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Mother Tongue Interference in English Language Pronunciation of the Chinese Immigrant in the United States

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CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

The history of Chinese immigrants in the US, especially in California, is long and well-documented. From 1848 to 1855, which is a famous era called the Gold Rush, thousands of Chinese people immigrated to the country in pursuit of economic opportunities. Most Chinese immigrants, primarily men, worked as laborers on the transcontinental railroad. There are specific four waves that Chinese immigrate to the US (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2008). The first wave as mentioned above that the pioneer families arrived in 1840 in response to the need for cheap labor during the Gold Rush and to build the transcontinental railroad. The second wave (1920–1940) mostly consisted of small business families, specifically Chinese men, who were able to work in the country but without their wives and families. From 1943–1964 the third wave of Chinese immigrants arrived, the Chinese immigrants were allowed to reunite with their wives. The fourth wave (1965–1977) was comprised of family workers and students. Beginning in the 1980s, an increasing number of students, professionals, and undocumented aliens immigrated to the US. Nowadays, immigration from Taiwan, China, and Hong Kong continues. Most Chinese immigrants have settled in states like California, New York, Hawaii, Texas, New Jersey, Illinois, Washington, Florida, Virginia, and Massachusetts. People of Chinese descent now represent the largest Asian group in the country (Migration Policy Institute, 2015).

The process of Chinese immigrate to the US is not as easy as it looks because of the growing anti-Chinese sentiment and ethnic discrimination. By the late 19th century, the U.S.

Congress had passed the Chinese Exclusion Act in response to an increase in anti-Chinese sentiments, prohibiting immigration from China for 10 years as well as barring Chinese residents from getting the U.S. citizenship. This law was extended by the Geary Act in 1892. The Chinese Exclusion Act was the only law ever passed in the US to prevent immigration and naturalization on the basis of race. By 1924, immigrants from Asian countries, except from the Philippines which had become a U.S. territory in 1898, were excluded by law, denied citizenship and naturalization, as well as prevented from marrying Caucasians or owning land. However, the situation had changed in 1943, the U.S. government enacted the Magnuson Act that allowed Chinese immigration. Large-scale Chinese immigration began to occur in 1965 when the Immigration and Nationality Act of 1965 removed national origin quotas in favor of a preference system focused on skill and family reunification.

According to Lien (2008), at the beginning of the 21st century, the population of Chinese immigrants was about 2.9 million. According to the *China Daily* (2013), there are now approximately 3.79 million people of Chinese descent living in the US, about 2.2 million were born in China. Approximately half of Chinese immigrants obtain legal permanent residence in the US, also identified as receiving a "green card", through family channels. The remainder obtain residency through employment-based preferences or asylee status (Hooper & Batalova, 2015). According to Hooper and Batalova, Chinese immigrants, compared to the overall foreign- and native-born populations, are more highly educated, more likely to be employed, and have a higher household income.

However, Hooper and Batalova (2015) also state in comparison to overall U.S. foreign-born population Chinese immigrants are more likely to have low English proficiency in English and prefer to use English at home. For example, in 2013, the population of limited English proficiency Chinese takes up a large proportion among Chinese immigrant (5 years of age and older), it is about 62% compared with 50% of the total foreign-born population. In addition, 10% of Chinese immigrants spoke just English at home compared to 16% of all immigrants.

Luo (2014) suggests the main reason English is difficult for Chinese learners is that Chinese and English belong to two different language systems. On one hand, English is part of the Indo-European language family, encompassing languages including Spanish, German, Latin, Greek, Russian, Albanian, Lithuanian, Armenian, and Persian. On the other hand, Chinese is part of the Sino-Tibetan language family, including Mandarin, Wu, Cantonese, Hakka, Burmese, Tibetan, Thai, and Hmong. Shoebottom (2015) notes,

> There is not one single Chinese language, but many different versions or dialects including Wu, Cantonese and Taiwanese. Northern Chinese, also known as Mandarin, is the mother tongue of about 70% of Chinese speakers and is the accepted written language for all Chinese. Belonging to two different language families, English and Chinese have many significant differences. (para. 1)

Shoebottom identifies some of the following significant differences:

1. Phonology: Chinese is a tonal language, pitch is used to distinguish word meaning. In English, variations in pitch are used to express emotion;

2. Grammar - Verb/Tense: In English considerable information is conveyed through the use of auxiliaries and by verb inflections: is/are/were, eat/eats/ate/eaten, etc. In

comparison, Chinese is an uninflected language and conveys meaning through word order, adverbials or shared understanding of the context.

3. Vocabulary: English has several short verbs that are commonly combined with adverbs or prepositions to form phrasal verbs, e.g. take on, give in. Compare with English, Chinese doesn't have this lexical feature. That is one reason why many Chinese learners may experience severe difficulty in comprehending English texts and avoid to use such verbs.

Furthermore, Chinese consists of eight dialects. The eight dialects are spoken mainly in eight regions, but in each region, there are also many sub-dialects which are different from each other (Luo, 2014).

According to Beckhusen, Florax, Graaff, Poot, and Waldorf (2012),

Although 50 percent of the U.S. population growth between 2000 and 2010 came from immigration1 and the proportion of immigrants who speak English has declined from 85 percent in 1900 to 64 percent in 2010, the U.S. government does little to provide immigrants with assistance in learning the new culture or to speak and write in English. The U.S. government has a laissez-faire attitude toward assimilation and language acquisition. (p. 1)

Many L2 learners rely on their mother tongue while they try to improve their skills using the new language. Therefore, many of them continue to have mother tongue interference when trying to master the four primary language skills: writing, reading, speaking and listening (Abrego, Guadalupe, Vides, & Maria, 2013).

Today, language teaching and learning have political aspects and Chinese English learners will confront inequality while they attempt to learn English. Factors such as aging, gender, cultural identity, and educational background can impact the English learning process.

What is more, their mother tongues can hinder their English learning process. For example, they may not be able to pronounce English words as correctly as native speakers, and when they communicate, fluency is one of their biggest challenges. Therefore, they may feel embarrassed. This embarrassment may contribute to their language acquisition difficulties, as they may either fossilize or in some case may stop attempting to learn new language. Sometimes cultural backgrounds also determines how a learner engages in L2 learning. Many researchers suggest that the learner's first language impacts the pronunciation of the L2 and cause foreign accents (Zhang & Yin, 2009). Interference from the mother tongue is is a substantial factor in accounting for mistakes in aspiration, stress, and intonation in the target language. Therefore, Chinese English learners are less likely to pronounce English sounds correctly because their similar Chinese sounds influence a lot. The ability to communicate effectively in English exemplifies the correctness of pronunciation and intonation and directly affects the appropriate communication in conversation (Zhang & Yin, 2009).

Chinese immigrants' mother tongues have many influences that are related to their English learning process. Chinese immigrants do not speak the same language depending upon the region they come from, they speak different dialects and language. For example, immigrants from Canton province (Guangdong) and Hong Kong primarily use the Cantonese dialect of Chinese as their first language, while many immigrants from mainland China and Taiwan share Mandarin as their primary dialect. In particular, San Francisco's Chinese community has ancestry mainly from Guangdong Province, China and Hong Kong. There are approximately 40 immigrant-serving organizations for the city's approximately 105,000 non-citizen immigrants,

28% of whom are from China. On the one hand, the high supply of English language classes may suggest ethnic enclaves make it possible for residents to fully function using their first language. On the other hand, the high supply may suggest the highest supply of English language classes is not enough to promote acquisition (Center for the Study of Immigrant Integration, n. d.). For this reason, my project will focus on observing ESL instructors working with Chinese speaking immigrants to gather best practices for addressing how to best support learners to decrease the influence of their mother tongue in learning English.

Purpose of the Project

The purpose of the project is to research how Chinese immigrants' mother tongues influence their English learning. Specifically, this project focuses on how Chinese immigrants' mother tongues interferes with their English language pronunciation. Mother tongue interference may cause unintentional consequences.

Therefore, this project focuses on whether there are some cultural barriers behind mother tongue interference and how they influence the development of their language competency as well. These various aspects are addressed in the strategies for ESL instructors highlighted in this project to decrease the impact of mother tongue interference for Chinese speakers, as well as overcoming initial shyness, accepting interactive and communicative teaching approaches in the US, and participating in class.

Theoretical Framework

In the last 25 years, communicative language teaching (CLT) has become more widely accepted as an innovative approach to teaching English to speakers of other language. Because

of the focus of this project is highlighting effective teaching strategies for ESL instructors

working with Chinese speaking immigrants, CLT was an appropriate theory to consider.

Savignon (2001) outlines characteristics of CLT: Communicative language teaching mainly

focus on communicative competence. The term communicative competence refers to the use of

language in social context; by practicing in a wide range of communicative events, learners can

develop their sociocultural, grammatical, strategic and discourse competence, which can be

considered as four main parts of communicative. All components are interrelated. Celce-Murcia

(2001) states with CLT, reading, speaking, listening and writing skill should all be included.

This project also adopts task-based language teaching because "Tasks are meaningful,

and in doing them, students need to communicate. Tasks have a clear outcome so that teacher

and students know whether or not the communication has been successful" (Larsenfreeman &

Anderson, 2011, p.149). Task-based language teaching is related to the *strong version* of

communicative approach. In task-based language teaching, language is acquired through use,

meaning while students use the required language to accomplish the tasks teacher give they can

acquire that language.

This project is also based on contrastive analysis hypothesis (CAH). Brown (2014)

believes that second language learning was a matter of overcoming the interference of the first

language. Brown also states that CAH is the examination of two languages in contrast, the first

language (L1) and second language (L2), and it can predict validity of such a contrast. Human

learning theories highlight interfering elements. So CAH draws a conclusion that learners will

not experience any difficulty if no interference could be predicted for the reason of they can

transfer all items to the L2 from the L1. In other word, if two languages has greater difference or interference, the language learner will experience a greater difficulty.

Wardhaugh (1970) defines these efforts to employ CAH predictively as the strong version of the CAH. Wardhaugh also note a weak version of CAH which today is known as cross-linguistic influence (CLI) is more reasonable and should be adopt compared with the strong version. According to Brown (2014), "A weak version of CAH refers to a recognition of the significance of interference across languages, but a concession that linguistic difficulties may be more fruitfully pinpointed after the fact" (p. 257). When errors appear while learning language, instructor can use their knowledge of the target language to understand some sources of error. CLI also recognize significant role that former experience plays in L2 learning act, but the influence of L1 should not be overlooked. CLI focuses more on influence rather than prediction.

Significance of the Project

This project is close to me, I am an international student and my first language is Mandarin Chinese, a language that is completely different from English. Even though I had studied English in China for many years before I came to the US; I found I could not pronounce English words as correctly while communicating. While taking classes, the teaching approaches in the US also made me nervous. Instead of accepting ideas from professor I had to express my own ideas. My poor spoken English made me more nervous, and this kind of nervousness only made things worse. I was reluctant to open my mouth to speak English. Last semester, I took a course about teaching theory and practice. I have found there are many methods for ESL learners

to acquire English but not all of them can be used while teaching students whose first language is Mandarin Chinese. For example, the grammar-translation method cannot be used for Chinese students because the characters, pronunciation and grammar are totally different. While reading class materials, I was reminded that sometimes an English learners' mother tongue can interfere with their English learning. This is the primary reason that I have chosen this as my research topic.

I have prepared this project for English teachers who are or are planning to teach English to Chinese immigrants. For the readers of this research, I think this project can help them understand the importance of Chinese immigrants' mother tongues while teaching English, and may provide them with some strategies to prevent the interference they might bring in, and even make students benefit from their mother tongue.

Definition of Terms

Communicative competence: It's the main focus of communicative language teaching. It refers to speaker's linguistic knowledge of grammar, sounds and the social skills use language properly (Ellis, 2011).

Communicative language teaching (CLT): Celce-Murcia (2001) states with CLT reading, speaking, listening and writing skills should be emphasized in order for students to gain language proficiency.

English as second language (ESL): It means English learners learn English in English speaking countries (Shawer, 2010).

Standard Chinese (SC): Called Guoyu in Taiwan and Huayu in Singapore. Standard Chinese refers to Mandarin Chinese, Standard Mandarin or simply Mandarin (Duanmu, 2007).

Foreign language anxiety (FLA): Generally refers to emotions such as apprehension and tension related to second language acquisition (Shao, 2013).

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

This literature review is divided into six sections. The first section focuses on Chinese immigrants' history in the US and the variety of Chinese dialects. In this section, several waves of Chinese immigration are highlighted. Different Chinese dialects are also mentioned. The second section addresses the distinctions between Chinese and English phonological systems, specifically Chinese and English phonemes are discussed. Also, differences between a tone language and an intonation language are explained. The third section discusses diversity among Chinese Americans. Section four introduces the concept of mother tongue influence on English language learning, the definition of mother tongue and how it influences Chinese learners' English learning process. The fifth section highlights students' anxiety and shyness associated with learning a second language. The last section introduces a method that integrates learners' mother tongue to facilitate English learning.

Chinese Immigrants' History in the US and Chinese Dialects

Beginning of the 19th century because of the Gold Rush, many Chinese came to the US to pursue greater economic opportunities. Four specific Chinese immigration waves have been identified. The first wave arrived in the US as the labor to build the railways and gold mining during the Gold Rush era. The life of these early families was not easy because of the rampant discrimination and racism they faced. For example, the Chinese Exclusion Act of 1882 prevented new Chinese laborers and their family members from immigrating to the country. This act decreased the Chinese population. Hooper and Batalova (2015) stated that records show that between 1850 and 1889 there were approximately 300,000 Chinese immigrants that entered the

US, and half of them returned to China. The Chinese immigrants who remained in the US had to deal with institutionalized racism, violence, and loss of property and livelihood.

The second wave started in 1920 and lasted for 20 years. At that time, the majority of Chinese immigrants were small business families. During most of the second period, only merchants were allowed to travel to the US. Throughout this period, Chinese Americans were segregated into ghettos, called Chinatowns. They were segregated in major cities and isolated in rural areas across the country. Chinese men were allowed to stay in the US without any relatives because of the Immigration Act of 1924 (Johnson-Reed Act). The law limited the number of immigrants allowed entry into the US through a quota system. The quota system provided immigration visas to 2% of the total number of people of each nationality (Office of the Historian, 2012). However, new immigrants from Asia were excluded. In 1930, the law was changed when the wives of Chinese businessmen already living in the US were able to immigrate to the country. Many Chinese immigrants tended to move and live together or were forced to live in ethnic enclaves. The places they lived became the predecessors of Chinatowns. From 1943–1964, the third wave of Chinese immigrants arrived. This period represented was proceeded by a new immigration policy allowed more families to reunite. Meanwhile, Chinese men received permission to go back to China and marry, returning to the US with their new wives. The fourth wave (1965–1977) was comprised of family workers and students. Before the US established diplomatic relations with the People's Republic of China in 1978, visas went to Taiwanese citizens. As a result, Taiwanese students came and settled after graduation. Beginning

in the 1980s, an increasing number of students, professionals, and undocumented aliens

immigrated to the US (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2008).

Lien (2008) stated at the beginning of the 21st century the population of Chinese

immigrants was approximately 2.9 million in the US. Among Asian immigrants, almost a quarter

of the population are individuals of Chinese descent which includes about 44,695 Chinese of

mixed-race descent. Seven in ten Chinese in the US were foreign-born in 2000, and it is

interesting to note that after 1965 there was a sudden increase in the Chinese population. This

trend has continued for several decades (Lien, 2008). The main factors for the sudden increase in

1965 was the restructuring and transformation of the Pacific Rim economies after the Second

World War, the fall of Saigon and the exodus of ethnic Chinese from Vietnam, anxiety over the

future of Taiwan after normalization of US-China relations in 1979, and anxiety over the future

of Hong Kong after it was surrendered by the British government in 1997 (Lien, 2008).

Most Chinese immigrants have settled in states like California, New York, Hawaii, Texas,

New Jersey, Illinois, Washington, Florida, Virginia, and Massachusetts. Hooper and Batalova

(2015) state that the most popular state is California (31%) and second is New York (21%). In

addition, "The top four counties with Chinese immigrants in 2013 were Los Angeles County in

California, Queens County in New York, Kings County in New York, and San Francisco County

in California" (p. 4). In particular, the Asian population in California has increased rapidly. In

fact, San Francisco is one of the most diverse cities in the country and has the highest Chinese

population in the country (21.4% of the citywide population is Chinese) (Hooper & Batalova,

2015). Indeed, even the current mayor, Ed Lee, is of Chinese descent. His parents immigrated to

the US from Toishan, Guangdong Province in the 1930s. In addition to the history of

immigration of people from China, it is important to consider the variety of Chinese dialects.

Chinese can be classified into several dialect groups. Each group contains many dialects.

Yuan (1989) noted that Chinese can be distinguished as seven dialect groups. The largest group

is the Northern group which is known as Mandarin group, almost 75% of Chinese people speak

it. The next largest dialect group is Wu, encompassing 8% of speakers of Chinese. This dialect

group is primarily located in the area around Yangtze River Delta. The Yue dialect, which is

widely known as Cantonese, is used in the provinces of Guangzhou and Guangxi and in Hong

Kong. It can often be heard in many traditional Chinatowns in the US. The Min dialect is

primarily spoken in the Fujian Province, a province close to Guangdong, and Taiwan. The Hakka

dialect is centered near the borders of Guangdong, Fujian, and Jiangxi, as well as pockets in

other parts of China and South East Asia. The Xiang dialect is spoken in Hunan Province and the

Gan dialect is spoken in Jiangxi Province (Duanmu, 2007).

Duanmu (2007) wrote Standard Chinese (SC) or Mandarin is referred to as Guoyu and

has an alphabetical writing system referred to as Guoyu Luomazi, which is translated as National

Language Romanization. Pronunciation is based on an alphabetical writing system based on

Putonghua (common speech) and Hanyu Pinyin (Chinese spelling system) respectively

(Duanmu, 2007). Therefore, in this project, SC is used to refer to Guoyu or Putonghua.

According to Duanmu, use of SC is considered a practical tool by many Chinese instead

of a symbol of status. In other words, many people learn SC in order to communicate with

speakers of other dialects, and there is minimal focus on accent. In addition, many speakers in

the Northern dialect group think there is no need to change their pronunciation since SC is based

on their dialect and closer to their dialect compared with other dialect groups (Duanmu, 2007).

This is a significant factor for why many SC speakers place less emphasis on pronunciation.

Finally, it is widely known that China is expanding as a global power; therefore, cross-cultural

communication is a very important issue to be explored.

Distinctions between Chinese and English Phonological Systems

Phonetics refers to the study of speech sounds (Fromkin, Rodman, & Hyams, 2010). In

1888, a phonetic alphabet was developed by members of International Phonetic Association

(IPA) the alphabet was revised to be uniform across languages, thus providing the base for all

future revisions. According to the alphabet, English contains 24 consonants sounds conveyed by

21 letters /p/ / t/ / k/ /f/ /θ/ /s/ /b/ /d/ /g/ /v/ /ð/   /z/ /ʃ/ / h/ /tʃ/ /ʒ/ / r/   /dz/   /dʒ/ /dr/   /m/ /n/   /ŋ/ /

j/ / w/   / l/   and 15 vowels conveyed by 6 letters   /ɑː/ /ɔː/ / ɜː/ /iː/ /Uː/   / ʌ/ /ɒ/ /ə/ /ɪ/ /ʊ/ /e/ /æ/

/aɪ/ /ɔɪ/ /aʊ/ (Fromkin et al., 2010).

According to Fromkin et al. (2010), consonants are classified as bilabials, labiodentals,

interdentals, alveolars, palatals, velar and glottals according to the place of articulation which

refers to where in the vocal tract the airflow restriction occurs. Consonants can also be

distinguished as stop, nasal, fricative, affricate glide and liquid by the manner of articulation,

which refers to how the airstream could be blocked or partially blocked; the vocal cords may

vibrate or not vibrate. Phonetician also categorize sounds as voiced or voiceless, when the vocal

cords are apart so that air flows freely through the glottis into the oral cavity. The sounds are

voiceless; otherwise, the sounds are voiced.

Table 1

Phonetic Symbols for American English Consonants

Place of articulation / Manner of articulation	Bilabal	Labio-dental	Inter-dental	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Stop-oral Voiceless/ed	p b			t d		k g	
Stop-nasal	m			n		ŋ	
Fricative Voiceless/ed		f v	ð θ	s z	ʃ ʒ		h
Affricate Voiceless/ed					tʃ dʒ		
Glide Voiceless/ed					j	ʌ w	
Liquid Voiceless/ed				l r			

Fromkin et al. suggested that vowels can be different according to whether the lips are rounded or spread. The vowel /ʊ/ /ɑ:/ /ɔ:/ /ɒ/ are the only rounded vowels in English. The remaining vowels can be defined as unrounded vowels. When two vowel sounds combine, a diphthong comes out. Vowels can also be classified by the features:

- Tense: /ɑ:/ /ɔ:/ /i:/ /U:/ /aɪ/ /e/ /aʊ/; and

- Lax: /ɪ/ / /ʌ/ /ɒ/ /ə/ /ʊ/ /æ/ /eɪ/ /ɔɪ/ / ɜ:/.

In contrast, Duanmu (2007) stated Standard Chinese (SC) contains 3 glides [j, w, ɥ], 19 consonants [p, ph, f, m, t, th, ts, tsh, s, n, l, ʈʂ, ʈʂh, ʂ, ʐ, k, kh, x, ŋ], 3 palatals [tɕ, tɕh, ɕ] and some syllabic consonants are also included, [m], [n], and [ŋ] are the three syllabic nasals. Consonants and glide can also be combined in a consonant-glide (CG) pair. Many researchers have considered CG two sounds. However, Duanmu disagrees with this because phonetically CG is a single sound in SC, [z] and [ʐ] are the only two syllabic consonants in SC,

Standard Chinese (SC) contains five vowel phonemes, classified as high [i, y, u], mid [ə], low [a]. In SC, one of four tones are carried by vowel can distinguish different words. Some examples provided by Duanmu as follows:

- Tone 1: [ma1] 'mother' [ɕi1] 'west'

- Tone 2: [ma2] 'hemp' [ɕi2] 'mat'

- Tone 3: [ma3] 'horse' [ɕi3] 'wash'

- Tone 4: [ma4] 'scold' [ɕi4] 'thin'.

Besides the five vowels [i, u, y, ə, a], SC also has a vowel which is always transcribed as [r] or retroflex vowel. Same as English, SC also has the theory of diphthong. But there are only 4 diphthongs in SC, high vowels [i] or [u] combine with the low or the mid vowels [ə, a] comes out [əi, əu, ai, au] (Duanmu, 2007). In conclusion, SC has 3 glides, 19 consonants, 29 consonants-glides combination, 2 syllabic consonants and 6 vowels, including a retroflex vowel compare with English which includes 24 consonant and 15 vowels sounds. Many difference can be found in two languages' phonemes.

Differences between Tone and Intonation Language

Zhang and Yin (2009) theorized, "The most distinctive difference between Mandarin and English phonetically is that Mandarin is a tone language and English is an intonation language" (p. 144). In SC, four different tones are used to contrast word meaning. The four tone can be categorized as: (1) high level (-), (2) high rising (/), (3) low rising (\/) and (4), and low dipping (\). Words in SC, which differ only in tone, can convey various meanings. For instance, -ma (mother); /ma (hemp); \/ma (horse); \ma (scold). Chinese distinguishes meaning by using tones and in this way. Phoneticians define SC as a tone language. On the other hand, tones are not used to change the meaning of English phonemes. Changes in pitch in English are used in order to express feeling or emphasize something instead of distinguishing word meaning. In order to express different meanings, particular intonation patterns are required for English utterance. Therefore, phoneticians consider English an intonation language. These fundamental differences, along with phonemical differences, are significant reasons why many Chinese L2 learners cannot pronounce English sounds appropriately. According to Zhang and Yin, "Chinese students will use the mono-syllabic sounds with the tone closet the one he hears to code the pronunciation of new words" (p. 145). The consequence of this is learners may have a substantial accent while reading and speaking English.

Another distinction that should be mentioned are differences in juncture. Juncture results in different pronunciation. Zhang and Yin (2009) mentioned that Chinese contains breaks in the continuous flow of speech (staccato). In contrast, with English, there are no breaks in the flow of

speech (legato). Therefore, hearing spoken Chinese is very much different compared to spoken English.

Diversity among Chinese Americans

Chinese immigrants in the US have different origins as well as diverse histories. Lien (2008) stated most Chinese immigrated from mainland China, Taiwan, Hong Kong and elsewhere in Asia. However, Lien found the pan-ethnic label, *Chinese American*, was accepted more by individuals than place-specific ones. Likewise, Chinese Americans who grew up in different parts of the US and/or at different eras may, in fact experience being Chinese American in dissimilar ways (Wong & Hall-Lew, 2014).

Even when immigrants are from China and share the same first language, there is still linguistic variability including their phonological patterns and indexical meanings. Consider New York and San Francisco as examples. Wong and Hall-Lew (2014) conducted an investigation of English used among Chinese Americans, in particular the bought vowel (in words like taught and sauce). According to the researchers, this has been done before among non-Chinese Americans in San Francisco and New York City. Wong and Hall-Lew revealed the bought vowel (in words like taught and sauce) in New York City is traditionally distinct from bot and is also more raised than in other U.S. dialects. Labov (1966) argued that raised bought began in New York City as an ethnically stratified feature that demonstrated speakers' identification originally with New Yorkers of (Eastern European) Jewish descent. Wong and Hall-Lew also explained before 1965 many Chinese New Yorkers who lived in ethnic enclaves were generally ignored or discriminated against. Other Chinese New Yorkers often

found themselves living as members of an ethnic minority in majority white (often Jewish,

Italians, Irish and Polish) neighborhoods. As a consequence, a stereotypical New York persona

was often someone who was Jewish, Irish or Italian and seldom Chinese.

To compare with New York City, with English spoken in the western US

the bought vowel nucleus appears to be merging (or has already merged) with bot, at least

in F1/F2 space (Wong & Hall-Lew, 2014). San Francisco, however, appears to lag behind the rest

of the region, specifically the rest of California. While bought appears to be lowering and

fronting at a slower rate than what might be expected for an unimpeded change in progress

(Labov et al., 2006).

In addition to how regional differences influence language, different educational

backgrounds can also be an important fact that influences language learning. Lien (2008)

compared 19th century labor migration and post-1965 migration. Lien noted the majority of 19th

century migration involved males from Guangdong Province and almost all of them had limited

formal education. In contrast, many immigrants after 1965 arrived as college-educated students,

often pursuing advanced graduate studies at U.S. institutions. Others arrived as professionals and

skilled workers. These immigrants have not only brought their labor skills and capital but also

cultural practices as well as lingering political tensions, and these close transnational ties will

inevitably affect the ethnic identity and political behavior of their next generations (Lien, 2008).

Mother Tongue Influence on English Language Learning

When we discuss mother tongues, we need to know what mother tongue really is. Al Asmari (2014) stated a mother tongue is a system of meaningful signs. When people want to express and understand something, they are able to access information automatically. From the perspective of sociology, mother tongue means an identification and can define which community a person belongs to. From the perspective of education, through a mother tongue, learners can learn more efficiently and effectively compared to unfamiliar linguistic mediums.

Most people learn their mother tongue when they are a child. So what is the role of a mother tongue for children? Children acquire their mother tongue at home and school as well as in social situations outside the home (Yazici & Glover, 2010). Initially, their parents and close relatives help them learn their mother tongue and, in time, others. According to Meece (1997), "Whatever language they speak, children learn languages at similar rates and follow similar paths and periods of development" (p. 27). From the mother tongue children learn much about cultural, social, and family values. Therefore, their mother tongue is used as a tool for expressing their feelings when they need to communicate with others. In other words, "Language mediates the learning of social rules and cultural values" (Piyade 1990, p. 11). A mother tongue also helps shape children's daily lives and behaviors.

What influence might a mother tongue have on English language learning? Luo (2014) found that some Chinese students have difficulty distinguishing the English pronunciation between the alveolar nasal sound [n] and the alveolar liquid lateral sound [l]. For instance, they will mispronounce "knife" and "life" as well as "need" and "lead." Akinwamide and Tergujeff

(2012) explain these phenomena are referred to as mother tongue interference, which frequently happens in second language teaching and learning. What causes such phenomena?

From the perspective of phonology, Chinese tend to use tone to distinguish meanings, and it uses the pitch (highness or lowness) of a phoneme sound to distinguish word meaning. Unlike Chinese, English is an intonation language and intonation is meaningful (Luo, 2014). Furthermore, changes in pitch in English are used in order to express feeling or emphasize something instead of distinguishing word meaning. While learning English, Chinese learners will confront many differences not only in the number of phonemes but also the disparate sound combinations between English and Chinese.

The phonetic difference not only happened between English and Chinese, but within Chinese. There are eight dialects which are used mainly in eight different regions (Luo, 2014). Mandarin, as the standard, is based on Northern regions. Every region has some sub-dialects. According to Luo, "Sometimes, their utterance sounds quite ridiculous or funny to those from the other dialect regions" (p. 1703). Almost all universities and colleges in China have students whose hometown is outside the province where the university is located. They speak their own dialect which is different from each other, and it will inevitably cause some trouble while they are learning English, especially pronunciation.

The interference of Chinese in English language learning happens because learners use what they already know to organize the second language phone (Luo, 2014). In other words, Chinese English learners will have difficulty learning English sounds because of the similar Chinese sounds they already know (Zhang & Yin, 2009). Furthermore, Zhang and Yin (2009)

stated that some English sounds may exist in Chinese, but the manner of articulation are not the same. Erroneous substitution frequently happen. For instance, Chinese learners may not be able to pronounce words like 'English' and 'rose' correctly because the English sounds /r/ and /ʃ/ are different from the Chinese /r/ and /sh/. Chinese has some sounds also found in English but not as separate phonemes. For instance, the sound /i/ both exist in Chinese and English (Zhang & Yin, 2009). The difference is that the short /i/ and long /i:/ in Chinese does not make any difference in meaning. However, in English, these differences are significant, as in the word "sheep" and "ship." Zhang and Yin (2009) noted, "The result is that Chinese learners are not naturally aware of the difference in English and Chinese and may not even hear that difference" (p. 2). The English sounds which do not exist in Chinese include both vowels and consonants, such as the vowels /æ /and /aʊ/, and consonants /ð/, /ɵ/. These sounds can lead English learners to find the similar sounds in their mother tongue and replace the sounds they are unfamiliar with (Zhang & Yin, 2009). Some typical examples will be the replacement for the English /ð/ with /z/ or /s/ and English /æ/ with /ai/.

Hack (2012) also illuminated the interference of L1 on L2 pronunciation. He has another explanation of this phenomenon. By comparing Standard Chinese (SC) phonology with English phonology, we can identify some potential sites of transfer between the two languages. Hack states that SC adult learners of English are often found to substitute consonants. To illustrate, they will use [s] to replace / θ /, [w] to /v/ as well as [z] to /s/. Moreover, "In terms of word structure, Chinese speakers also tend to show deletion of final consonants and reduction of syllable-initial clusters in their English and usually ending with a vowel" (Hack, 2012, p. 511).

For example, learners will mispronounce words 'book' and 'bed' as /bukə/ and /bedə/. What is more, SC speakers may mispronounce some phonemes which are close to English, namely the post-alveolar sounds / ʃ / (fricative) and /t ʃ / (affricate) and alveopalatals sounds ([ɕ], [t ɕ]). With these potential areas of language transfer there are both overlap and differences.

ESL Learners Foreign Language Anxiety and Shyness

Many researchers have not given much attention to the influence of emotions in second language learning. However, emotions might be the most important factor that influences language learning. For example, Shao (2013) stated anxiety and stress can inhibit learner's language learning process by reducing their learning capacity. Positive emotions like joy can facilitate the learning process.

Foreign language anxiety (FLA) generally refers to the emotions such as apprehension and tension related to second language acquisition context. The difference between FLA and the anxiety experienced in other fields is the cultural and linguistic requirements imposed on learners. As a matter of fact, Krashen's affective filter hypothesis (1980) has recognized the influence of anxiety in language learning. Krashen believed language learners become less able to process language input and will not progress in their language learning while their affective filter is raised because of their high anxiety.

Foreign language anxiety can impact the learning process but also may lead to shyness. Keller (2013) defined shyness as a form of social withdrawal which leads to little interaction with others and more individual activities. Also, "Shyness has two features: linguistically restrained behavior and limited participation in conversation" (p. 328). Even though language

learners may be aware of the need for communication in a target language, FLA can potentially inhibit their motivation because "Differences in the social approach of ohmmeters may then start a bidirectional feedback loop that in turn affects the communicative context of shy and non-shy learners" (p. 329). For instance, instructors may give more opportunity and ask more questions to non-shy learners and to some extent ignore shy learners. This may reinforce shy learners' anxiety. Keller theorizes shy learners may feel more anxious and try to avoid talking when they do not have the ability to communicate at a high level. Nevertheless, if learners are supporting in overcoming this obstacle, they will develop the confidence and become more willing to participate in these situations.

Chang-Chang (2014) theorized there are a variety of reasons which may cause FLA like a fear of making mistake, inadequate practice and confidence as well as low English proficiency level. While speaking in front of a class, many of L2 learners appear weak and unsatisfied and suffering from FLA. English instructors should not hesitate to help enhance learners' awareness of their anxiety. For instructors, being aware of the existence of FLA among learners demonstrates empathy (Chang-Chang, 2014). To achieve this, instructors can build a relaxed atmosphere while learners are practicing oral communication "Because the mood dimension of trait anxiety is an influential factor on speaking anxiety" (p.46). By doing so, students will be able to reduce FLA. Designing some classroom activities such as role- playing and conversation partners could also be useful ways to reduce learners' anxiety. Chang-Chang (2014) also reminded English instructors developing different strategies for different English proficiency levels is necessary to help learners address FLA.

Methods Used to Benefit Learning

Whether to use mother tongue in the ESL classroom has led to long-time debate. Some linguists believe that teachers will overuse the mother tongue or use it inappropriately. Most researchers now argue in favor of a more tolerant approach towards mother tongue (Eastman, 1995). Nowadays, English-only practices are the most popular methods. This teaching style assumes that while learning English should be the only language used in the classroom (Spartacus & Luis, 2014). However, whether educators like it or not, mother tongues are still the most used languages in classroom and account for a large proportion of the language use, especially at public school. Most of the time, this phenomena, leads to the overuse of mother tongues. So should mother tongues be prohibited in the language classroom?

First of all, some researcher have find that in ESL classroom, the prohibition of mother tongues for learners who are monolingual and have low-level English proficiency is practically impossible (Spartacus & Luis, 2014). Spartacus and Luis (2014) also stated that mother tongues can be used as a communication strategy to compensate for the drawbacks of the target language. In addition, the use of mother tongues can link students' learning to their life experiences. Their life experiences can be considered as the starting points for comprehension and can connect what they have experienced to learning English. What is more, the use of L1 can improve "students' affect's filters and the EFL learning environment" (p. 4). In other words, using first languages can create a nurturing environment for learners and reduce their anxiety.

In Spartacus and Luis's article, they offer an example for the selective use of mother tongues to enhance students' English learning processes. This example can be divided into four

actions. First of all, teacher should inform students there will be an increasing use of English in the classroom. Second of all, teachers should modify their speech to demonstrate a clear tone of voice and pronunciation. Materials used in class should also be modified to match students' English level. Third of all, students will be encouraged to resort to their first language but under established parameters: Students can use their L1 to express themselves when it is difficult to find the words in their L2. Fourth of all, L1 should be used to promote students' collaborative work, allowing students to give and receive feedback from their peer. This can help to increase confidence and lower anxiety.

Summary

English is one of the most widely used languages in the world. As an unofficial lingua franca, it serves a key role in cross-cultural communication. Chinese immigrants in the US will certainly encounter many difficulties in acquiring L2 proficiency. Some of these challenges are tied to 1) Chinese immigrants' history in the US and the variety of Chinese dialects; 2) distinctions between Chinese and English phonological systems; 3) diversity among Chinese Americans; 3) mother tongue influence on English language learning; and 4) foreign language anxiety.

ESL instructors working with adult Chinese learners of English should be consciously aware of the unique challenges faced by this population. As a result, they should consider using students' L1 in the ESL classroom. This can facilitate development of confidence in acquiring and using their L2 as well as lower anxiety.

CHAPTER III
THE PROJECT AND ITS DEVELOPMENT

Description of the Project

This project is divided into three parts. It was designed as a handbook to be used by ESL instructors working with Chinese adult immigrants. The first part includes an introduction and overview of the target audience, classroom setting, goals and objectives. The second part mainly focuses on outlining several teaching strategies and techniques. Cooperate with the second part, the third part is some examples of teaching units and its answer keys.

Development of the Project

This field project was designed as a resource for ESL teachers of new Chinese immigrants in the US who have low English proficiency level. English is now is a required class for all Chinese students. However, many new Chinese immigrants in the US still are not be able to speak English fluently and some even speak little to no English. One reason for this is that many of the new Chinese immigrants are older generation and many have not had significant opportunities to obtain enough exposure to the English language when they were students. Another reason is that their mother tongue interferes with their English language learning.

I first became aware of the concept of mother tongue interference when I arrived in the US. Some of my relatives, who had immigrated to the US, complained to me about the difficulty of English speaking. I personally experienced the same difficulty in my efforts to communication in the language. So, I decided to create a handbook to help new Chinese immigrants improve their English speaking.

The first stages of the development of the project was conducting a literature review. In this stage, I learned many things about the topic such as background information about Chinese immigrants in the US, the phonological differences between Chinese and English, the definition and impact of mother tongue interference, and English learners' foreign language anxiety and shyness. What I learned during this time helped me to plan, prepare, and design the project.

The second stage of development is doing some classroom observations. I observed some ESL and EFL classes for Chinese students in the US and China in order to identify what kinds of teaching strategies are currently being used. After the observations, I began to research other teaching strategies, using resources from the USF SOE Curriculum Resource Center. The final stage of development was writing the project.

The Project

The project is include in the Appendix.

CHAPTER IV
CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Conclusions

The population of Chinese immigrants in the US is growing. For new Chinese

immigrants, learning English is one of the first things they should do in order to integrate into

U.S. society. However, learning a new language can be very difficult, especially if the new

language is significantly different than their former one. What is more, Chinese immigrants'

mother tongue can also interfere with their English language learning process. For example,

Chinese immigrants may not be able to pronounce English words appropriately, and speaking

fluency is also a big problem for them. The purpose of designing this project is to find out how

can Chinese immigrants' mother tongue interfere their English speaking, find some techniques

and strategies to improve their English speaking. This field project explain how mother Chinese

immigrants' tongue interfere their English speaking. In the project, some techniques and

strategies are introduced, some example of teaching units are also included for ESL instructor to

use. Doing this project takes me a lot time, but I have learned many things from it. Even this is

the end of this project, I would rather consider this the beginning of my research, the real life

situation is more complicated, to really help Chinese immigrants in the US, what this project

include is not enough.

Recommendations

This field project was designed to meet the needs of the new Chinese immigrants in the

US who have low English proficiency level. Before using this handbook, I suggest that teachers

should first consider their students backgrounds. Having some basic knowledge about phonology

and their students' dialects, it can help predict where the difficulties may be. The teaching units

are mainly task-based. Therefore, I suggest ESL teachers use them selectively. There is no need

to adopt the entire unit in one lesson. I also suggest giving students feedback after each lesson.

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APPENDIX

Teaching New Chinese Immigrants English: A Handbook for Teachers

2016

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Teach New Chinese immigrants English

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A Handbook for Teachers

Chaowei Hu
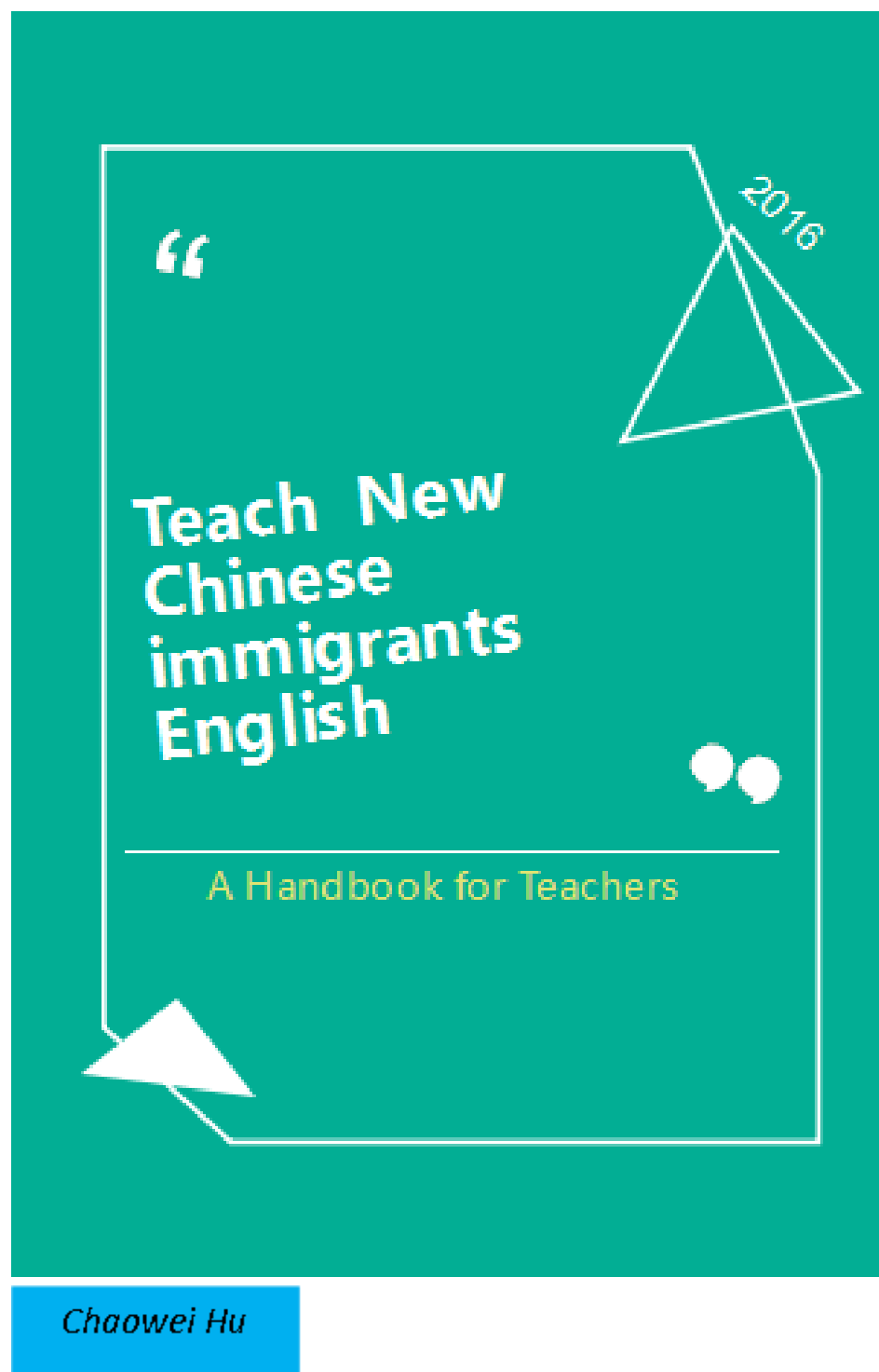
Table of Content

Introduction:

A Letter to the Teacher

Thank you for choosing this handbook!

As we all know, English is one of the most popular languages among the world and plays a key role in cross-cultural communication. While learning English, Chinese immigrants in the USA will definitely confront a lot of difficulties since Chinese and English belong to two different language systems. Chinese immigrants' mother tongue do interfere their English learning, and Chinese immigrants' situation is complicated, while talking about mother tongue's influence to their English learning, not only their origin but also their living place in the US should be taken into consideration.

To reduce Chinese English learner's mother tongue interference, English teachers should First have some knowledge of phonology. According to contrastive analysis hypothesis (CAH), knowing the phonologic difference between Chinese and English. Teacher can not only predict the errors students may have, but also can use their knowledge of the languages to understand some sources of errors when they appear. The phonologic difference not only happened between English and Chinese, but inside Chinese, Chinese can be classified as eight dialect groups and each group contains many dialects language. So English teachers should also acquire some basic knowledge about Chinese dialects. Knowing their students background such as which part of China they came from and which dialect they use is also important for teaching. The most essential English skill for new Chinese immigrants in the USA is speaking because they need to communicate with native speakers. Teachers should focus on Chinese students' pronunciation

correction to facilitate their speaking and make their oral English understandable by native speakers. This handbook aims to assist teachers in teaching English speaking to Chinese learners. Some helpful techniques are introduced in this handbook and several teaching units are also included.

Thanks,

Chaowei Hu

Target Students and Classroom Setting

The handbook is designed for ESL teachers who teach new Chinese immigrants in the USA. The students' English proficiency level are beginners. If you decide to adopt the suggested teaching units, you will need the following:

Framework and Rational

"Tasks are meaningful, and in doing them, students need to communicate. Tasks have a clear outcome so that teacher and students know whether or not the communication has been successful" (Larsenfreeman & Anderson, 2011, p. 149). By doing the tasks, students can open their mouth to speak and can develop their four English skills gradually.

Goals and Objectives:

The goals and objectives of this handbook are as follows:

- To teach Chinese immigrant English speaking.

- To empower student so they have to agency to deal with their daily problem.

- To reduce students' Foreign Language anxiety, and them more confident.

- To correct students' English pronunciation and improve their fluency.

Section 1:

Teaching strategies and techniques

Audio-lingual method:

Audio-lingual method which are also known as "Michigan Method" belongs to oral-based approach. The goal of using Audio-lingual method is to help students overcome their native language habits and form target language habits. To achieve this, students should be put into the class where English is overlearned. In this condition, they can learn to use English automatically.

In Audio-Lingual method, Teacher plays like a director, provide students with a good model for imitation, give them direction and control their behavior. Teacher also aware where student may have difficulty in his/ her teaching content. Student imitate teacher's model, response to teacher's directions. Student errors should be avoided.

Role Play:

English Classes usually don't giving students the enough opportunity to practice. This makes classroom a controversial situation because practicing English speaking in the social content is important. Role Play can bring class social content and put students in the real life situation. Role Play can empower students and give them agency to solve problems in their daily

life themselves. To do the role play, teacher should teach vocabulary, phrase and sentence pattern in advance. Before doing the role play, give student clear directions. After the activity, teacher can give students feedbacks.

Songs:

Using songs to teach speaking can also be effective. By listening to the music, students learning anxiety can be reduced their learning anxiety and their listening ability can be promoted. By following rhythm and lyric of the song, student can practice not only the pronunciation of the English words but also intonation patterns and stress. For the target audience in this handbook, the chosen songs is not difficult, what students should do in these activity is listening and trying to sing the songs. This can help them correct their English pronunciation and improve their speaking fluency.

Total Physical Response (TPR):

The TPR users believe the most important is to lower students Foreign Language Anxiety, make them enjoy using English to communicate, and can encourage them to persist in the English learning. There are two stages of using TPR. In the first stage, teacher play directors and control students' behavior, provide nonverbal model for student to imitate. After several time training, students will be ready to speak. And the TPR move to stage two, the role of students will be reversed, they direct teachers or other student to do some physical response.

An example of TPR practice is provided as follows

For example, in this activity, students know the word "hat" and "is". Teacher shows the picture and points to the red hat and says "This hat is big." and point to the yellow one says "This hat is small." After the hat, teacher shows the pictures balls, point to the big one says "this ball is big" and then point to the small one says "this ball is small." After the balls show the fish picture and do the same things as balls and hats.

After showing the three picture then show the following pictures and ask student "Which apple is big?" Ask students to point the big apple, then ask student "Which apple is small?" and ask them to point out the small apple. After the apples, ask the same question for oranges.

Section 2:

Teaching Units and Answers

Unit one : Good Morning

Section A:

Language Goals (语言目标): Letters A-H; Greet people（字母 A-H，问候他人）

1a: Listen and repeat（听一听，读一读）
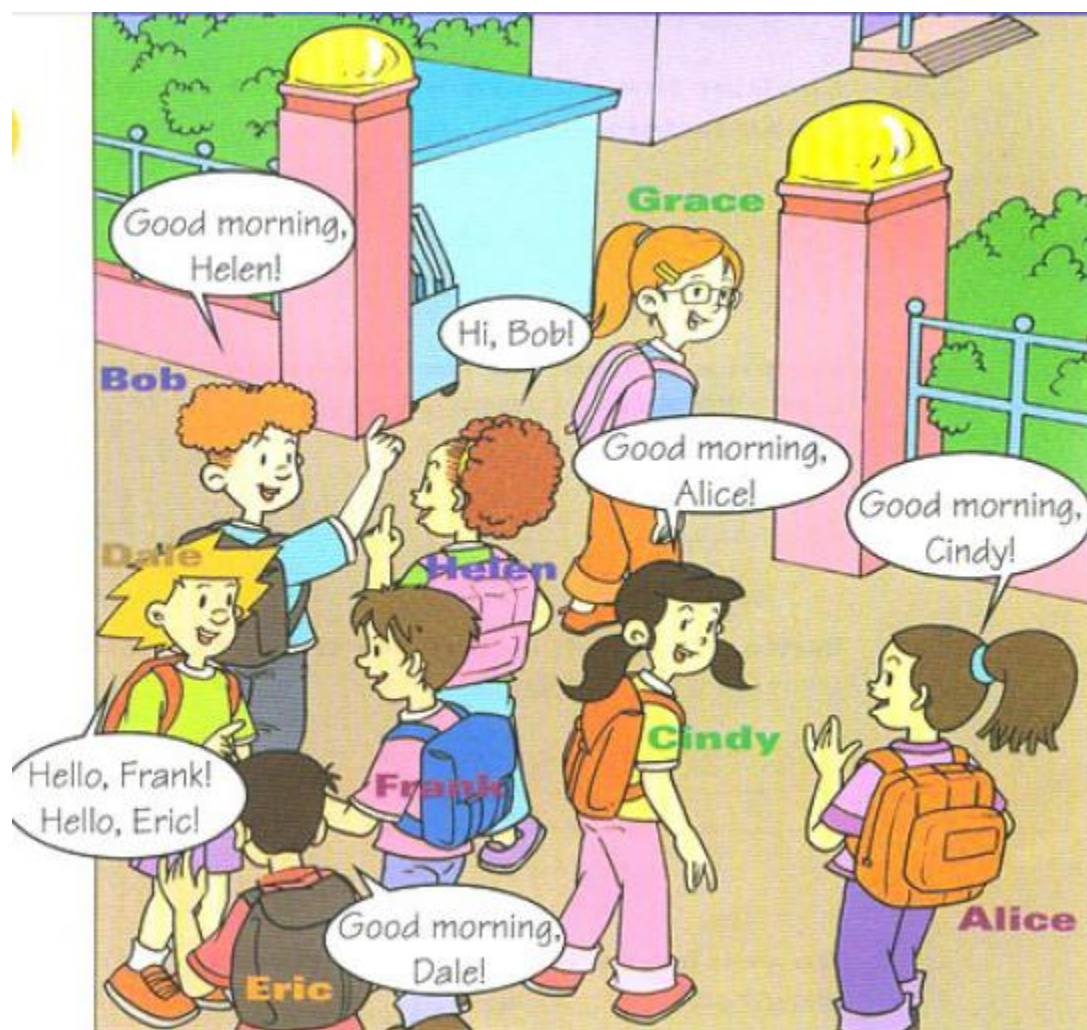
1b: Pairwork (结对活动)

Practice the conversations in the picture

(练习上图对话，问候你的同伴)

2a: Listen and repeat（听一听，读一读）

| A *a* | B *b* | C *c* | D *d* | E *e* | F *f* | G *g* | H *h* |

2b: Look at the table in 2a, Find the Capital letter and Small letter for each letter.

(在活动 2a 中找到各个字母的大小写形式)

A___   *b*___   C___   D___   *e*___   *f*___   G___   H___

2c: Listen and number the letters you hear [1-8].

(按听到的顺序给下面字母编号)

_ _ *h*   _ _ *a*   _ _ *e*   _ _ *g*   _ _ *d*   _ _ *b*   _ _ *c*   _ _ *f*

3 Do you know what these letters mean?

T V   **C D**   **C N N**

4a: Listen to the conversations and circle the names you hear.

(听对话，圈出你听到的名字)

Helen   Messi   Peter   Robert   Cindy   Frank   Neymar   Kate

4b: Listen again. Number the picture [1-3].

再听一遍，给下图编号[1-3]

4c Pairwork 结对活动

Practice the conversations in 4b with your partner.

(两人一组练习活动 4b 中的对话).

Section B

1a: Listen to the conversation. Try to practice with your partner.

(听对话，尝试和你的同伴联系此对话)

2a: Choose an English name for yourself. Write your name on a card

(给自己选个英文名字，把你的名字写在卡上)

Paul   John   Rose   Sarah   Susan   Lisa   Mark   Ted   Tom   King   Tina   Katie

2b: Groupwork 小组活动

Group with 3 other people. Use your English names and greet each other.

3 Listen and repeat. (听一听，读一读)

A	A Dale Grace	Frank thanks
E	B C D E G evening	F Helen

4 Listen and repeat. (听一听，念一念)

Good Morning!	Good afternoon!	Good evening!
Good Morning!	Good afternoon!	Good evening!
How are you?	How are you?	How are you?
I'm fine, thanks.	I'm fine, thanks.	I'm fine, thanks.
How are you?	How are you?	How are you?
I'm OK	I'm OK	I'm OK

5. Read the letters and words in Column A. Then try to read the new words in Column B. (朗读

A 栏的字母和单词，试试朗读 B 栏的生词)

A	B
A A Dale Grace Frank thanks	age hand
E B C D E G evening F Helen	he bed

5. Listen and Sing the Song(听一听，唱一唱)

GOOD MORNING SONG

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=bcCAZOO9OBk

TPR practice for Unit One

Listen to teachers and answer the question (听老师的话，回答他的问题)
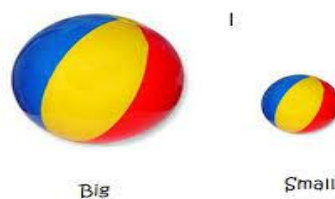
Words and meanings in Unit One

good 好的，令人满意的	CNN（=cable news network）美国有线电视新闻网	
Morning　　早上	Good morning!　早上好	afternoon　　　下午
Good afternoon　下午好	evening　　　晚上	Good evening　晚上好
how 怎么，怎样，如何	are　　　　是	you　　　　你
How are you? 你好吗？	Hi　　（表示问候）嗨	Hello　（表示问候）喂
CD（＝compact disc）光盘	TV（=television）电视	I　　我
Am　是	I'm = I am	Fine 好的
Thank　谢谢	OK　　好的，不错	Name　名字
List　　名单，列表	Alice 爱丽丝（女名）	Bob 鲍勃（男名）
Cindy 辛迪（女名）	Dale　戴尔（男名）	Eric 埃里克（男名）
Frank 弗兰克（男名）	Peter　彼得（男名）	Messie 梅西（男名）
Neymar 内马尔（男名）	Helen　海伦（女名）	Robert 罗伯特（男名）

Unit 2 My name is Gina

Language Goals: Introduce yourself; Greet People; Give and ask for phone numbers.

(语言目标：介绍自己；问候他人；询问和给出电话号码)

Section A

1a：Listen and repeat (听一听，读一读)
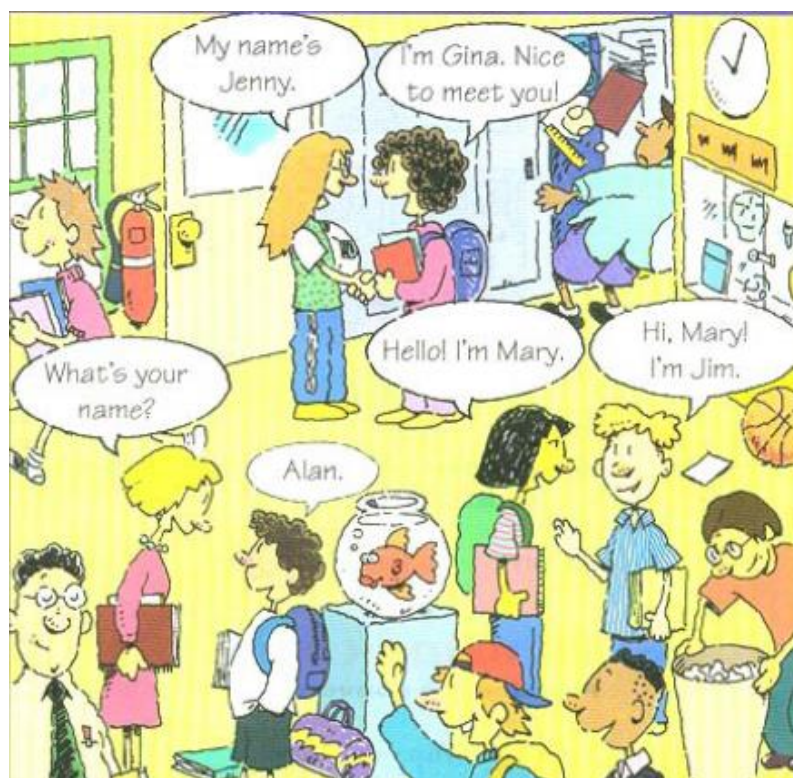
1b: Listen again and number the conversation [1-3].(听对话，给下列对话编号).

A: What's your name?	A:Hello! I'm Mary.
B: Alan.	B:Hi, Mary! I'm Jim `1`
A: My name is Jenny	
B: I'm Gina, Nice to meet you	

1c: PAIRWORK 结对活动

Practice the conversations above. Then greet other students in your class.

(练习上面对话，然后问候班上的其他同学)

2a: Listen and repeat(听一听，读一读)

| I*i* | J*j* | K*k* | L*l* | M*m* | N*n* | O*o* | P*p* | Q*q* | R*r* |

2b: Look at the table in 2a, Find the Capital letter and Small letter for each letter.

(在活动 2a 中找到各个字母的大小写形式)

I__   *k*__   L__   M__   *n*__   O__   *p*__   Q__   J__   *r*__

2c: Listen and number the letters you hear [1-10].

(按听到的顺序给下面字母编号)

_ _ *k*   _ _ *l*   _ _ *i*   _ _ *j*   _ _ *m*   _ _ *o*   _ _ *q*   _ _ *n*   _ _ *p*   _ _ *r*

2d: Listen and repeat.(听一听，读一读)

A	A J K Dale Grace	Frank thanks jacket map
E	B C D E G evening	F L M N Helen pen
I	I hi fine	quilt
O	O OK	orange

3a: Listen to the conversations and number the pictures [1-4].

听四段对话，给下列图片编号

3b: Listen again. Circle the names you hear.(再听一遍，圈出你听到的名字)

| Tony | Tom | Jenny | Bob | Mike | Jim |

3c: PAIRWORK 结对活动

Practice the conversations.（练习下面的对话）

A: Hello! What's your name?

B: My name is ...

A: I'm ...

B: Nice to meet you

A: What's his name?

B: His name is ...

A: And what's her name?

B: Her name is ...

4 Name Game (姓名游戏)

Practice introducing yourself and others. How many names can you remember? (练习介绍自己和他人，你能记住几个名字)

His name is Tony. I'm LINDA

His name is Tony, Her name is Linda. My name is Nick

His name is Tony. Her name is Linda. His name is Nick. My

My name is Tony

Section B

1a. Listen and repeat (听一听，读一读)

| 0 zero | 2 two | 4 four | 6 six | 8 eight |
| 1 one | 3 three | 5 five | 7 seven | 9 nine |

1b Listen and write the phone number (听对话，记下电话号码)

__ __ __ - __ __ __ __

It's 281-917

What's your phone number?

1c Groupwork 小组活动

Ask and tell your phone numbers. (互相询问电话号码)

2a Listen and match the names with telephone numbers.

(听对话，将名字与号码匹配)

1. Tom____c____   a. 929-31__ __

2. Linda_____   b. 398-61__ __

3. Bob_____   c. 278-79__ __

4. Mary_____   d. 555-80__ __

2b Listen again. Complete the phone numbers. (再听一遍，补全电话号码)

2c Ask three classmates for their phone numbers and fill in the address book.

(询问四位同学的电话号码，填写电话号码簿)

Names	Phone Numbers

3. Listen and Sing the Song(听一听，唱一唱)

WHAT'S YOU NAME SONG

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=BAFSTrSNJMg

TPR practice for Unit two

Listen to teachers and answer the question (听老师的话，回答他的问题)
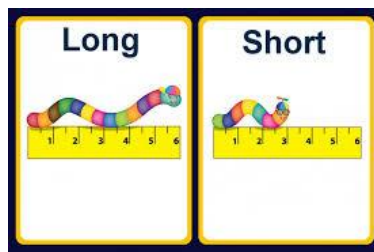
Words and meanings in Unit two

My 我的	Name 名字	Is 是
Name's= name is	I 我	Am 是
Nice 好的，令人愉快的	To 用于与动词原形构成动词不定式	Meet 遇见；相逢
You 你；你们	What 什么　What's = what is	your 你的，你们的
His 他的	And 和，又，而且	Her 她的
Boy 男孩	Girl 女孩	Zero 零
One 一	Two 二	Three 三
Four 四	Five 五	Six 六
Seven 七	Eight 八	Nine 九
Telephone 电话	Phone 电话	Number 号码
It 它	card 卡片	ID=identification(身份证)
Jenny 詹尼（女名）	Gina 吉娜（女名）	Alan 艾伦（男名）
Mary 玛丽（女名）	Jim 吉姆（男名）	Tony 托尼（男名）
Mark 马克（男名）	Bob 鲍勃（男名）	Linda 琳达（女名）

Unit 3 How much are these pants?

Language Goals: Ask about price; Talk about clothing; Thank someone

(语言目标：询问价格；谈论衣物；感谢他人)

Section A

1a. Match the words with the things in the picture (将单词与图中物品匹配)。

1. Sock _b_
2. T-shirt___
3. Shorts___
4. Sweater___
5. Bag___
6. Hat___
7. Pants___
8. Shoes___
9. Skirts___

1b. Listen and circle the things in the picture you hear.

(听对话，在图中圈出你听到的物品)

1c PAIRWORK 结对活动

Practice the conversation. Then make your own

A: How much is this T-shirt?
B: It's seven dollars.
A: How much are these socks?
B: They are two dollars.

conversations.(练习对话，然后编新对话)

2a: Listen and repeat. (听一听，读一读)

S *s*	T *t*	U *u*	V *v*	W *w*	X *x*	Y *y*	Z *z*

2b: Look at the table in 2a, Find the Capital letter and Small letter for each letter.

(在活动 2a 中找到各个字母的大小写形式)

S__   *u*__   V__   Z__   *w*__   Y__   *t*__   *x*__

2c: Listen and number the letters you hear [1-9].

(按听到的顺序给下面字母编号)

__*x*   __*t*   __*y*   __*w*   __*z*   __*v*   __*u*   __*s*

2d: Listen and repeat.(听一听，读一读)

A A J K Dale Grace	Frank thanks jacket map black
E B C D E G evening	F L M N Helen pen red yellow
I I hi fine white	quilt
O O OK	Long short
U Q U	Rule blue

TPR practice for Unit three

Listen to teachers and answer the question (听老师的话，回答他的问题)

C O L O R S

| Yellow | white | red | black | green | blue |

3a. Listen to the conversations and (circle) the things you hear

听对话，圈出你听到的物品。

3b. Listen again. Fill in the price tags. (再听一遍，并填写价格标签)

4a Fill in the blanks in the

conversation.(补全对话)

A: Can I help you?
B: Yes, please. I want a sweater.
A: What _____ do you want?
B: Blue.
A: Here it is.
B: _____ is it ?
A: Nine dollars.
B: OK, I'll take it. _____.
A: You're welcome.

4b Practice the conversation above. Then talk about these things.

(练习上面对话，然后谈谈下面的物品)

Section B

1a Listen and repeat. (听一听，读一读)

10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31

1b Write a number in 1a next to the correct word below.(把上面数字写在下面对应单词旁边)

Ten___   eleven___   twelve___   thirteen___   fourteen___   fifteen___

Sixteen___   seventeen___   eighteen___   nineteen___   twenty___

Twenty-one___   twenty-two___   twenty-three__   twenty-four___

twenty-five___   twenty-six___   twenty-seven___   twenty-eight___

twenty-nine___   thirty___   thirty-one___

2a Listen and circle the numbers in 1a that you hear.

(听录音，在 1a 中圈出听到的数字)

2b Pairwork　（结对活动）

Ask and answer questions about the clothes in the picture.

(就图中的衣物进行问答)

3a Read the advertisement and fill in the price tags.

(读广告并填写标签)

Big deal for Meihua clothes store ! Come and buy clothes at Meihua. For sweaters, the price is ONLY $25 each. If you want a bag, we have bags for ONLY $12 each . Do you like T-shirts? We also have T-shirts for boys, it is ONLY $18 each. Come and see yourself at Meihua!

3c: Match the words with the colors(将下列单词与颜色匹配)

1. Red   2. Yellow   3. Green   4. Blue   5. Black   6. white

4.Listen and Sing the Song(听一听，唱一唱)

ABC SONG   https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=OtiMJlLzbZk

Words and meanings in Unit three

How much(价钱)多少	pants 裤子	sock 短袜
shirt 男衬衣，衬衫	T-shirt T 恤	shorts 短裤
sweater 毛衣	shoe 鞋	skirt 裙子
sale 出售	dollar 美元	color 颜色
black 黑色的	white 白色的	red 红色的
green 绿色的	blue 蓝色的	yellow 黄色的

big 大的	small 小的	short 短的
long 长的	clerk 职员，办事员	help 帮助，援助
want 需要，想要	Here you are 给你	welcome 不必客气
You're welcome 不客气	example 例子，实例	ten 十
eleven 十一	twelve 十二	thirteen 十三
fourteen 十四	fifteen 十五	sixteen 十六
seventeen 十七	eighteen 十八	nineteen 十九
twenty 二十	thirty 三十	clothes 衣服，服装
store 商店	come 来，来到	buy 购买，买
Very 很，非常	Price 价格	Each 每个
Anybody 任何人	Afford 买得起，负担得起	Our 我们的
see 看见	yourself 你自己	sell 卖，销售
from 从，从...起	Have a look 看一看	On sale 廉价出售，出售

Answer key

Unit one

SECTION A:

1a: **Listening content**

Conversation1:   Bob: Good morning, Helen!   Helen: Hi, Bob!

Conversation2:

Cindy: Good morning. Alice!

Alice: Good morning. Cindy!

Conversation3:

Dale: Hello, Frank! Hello, Eric!

Frank/Eric: Good morning. Dale!

2a: **Listening contents**

 a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h

2b: **Answers**

A_*a*_   *b*_B_   C_*c*_   D_*d*_   *e*_E_   *f*_F_   G_*g*   H_*h*

2c:

Listening content   A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H

Answers   _8_h   _1_a   _5_e   _7_g   _4_d   _2_b   _3_c   _6_f

4a:

Listening content

Conversation1:   Helen: Good morning, Robert!   Robert: Good morning, Helen!

Conversation2:   Neymar: Good afternoon, Messi! Messi: Good afternoon, Neymar!

Conversation3:   Frank: Good evening, Peter!   Peter: Good evening, Frank!

Answers

Helen   Messi   Peter   Robert   Frank   Neymar

4b:

Answers: 1 2 3 (from top to bottom to right)

Section B

1a: **Listening content**

Cindy: Good afternoon, Dale!

Dale: Hi Cindy! How are you?

Cindy: I'm fine, thanks. How are you?

Dale: I'm OK

3 **Listening content**

A A Dale Grace	Frank thanks
E B C D E G evening	F Helen

4 **Listening content**

Good Morning!	Good afternoon!	Good evening!
Good Morning!	Good afternoon!	Good evening!
How are you?	How are you?	How are you?
I'm fine, thanks.	I'm fine, thanks.	I'm fine, thanks.
How are you?	How are you?	How are you?
I'm OK	I'm OK	I'm OK

Unit two

Section A

1a: **Listening content**

Conversation1:	Mary: Hello, I'm Mary.	Jim: Hi Mary! I'm Jim.
Conversation2:	Teacher: What's your name?	Alan: Alan.
Conversation3:	Jenny: My name's Jenny.	Gina: I'm Gina. Nice to meet you,

1b: **Answer key**   2 1 3 (From top to bottom)

2a: **Listening content**

  i   j   k   l   m   n   o   p   q   r

2b: **Answer key**

I *i*   k K   L *l*   M *m*   n N   O *o*   p P   Q *q*   J *j*   r R

2c: **Listening content:**   i j k l m n o p q r

Answer key:

 _3_k   _4_l   _1_i   _2_j   _5_m   _7_o   _9_q   _6_n   _8_p   _10_r

2d: **Listening content**

A A J K Dale Grace	Frank thanks jacket map
E B C D E G evening	F L M N Helen pen
I I hi fine	quilt
O O OK	orange

3a: **Listening content**

Conversation1

Tony: Hello, What's your name?   Jenny: My name is Jenny.

Tony: I'm Tony.   Jenny: Nice to meet you. Tony.

Conversation2

Bill: What's his name?   Maria: His name is Tony.

Bill: And what's her name?   Maria: Her name is Jenny

Conversation3

Bob: Execuse me, are you Mark?   Mark: Yes, I am.

Bob: I'm Bob, Nice to meet you.   Mark:Nice to meet you too.

Conversation4

Teacher: Good morning, boys and girls. My name's Linda. What's your name.

Jim: My name's Jim.

Teacher: And what's your name?   Mary: My name's Mary.

Answer key:

Picture1=conversation 2   Picture2=conversation1

Picture3=conversation 3   Picture4=conversation4

(from left to right)

3b: **Answer key**

Tony   Jenny   Bob   Jim

Section B

1a. **Listening content**

Zero   one   two   three   four   five   six   seven   eight   nine

1b: **Listening content**

Mary: What's your phone number.   Bill: It's 278-6926

Mary: 2-7-8-6-9-2-6. Thanks.

Answer key: 278-6926

2a **Listening content**

Conversation1

A: Hello, what's your name?   B: My name's Tom

A: What's your phone number, Tom?   B: It's 278-7928

Conversation2

A: Hi, Linda!   B: Hello, Tony!

A: Linda, what's your phone number? B: Oh, it's umm...5558042

Conversation3

A: Hi! I'm Mr Miller.   B: Hello, Mr Miller! My name's Bob.

A: What's your phone number,Bob?   B: My phone number? It's 398-6149.

Conversation4

A: Hello, Mary!   B: Oh, hi, Karl.

A: Mary, what's your phone number?   B: It's 929-3160

Answer key

c   2.d   3.b   4.a

2b: **Answer key**

A. 929-3160   B.398-6149   C.278-7928   D.555-8042

Unit 3

Section A

1a. **Answer key**

1. Sock _b   2. T-shirt_g   3. Shorts_a   4. Sweater_d   5. Bag_c

6. Hat_f   7. Pants_e   8. Shoes_h   9. Skirts_i

1b. **Listening content**

A: How much is the hat?   B: The hat is six dollars.

A: And how much are the shorts?   B: Oh, they're eight dollars

A: And the sweater? How much s the sweater?

B: Let's see. The sweater is nine dollars.

Answer key: circled items: hat, shorts, sweater.

2a: **Listening content**

S T U V W X Y Z

2b: **Answer key**

S_s_   u_U_   V_v_   Z_z_   w_W_   Y_y_   t_T_   x_X_

2c: **Listening content**

S   T   U   V   W   X   Y   Z

Answer key:

_6_x   _2_t   _7_y   _5_w   _8_z   _4_v   _3_u   _1_s

2d: **Listening content**

A A J K Dale Grace	Frank thanks jacket map black
E B C D E G evening	F L M N Helen pen red yellow
I I hi fine white	quilt
O O OK	Long short
U Q U	Rule blue

2e: **Listening content**

Color   Yellow   White   Red   Black   Green   Blue   Big   Small   Short   Long

3a. **Listening content**

Conversation1

  A: How much is the green T-shirt?   B: It's eight dollars.

Conversation2

A: How much is the black bag?   B: It is two dollars

Conversation3

A: How much are the red shorts?   B: They are nine dollars

Conversation4

A: I like this green sweater. How much is it?   B: It's seven dollars

Conversation5

A: I like big blue hats. Do you have one?   B: Yes, I have this one here.

A: How much is it?   B: It's five dollars.

Conversation6

A: I like those long blue and yellow socks. How much are they?

B: They're only two dollars.

Answer key:

Circled items: the green T-shirt; the black bag; the red shorts; the green sweater; the big blue hat; the long blue and yellow socks.

3b: **Answer key:**

Hat-$5   sweater-$7   shorts-$9   T-shirts-$8   socks-$2   bag-$2

4a: **Answer key:**

A: Can I help you?   B: Yes, please. I want a sweater.
A: What _color_____ do you want?   B: Blue.
A: Here it is.   B: ___How much__ is it ?
A: Nine dollars.   B: OK, I'll take it. _Thank you/ Thanks__.
A: You're welcome.

Section B

1a **Listening content**

Ten   eleven   twelve   thirteen   fourteen   fifteen   Sixteen   seventeen

eighteen   nineteen   twenty   Twenty-one   twenty-two   twenty-three

twenty-four   twenty-five   twenty-six twenty-seven   twenty-eight   twenty-nine

thirty   thirty-one

1b **Answer key**

Ten_10   eleven_11   twelve_12   thirteen_13   fourteen_14   fifteen_15

Sixteen_16   seventeen_17   eighteen_18   nineteen_19   twenty_20

Twenty-one_21 twenty-two_22 twenty-three_23 twenty-four_24

twenty-five_25 twenty-six_26 twenty-seven_27 twenty-eight_28

twenty-nine_29   thirty_30   thirty-one_31

B: Fifteen dollars. Oh look, I like these socks.

A: Oh, no. I don't like red.   B: Do you like this?

A: Mmm, yes, I do, but it's seven dollars

B: Oh, How much is the green sweater?

A: It's twenty dollars. But you have a green sweater.   B: Mmm

A: Oh, look at these shorts.   B: Oh, yes, I like those. How much are they?

A: Only sixteen dollars.   B: OK, I'll take those.

Answer key: Circled numbers: 15, 11, 20, 16

3c. Answer key

1. Red   2. Yellow   3. Green   4. Blue   5. Black   6. white

Songs resouces

GOOD MORNING SONG: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=bcCAZOO9OBk

WHAT'S YOUR NAME SONG: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=BAFSTrSNJMg

ABC SONG : https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=OtiMJlLzbZk