have been taught for five weeks (equals 24hours) including phonological features (assimilation, intrusion, linking, elision and juncture, stress, intonation, rhythm and communication fillers.), they would be exposed to the post-test in listening, speaking and reading skills including English language phonological features (segmentals and suprasegmentals) the same previous pretest. Then the scores will be registered. The scores of two tests (pre/post) would be correlated and analyzed linguistically and statistically to justify the influence of using English language phonological features on developing L2 learners' oral communication skills. In addition to that Questionnaire will be used to.

3.9 Questionnaire for University Teachers

the researcher structuralizes a questionnaire for 42 university teachers in Khartoum state to support the questions and the hypotheses of the research.

3.10 Speaking Scoring Method

The most authentic way of assessing the actual development of a learner is indeed through free speech (verbal communication). The method which is assigned for scoring (to assess the influence of using English Language segmental features on developing l2 learners' verbal communication skills) is analytic scoring method which is considered more appropriate method than impression-based holistic method in this case. For the creditability of marking, two university teachers and the current

researcher mark the papers of subjects individually then the average of the final score will be registered analyzed.

3.11 Statistics

The data will be analyzed by means of a descriptive statistic in which frequencies, percentages, arithmetic averages and their standard deviations are used. The analysis will be carried out through the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS).

3.12 Summary

This chapter illustrates the study methodology and the tools adopted for data collection. The chapter has provided a detailed description of all the steps and procedures followed in each tool, icluding population, sample, validity and reiability of the tools.

CHAPTER FOUR

Data Analysis, Results and Discussions

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents and analyses personal data, the data collected through spoken test for segmentals and suprasegmentals (pretest/posttest), data from written test(pretest/posttest), and the data from questionnaire. The results will be used to provide answers to the questions and hypotheses of the study.

4.1 Personal data

Table (4.1) shows the age of study sample (university teachers)

	Frequency	Percent
21.00 - 30.00	7	16.7
31.00 - 40.00	14	33.3
41.00 - 50.00	13	31.0
51.00	8	19.0
Total	42	100.0

Table (4.2) shows gender of study sample (university teachers)

	Frequency	Percent
Male	30	71.4
Female	12	28.6
Total	42	100.0

Table (4.3) shows years of experience of university teachers (sample)

	frequency	Percent
Missing	10	23.8
Associate prof	1	2.4
Master	23	54.7
PhD	8	19.0
Total	42	100.0

Table (4.4) shows academic degree of university teachers (sample)

	Frequency	Percent
2.00 - 11.00	18	42.9
12.00 - 21.00	15	35.7
22.00 - 31.00	8	19.0
32.00	1	2.4
Total	42	100.0

4.2 Question one and Hypothesis one

Q1. To what extent the contextualized segmental features have influence on developing L2 learners verbal communication skills?

H1. Contextualized segmental features may have influence on developingL2 learners verbal communication skills.

4.2.1 Discussion and Result of Speaking Test

Table (4.5) shows results of the speaking pretest of aspects of connected speech (Segmentals).

Aspects of connected speech	Correctly used		Not used	
	frequency	percentage	frequency	percentage
Assimilation	0	0 %	28	100 %
Intrusion	6	21.42%	22	78.57 %
Linking	14	50 %	14	50 %
Elision	0	0 %	28	100 %
Gemination	2	7.14%	26	92.86 %
		Total=1.56%		

Note: Two students were absentees (No7 and 18).

Table (4.6) shows results of the speaking posttest of aspects of connected speech (Segmentals).

Aspects of connected speech	Correctly used		Not used	
	frequency	percentage	frequency	percentage
Assimilation	5	17.86 %	23	82%
Intrusion	0	0 %	28	0%
Linking	21	75 %	7	25%
Elision	6	21.43 %	24	85.71%
Gemination	3	10.17 %	25	89.29%
		Total=2.46%		

The results of oral presentation as considered to be the most authentic way of assessing the actual development of learner's performance shown from the tables (4.5) pretest and (4.6) posttest segmentals, the total percentage of pretest result analysis is (1.56%) and the total result of posttest result analysis is (2.46%). Comparing the two result, they show increasing and rising in the percentage which means that there is an influence in the usage of segmental features.

Table (4.7) shows descriptive Statistics of written pretest and posttest for segmentals, suprasegmentals and fillers.

	N	Minimum Degree		Maximum Degree		Mean		Std. Deviation	
		Pre	post	Pre	post	pre	post	Pre	Post
Assimilation	29	.00	.00	1.50	2.00	.8621	1.0517	.47989	.52346
Intrusion	29	.00	.00	.50	1.00	.0862	.3276	.19221	.27632
Linking	29	.50	.00	2.50	2.50	1.0517	1.0517	.52346	.57235
Elision	29	.00	.00	1.00	1.00	.5000	.6552	.37796	.35616
Weakening	29	.00	.00	1.00	5.00	.2241	.5345	.28618	.88571
Juncture	29	.00	.00	3.50	3.00	2.0862	2.2069	.80255	.67503
Plural morph	29	.00	.50	2.50	2.50	1.0862	1.3966	.59864	.65981
Past morph	29	.00	.00	2.00	2.00	.7931	1.0000	.57503	.61237
Gemination	29	.00	.00	.50	.50	.1552	.3621	.23541	.22743
Connected speech	29	3.50	5.50	10.00	12.50	6.8621	8.3966	1.70030	1.67641
Word	29	.00	.50	5.00	4.50	1.9828	2.7414	1.66628	.99661
Sentence	29	.00	.00	1.00	1.50	.3966	.4483	.36301	.50612
Word class	29	.00	.00	4.50	9.00	2.1207	4.5000	1.41834	2.10442
Stress	29	.00	3.00	9.00	13.50	4.4897	7.6897	2.88337	2.41059
Pitches	29	1.00	1.50	5.00	6.50	2.6379	3.3103	1.17941	1.17575
Thought group	29	.00	.00	1.50	1.50	.9655	.9138	.49877	.50123
Pausing	29	.00	.00	6.00	5.50	1.5345	2.4655	1.45732	1.55799

Intonation	29	1.00	1.50	10.00	11.00	5.1034	6.5862	2.35425	2.15087
Fillers	29	.00	.00	2.00	1.50	.4483	.5172	.58774	.45282
Total	29	1.00	13.00	24.00	38.00	16.7586	23.6897	5.39613	5.41231

Table (4.8) shows the mean and standard deviation of pretest and posttest for segmentals, suprasegmentals and filler.

	Connected speech		Stress		intonation		Fillers		Total	
	Pre	Post	Pre	post	Pre	post	Pre	post	Pre	Post
Mean	6.8621	8.3966	4.4897	7.6897	5.1034	6.5862	0.4483	0.5172	16.759	23.69
Std. Deviation	1.70030	1.67641	2.8834	2.4106	2.3543	2.1509	0.5877	0.4528	5.3961	5.4123
Std. Error Mean	.31574	.31130	0.5354	0.4476	0.4372	0.3994	0.1091	0.0841	1.002	1.005

Table (4.9) shows paired Differences (T-Test) of written pretest and posttest for segmentals, suprasegmentals and filler.

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Connected speech	1.53448	2.46740	.45818	.59593	2.47303	3.349	28	.002

Stress	3.2000	3.14802	.58457	2.00256	4.39744	5.474	28	.000
intonation	1.48276	3.06035	.56829	.31866	2.64685	2.609	28	.014
Fillers	.06897	.63702	.11829	-.17334-	.31127	.583	28	.0465
Total pre –post test	6.931	7.516	1.39575	4.07198	9.79009	4.966	28	.000

4.2.2 Discussion and Results of Written Test for Segmentals

As shown from the table No. (4.7) the results of the usage of Segmentals of written pretest and posttest, explains that the minimum degree of pretest is 3.50 and the posttest is 5.50 the maximum degree of pretest is 10.00 and the posttest is 12.50. The mean of segmental features in the pretest is 6.86 and of the posttest is 8.40. In table No. (4.8), the paired difference of mean is 1.54 (8.40-6.86). The above analysis proves that there is a development in the performance so, the students have influenced by the using of segmental features; assimilation, intrusion, linking, elision, weakening, juncture, plural morpheme, past morpheme and germination.

Table (4.10) shows descriptive Statistics of questionnaire for segmentals.

Statements (Segmentals)	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Result
I realize that using some English allophones of some phonemes which are changeable in their realization are communicative barriers	42	1.88	.942	Agree
I observe that using of segmental features by learners enables them on knowing how to reduce sounds and to deliver an effective talk.	42	1.86	.751	Agree

Using features of connected speech necessarily develops learners oral-aural communication skills, specially listening, speaking and reading skills.	42	1.64	.759	Strongly agree
I notice that when learners use features of connected speech, their communication becomes more rhythmical and intelligible.	42	1.83	.881	Agree
I discover that using segmental features in connected speech raises the awareness of learners' communication skills beyond the sound recognition level.	42	1.74	.857	Strongly agree
I notice that some of learners use epenthesis to satisfy their phonological constraints in the communication process.	42	2.24	.790	Agree
The misuse of features of connected speech by learners results into lack of speech clarity.	42	1.62	.697	Strongly agree
I observe that the ability of using features of connected speech by learners enables them to emphasize the content words and understand the native speaker.	42	1.93	.808	Agree
I view that using the features of connected speech enables learners to follow a native speaker accent and communicate easily.	42	1.74	.665	Strongly agree
Learners who receive clear connected speech instructions are likely to understand the native speaker more intelligibly than others who don't.	42	1.76	.983	Strongly agree
I observe that using connected speech features develops learners' ability and mental capacity in communication skills .	42	1.71	.673	Strongly agree
Using of connected speech features motivates learners to imitate the accent of native speaker enthusiastically.	42	1.86	.751	Agree
In speaking process, the puff of air accompanies the release of a plosive (stop) consonants results into making the lips and the larynx sometimes dry as a speaker runs out of breath, therefore, a speaker pauses to excrete saliva to moisturize his lips and throat.	42	2.50	1.018	Agree
Total of segmental	42	1.8700	.38198	Agree

4.2.3 Discussion and Result of Questionnaire

The results of the questionnaire that is shown by the table No. (4.10) segmental explains that the most frequent answer of the respondents (42) is (agree/strong agree) to all statements and the total mean is (1.87) which

falls within the range of the answer (agree) according to Likert scale measurement and the total result is (agree). This means the result of questionnaire agrees and supports the result of th test.

4.3 Question Two and Hypothesis Two

Q2- How far suprasegmental features have influence on developing L2learners verbal communication skills?

H2- suprasegmental features night have influence on the development of L2 learners verbal communication skills?

4.3.1 Discussion and Result of Speaking Test for Suprasegmentals (intonation)

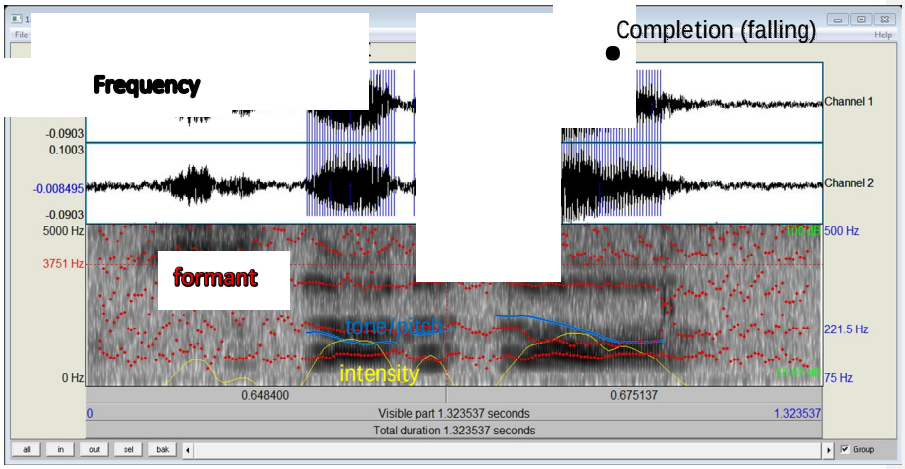

Diagram No. (4.1.a) shows the visual representation of falling pitch movement by using sound spectral analysis of the native speaker voice in the sentence “She got a dog”. From Elemental English. Com

It is observable in the spectrum (4.1a) that the tone level of the native speaker goes short down (falling) which means the thought has come to an end. The spaces between the repetition of sound frequencies and pulses in the last syllable in the word “dog” go normal (light) and this means the end of speaking. The intensity is low (forceless in speaking) and the formant is less fragmented (short sounds).

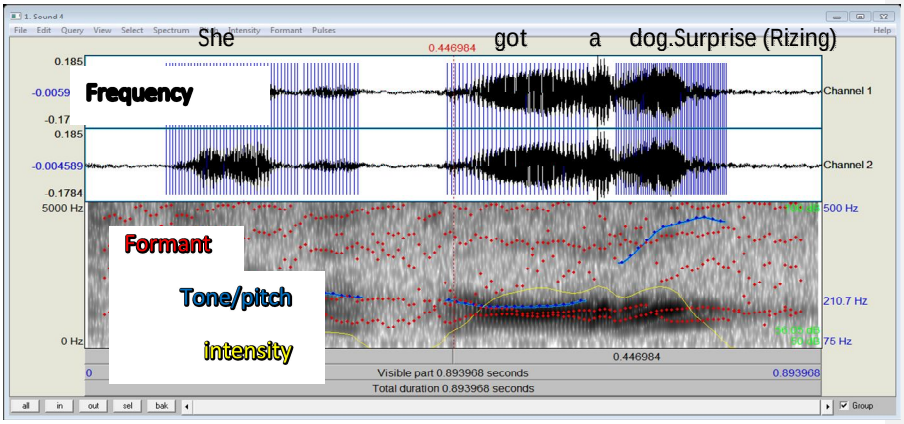

Diagram No. (4.2.a) shows the visual representation of the rising pitch movement by using sound spectral analysis of the native speaker voice in the sentence “She got a dog”. From Elemental English. com

It is observable in the spectrum (4.2.a) that the tone level goes up (rising) which means the thought has not come to an end. The spaces between the repetition of sound frequencies and pulses in the last syllable in the word “dog” go narrower as the native speaker makes the syllable more longer in the duration. The higher the frequency, the faster the movement. The intensity is high (force in speaking) and the formant is more fragmented (speaker makes the voiced sounds more musical).

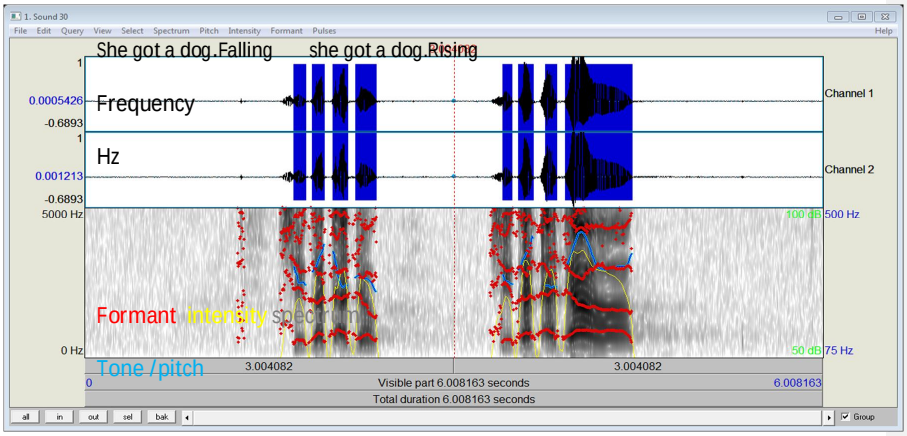

Diagram No. (4.1) shows Student's sound spectrum in the pretest

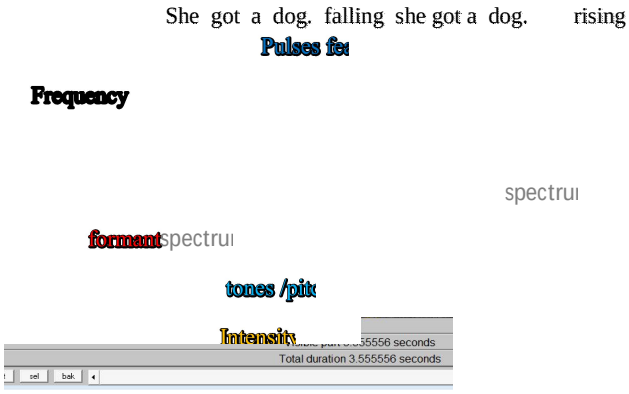

Diagram No. (4.1) shows Student's sound spectrum in the posttest

In comparing the student's sound spectrum pertest and posttest No. (1) falling and rising intonation; In the pretest falling tone the speaker's tone goes down and up in the rising tone. In the posttest falling, the tone goes down and up in the rising tone. Pulses and frequencies are all dark except for the posttest falling are light, the pulses are supposed not to go dark in the falling tone. Distribution of the formants is same in both pretest and

posttest; it is supposed to be different so the progress is slightly seen in relation to native speaker's spectrums (4.1) and (4.2).

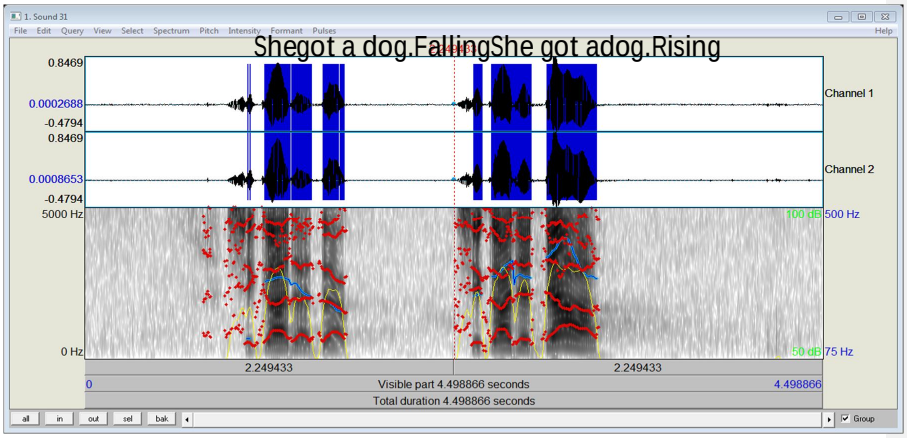

Diagram No. (4.2) shows student's sound spectrum in the pretest

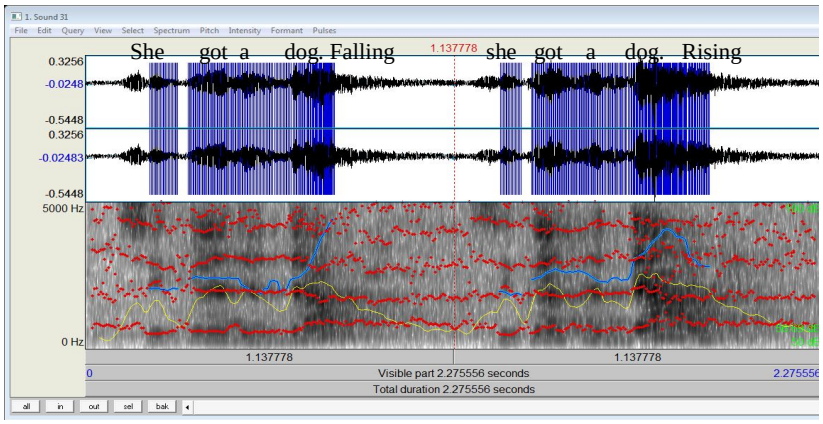

Diagram No. (4.2) shows student's sound spectrum in the posttest

In comparing the student's sound spectrum pertest and posttest No. (2) falling and rising intonation; In the pretest falling tone the speaker's tone goes down and in the rising tone it goes up down. In the posttest falling, the tone goes up which is opposite to native's sound and in the rising tone it goes up down. Pulses and frequencies are to some extent light in the

posttest, the pulses are supposed not to go dark in the falling tone. Distribution of the formants is same in both pretest and posttest; it is supposed to be different so the progress is not seen. Spectrums (4.1) and (4.2).

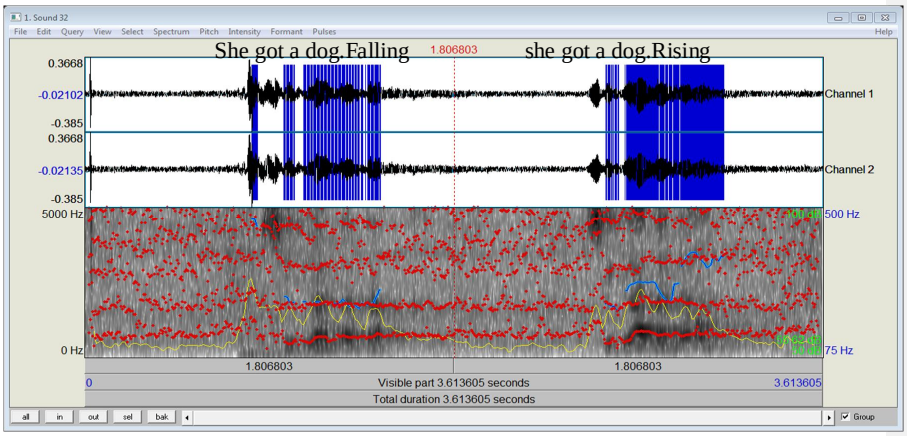

Diagram No. (4.3) shows student's sound spectrum in the posttest. This student was absent in the pretest.

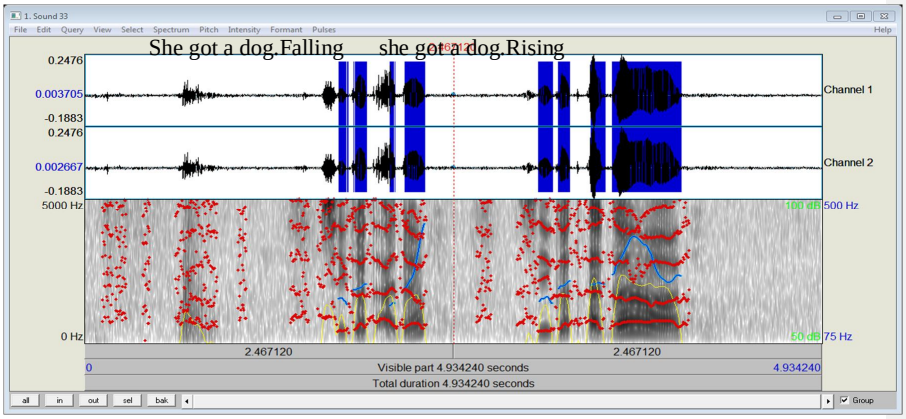

Diagram No. (4.4) shows student's sound spectrum in the pretest

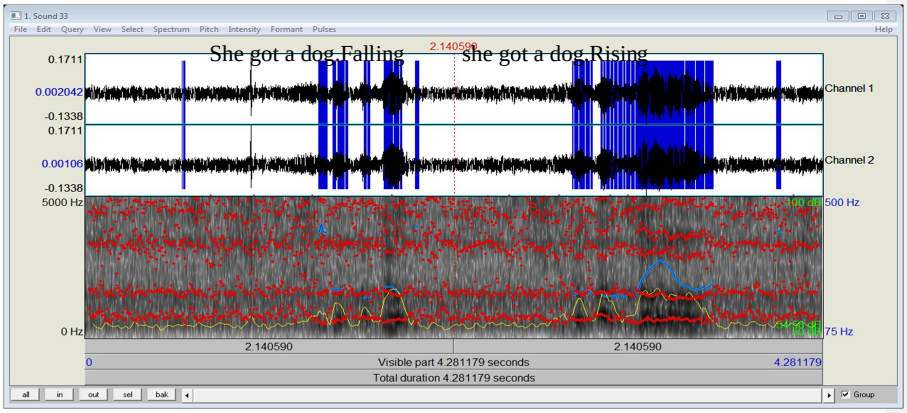

Diagram No. (4.4) shows student's sound spectrum in the posttest

In comparing the student's sound spectrum pertest and posttest No. (4) falling and rising intonation; In the pretest falling the speaker's tone is short up and in rising the tone is down up. In the posttest falling, the tone goes down shortly and in the rising goes up which slightly looks like native's sound spectrum. Pulses and frequencies are to some extent light in the posttest, the pulses are supposed not to be dark in the falling tone. Distribution of the formants is same in both pretest and posttest; it is supposed to be different so the progress is slightly seen. Spectrums (4.1) and (4.2).

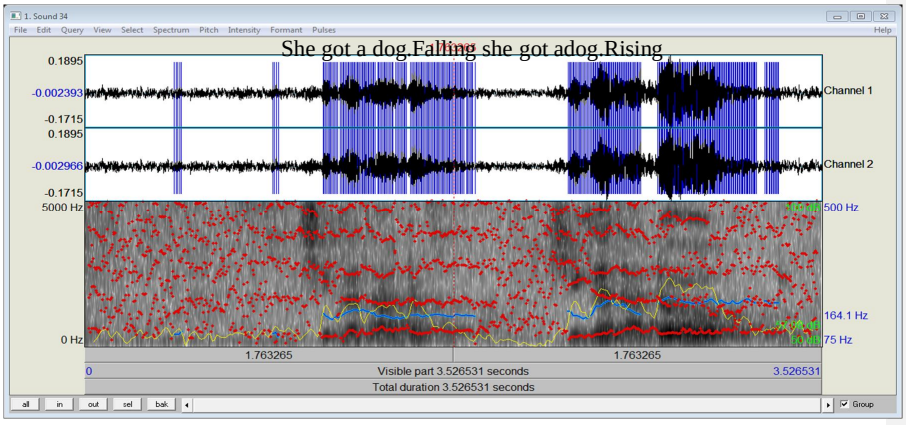

Diagram No. (4.5) shows student's sound spectrum in the posttest. This student was absent in the pretest.

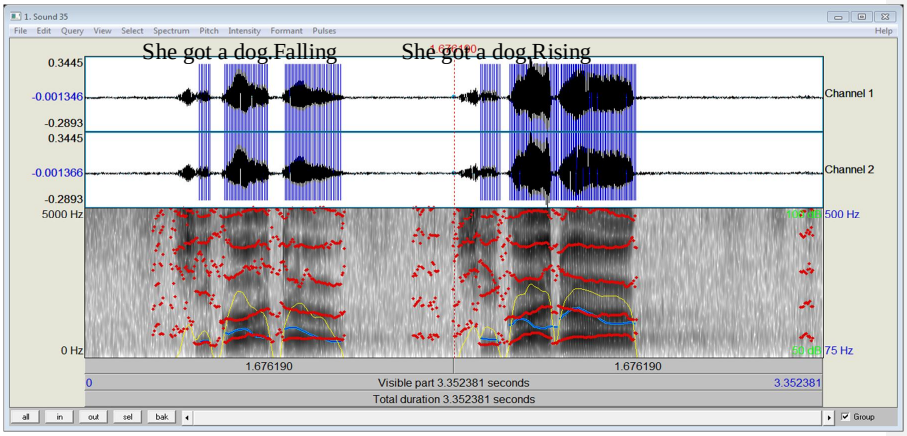

Diagram No. (4.6) shows student's sound spectrum in the pretest

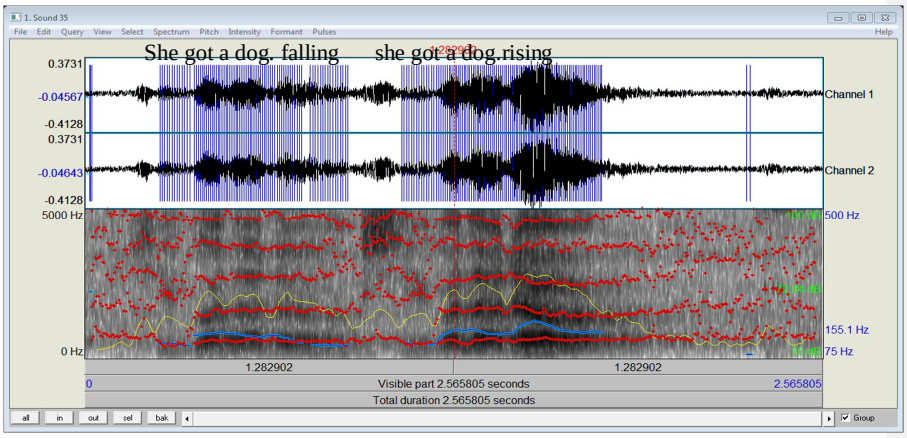

Diagram No. (4.6) shows student's sound spectrum in the posttest

In comparing the student's sound spectrum pertest and posttest No. (6) falling and rising intonation; In the pretest falling the speaker's tone goes down and in the rising it goes up. In the posttest falling the tone goes down and up in the rising. Pulses and frequencies are to some extent

darker than in the posttest, the pulses are supposed not to be dark in the falling tone. Distribution of the formants is the same in both pretest and posttest; it is supposed to be different so little progress is seen. Spectrums (4.1) and (4.2).

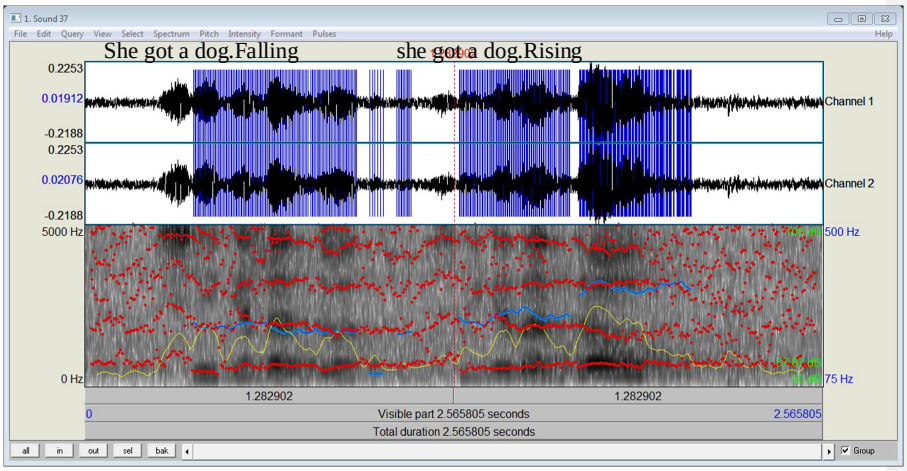

Diagram No. (4.8) shows student's sound spectrum in the posttest. This student was absent in the pretest.

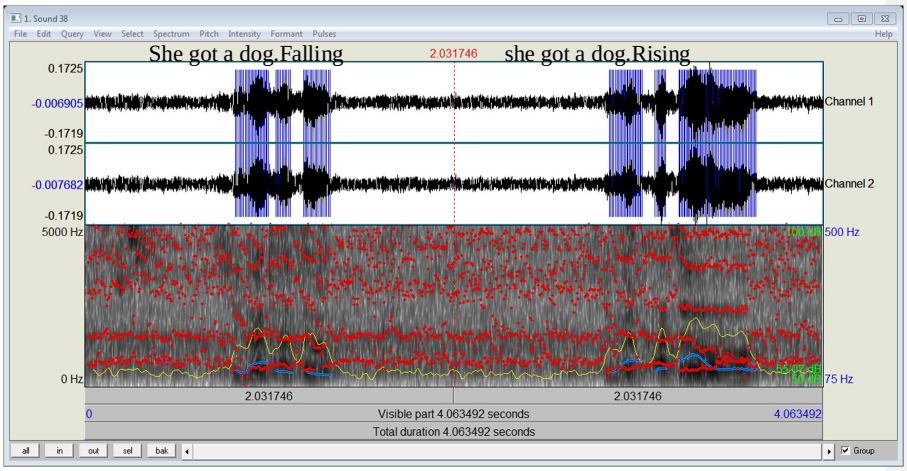

Diagram No. (4.9) shows student's sound spectrum in the posttest This student was absent in the pretest. Shows student's sound in the

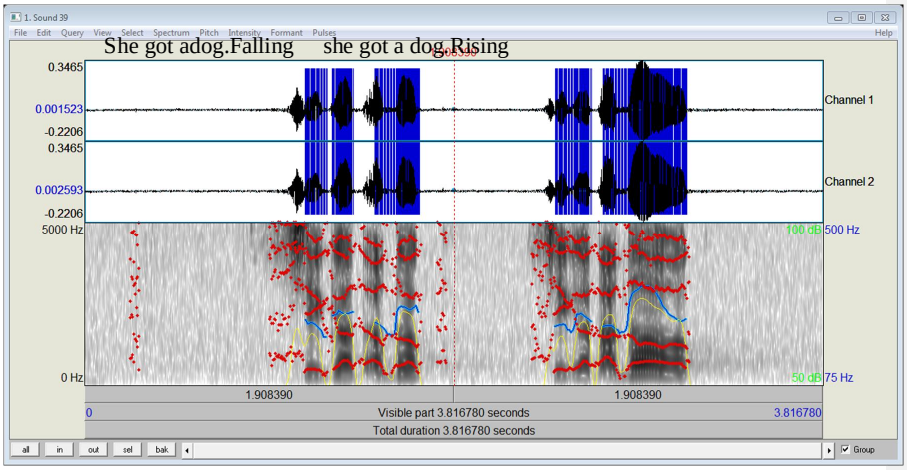

Diagram No. (4.10) shows student's sound in the pretest

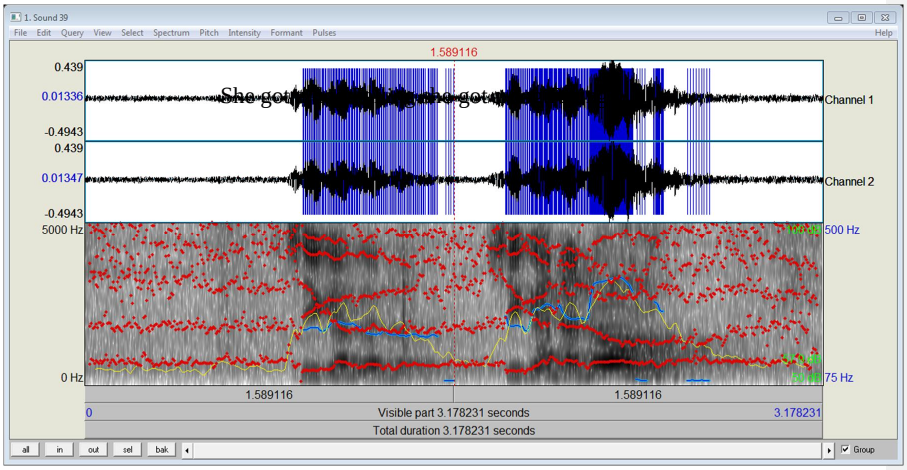

Diagram No. (4.10) shows student's sound spectrum in the posttest

In comparing the student's sound spectrum pertest and posttest No. (10) falling and rising intonation; In the pretest the speaker's tone goes down, in the posttest the tone goes up, pulses and frequencies are to some extent

darker in the posttest rising tone, the pulses are supposed to be dark in the rising tone. Distribution of the formants is more fragmented in the posttest; it is different so in comparing with the native speaker's spectrums (4.1) and (4.2) the progress is seen.

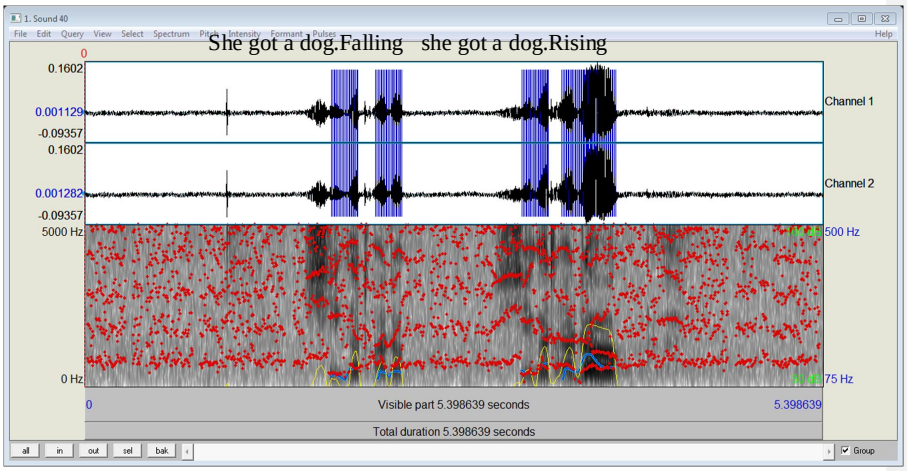

Diagram No. (4.11) shows student's sound spectrum in the pretest

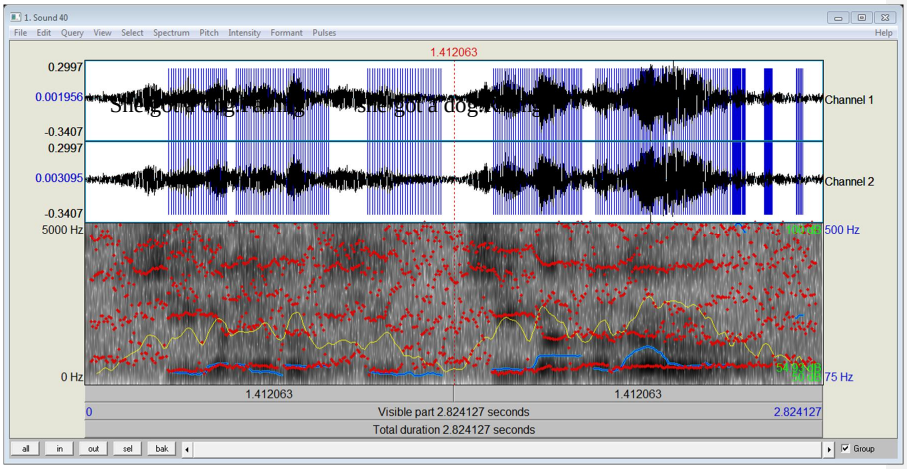

Diagram No. (4.11) shows student's sound spectrum in the posttest

In comparing the student's sound spectrum pertest and posttest No. (11) falling and rising intonation; In the pretest falling the speaker's tone goes

down and in the rising goes up, in the posttest the falling tone goes and in the rising goes up down and stays down. Pulses and frequencies are not darker in the posttest rising tone, the pulses are supposed to be dark in the rising tone. Distribution of the formants are the same, so in comparing with the native speaker's spectrums (4.1) and (4.2), the progress is seen slightly.

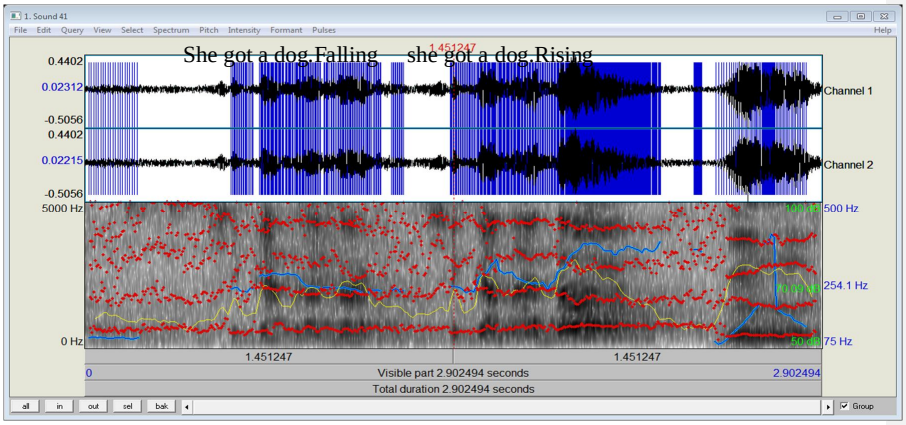

Diagram No. (4.12) shows student's sound spectrum in the posttest. This student was absent in the pretest.

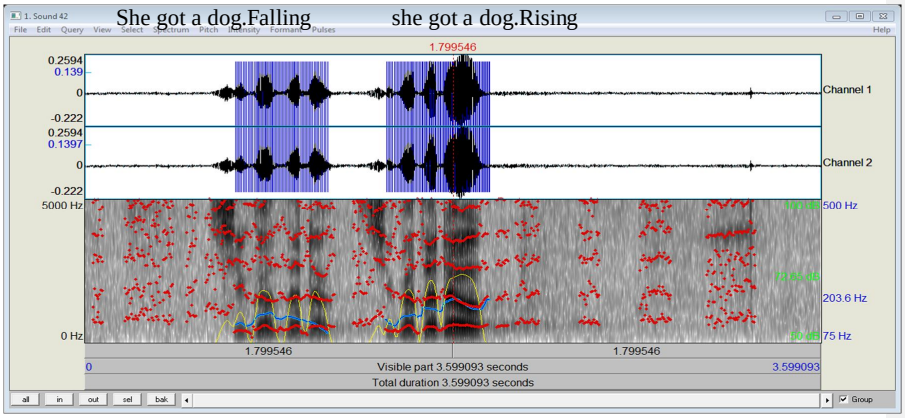

Diagram No. (4.13) shows student's sound spectrum in the pretest

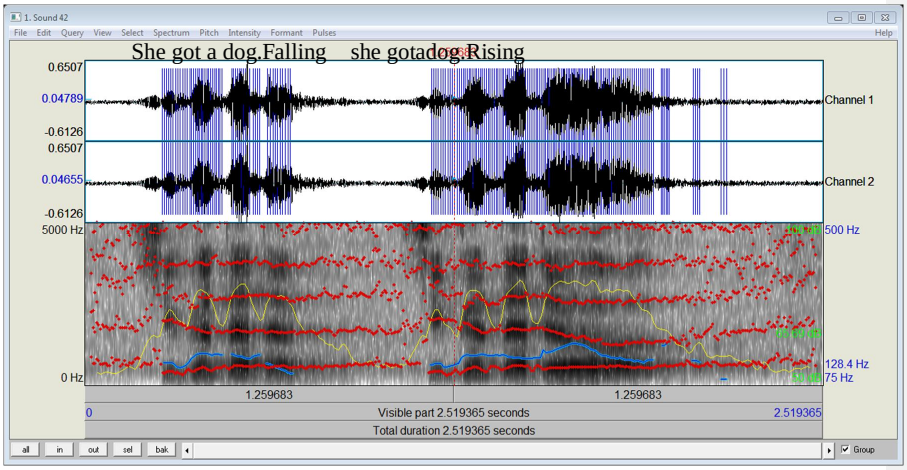

Diagram No. (4.13) shows student's sound spectrum in the posttest

In comparing the student's sound spectrum pertest and posttest No. (13) falling and rising intonation; In the pretest falling the speaker's tone goes down and in the falling goes up, in the posttest falling the tone goes down and in the rising goes up then down. Pulses and frequencies are darker in the pretest, the pulses are supposed to be dark in the rising tone pretest and posttest. Distribution of the formants are the same, so in comparing with the native speaker's spectrums (4.1) and (4.2), little progress is seen.

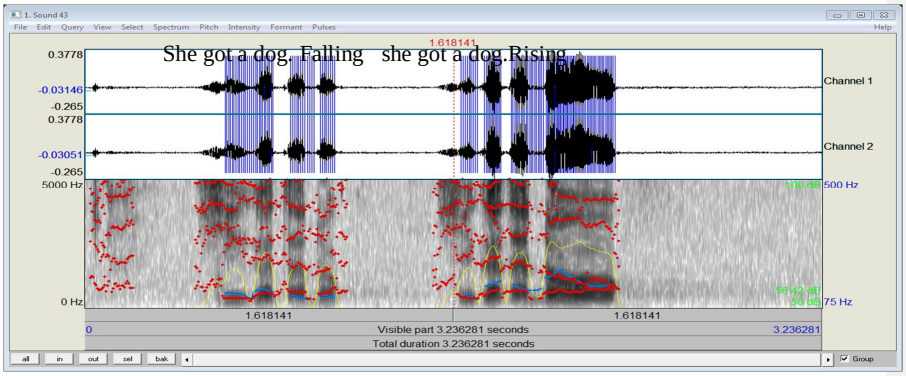

Diagram No. (4.14) shows student's sound spectrum in the pretest

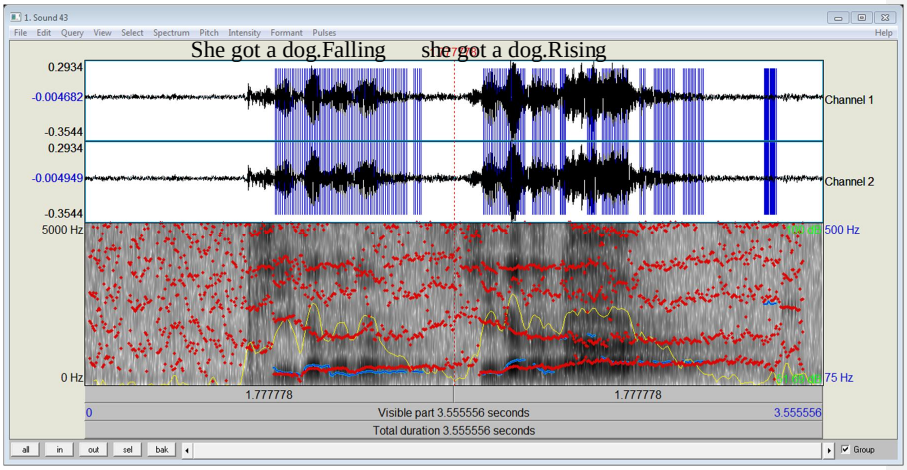

Diagram No. (4.14) shows student's sound spectrum in the posttest

In comparing the student's sound spectrum pertest and posttest No. (14) falling and rising intonation; the speaker's tone goes down in the pretest and up in the posttest in the two patterns of tone. Pulses and frequencies are darker in the pretest and posttest, the pulses are supposed to be dark in the rising tone pretest and posttest. Distribution of the formants to some extent are different, so in comparing with the native speaker's spectrums (4.1) and (4.2), the progress is seen.

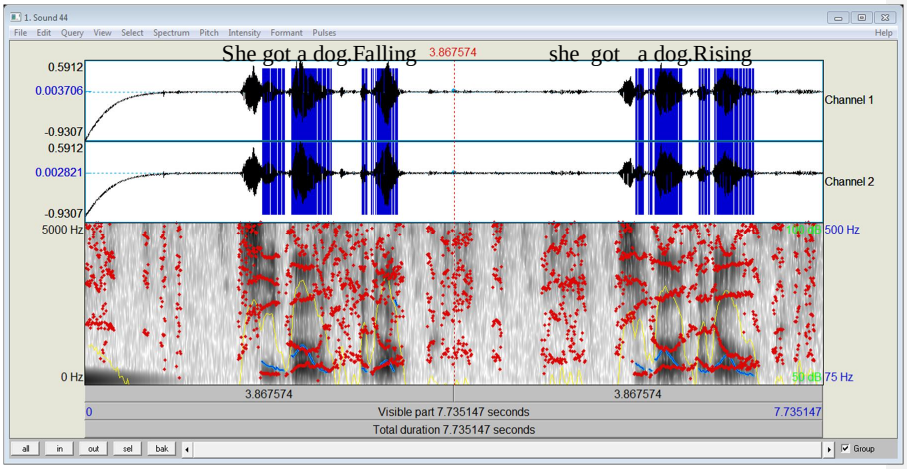

Diagram No. (4.15) shows student's sound spectrum in the pretest. This student was absent in the posttest.

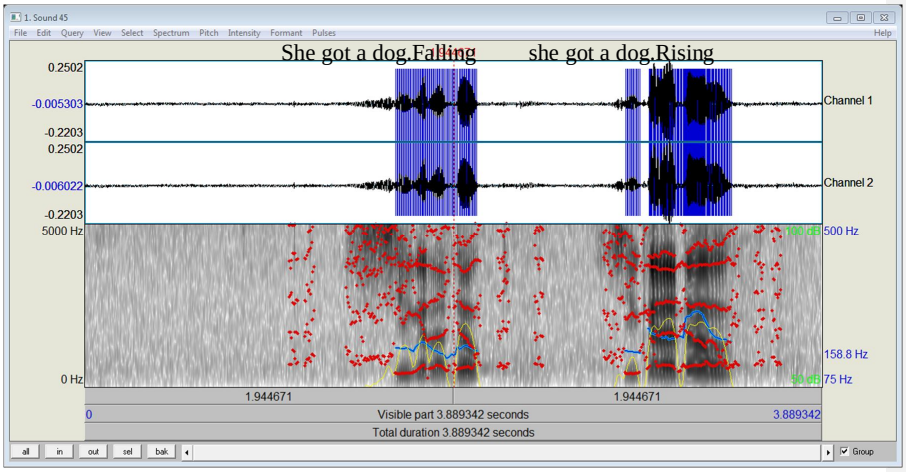

Diagram No. (4.16) shows student's sound spectrum in the pretest

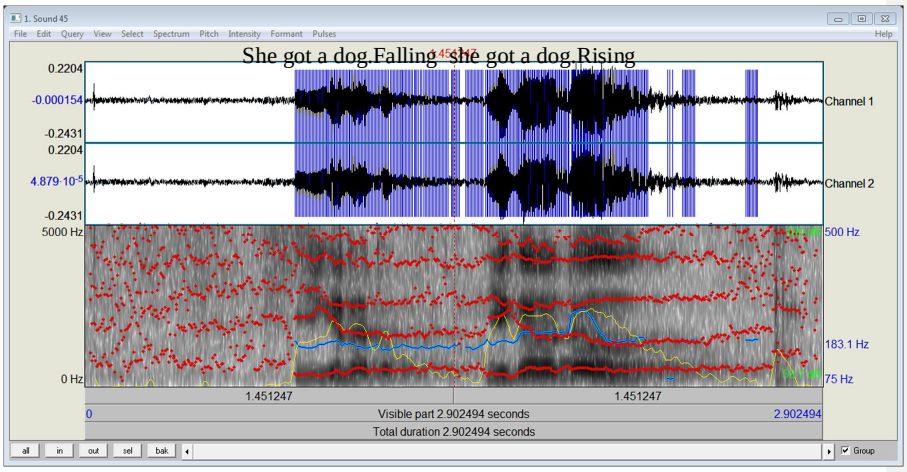

Diagram No. (4.16) shows student's sound spectrum in the posttest

In comparing the student's sound spectrum pertest and posttest No. (16) falling and rising intonation; the speaker's tone goes down in the pretest and posttest in the two patterns of tone, pulses and frequencies are not

darker in the pretest and posttest, the pulses are supposed to be dark in the rising tone pretest and posttest. Distribution of the formants to some extent are slightly different, space is not seen between the two sentences in the posttest, pulses are linked to each other this means the speaker lacks the pausing skills so, in comparing with the native speaker's spectrums (4.1) and (4.2), the progress is not seen.

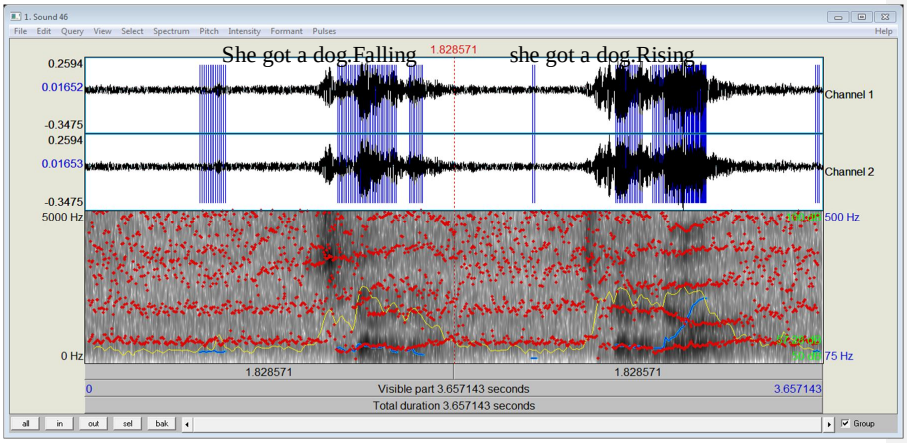

Diagram No. (4.17) shows student's sound spectrum in the posttest. This student was absent in the pretest.

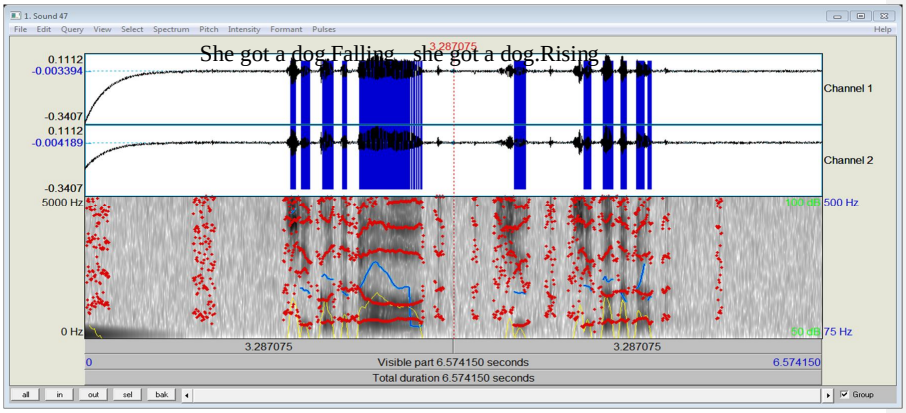

Diagram No. (4.18) shows student's sound spectrum in the pretest

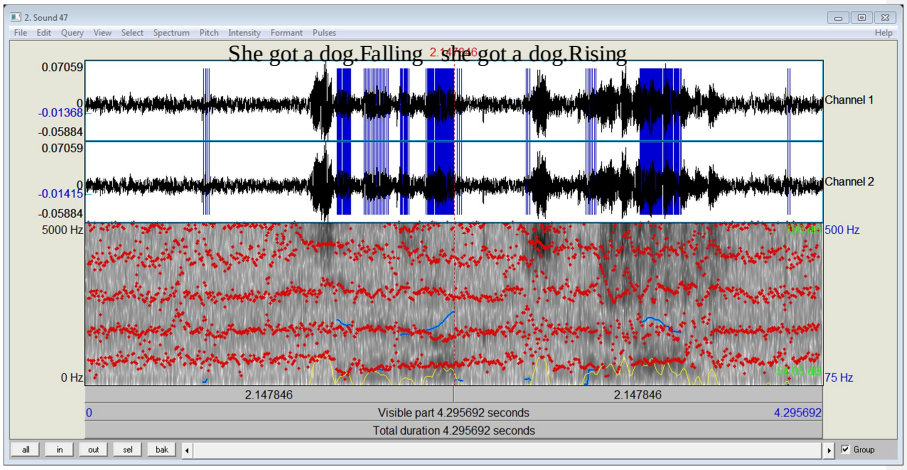

Diagram No. (4.18) shows student's sound spectrum in the posttest

In comparing the student's sound spectrum pertest and posttest No (18) falling and rising intonation; In the pretest falling tone, the speaker's tone goes down, in the pretest rising goes up but does not stay up. Pulses and frequencies are darker in the pretest and posttest rising, the pulses are supposed to be dark in the rising tone pretest and posttest. Distribution of the formants to some extent are different so, in comparing with the native speaker's spectrums (4.1) and (4.2), the progress is slightly seen.

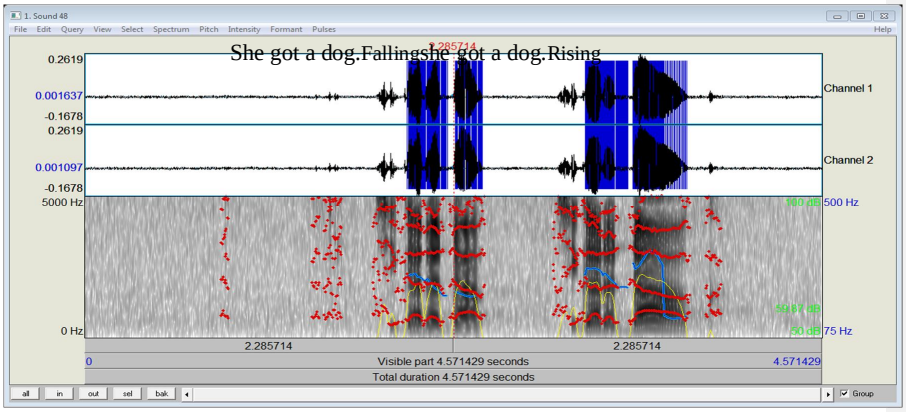

Diagram No. (4.19) shows student's sound spectrum in the pretest

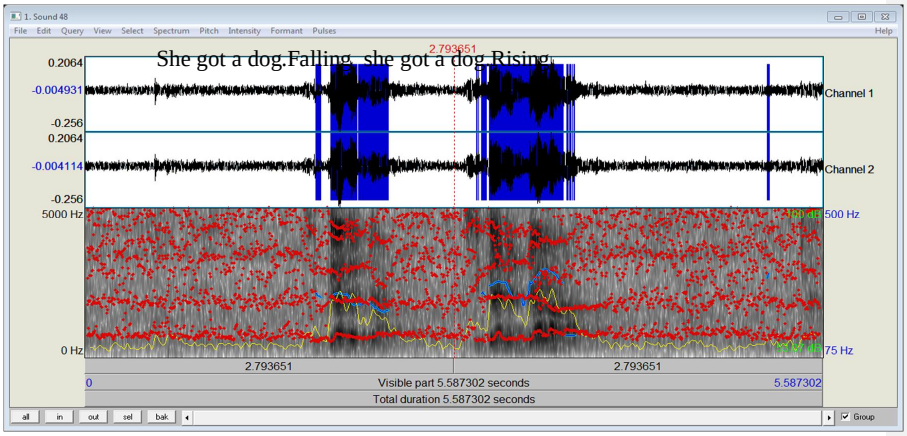

Diagram No. (4.19) shows student's sound spectrum in the posttest

In comparing the student's sound spectrum pertest and posttest No. (19) falling and rising intonation; In the pretest falling tone, the speaker's tone goes down, in the pretest rising tone it goes up but does not stay up. Pulses and frequencies are darker in the pretest and posttest rising, the pulses are supposed to be dark in the rising tone pretest and posttest. Distribution of the formants to some extent are different and more fragmented in the rising tone so, in comparing with the native speaker's spectrums (4.1) and (4.2), the progress is slightly seen.

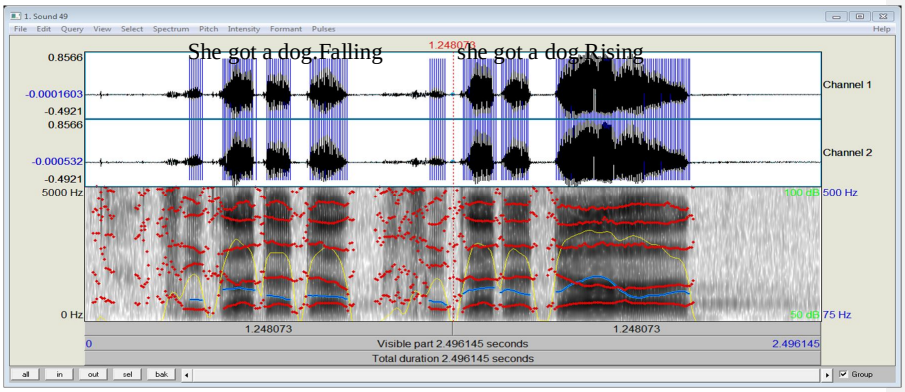

Diagram No. (4.20) shows student's sound spectrum in the pretest

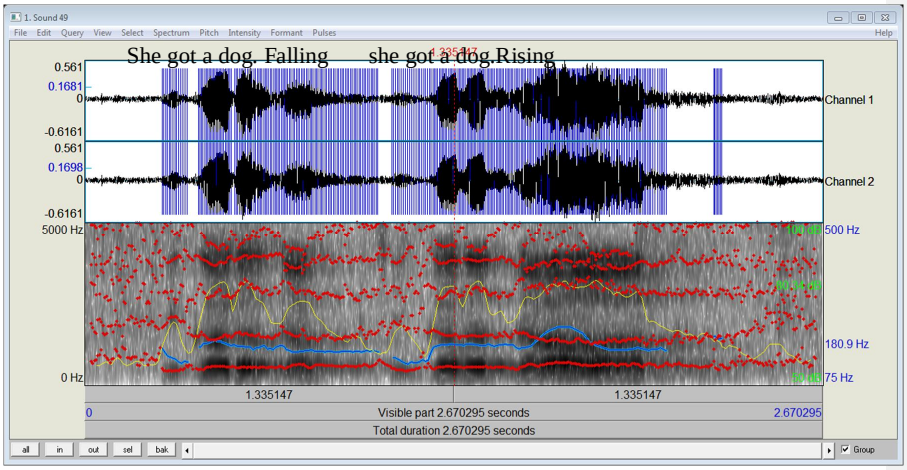

Diagram No. (4.20) shows student's sound spectrum in the posttest

In comparing the student's sound spectrum pertest and posttest No (20) falling and rising intonation; In the pretest falling tone, the speaker's tone goes down, in the pretest rising tone it goes up but does not stay up.in the posttest falling tone, it goes flat and in the rising tone it goes up and down and stays flat. Pulses and frequencies are not darker in the pretest and posttest rising, the pulses are supposed to be dark in the rising tone pretest and posttest, the pulses and formants are very narrow which means that the speaker lacks the use of phonological skills such as linking and pausing. Distribution of the formants to some extent are different and more fragmented in the rising tone so, in comparing with the native speaker's spectrums (4.1) and (4.2), the progress is not seen.

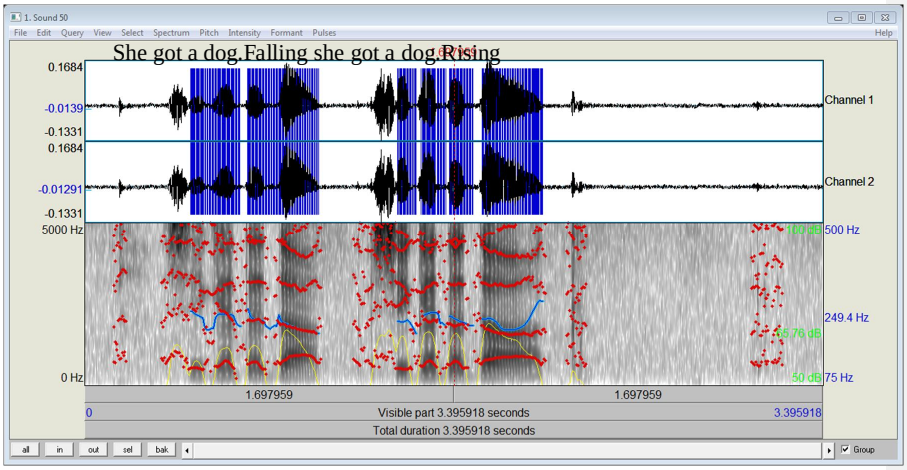

Diagram No. (4.21) shows student's sound spectrum in the pretest

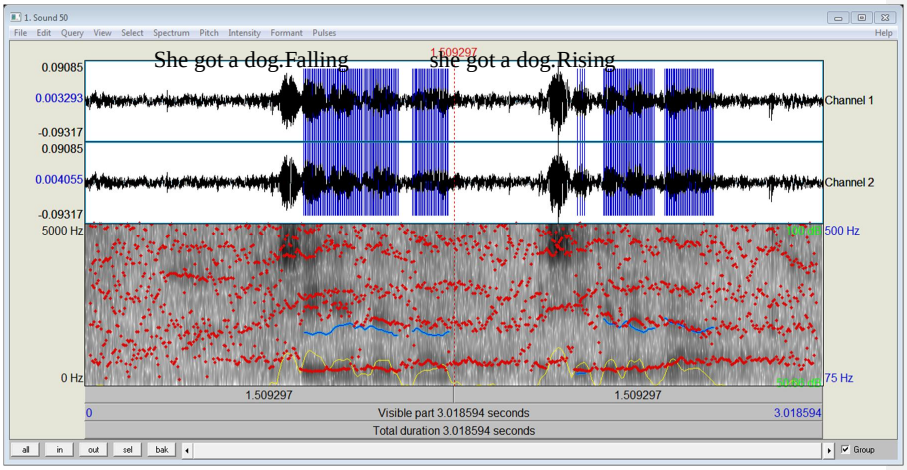

Diagram No. (4.21) shows student's sound spectrum in the posttest

In comparing the student's sound spectrum pertest and posttest No. (21) falling and rising intonation; In the pretest falling tone, the speaker's tone waves up and down, in the pretest rising tone it goes up. In the posttest falling tone, it waves up and down in both patterns. Pulses and frequencies are not darker in the pretest and posttest rising, the pulses are

supposed to be dark in the rising tone pretest and posttest. The intensity is high in the pretest and low in the posttest; this means the speaker is not stable. Distribution of the formants to some extent are the same in the pretest and posttest it is supposed to be different and fragmented, in comparing with the native speaker's spectrums (4.1) and (4.2), the progress is not seen.

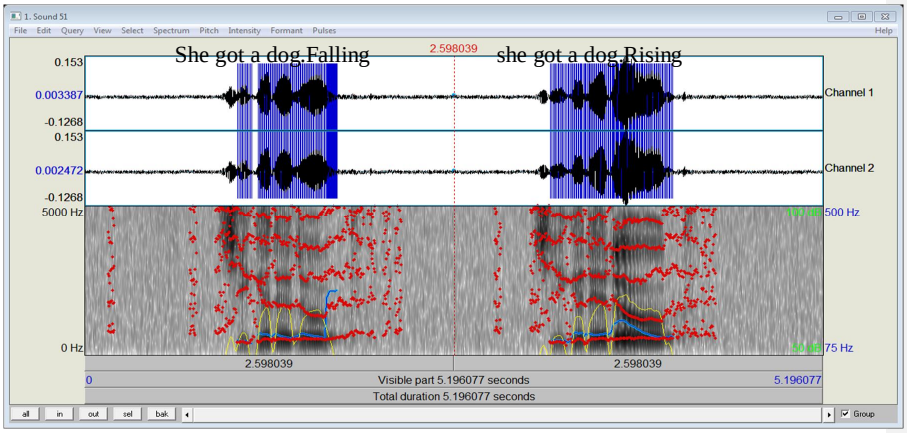

Diagram No. (4.22) shows student's sound spectrum in the pretest

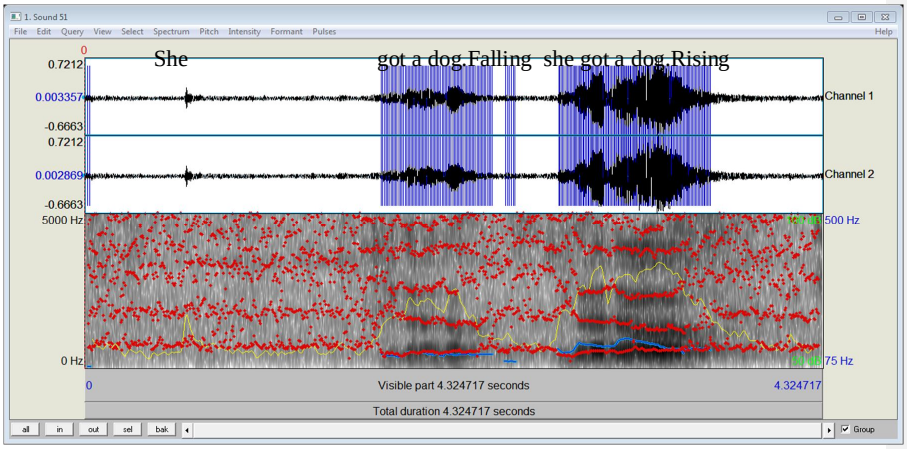

Diagram No. (4.22) shows student's sound spectrum in the posttest

In comparing the student's sound spectrum pertest and posttest No (22) falling and rising intonation; In the pretest falling tone, the speaker's tone waves up and down, in the pretest rising tone it goes up and comes down. In the posttest falling tone, it waves and goes a little bit up. Pulses and frequencies are slightly darker in the pretest and posttest rising, the pulses are supposed to be dark in the rising tone pretest and posttest. The intensity is higher in the posttest; this means the speaker is not stable. Distribution of the formants to some extent are different and fragmented, in comparing with the native speaker's spectrums (4.1) and (4.2), the progress is slightly seen.

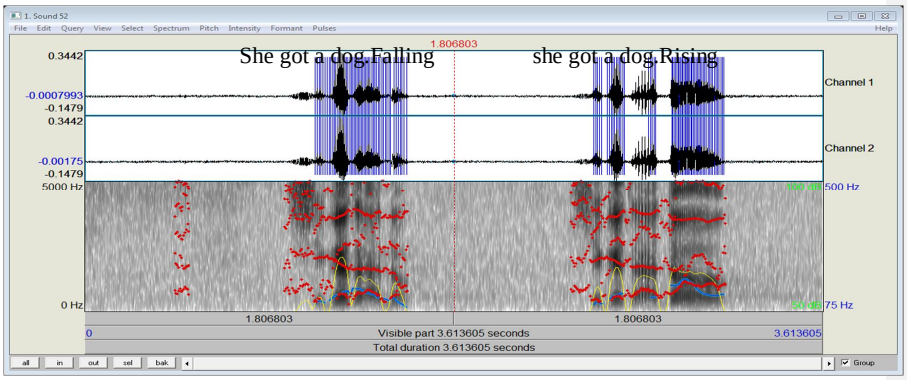

Diagram No. (4.23) shows student's sound spectrum in the pretest

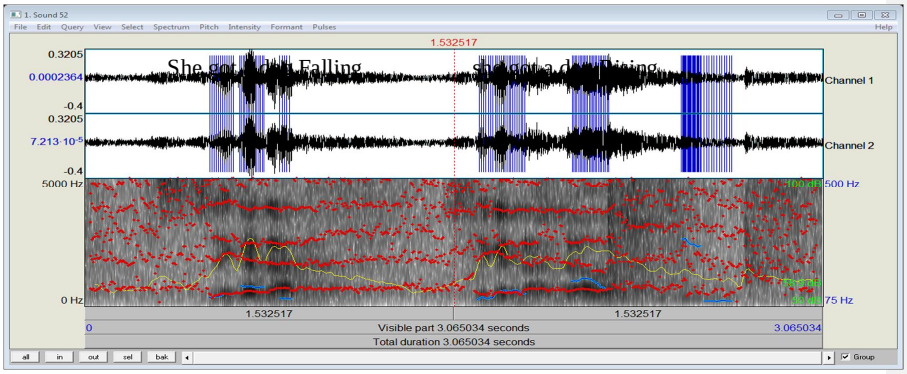

Diagram No. (4.23) shows student's sound spectrum in the posttest

In comparing the student's sound spectrum pertest and posttest No (23) falling and rising intonation; In the pretest falling tone, the speaker's tone waves up and down, in the pretest rising tone it goes up and down. In the posttest falling tone, it waves and goes a little bit down and in the rising it goes it goes up. Pulses and frequencies are slightly darker in the pretest and posttest rising, the pulses are supposed to be dark in the rising tone pretest and posttest. The intensity is higher in the posttest; this means the speaker is not stable. Distribution of the formants to some extent are different and fragmented in the pretest and posttest rising, in comparing with the native speaker's spectrums (4.1) and (4.2), the progress is slightly seen.

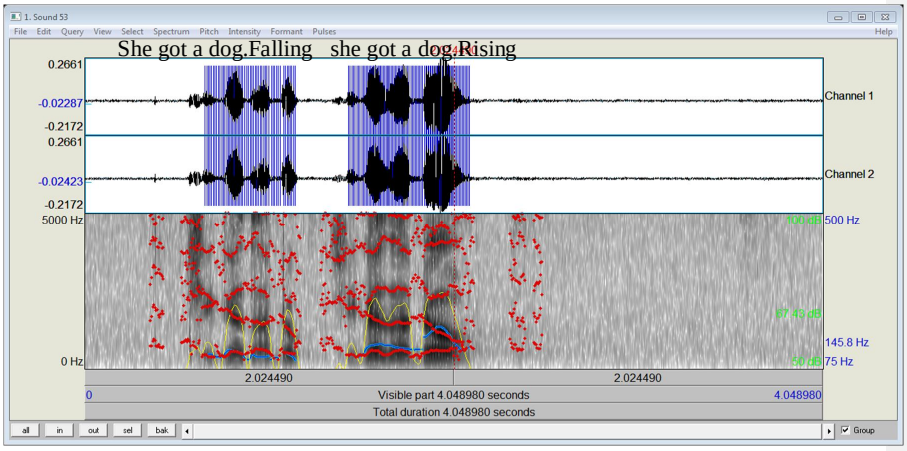

Diagram No. (4.24) shows student's sound spectrum in the pretest

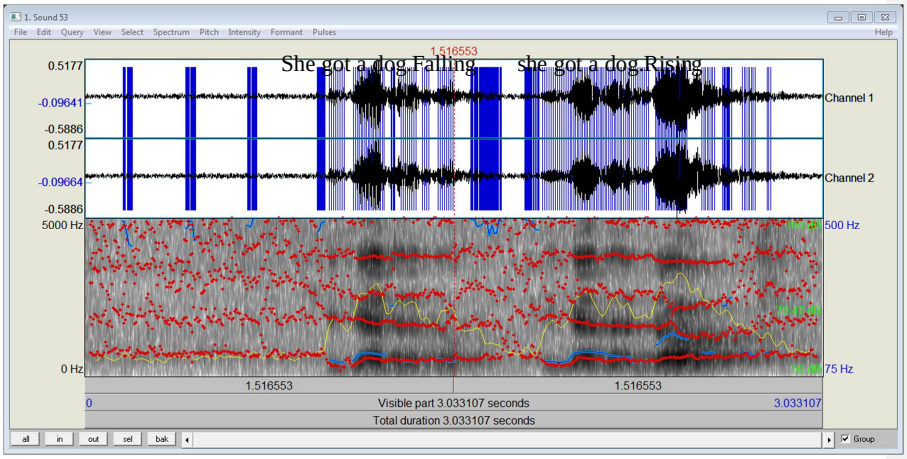

Diagram No. (4.24) shows student's sound spectrum in the posttest

In comparing the student's sound spectrum pertest and posttest No. (24) falling and rising intonation; In the pretest falling tone, the speaker's tone waves down, in the pretest rising tone it goes up. In the posttest falling tone, it goes a little bit down and in the rising it goes up. Pulses and frequencies are slightly darker in the pretest and posttest rising as it is seen in the syllable of the word "dog", the pulses are supposed to be dark in the rising tone pretest and posttest. The intensity is higher in the posttest; this means the speaker is not stable. Distribution of the formants to some extent are different and fragmented in the pretest and posttest rising, in comparing with the native speaker's spectrums (4.1) and (4.2), the progress is slightly seen.

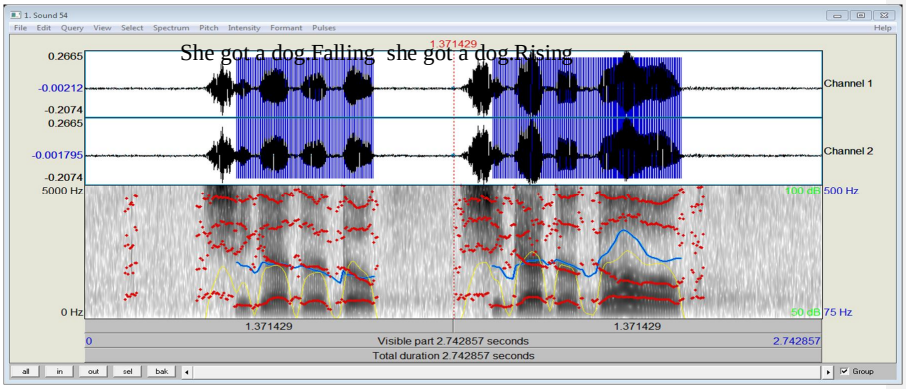

Diagram No. (4.25) shows student's sound spectrum in the pretest

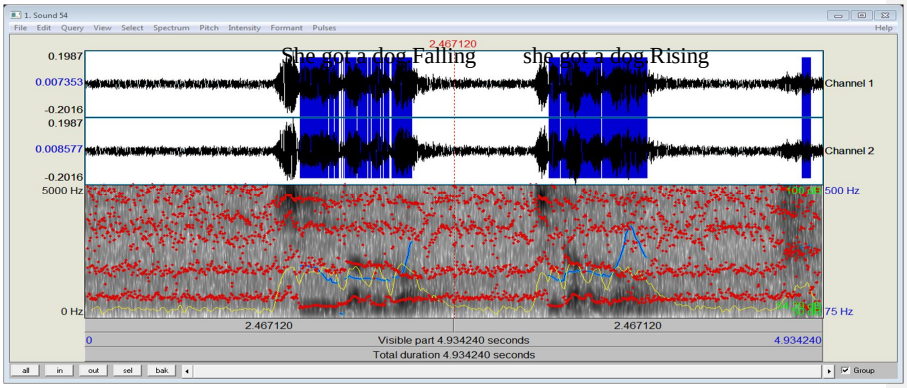

Diagram No. (4.25) shows student's sound spectrum in the posttest

In comparing the student's sound spectrum pertest and posttest No. (25) falling and rising intonation; In the pretest falling tone, the speaker's tone waves down, in the pretest rising tone it goes up and down. In the posttest falling tone, it goes up and in the rising it goes up and down. Pulses and frequencies are slightly darker in the pretest and posttest rising as it is seen in the syllables of the words in the sentence "she got a dog.", the pulses are supposed to be dark in the rising tone pretest and posttest. Distribution of the formants to some extent are different and fragmented

in the pretest and posttest rising, in comparing with the native speaker's spectrums (4.1) and (4.2), the progress is slightly seen.

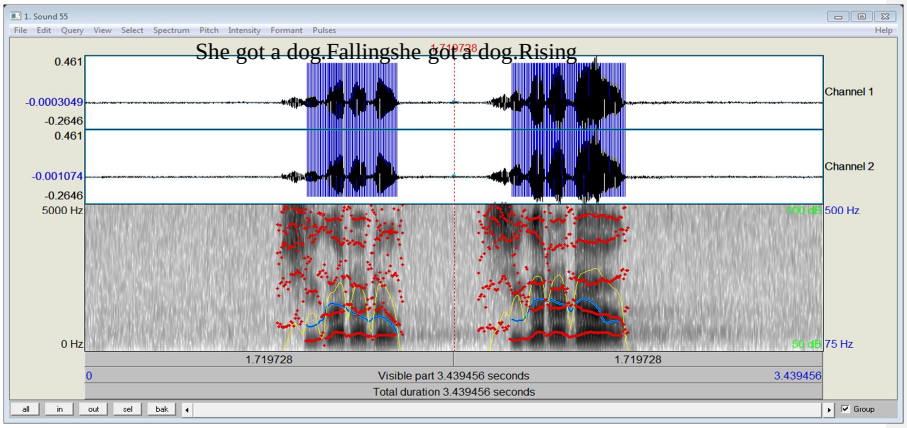

Diagram No. (4.26) shows student's sound spectrum in the pretest

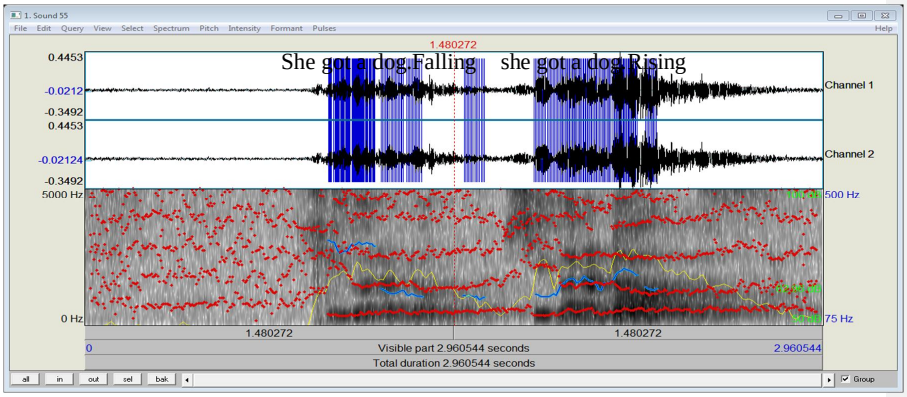

Diagram No. (4.26) shows student's sound spectrum in the posttest

In comparing the student's sound spectrum pertest and posttest No. (26) falling and rising intonation; In the pretest falling tone, the speaker's tone waves up and down, in the pretest rising tone it goes up and down. In the posttest falling tone, it goes down and in the rising it goes up and down. Pulses and frequencies are slightly darker in the pretest and posttest rising

as it is seen in the syllables of the words in the sentence where in the word dog is more intensive “she got a dog.”, the pulses are supposed to be dark in the rising tone pretest and posttest. Distribution of the formants to some extent are different and fragmented in the pretest and posttest rising, in comparing with the native speaker’s spectrums (4.1) and (4.2), the progress is slightly seen.

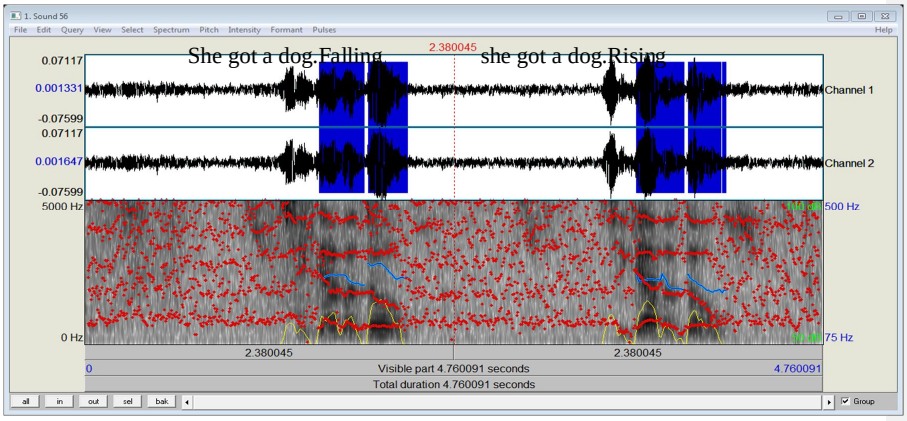

Diagram No. (4.27) shows student’s sound spectrum in the posttest. This student was absent in the pretest.

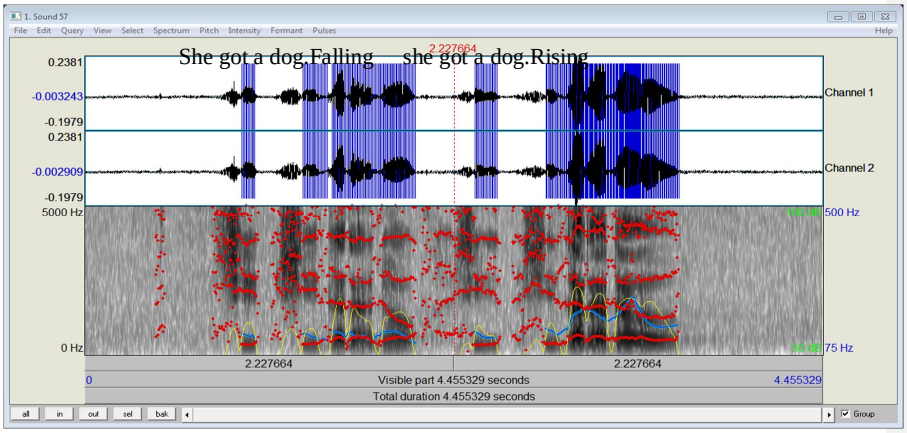

Diagram No. (4.28) shows student’s sound spectrum in the pretest

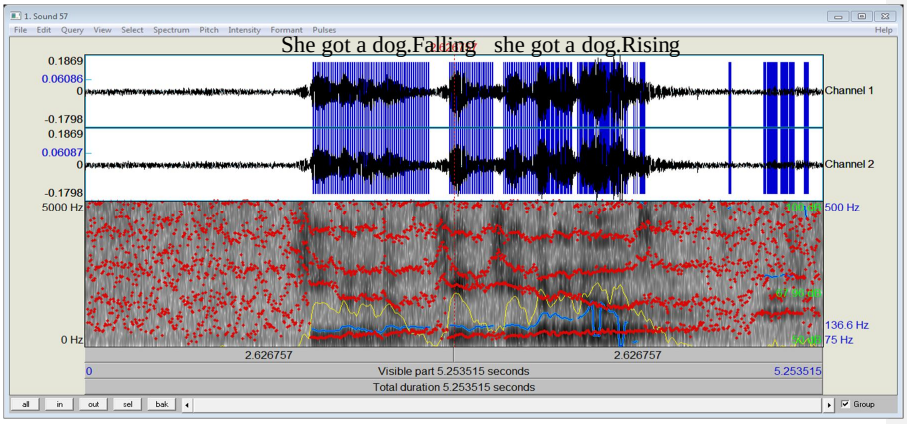

Diagram No. (4.28) shows student's sound spectrum in the posttest

In comparing the student's sound spectrum pertest and posttest No. (28) falling and rising intonation; In the pretest falling tone, the speaker's tone waves down, in the pretest rising tone it goes up and down. In the posttest falling tone, it waves and in the rising it goes down up and stays up. Pulses and frequencies are slightly darker in the pretest and posttest rising as it is seen in the syllables of the words in the sentence "she got a dog.", the pulses are supposed to be dark in the rising tone pretest and posttest. Distribution of the formants to some extent are different and fragmented in the pretest and posttest rising, in comparing with the native speaker's spectrums (4.1) and (4.2), the progress is slightly seen.

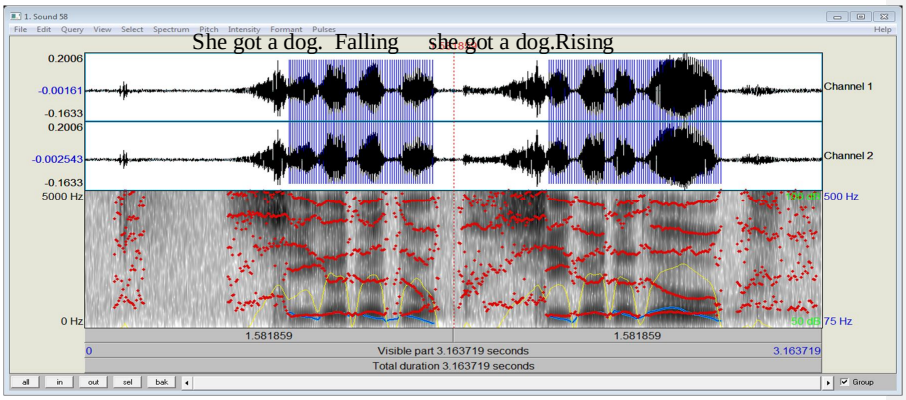

Diagram No. (4.29) shows student's sound spectrum in the pretest

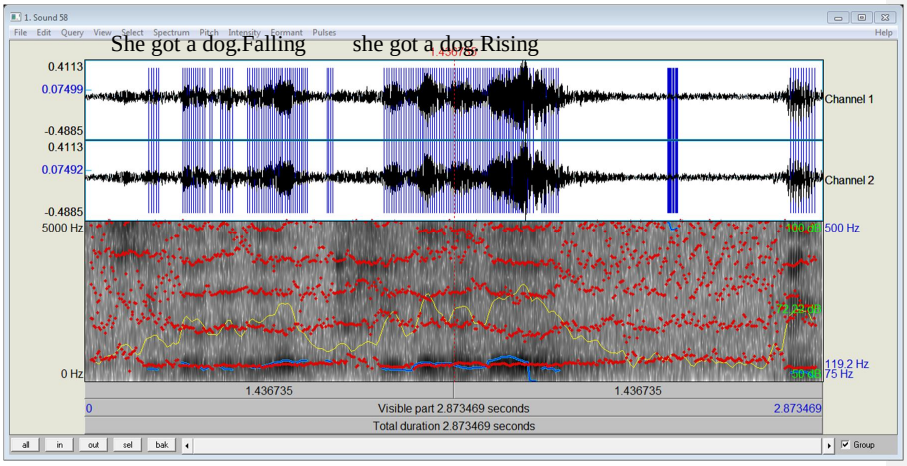

Diagram No. (4.29) shows student's sound spectrum in the posttest

In comparing the student's sound spectrum pertest and posttest No. (29) falling and rising intonation; In the pretest falling tone, the speaker's tone waves up down, in the pretest rising tone it also goes up and down. In the posttest falling tone, it waves up and down and in the rising it goes up and down and stays down. Pulses and frequencies are not darker in the pretest and posttest rising as it is seen in the syllables of the words in the sentence "she got a dog.", the pulses are supposed to be dark in the rising tone pretest and posttest according to spectrums (4.1) and (4.2). Distribution of the formants to some extent are different and fragmented in the pretest and posttest rising, in comparing with the native speaker's spectrum (4.1) and (4.2), the progress is not seen.

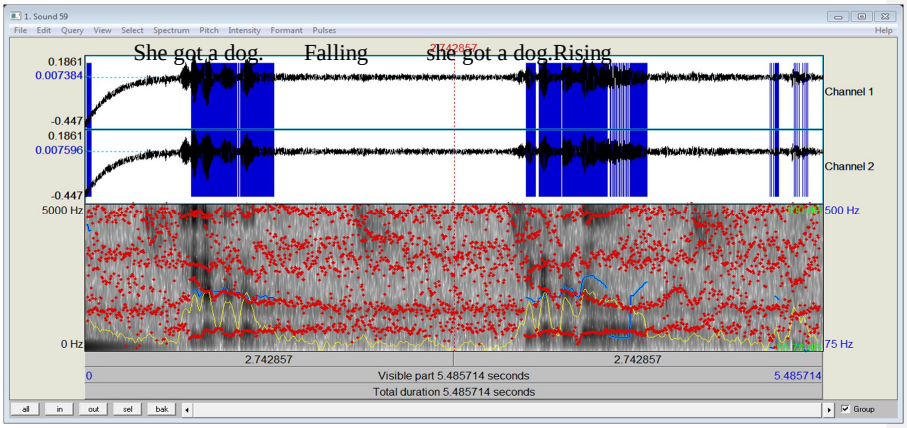

Diagram No. (4.30) shows student's sound spectrum in the pretest

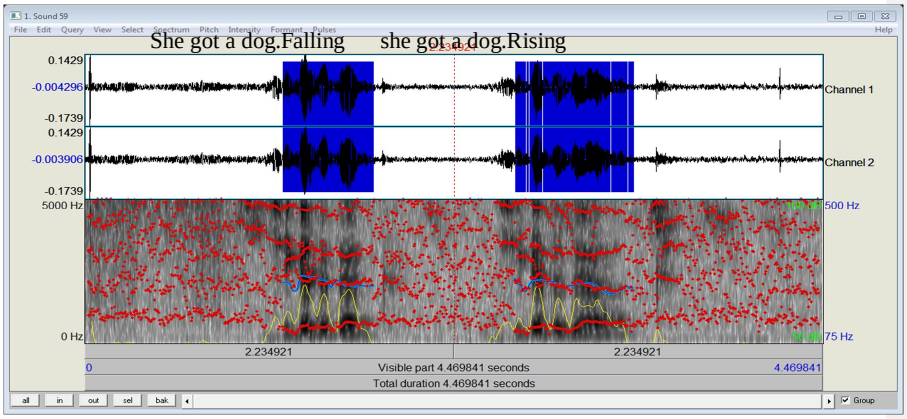

Diagram No. (4.30) shows student's sound spectrum in the posttest

In comparing the student's sound spectrum pertest and posttest No. (30) falling and rising intonation; In the pretest falling tone, the speaker's tone waves up down, in the pretest rising tone it goes down up. In the posttest falling tone, it waves up and down and in the rising it goes down up. Pulses and frequencies are darker in the pretest and posttest rising as it is seen in the syllables of the words in the sentence "she got a dog.", the pulses are supposed to be dark in the rising tone pretest and posttest

according to spectrums (4.1) and (4.2). Distribution of the formants to some extent are different and fragmented in the pretest and posttest rising, in comparing with the native speaker's spectrum (4.1) and (4.2), the progress is seen.

Table (4.11) shows analysis of speaking evaluation (Intonation) pretest result:

Intonation								
Sentence: She got a dog	Falling pitch (completion)				Rising pitch (surprising)			
	No. of Correct responses	%	No. of incorrect responses	%	No. of Correct responses	%	No. of incorrect responses	%
	20	86.96	3	13.04	23	100	0	0

Note: Pretest respondents are 23.

Table (4.12) shows analysis of speaking evaluation (Intonation) posttest result:

Intonation								
Sentence: She got a dog	Falling pitch (completion)				Rising pitch (surprising)			
	No. of Correct Responses	%	No. of incorrect responses	%	No. of Correct responses	%	No. of incorrect responses	%
	22	75.86	7	24.14	27	93.10	2	6.90

Note: Posttest respondents are 29.

As shown in the table No. (4.11) and (4.12) oral pretest and posttest results of suprasegmental. Using of falling intonation to show completion of speech in the sentence: she got a dog. The number of correct responses in the pretest are 20 (86.96%) from 22respondents (8 students are absent) where as the number of correct responses in the posttest are22 (75.86%)

from29 respondents (one student is absent).The number of incorrect responses in the pretest are (13.04%)from 23respondents, whereas the number of incorrect responses in the posttest are7 (24.14%) from 29 respondents (7students were absent in the pretest and one was absent in the posttest).Comparing the ratio of correct to in correct responses, pretest and posttest, it is apparent that there is a development in the performance of the respondents which means that there is an influence in the usage of this feature and it develops the learners verbal communication skills. As shown in the table No. (4.11) and (4.12) using of rising pitch that shows surprising in the sentence: she got a dog. The number of correct responses in the oral pretest are 23 (100%) from 22respondents (8 students were absent). The number of correct responses in the posttest are 27(93.10%) from 29 respondents, the total is 30. The number of in correct responses in the pretest are zero (0%) from 22respondents, 8 students were absent. Whereas the numbers of incorrect responses in the posttest are 2 (6.90) from 29 respondents. One learner was absent from the total 30 subjects. Comparing the results of pretest and posttest in both completion and surprising, development in the performance of the learners is noticeable. This means the learners have influenced by the using of intonation.

4.3.2 Discussion and Result of Written Test for Suprasegmentals

As shown from the table No. (4.11) and (4.12), the results of using intonation written pretest and posttest suprasegmentals explains that the minimum degree of pretest is (1.00) and of the posttest is (1.50). the maximum degree of pretest is (10.00). The mean for pretest (intonation) is (5.10) and of the posttest is (6.59). the paired difference of mean is (1.49); (6.59-5.10). This proves that their respondents have influenced by the using suprasegmental features (intonation, thought group and

pausing). As for as the result of using of stress is concerned, the minimum degree of written pretest is (0.00) and of the posttest is (3.00). the maximum degree of pretest is (9.00) and of the posttest is (13.00). The of using stress pretest is (4.49) and of the posttest is (7.69). the paired difference of mean is (3.10), (7.68-4.58). Development in the performance of the respondents is noticeable, this proves that the respondents have influenced by the using of suprasegmental features(stress).

Table (4.13) shows descriptive Statistics of questionnaire for suprasegmentals

Statements (Suprasegmentals)	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Result
I realize that using of suprasegmentals is the key aspect for leaners to develop their communications kills.	42	1.74	.665	Strongly agree
I notice that using suprasegmental features makes positive changes in learners' communication skills such as smooth-talk when I teach them.	42	1.64	.618	Strongly agree
Most of learners' communication problems result from the misuse of suprasegmentals.	42	2.21	.871	Agree
I observe that the use of suprasegmentals makes learners feel more confident in communication.	42	1.79	.682	Strongly agree
Some of learners who are not familiar with the use of suprasegmentals are hesitant in communication.	42	1.88	.993	Agree
I realize that using suprasegmentals specially thought groups and pausing help stammered learners to solve communicational problems such as being worried in the interactions.	42	2.02	.950	Agree
Limited use of suprasegmentals decrease learners self-confidence, social interactions and negatively affects evaluation of speakers' abilities and credibility.	42	2.02	.841	Agree

I observe that using of suprasegmental features by learners enable them to make communication more cognitive, acoustic and auditory influential.	42	2.07	.808	Agree
The use of suprasegmentals specifically pausing and thought group help learners to control the regulation of pace and timing in their communication.	42	1.74	.587	Strongly agree
Total of suprasegmentals	42	1.9021	.41005	Agree

4.3.3 Discussion and Result of Questionnaire for Suprasegmentals

Concerning the results of questionnaire; suprasegmentals, table No. (4.12) the most frequent answer of the respondents is (strongly agree/agree) to all statements and the mean is (1.90) which falls within the range of the response(agree) according to likert scale measurement. However, the total result of the respondents is (agree) which means that the respondents agree with the questionnaire statement that support the influence of using stress on developing L2 learners verbal communication skills.

4.4 Question Three and Hypothesis Three

Q3- To what degree gap fillers influence L2 learners' oral communication skills?

H3-Oral communication gap fillers may have influence on the development of L2 learners' oral communication skills.

4.4.1 Discussion and Result of Written Test for Fillers

Table No. (4.7) and (4.8) designates that the minimum degree for fillers pretest is (0.00) and of the posttest is also (0.00). The maximum degree of the pretest is (2.00) and of the posttest is (1.50). the means for using fillers in the pretest is (.4483) and in posttest is (.5712). the difference in the means between pretest and posttest is (.0689). The analysis shows

positive change towards improvement in the performance of the respondent. There is an influences but not dramatic. This is may be because gap fillers are more cultural and they do not have specific rules to be used.

Table (4.14) shows descriptive Statistics of questionnaire for fillers.

Statements (Fillers)	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	result
I observe that when learners want to think and plan conceptually about what to say next in turn taking process the sounds like (/3:/, mm, oh,ah, ooh …etc.) influence their communication skills.	42	1.95	.882	agree
I notice that using of fillers by learners affects not only filling gaps but also to develop strategic competence in a rapid conversation; not to let their interlocutor steal the floor before they finish their turn.	42	2.14	1.002	agree
I view that when learners use gap fillers, they put themselves on the safe-side from loads of frustration and this process encourages them to develop their communication skills.	42	1.93	.838	agree
I observe that using fillers influences learners' communicative competence in ways: they signal a fact that there is a listening process going on, there is an opening discourse in turn taking, and a person has a wish to speak.	42	2.17	.908	agree
Total of Fillers	42	2.0476	.56103	agree

4.4.2 Discussion and Result of the Questionnaire for Fillers

As shown from the table No. (4.13) explains that the most frequent response is(agree) to all statements and the total mean is (2.0476) which

falls within the range of agree according to Likert scale measurement this mean the respondents have been influenced by the use of filler sounds.

4.5 Summary

This chapter has discussed the data analysis, results which has been collected through a test and a questionnaire, then tabulated and diagramed for interpretations and discussions were made for stating the Summary, findings and recommendations of the study as well as suggestions for Further Studies

CHAPTER FIVE

Main Findings, Conclusions, Recommendations and Suggestions for Further Studies

5.0 Introduction

This chapter explains the main findings, conclusions, recommendations and suggestions for further studies.

5.1 The Main Findings

From the data analysis, the results and the discussions, this study has come out with the following main findings:

1- Little progress is shown in the performance according to the increasing in the degrees of learners (see tables 4.5, 4.6, 4.7, 4.8, 4.9, 4.10, 4.11, 4.12, 4.13, 4.14) and for the features of students' voices see (tables 4.11, 4.12 and sound spectral diagrams from 4.1 to 4.30).

2- The analysis shows that speaking is more challenging area. The total result of the use of connected speech (segmentals) 1.56 pretest and 2.46 posttest, the influence is low in the rate. (See tables 4.5 and 4.6)

3- There is a weak performance in the usage of intonation. Percentage of correct responses for falling and rising tone is as follow: Falling tone pretest 86.96%, falling tone posttest 75.86% and rising tone pretest 100%, rising tone posttest 93.10% it is worth notable that the number of students in pretest were 23 and in the posttest were 29. (see tables 4.11, 4.12). This means verbal communication is a complicating area for L2 learners.

4- Seven numbers of students are reluctant to answer the speaking pretest however, in the posttest they become confident only one student is absent. this means students have been influenced and motivated by the usage of phonological features.
5- University teachers confirmed and reinforced the statements of the questionnaire. See tables No (4.10, 4.13, 4.14).
6- Teaching of contextualized phonological features is more influential in teaching individual sounds.
7- Phonological features are interrelated and there is a positive relationship between phonological features and verbal communication.
8- Using of phonological features bring L2 learners closer to a native speaker see sound spectrums No. (4.1.a / 4.2.a / 4.1 to 4.30).

5.2 Recommendations

The following points are recommended by the researcher to be taken into account:

1-It is clear from the result and the analysis that university learners face a big challenge in using phonological features therefore, the teaching of introduction to segmental, suprasegmental and filler features should start from the secondary level as a base for university. Teaching phonics from the very beginning will enable the L2 learners not to develop bad habits and fossilized errors.

2-Teachers should expose L2 learners to the sounds of English native speakers by using modern technologies such as videos to familiarize them with the using of phonological features using play-pause- imitate technique superstronly.

3-L2 learners should be taught how to use spectrogram to represent and analyze their sounds interns of phonological features to know the qualities of their sounds.

4-Al phonological features, connected speech features, stress, intonation, thought group are interrelated. Being able to use them instantly and interrelatedly is influential in being a native speaker like. So, it should be taught inseparably.

5-L2 learners lack the natural language environment or language situations where they could interact freely. Rooms are artificial and stressful places there for, they should use the language in real situations such as language clubs.

6-Teachers should teach not only aspects of segmental features but also all aspects of phonological features. Because they interrelate and overlap profoundly.

7-Suprasegmental features specially intonation, thought group and tone unit should be taught by using spectrogram to represent the sound visually. This is more practical for L2 learners.

5. 3 Suggestions for Further Studies

The following points are proposed by the researcher for further studies:

1-problems facing Sudanese English language learner in using phonological features.

2-english phonological features that create problems forL2 learner in the communication process.

3-phonological factors that affecting L2learners speaking skills.

4-investiggating the role of correct pronunciation on developing reading skills.

5-investigating the use of suprasegmental features by a university teacher

5.4 Conclusions

This study investigates the influence of using English Language phonological features on developing L2 Students' Oral skills in five chapters.

In chapter one, the researcher has introduced a brief background of the study, statement of the research problems, significance of the study, objectives of the study, questions of the study, hypotheses of the study, method, population and sampling, procedures for safety, instrument of data collection, limitation and delimitation as well as tools.

Chapter two introduces the theoretical framework and previous studies which have shown that there is a knowledge gap between them in relation to the current study. (see 2.4). Theories related to phonological features are divided into three sections; segmental, suprasegmental, and filler features.

Chapter three presents the research methodology two instruments of data collection have been used (pretest, posttest for university learners and questionnaire for university teachers). (See appendix D).

In chapter four the results of the tests and the questionnaire have been analyzed statistically by using SPSS program. Then each of the three questions and hypotheses have been discussed and answered respectively according to the results. Consequently, significant findings that show the positive influence of using phonological features on developing L2

learners' verbal communication skills have been achieved. (See 4.2, 4.3, 4.4) Finally, in chapter five, the research summary, findings, recommendations and suggestions for further studies have been clarified. The study has added some insights to English language learners in particular faculty of education (see 5.2).

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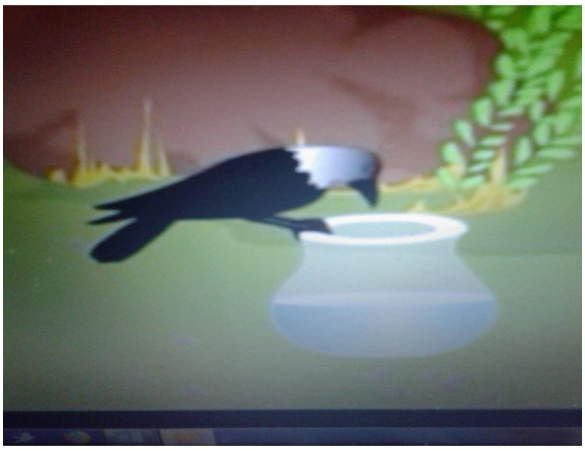
APPENDICES

Appendix (1)

Students' Test

A: Connected speech

1.Look at the picture of: The Thirsty Crow. Then, in not more than five minutes tell the story of this crow using features of connected speech.



From Short moral stories for kids- The thirty crow.mp3

2.In the fluent speaking, a sound is affected by its neighboring sound. Listen to the speaker enunciates the following sentences, then circle the letter (a) or (b) to show the features of connected speech: assimilation, intrusion, linking, elision or germination.

No	Sentence	Feature	
1	He's a really good cook. (d _k)	a. elision	b. assimilation
2	I own ten pairs of sock. (n p)	a. intrusion	b. assimilation
3	He's holding an egg. (n e)	a. assimilation	b. linking
4	I have to give up jogging. (v u)	a. linking	b. intrusion
5	I can't stand the rain. (t)	a. assimilation	b. elision
6	I haven't got a clue at all. (w)	a. linking	b. intrusion
7	I got a stand by a ticket. (d b)	a. assimilation	b. intrusion
8	I left my hand bag on the train. (d b)	a. assimilation	b. intrusion
9	I like a cup of tea in the morning. (ə)	a. weakening	b. elision
10	I think law and order is important. (r)	a. linking	b. intrusion
11	I ate the whole cake in one go. (j)	a. intrusion	b. linking
12	Never again. (r)	a. linking	b. intrusion
13	She's silly. (s + s)	a. intrusion	b. gemination
14	Don't hold back, say what you mean. (d)	a. elision	b. assimilation

From BBC learning English Videos

1. a. How is the plural morpheme realized in the case of the words listed below? Tick marks the appropriate box. The first item has been done for you as an example.

	S	Z	IZ	ǿ
Park	√			
Peak				
Bush				
Bag				

Deer				
Card				
Sheep				
Language				
Fit				

b. How are the past-tense morpheme and the past-participle morpheme realized in the case of the following verbs? Tick mark the appropriate box. The first item hasbeen done for you as an example.

	t	d	ɪd	ǿ
Search	√			
Decide				
Push				
Burst				
Bomb				
Resist				
Work				
Pay				
Cut				

Adapted from Thakur, D (2002). Linguistics Simplified

4.Listen to the sequence of the sounds. Then draw a circle round the letter of the phrase that you hear to identify the terminal juncture that differentiates them.

1. a. keep playing b. key playing
2. a. might rain b. my train
3. a. he lies b. heal eyes
4. a. keep sticking b. keeps ticking
5. a grey tape b. great ape
6. a. ice cream b. I scream
7. a. tea chart b. teach art
8. a. my seat b. mice eat

5.The consequences of the rhythmic organization of spoken English language where few words are stressed result into connected speech. Which sound do youassimilate, elide, coalesce, intrude and reduce in the following phrases:

Phrase	sound implemented
1-incase /ɪŋkɪes/	1-The assimilated sound is / /.
2-last time /lɑ:staɪm/	2-The elided sound is / /.
3-got you /gɒtʃu:/	3-The coalesced sounds are / /.
4-a-India and China. /ɪndiərntʃaɪna/	4-a-The intruded sound is / /.
b- see over /si:əʊvə/	b-The intruded sound is / /.
c- too easy /tui:zɪ/	c-The intruded sound is / /.
5- history /hɪstri/	5-The reduced sound is / /.

From Anglo-Link/ Keys to better listening comprehension and Jon Rey nolds/Kenton country Adult ESL video.

B: Stress

1.Listen, and then put the stress mark (/) on the right place (syllable) in the following words:

Doctor Friday over mistake purple Photograph photography photographic Pencil committee volunteer Maryland society information

Adapted from word stress in English language /success CDs.net by / Rachna Chandla

1. Listen, then put stress mark (/) according to the sound you hear to show whether a word is an adjective, a verb or a noun:

1.abstract 2. conduct 3. contract 4. contrast 5. desert 6. escort 7. export 8. import 9. insult 10. object 11. perfect 12. permit 13. present 14. Produce 15. protest 16. rebel 17. record 18.subject

3. The changing of word stress in a sentence results into changing the contextual meaning. Match the sentences from (A) with its meaning from (B) in (C): -

	A	B	C
1	I didn't say he stole the money.	He only borrowed it.	..1..
2	I didn't say he stole the money.	I only hinted it.	….
3	I didn't say he stole the money.	He stole the wallet.	….
4	I didn't say he stole the money.	He stole other money.	….
5	I didn't say he stole the money.	Peter said it.	….
6	I didn't say he stole the money.	Somebody else stole it.	
7	I didn't say he stole the money.	I said he didn't steal it.	

C: Intonation

1.**Say** the following sentence "she got a dog "two times using falling ↘ and rising ↗ pitch to indicate: A-The completion of a thought. B- A surprise.

2.Listen, then insert (draw) the intonation patterns (↗), (↘) or ⟶ at the end of the followings: a. How are you? b. Your dog speaks English? c. Who got a dog? d. “My dog is smart, pretty and sweet.” e. I want a dog, but… Adapted from Elemental English .com

3.Listen to the pitch change in the following pair words. One is a statement and the other is a question. Put (**.**) if it is statement and (**?**) if it is a question.

(a) has been done for you as an example. a. okay (**.**) okay (**?**) b. Bill ( ) Bill ( ) c. yes ( ) yes ( ) d. coffee ( ) coffee ( )

From New Headway Pronunciation. Elementary book by Sarah Cunningham and Peter Moor (2003) p.17

4.Listen to a speaker who uses thought groups in two similar sentences then, tick (√) the correct one that you hear A or B.

i- A: David said, “that man is very rude!”

B: “David” said that man, “is very rude!”

ii- A: “Linda believes”. I said. “that Jim’s story’s true”

B: Linda believes I said that Jim’s story’s true.

iii-A: Mike sold his house, boat, and car.

B: Mike sold his house boat and car.

6.Thought groups help learners to develop listening skills and fluency. Listen tothe pausing of the speaker, then put these marks (**/, //**) accordingly to identify the thought group.

When I was a boy I leaped over fence dashed through fields climbed tall trees stomped on ants and kicked footballs high in the sky When I was a

girl I skipped down paths danced in my bedroom spun in circles under the sky jumped rope with my friends and squatted to smell flowers in my Mother's garden

D: Fillers

Use the fillers in the box below to fill the spaces given correctly.

Urgh, ow, Er, Oi, Ah, Er, Aah, hmmm let me see/ think, well to be honest

1.A: put your hand in this bag.

B: ……, it feels disgusting. What is it?
2.A: Come with me!

B: …..... you are hurting me.
3.A: this is a photo of my two –year old son holding his baby sister.

B: ……. aren't they sweet.
4.A: there is someone trying to break into your car.

B: …..... get away from there!
5.A: How old do you think Joa is?

B: ……, I have no idea.
6.How often do you do exercise?.....I'm not a great one for exercise.

7.What is your favorite day of the week?.....I like Saturdays as the family

are all together and we can go out somewhere.

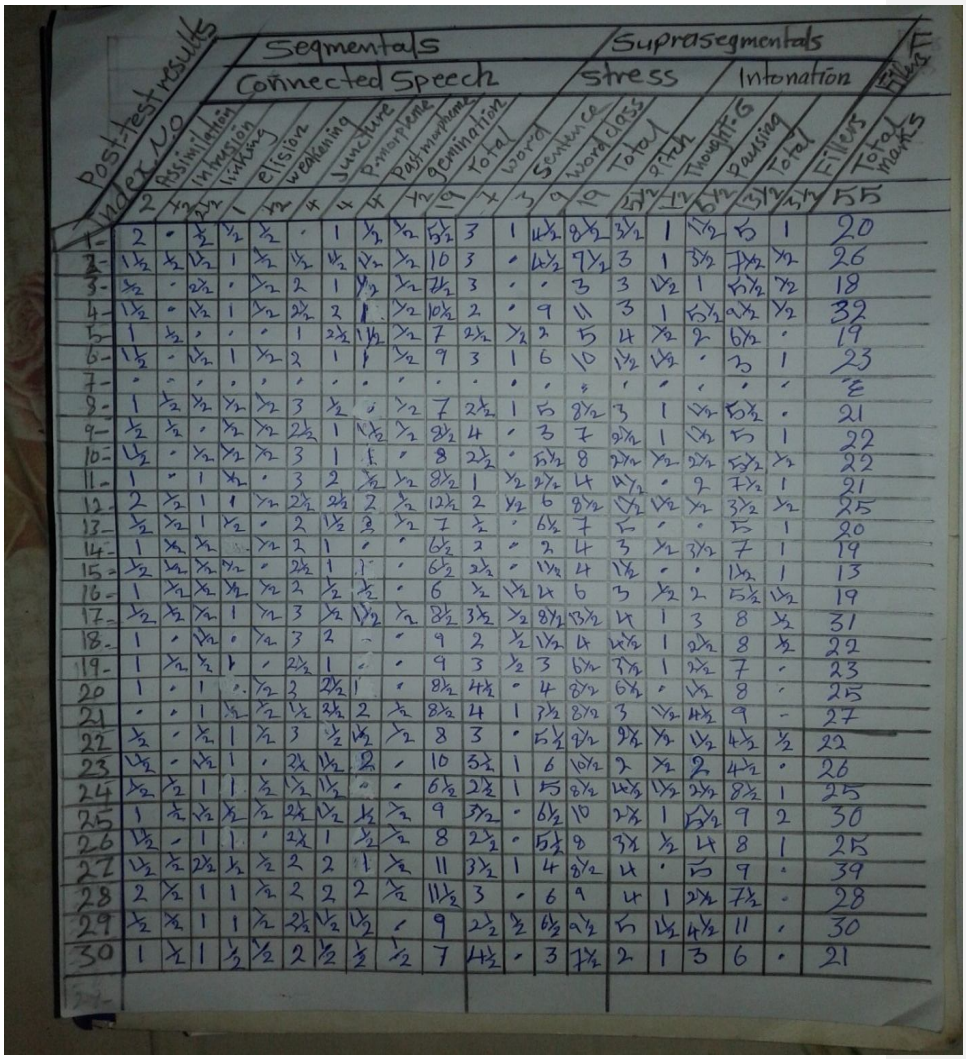
Adapted from pronunciation practice activity. A course book for teaching English Pronunciation .by: Hewings, Martin (2004) Cambridge University Press and ILETS Tests.

Appendix (2)

Pre-Test Results

Appendix (3)

Post-test Results



Appendix (4)

University of Sudan for Science and Technology

College of Postgraduate Studies and Scientific Research

Faculty of Education /ELT/Linguistics

Plan (schedule)for Teaching and Testing Experiment

The objective of this experiment is to teach English language phonological features (segmentals and suprasegmentals) to the study sample and test them so as to enable the current researcher in collecting the data, then analyzing and investigating the influence of using English language phonological features on developing L2 learner's communication skills to accomplish a research for PhD degree.

No. of weeks	Date	Contents (Treatments)	Time	Notes
First week	Sunday 1/10/2016	1-Instructions and procedures for sample selection.	1hour	
	Monday 2/10/2016	2-Giving a pretest for connected speech (segmentals)	2hours	
	Wednesday 4/10/2016	3-Giving a pretest for segmentals, suprasegmentals and communication fillers.	2hours	

Second week	Sunday 8/10/2016 Tuesday 10/10/2016 Thursday 12/10/2016	Teaching of segmental features including: 1-Phonetic symbols. 2-Aspects of connected speech including: a. assimilation, liaison b. elision , reduction , juncture	1hour 2hours 3hours	
Third week	Sunday 15/10/2016	Posttest for connected speech (segmentals)	2hours	
Fourth week	Tuesday 17/10/2016 Thursday 19/10/2016 Sunday 22/10/2016	Teaching of suprasegmentals including: a-stress b-intonation c-thought group	2hours 2hours 2hours	
Fifth week	Tuesday 24/10/2016 Sunday 29/10/2016	1-Teaching of fillers: (sounds, words and phrases). 2-posttest for segmental, suprasegmentals and fillers.	2hours 2hours	

Designed by the current researcher

Appendix (5)

University of Sudan for Science and Technology

College of Postgraduate Studies and Scientific Research

Faculty of Education /ELT/Linguistics

Questionnaire for university teachers

The purpose of this questionnaire is to collect data for a research entitled "The influence of using English language phonological features on developing L2 learners' verbal communication skills" a thesis submitted for Ph.D. degree.

Personal information:

Name (optional)…….. age ( )

Gender: male ( ) female ( ) years of experience ( )

Academic degree: …….

You are kindly requested to read each statement, then tick (√) only one choice that best represents your opinion.

No	Statement	strongly agree	agree	neutral	disagree	Strongly disagree
1	I realize that using some English allophones of some phonemes which are changeable in their realization are communicative barriers<s>becomes/z/, / s /and/ɪz/.					
2	I observe that using of segmental features learners enables them on knowing how to reduce sounds and to deliver an effective talk.					
3	Using features of connected speech necessarily develops learners oral-aural communication skills, specially listening, speaking and reading skills.					
4	I notice that when learners use features of connected speech, their communication becomes more rhythmical and intelligible.					

5	I discover that using segmental features in connected speech raises the awareness of learners' communication skills beyond the sound recognition level.					
6	I notice that some of learners use epenthesis to satisfy their phonological constraints in the communication process.					
7	The misuse of features of connected speech by learners results into lack of speech clarity.					
8	I observe that the ability of using features of connected speech by learners enables them to emphasize the content words and understand the native speaker.					
9	I view that using the features of connected speech enables learners to follow a native speaker accent and communicate easily.					
10	learners who receive clear phonological instructions are likely to understand the native speaker more intelligibly than others who don't.					
11	I observe that using phonological features develops learners' ability and mental capacity in communication skills .					
12	Using of phonological features motivates learners to imitate the accent of native speaker enthusiastically					
13	I realize that using of suprasegmentals is the key aspect for leaners to develop their communication skills.					
14	I notice that using phonological features makes positive changes in learners' communication skills such as smooth-talk when I teach them.					
15	Most of learners' communication problems result from the misuse of segmentals and suprasegmentals.					
16	I observe that the use of suprasegmentals makes learners feel more confident in communication.					
17	Some of learners who are not familiar with the use of segmentals and suprasegmentals are hesitant in communication.					

18	I realize that using phonological features specially thought groups and pausing help stammered learners to					

	solve communicational problems such as being worried in the interactions.					
19	I observe that when learners want to think and plan conceptually about what to say next in turn taking process the sounds like (/3:/, mm, oh, ah, ooh …etc.) influence their communication skills.					
20	I notice that using of fillers by learners affects not only filling gaps but also to develop strategic competence in a rapid conversation; not to let their interlocutor steal the floor before they finish their turn.					
21	I view that when learners use gap fillers, they put themselves on the safe-side from loads of frustration and this process encourages them to develop their communication skills.					
22	I observe that using fillers influences learners' communicative competence in ways: they signal a fact that there is a listening process going on, there is an opening discourse in turn taking, and a person has a wish to speak.					
23	In speaking process the puff of air accompanies the release of a plosive (stop) consonants results into making the lips and the larynx sometimes dry as a speaker runs out of breath, therefore, a speaker pauses to excrete saliva to moisturize his lips and throat.					
24	Limited use of phonological features decreases learners self-confidence, social interactions and negatively affects evaluation of speakers' abilities and credibility.					
25	I observe that using of segmental and suprasegmental features by learners enables them to make communication more cognitive, acoustic and auditory influential.					
26	The use of phonological features specifically pausing and thought group helps learners to control the regulation of pace and timing in their communication.					

Appendix (6)

i- Letters and announcements

University of Sudan for Science and Technology

College of Postgraduate Studies and Scientific Research

Faculty of Education (ELT) Linguistics

Dear: professor,

Subject: Judging the standardization of the questionnaire

Talking about instrument validity and reliability is usually attended to newly developed instrument. “Instrument adopted from previously published work…are likely to be valid and reliable” (AL-Samawi, 2000: 119).

He further added that “instrument can be validated in many ways. However, the most known ways are self-validation, pilot validation and expert validation…when expert validation is planned, a letter to those experts should accompany the instrument containing clear statement of the research purpose, questions, aims and objectives, hypotheses and variables to avoid any misconception with those experts may have” (ibid).

The current researcher would like to conduct a research entitled ‘the influence of using English language phonological features on developing L2 learners’ verbal communication skills’ in order to do that he adopts the experts’ validation method for checking validity and reliability. The researcher gratefully appreciates your effort that is exerted on reviewing and checking this attached questionnaire to be valid and reliable.

Attachments:

1. Certificate to whom it may concern.
2. Research questions, Objectives, and hypotheses.
3. Copy of the questionnaire.

Thanks,

PhD Candidate/Adam Abdallah Elzein

0912115589/adamelzain@gmail.com

اسماء المحكمين ودرجاتهم -ii

الاخ العزيز الباحث/ ادم عبدالله الزين،

تحية واحتراما،

اولا نعتذر منكم للتاخير الذي صاحب الاستبيان نتيجة لارتباط اعضاء قسم اللغة الانجليزية بالجامعة بالاختبارات الفصلية.

ثانيا الحمدلله اليوم ارسلت لي بعض الملاحظات حول الاستبيان وهي كالتالي:

- التنسيق ومراجعة نمط الخط.

- من الملاحظ انك أكثرت من استخدام جملة I observrd that الامر الذي يضعف الاستبيان لذلك نرجو استخدام عبارة اخرى تحمل نفس المعني.

-يحبذ زيادة الاسئلة خصوصاً ان هذا البحث لنيل درجة الدكتوراة من 20-30 او 25 على الاقل.

ثالثا الجدول التالي يحتوي على اسماء المحكمين ودرجاتهم

1- Dr. Ogone John Obiero Department of English Language, Aljouf University KSA.

2. Dr. Abdallah Mahassna Department of English Language, Aljouf University KSA.

3. Dr. Allassene Dijaw Department of Business Administration, Aljouf University KSA.

4. Dr. Badreldin Mohamed Department of Business Administration, Aljouf University KSA.

BadreldinMohamedAhmedAbdulrahman Associate professor of Economics University of Zalingei, Sudan& Al Jouf University, KSAMobile: +966563481655 +249927900559 ---------

□□□ Think +249123471064about the environment, avoid printing unless necessary.

warm regards

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

جامعة السودان للعلوم والتكنولوجيا

كلية الدراسات العليا

18/1/2017

iii- اعلان سمنار

يشرفنا و يسعدنا حضوركم السمنارالاول في برنامج الدكتوراه في اللغة الانجليزية بعنوان:

The Influence of Using English Language Phonological Features on Developing L2 Learners' Verbal Communication Skills

(A Case Study of Al-Fashir University)

أثر استخدام ملامح النظام الصوتي للغة الانجليزية في تطوير مهارات المخاطبة اللفظية لدى دارسي اللغة الانجليزية

يقدمه الدارس: ادم عبدالله الزين عمر

الزمان: الأثنين الموافق 2017/1/23م الساعة 12ظهراً

المكان: قاعة السمنارات-كلية التربية

المشرف الرئيسي: د. محمد بكري حديدي

المشرف المعاون: د. ايناس احمد عبدالرحمن فضل

جامعة السودان للعلوم والتكنولوجيا

كلية الدراسات العليا

15/8/2017

اعلان سمنار

يشرفنا و يسعدنا حضوركم السمنارالثاني في برنامج الدكتوراه في اللغة الانجليزية بعنوان:

The Influence of Using English Language Phonological Features on Developing L2 Learners' Verbal Communication Skills

(A Case Study of Al-Fashir University)

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يقدمه الدارس: ادم عبدالله الزين عمر

الزمان: الأثنين الموافق 2017/8/21م الساعة 12ظهراً

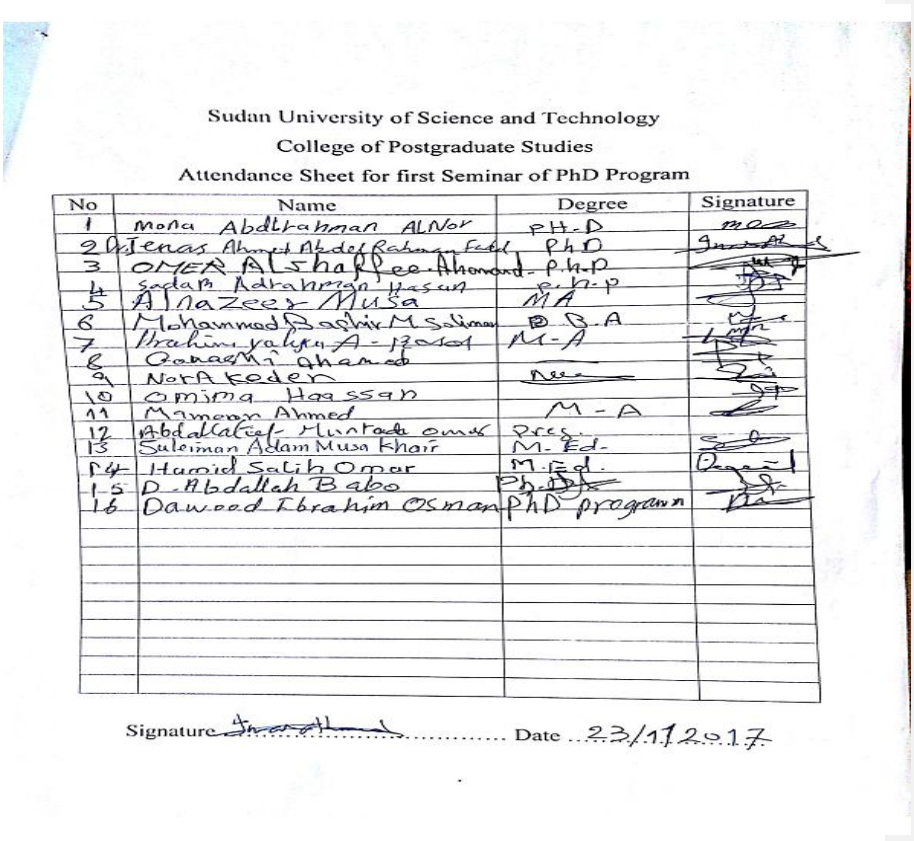
المكان: قاعة السمنارات-كلية التربية

المشرف الرئيسي: د. محمد بكري حديدي

المشرف المعاون: د. ايناس احمد عبدالرحمن فضل

Appendix (7)

i- Seminars attendance Sheet



Sudan University of Science and Technology

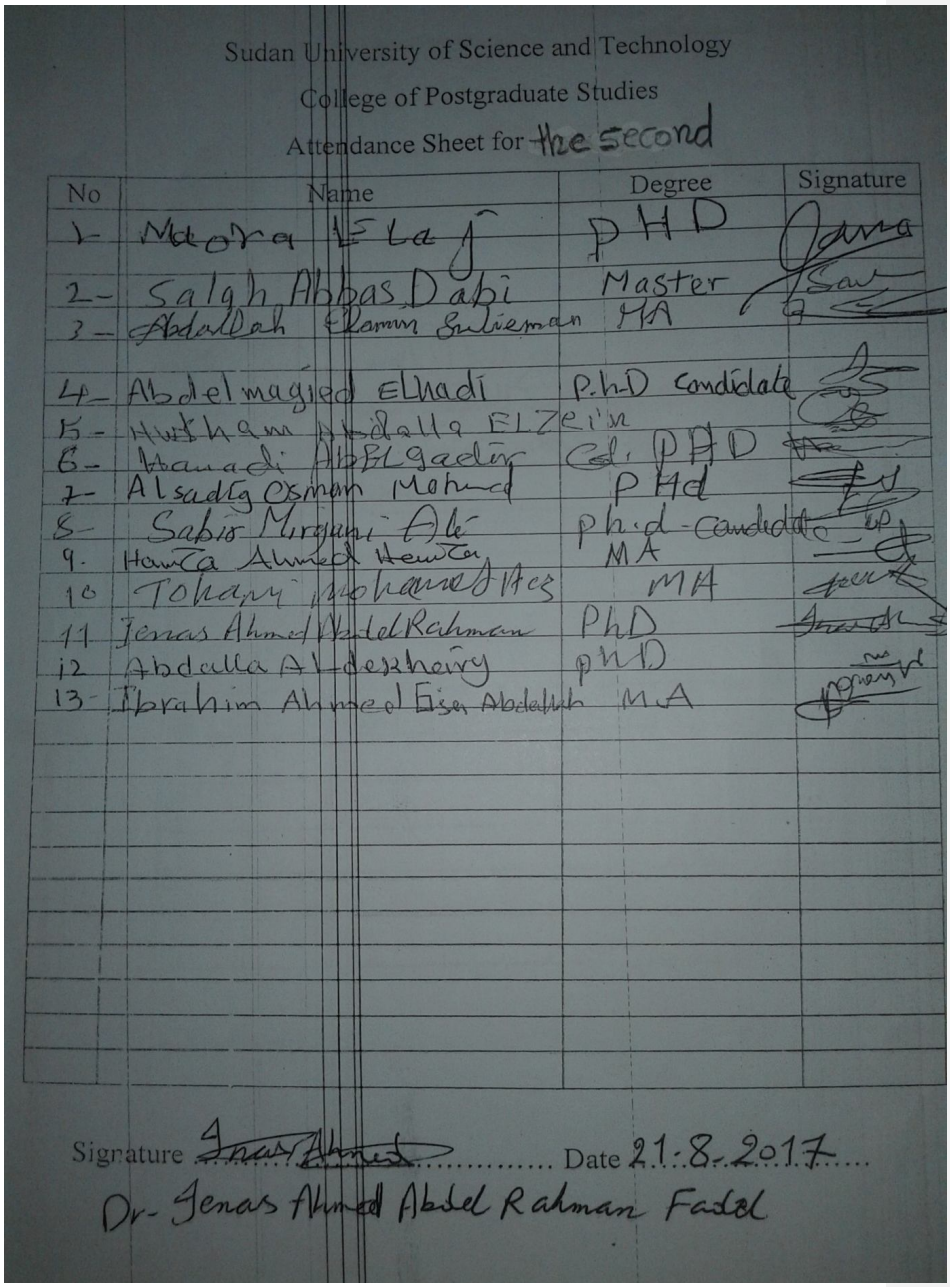
College of Postgraduate Studies

Attendance Sheet for first Seminar of PhD Program

No	Name	Degree	Signature
1	Mona Abdlrahman ALNor	PH.D	[signature]
2	Dr. Jenas Ahmed Abdel Rahman Fadl	PhD	[signature]
3	OMER Alshaffee Ahamed	P.h.D	[signature]
4	Sadam Adrahman Hasan	P.h.D	[signature]
5	Alnazeer Musa	MA	[signature]
6	Mohammed Bashir M Soliman	B.A	[signature]
7	Ibrahim yahya A-Basal	M-A	[signature]
8	Gonasmi Ahamed		[signature]
9	NorA Keden	[signature]	[signature]
10	Omima Haassan		[signature]
11	Mamoon Ahmed	M-A	[signature]
12	Abdallatief Muntada omar	Pres.	[signature]
13	Suleiman Adam Musa Khair	M. Ed.	[signature]
14	Hamid Salih Omar	M.Ed.	[signature]
15	D. Abdallah Babo	Ph.D	[signature]
16	Dawood Ibrahim Osman	PhD programm	[signature]

Signature [signature] ..... Date 23/11/2017

ii-Sheet for the second seminar



Sudan University of Science and Technology

College of Postgraduate Studies

Attendance Sheet for the second

No	Name	Degree	Signature
1-	Mdora Elaj	PHD	
2-	Salah Abbas Dabi	Master	
3-	Abdallah Elamin Suleiman	MA	
4-	Abdelmagied Elhadi	P.h.D candidate	
5-	Hisham Abdalla ELZein		
6-	Hamadi AlBilgadir	Cd. PHD	
7-	Alsadig Osman Mohmd	PHd	
8-	Sabir Mirgani Ali	ph.d - Candidate	
9.	Hawca Ahmed Hawca	MA	
10	Tohami Mohamed Ahmed	MA	
11	Jenas Ahmed Abdel Rahman	PhD	
12	Abdalla Al-dexheiry	pHD	
13	Ibrahim Ahmed Eisa Abdallah	M.A	

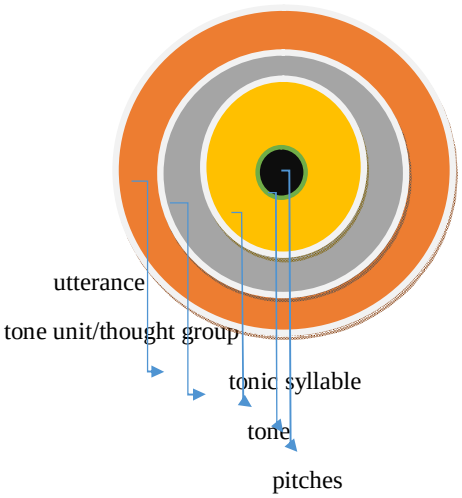
Signature ..... Date 21-8-2017

Dr- Jenas Ahmed Abdel Rahman Fadel

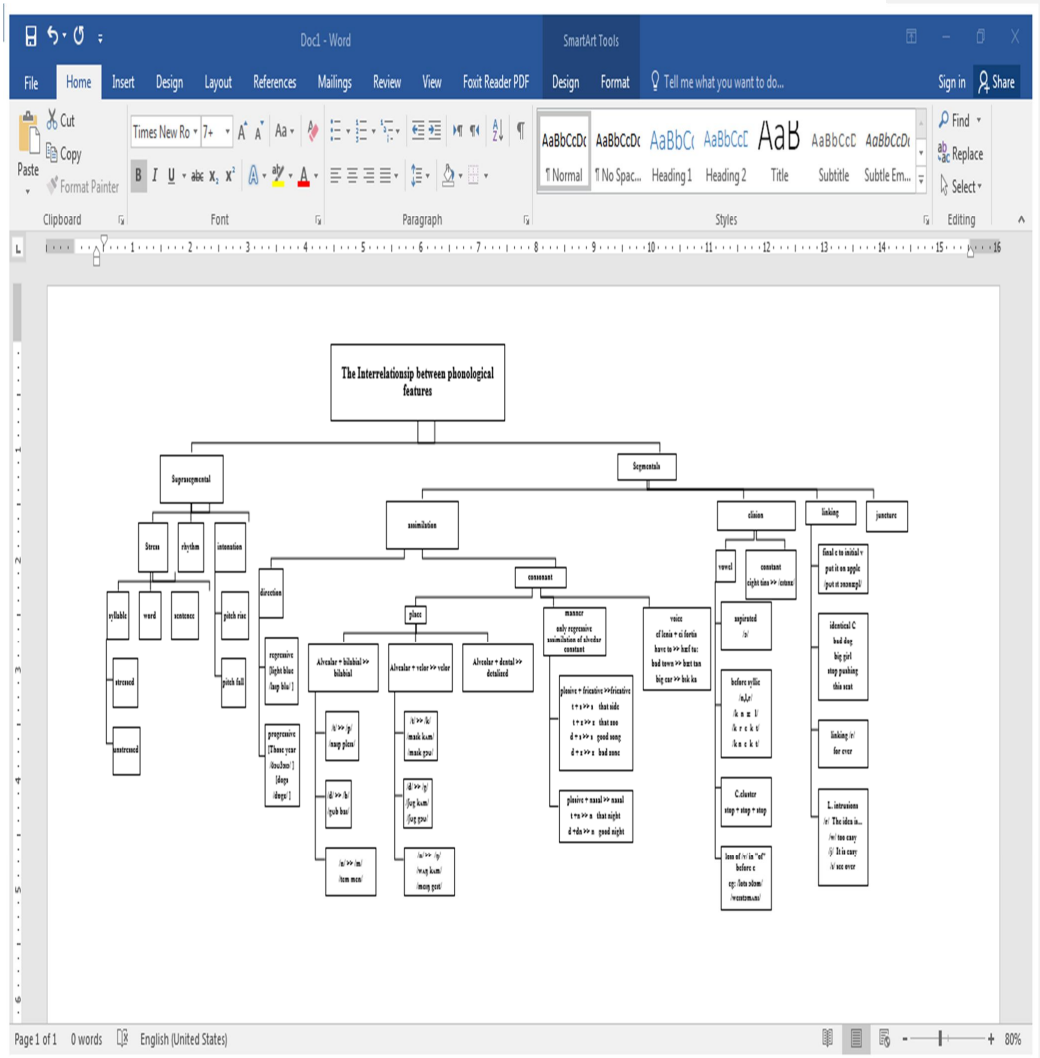
Appendix (8)

Diagrams

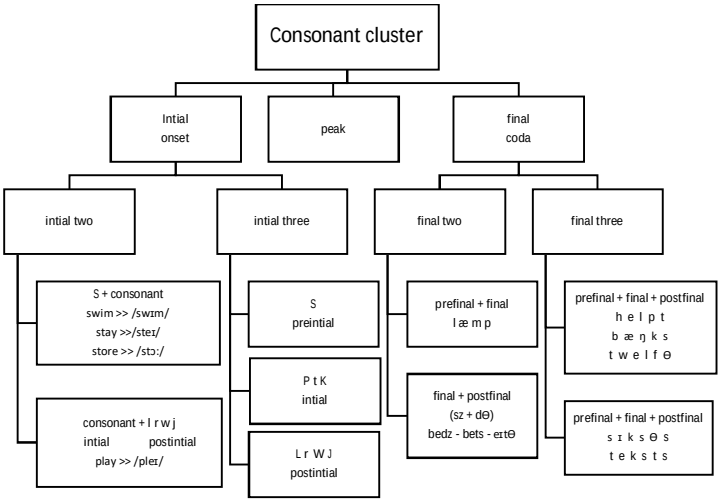
i-Overlapping of suprasegmentals



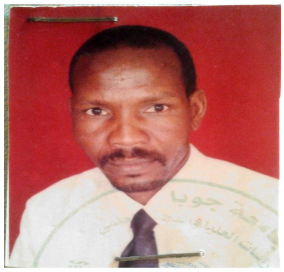
ii-The interrelation between phonological features



iii-Analysis of consonant clusters



Appendix (9)

About the researcher

Adam Abdallah Elzein Omer was born in the north DarFur state, Kutum locality in 1962.In 1989 he started teaching English as foreign language (TEFL) at intermediate schools. He joined Sudan English Language Teaching Institute (SELTI) as a teacher trainee for an academic year 1998 and has been awarded a diploma in TEFL. He graduated in juba university college of Education and Art and has been awarded a bachelor in TEFL in 2003. In 2005 he has been awarded a master degree in TEFL in the same university. In 2018 he has been awarded a PhD degree, his research focuses on Applied Linguistics entitled: Using English Language Phonological Features to Develop Students' Oral Communication Skills. Now he is a teacher trainer at Sudan English Language Teaching Institute (SELTI) and a volunteer at both secondary and university education. He is interested in the pedagogy of phonetics and phonology as well as English grammar. He is an active participant in local and national organizations. He attended local and regional workshops for education and peacemaking as well as capacity building as a participant and a presenter.