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List of abbreviations

AG ..... Austrian German
AL ..... adult learners
CAPT ..... computer aided pronunciation training
CEFR ..... Common European Framework of Reference for Languages
CAL ..... coursebooks for adult learners
CLS ..... coursebooks for students in lower secondary
CLT ..... Communicative Language Teaching
CP ..... critical period
CPH ..... critical period hypothesis
EAL ..... *Empower A1* for adult learners
EFL ..... English as a foreign language
ELF ..... English as a lingua franca
ELT ..... English language teaching
FLA ..... first language acquisition
GA ..... General American
GAL ..... *Great! A1* for adult learners
L1 ..... first language
L2 ..... second language
LFC ..... Lingua Franca Core
LS ..... students in lower secondary
MLS ..... *More! 1* for students in lower secondary
NS ..... native speaker
NSs ..... native speakers
NNS ..... nonnative speaker
NNSs ..... nonnative speakers
PLS ..... *Prime Time 1* for students in lower secondary
RP ..... Received Pronunciation
SLA ..... second language acquisition
TL ..... target language

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1. Introduction

Phonological abilities play a key role in oral communication and form a crucial part of general language competence. Nevertheless, the relevance of pronunciation in foreign language teaching has fluctuated over the years depending on the prevailing theories, methods, and approaches (Ketabi & Saeb 2015: 184). Because of technological advances, globalization, and the ascension of English to the world's predominant lingua franca, the need for internationally intelligible pronunciation in English seems to have significantly increased in the past decades, thus also drawing attention to its teaching and learning.

One field that has always sparked avid interest in this regard are the effects of age on phonological acquisition. Even though some exceptional adult learners prove to be capable of obtaining a native-like accent (e.g. Ioup et al. 1994; Bongaerts, Planken & Schils 1995; Moyer 1999; Nikolov 2000), copious research demonstrates a general age-related decline in pronunciation attainment (e.g. Scovel 1988; Flege et al. 2006). This raises the question whether the explicit pronunciation focus in English as a foreign language (EFL) materials differs between age groups to cater to age-dependent differences in phonological acquisition.

Taking into account that research in this respect seems to be completely lacking, this thesis seeks to answer the question *Which differences in terms of explicit pronunciation focus can be identified between EFL coursebooks used for lower secondary students and those for adult learners in Austria?*. More specifically, the following three subquestions will guide the analysis of each coursebook:

RQ1) How many explicit pronunciation tasks can be identified?
RQ2) What is their major focus (i.e. segmental or suprasegmental features, entire words, or the correspondence between pronunciation and spelling)?
RQ3) Which formats are employed in these tasks?

After crucial linguistic terminology and concepts have been clarified at the beginning of the next chapter, the segmental and suprasegmental features of English will be introduced to form the basis for RQ2. It should be noted, however, that since coursebooks usually use either Received Pronunciation (RP) or General American (GA) as phonetic target models, they will also serve as a reference in this thesis.

The subsequent third chapter is entirely dedicated to general information regarding the teaching of English pronunciation. First, carefully selected teaching theories and approaches will be outlined, which is then followed by a brief introduction of the above-mentioned standardized varieties. Due to the heated debates regarding a more recently established, alternative target

model (i.e. Jenkins' 2000 Lingua France Core, LFC), this will equally be briefly presented. Next, given that the present thesis specifically focuses on the Austrian context where EFL syllabi are largely determined by the Austrian school curriculum and the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (CEFR), these approbated works will be examined for their emphasis on pronunciation. In the last subsection of this chapter, various sample activities and task formats will be described, many of which will also form part of the data set.

Chapter four is concerned with the learner- and setting-related variables that might affect the learners' needs and thus also the materials under examination. Most importantly, the above-stated age-factor and its theoretical foundation, i.e. the critical period hypothesis (CPH, cf. e.g. Lenneberg 1967), will be elaborated on. Additionally, variables such as the learners' alleged first language (L1) Austrian German (AG) and the commonly resulting phonetic difficulties, as well as the Austrian setting will be discussed.

The fifth chapter centers on the analysis of explicit pronunciation tasks comprised in four frequently used coursebooks in Austria. These books adhere to the same language level (i.e. A1) yet target two different age groups, namely *More! 1* (MLS), and *Prime Time 1* (PLS) for lower secondary students (LS), and *Empower A1* (EAL), and *Great! A1* (GAL) for adult learners (AL), respectively. Before the data analysis, the methods will be highlighted, and an overview of the identified task formats, including their codes, will be given. Afterwards, each coursebook will be examined individually in terms of the number of explicit pronunciation tasks, their targets and task formats. Aiming to identify age-related tendencies, the findings will then be compared and expatiated on in chapter six.

In the seventh and last chapter, a summary of the most salient findings will be provided, and their implications for future teaching will be discussed. Finally, the present study's limitations will be evaluated and suggestions for further research will be offered.

2. Phonetic features of English pronunciation

Before aspects related to the teaching of pronunciation can be examined, relevant terminology and key concepts ought to be clarified. Additionally, the phonetic features of English should be introduced. In general, they can be divided into two major categories, namely segmental and suprasegmental features. Taking into consideration their relevance for the second research question, they deserve to be discussed in greater detail. Due to the limited scope of this paper, however, the information provided in this section will be largely simplified. For the same reason, only the most popular standardized accents of English can be accounted for (i.e. General American, GA; and Received Pronunciation, RP).

2.1 Basic terminology and key concepts

Research on pronunciation heavily relies on the fields of phonology and phonetics. The former denotes "the study of the abstract categories that organize the sound system of a language" (Plag et al. 2009: 27), while the latter is concerned with "the study of sound in the human language" (Collins & Mees 2013: 9). Consequently, phonology investigates the patterns of sounds, whereas phonetics explores their actual production. When examining pronunciation, linguists usually divide human speech, i.e. a flow of sound, into so-called 'segments' (cf. Collins & Mees 2013: 12). In the most simplified sense, these segments roughly correspond to the smallest units of sound which are commonly distinguished into 'vowels' and 'consonants' (Collins & Mees 2013: 12; for more detailed information on this, cf. section 2.2). Rather than in isolated form, segments tend to operate in combination to form words (Collins & Mees 2013: 12). If two words are phonologically identical except for one single sound, they constitute a so-called 'minimal pair' (Plag et al. 2009: 34). For example, by exchanging the word-initial sound /p/ in <pie> for a /b/, it transforms into the word <bye> (Beňuš 2021: 120). Therefore, /p/ and /b/ can be concluded to be contrastive units of sound that are phonologically pertinent in English. This example demonstrates that the substitution of only one segment can alter the meaning of an entire word, and, in some cases, also its spelling. In linguistics, segments of speech showing this contrastive and meaning-distinctive quality are referred to as 'phonemes'. Yet, in the present thesis, other terms such as '(individual) sound', and 'segmental' will also be utilized. Furthermore, it should be emphasized that phonemes can differ between languages. For instance, /l/ and /r/ do not constitute separate phonemes in Japanese. Hence, initially, Japanese native speakers might not necessarily be able to perceive the difference between English minimal pair words like <fly> and <fry> (Collins & Mees 2013: 14). When

investigating phonemes more thoroughly, it becomes evident that each of them is composed of multiple variants; these are called ‘allophones’. Unlike phonemes, they cannot change the meaning of words and either occur in complementary distribution or in free variation (Carley & Mees 2020: 2). In the former case, one particular allophone of a phoneme has to be used due to certain phonetic surroundings (Beňuš 2021: 120). To illustrate this, the three allophones of the phoneme /l/ will be briefly introduced: [l̥] solely occurs succeeding word-initial voiceless consonants like in <clap>; [ɬ] can exclusively be found at the end of words as in <pill>; and [l] appears in all other positions such as in between two vowel sounds like in <silly> (Plag et al. 2009: 42-43). In contrast, if the allophones are in free variation, the speaker can freely choose between them. Moreover, a few remarks regarding the written representation of pronunciation ought to be made. Each sound can be represented by a corresponding phonemic symbol so that whole words and longer utterances can be transcribed (for more information on the symbols of English, cf. section 2.2). Although consensus about a set of symbols has not yet been reached (Carley & Mees 2020: 3), the International Phonetic Alphabet developed by the International Phonetic Association seems to be broadly accepted and will thus also serve as a reference in this thesis (for more information on this alphabet and its emergence, cf. Deterding 2015: 71-72). Generally speaking, two types of transcription can be distinguished. Usually enclosed by slant brackets ‘//’, the so-called ‘broad transcription’ gives information on a basic, phonemic level. As this type is predominant in well-known English dictionaries (Plag et al. 2009: 31), it will be employed in the thesis at hand. ‘Narrow transcription’, on the other hand, provides complementary articulatory details – including for instance specifications about allophones – and is placed in between square brackets ‘[]’ (Plag et al. 2009: 31). Additionally, it should be highlighted that to differentiate spellings from transcriptions, orthographic representations are enveloped in angle brackets ‘<>’. A final comment ought to be made concerning the adjectives ‘phonetic’ and ‘phonemic’. In certain academic works, these words mark the difference between broad (i.e. phonemic) and narrow (i.e. phonetic) transcription (e.g. Carley & Mees 2020). However, taking into account that the latter adjective is frequently also used as an umbrella term (e.g. in Plag et al. 2009; and Deterding 2015) and that solely the former kind of transcription will be applied in this thesis, the distinction between these adjectives seems redundant for the present research purposes. Consequently, both items will be utilized interchangeably. Having specified fundamental terminology, the above-mentioned segments of English, also termed ‘segmental features’, will be further explored in the next section.

2.2 Segmental features

Being the smallest unit of pronunciation, segmental features refer to the individual sounds of a language (e.g. Kelly 2000). As stated above, these so-called 'phonemes' can broadly be subdivided into consonants and vowels (e.g. cf. Kelly 2000: 1-2). Although certain differences might occur between language varieties as well as between individual speakers, English is generally believed to encompass 24 consonants and 20 vowels, whereof eight are diphthongs. The classification criteria, and the respective sounds of each of the three groups will be elaborated on in the following.

2.2.1 Consonants

Consonants differ from vowels in two central features: first, their production entails an obstruction of the airflow and second, they can be either voiced or unvoiced.[1] These unique characteristics form the bases for the classification of these sounds. More precisely, two major criteria are concerned with the description of the airflow, namely the so-called 'manner' and 'place of articulation' (e.g. Yule 2017: 28). The former specifies how the air passes through when sounds are produced. In total, six manners of articulation can be discerned, i.e. plosive, nasal, fricative, affricate, liquid, and glide (Yule 2017: 32, cf. Table 1). To exemplify, when producing the nasal phonemes /n/, /m/, and /ŋ/, the air is diverted through the nasal cavity. In contrast, to articulate plosives such as /p/ and /b/, specific parts of the vocal tract are entirely closed before it is subsequently released abruptly (Kelly 2000: 6).[2] Rather than 'how', the second criterion describes where the airflow is obstructed, hence the term 'place of articulation'. Overall, seven such places can be differentiated (i.e. bilabial, labiodental, dental, alveolar, palatal, velar, and glottal, cf. Yule 2017: 30-31, cf. Table 1). Again, examples will be given for illustration. To produce the dentals /θ/ and /ð/, the tip of the tongue needs to be put either close to the upper teeth or in-between them (Kelly 2000: 6), whereas the articulation of bilabials like /b/ or /w/ involves "closing movement of both lips" (Kelly 2000: 6). As mentioned above, the last criterion is concerned with voicing, which results from vibration – or lack thereof – of the vocal folds. As illustrated in Table 1, voicing is the only distinctive quality of a vast seven pairs of English consonants (e.g. /f/ vs. /v/ as in <fan> vs. <van>, /s/ vs. /z/ as in <place> vs. <plays>, /tʃ/ vs. /dʒ/ as in <cheap> vs. <jeep>, etc.).[3]

[1] Instead of 'unvoiced', these sounds are occasionally also called 'voiceless' (cf. Kelly 2000: 2).
[2] Plosives are sometimes also termed 'stops' (e.g. Yule 2017: 32).
[3] These are my own examples.

Following the examination of the overall classification system, Table 1 provides an overview of the consonants in English. The terms in the column to the left denote the manner of articulation, whereas in the first row, the places of articulation are enumerated. These are then subdivided into voiceless (-V) and voiced (+V) sounds in the row thereunder.

Table 1. The consonants of English (taken from Yule 2017: 33)

	Bilabial		**Labiodental**		**Dental**		**Alveolar**		**Palatal**		**Velar**		**Glottal**	
	-V	**+V**	**-V**	**+V**	**-V**	**+V**	**-V**	**+V**	**-V**	**+V**	**-V**	**+V**	**-V**	**+V**
Stops	/p/	/b/					/t/	/d/			/k/	/g/		
Fricatives			/f/	/v/	/θ/	/ð/	/s/	/z/	/ʃ/	/ʒ/			/h/	
Affricates									/tʃ/	/dʒ/				
Nasals		/m/						/n/				/ŋ/		
Liquids								/l/, /r/						
Glides[4]		/w/								/j/				

This table summarizes the consonants of English and their distinctive features (for additional sample words, cf. Table 2 below). As usual, they are represented by means of their phonetic symbols,[5] which will also be used in the analysis-section. Evidently, these symbols often take the form of alphabetical letters (e.g. /h/, /m/, /n/, /l/, and /r/), while others deviate significantly from them (e.g. /θ/, /ð/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/, /tʃ/, /dʒ/, etc.). The same principle applies to the targets of the next section: vowels.

2.2.2 Vowels

Commonly used classification criteria for vowels are tongue height and backness, tenseness and vowel length, as well as degree of lip rounding (cf. e.g. Plag et al. 2009). More precisely, the articulation of vowel sounds entails tongue positions ranging from front (e.g. /iː/ in <sea>) to back (e.g. /ɔː/ in <north>) and from open (e.g. /æ/ in <bad>) to closed (e.g. /uː/ in <goose>). In-between these extreme ends, vowels are labeled ‘central’ or ‘mid’, respectively, both of which epitomizes the most central English vowel called ‘schwa’ (i.e. /ə/ in <the>). Regarding tenseness – alternatively also referred to as ‘vowel quantity’ (e.g. Dalton & Seidlhofer 1994: 17) – vowels are either classified as tense (e.g. /iː/ in <sea>) or lax (e.g. /ɪ/ in <bid>) depending on the extent of muscular tension involved in the sound production (cf. Dalton & Seidlhofer

[4] In view of the glides /w/ (e.g. in <wet>) and /j/ (e.g. in <you>), it needs to be clarified that even though they are commonly considered consonants (e.g. Kelly 2000: 2), they are also sometimes termed ‘semi-vowels’ due to the fact that their starting or end point is a vowel sound (Yule 2017: 32).
[5] These symbols correspond to the broadly accepted *International Phonetic Alphabet*.

1994: 22). Another albeit closely linked feature is vowel length. In this case, a distinction between long (e.g. /iː/, /uː/) and short (e.g. /ɪ/, /ʊ/) vowels is made (Plag et al. 2009: 18). In phonetic transcription, the former are generally marked with the symbol <ː> (for examples, see Table 2). Lastly, some vowels are articulated with rounded lip position (e.g. /ɔː/ in <north>), while for others, it is neutral (e.g. /ə/ in <the>) or unrounded (e.g. /iː/ in <sea>).[6] In Table 2, a comprehensive list of English single vowels, exemplified by sample words, will be given.

If a phoneme is realized by a glide form one vowel to the next, it is termed 'diphthong'. In general, RP and GA share five such sounds (cf. Yule 2017: 35-36): /eɪ/ as in <cake>, /aɪ/ as in <high>, /ɔɪ/ as in <toy>, /aʊ/ as in <house>, and /oʊ/ as in <go> (cf. Table 2). The representation of the latter, however, differs slightly between the two accents since <go> is pronounced /goʊ/ in GA, and /gəʊ/ in RP. Nonetheless, a more substantial difference concerns the so-called 'centering diphthongs' (i.e. /ʊə/, /ɪə/, and /eə/)[7] because they are frequent in RP yet extremely scarce in GA (cf. Yule 2017: 36).

In a similar vein, if a third vowel is added to a diphthong, it is referred to as a 'triphthong' (Rogerson-Revell 2011: 85). In English, these sounds are formed by extending one of the above-mentioned diphthongs by a schwa. In total, five such triphthongs can be distinguished (e.g. in RP: /aʊə/ as in <power>, Kelly 2000: 2; or /aɪə/ as in <fire>, Rogerson-Revell 2011: 85). Nevertheless, the phonetic category tends to be neglected partly since the glides between the vowels seem to be minor and are thus considerably difficult to perceive (e.g. /pleiə/ is interpretated as /pleɪjə/, Rogerson-Revell 2011: 85). Another valid counterargument is that certain triphthongs are disappearing in some varieties of English (Rogerson-Revell 2011: 85). Taking these reasons into account, triphthongs will be disregarded in this paper.

To summarize this section, an overview of the most pertinent segmental features of English is provided in Table 2 (taken and adapted from Kelly 2000: 2). Divided into the above-outlined subcategories, the sounds are represented by means of their phonetic symbols in the respective left and examples in the corresponding right columns. In these sample words, the letters representing the target sounds are underlined. If they only account for a certain accent of English (i.e. GA or RP), this is indicated in brackets.

[6] An unrounded lip position can also be called 'spread' (e.g. Rogerson-Revell 2011: 66).
[7] They received their name due to the final schwa-sound (Plag et al. 2009: 23).

Table 2. Segmental features of English (taken and adapted from Kelly 2000: 2)

Vowels				**Consonants**			
Single vowels		**Diphthongs**					
/iː/	bead	/eɪ/	cake	/p/	pin	/s/	sue
/ɪ/	hit	/ɔɪ/	toy	/b/	bin	/z/	zoo
/ʊ/	book	/aɪ/	high	/t/	to	/ʃ/	she
/uː/	food	/aʊ/	house	/d/	do	/ʒ/	measure
/e/	left			/k/	cot	/h/	hello
/ə/	about	/əʊ/ (RP) /oʊ/ (GA)	go	/g/	got	/m/	more
/ɜː/	shirt			/tʃ/	church	/n/	no
/ɔː/	call	/ʊə/	fewer (RP)	/dʒ/	judge	/ŋ/	sing
/æ/	hat	/ɪə/	beer (RP)	/f/	fan	/l/	live
/ʌ/	run	/eə/	where (RP)	/v/	van	/r/	red
/ɑː/	far			/θ/	think	/j/	yes
/ɒ/	dog (RP)			/ð/	the	/w/	wood

The 44 phonemes comprised in this table will form the basis for parts of the task analysis. Before moving on to the prosodic features of English, it ought to be added that individually or grouped together, sounds also form syllables (Kenworthy 1987: 9). Each such syllable has a vowel at its core that is possibly preceded and/or succeeded by one or more consonants (Kenworthy 1987: 9). The latter, i.e. the co-occurrence of several consonants, is termed ‘consonant cluster’ (Kenworthy 1987: 9). As these linguistic notions are sometimes also utilized in pronunciation teaching, they needed to be clarified. In the subsequent section, the suprasegmental features of English will be highlighted.

2.3 Suprasegmental features

Alternatively termed prosodic features, suprasegmentals account for larger segments of pronunciation, thus the term (Kelly 2000: 3). They comprise features related to the melody of language such as intonation, stress, and rhythm, as well as aspects of connected speech, all of which will be discussed in more depth below.

2.3.1 Intonation

Intonation is defined as pitch movement within utterances (cf. Kelly 2000: 3) and is hence sometimes also referred to as speech melody (Dalton & Seidlhofer 1994: 44). It is usually demonstrated by means of arrows. Although each language has its own pattern, a distinction between rising, falling and level intonation is commonly drawn. In respect of English, the five prevalent pitch movements are rise, fall, fall-rise, rise-fall and level (Dalton & Seidlhofer 1994: 48). These tones have a tremendous effect on the conveyed message since they can shape, alter, and reverse the meaning of an utterance. Additionally, intonation can fulfill various functions (cf. Crystal 2010: 179). For instance, it can be used to contrast statements to questions (i.e. 'grammatical function'), differentiate between new and old information (i.e. 'information structure') or express attitudes (i.e. 'emotional function', all functions taken from Crystal 2010: 179). Lastly, intonation can also be utilized to highlight certain words ('foregrounding', cf. Dalton and Seidlhofer 1994: 81); therefore, it is closely linked to stress.

2.3.2 Stress and rhythm

With regards to stress, a differentiation between word and sentence stress is made. The former denotes the degree of prominence of each syllable of a word. More precisely, these syllables can either carry primary or secondary stress, or remain unstressed. While those adhering to the second category usually include a schwa sound, stressed syllables are generally marked by an alteration in pitch, longer vowel sounds, and loudness (Kelly 2000: 66). Although stress patterns heavily depend on the context, general rules have been formulated (cf. Kelly 2000: 69). For example, speakers show a propensity to put more emphasis on the first syllable of disyllabic nouns (e.g. <CONtext>),[8] whereas in verbs, primary stress is rather placed on the second syllable (Dalton & Seidlhofer 1994: 38, e.g. <proPOSE>). Other rules include, for instance, that in compound words, the first component usually carries major stress (e.g. <CROSSword>) and that both prefixes and suffixes tend not to be emphasized (e.g. <BADly>, Kelly 2000: 69).

[8] In the literature, word stress is indicated by means of capital letters, the capitalized and lowercase versions of the letter <o>, or apostrophes in phonetic transcription (e.g. <PAper>, <Oo>, or /'peɪpə/ for <paper>, respectively).

Additionally, however, words receive different degrees of prominence within a sentence; this phonetic phenomenon is referred to as 'sentence stress'. Similar to intonation, it can be used to underscore new information as well as to de-emphasize already shared or generally known information (Kenworthy 1987: 11). In general, stresses are believed to occur regularly within sentences, which gives stress-timed languages',[9] including English, their beat-like rhythm. Noteworthily, this necessitates the reduction of words to their weak forms (Kelly 2000: 70). Due to the fact that the main carriers of meaning are content words (i.e. nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs), function words such as articles, prepositions, and pronouns are usually reduced (Kenworthy 1987: 10). Therefore, unlike syllable-timed languages such as French and Japanese where the number of syllables is decisive, in English, the time required for the pronunciation of an utterance is mostly determined by its number of stresses (Kelly 2000: 70). It should nonetheless be underscored that the discrimination of these two types of timing has been criticized by scholars like Dauer (1983), and Dalton and Seidlhofer (1994: 42). They argued that stress- and syllable-timing should only be viewed as extremities of a wide spectrum, between which languages could also be placed. Aside from the frequency of stresses, in English, the time needed for the articulation of an utterance is also influenced by the so-called 'features of connected speech'.

2.3.3 Features of connected speech

Exclusively occurring in connected speech, these features seem to have a massive impact on a speaker's perceived fluency. This section will be devoted to five common phonetic phenomena in this regard, namely assimilation, elision and contractions, as well as linking and intrusion.

To begin with, assimilation refers to instances in which two neighboring sounds approximate each other. For example, when the sounds /t/, /d/, /s/, and /z/ are succeeded by the consonant /j/, they transform into /tʃ/, /dʒ/, /ʃ/, and /ʒ/, respectively (Dalton & Seidlhofer 1994: 117).[10] The latter set of sounds can frequently be identified in everyday questions containing the words <you> or <yet> (e.g. in <What did you do yesterday?>, cf. Dalton & Seidlhofer 1994: 117). Interestingly, assimilations are also sometimes transferred into spelling, albeit only in informal contexts (e.g. <gotcha> in lieu of <got you>, and <wouldja> instead of <would you>, etc.; cf. Dalton & Seidlhofer 1994: 116). It needs to be pointed out, however, that in general, occurrences of assimilation are significantly more salient in varieties of American English than in those of British English (Dalton & Seidlhofer 1994: 116).

[9] In the literature, these are frequently also referred to as 'isochronous' languages (Dalton & Seidlhofer 1994: 41).
[10] More precisely, these cases exemplify a process called 'palatalization', which is a subtype of assimilation.

The next phonetic phenomenon that will be examined is elision. This denotes the elimination of sounds that would be articulated in carefully produced speech (Dalton & Seidlhofer 1994: 29). To elaborate, with regard to vowels, schwa-sounds tend to be elided, especially in final syllables (Dalton & Seidlhofer 1994: 29). For instance, the basic pronunciation /ˈsaɪkə̲l/ can become /ˈsaɪk̲l̩/ (Carley & Mees 2020: 246). In view of consonants, among others, /t/ and /d/ as well as /v/ and /ð/ are often omitted (Dalton & Seidlhofer 1994: 29-30; e.g. in <fact̲s>, <best friend>, and <grand̲father>, taken from Carley & Mees 2020: 245; or in <clothes> cited in Dalton & Seidlhofer 1994: 119). Similarly, the /h/-sound tends to be neglected in pronouns, auxiliaries, and determiners (e.g. <Did he do his homework?>, Alameen & Levis 2015: 162). Notwithstanding that scholars sometimes consider them a separate category, contractions equally involve the elision of sounds (e.g. Dalton & Seidlhofer 1994: 119; Rogerson-Revell 2011: 166-169). For example, this is epitomized by the negation <cannot> and its shorter form <can't> (cf. Alameen & Levis 2015: 162). As a final remark, it ought to be stressed that at large, elision is highly contingent upon the speech style (Dalton & Seidlhofer 1994: 119).

Lastly, the typical feature referred to as 'linking' will be elaborated on. Taking into consideration that this term generally refers to the phonetical blend of two or more words, it can be argued that certain instances of linking also involve the above-mentioned phenomena (e.g. Rogers-Revell 2011: 169). In addition, however, linking also involves other types (cf. Rogers-Revell 2011: 169-171): Liaisons are made between consonants in word-final position and subsequent, word-initial vowels (e.g. first‿of‿all, Rogers-Revell 2011: 169). Furthermore, a special case of linking is known as 'intrusion'. This feature encompasses occurrences in which speakers add a phoneme between adjacent vowel sounds of two separate words in order to facilitate their linking (Dalton & Seidlhofer 1994: 30). For instance, a reduced form of /w/ is used after <u>-like sounds (e.g. <how often> becomes [ˈhaʊ^{w}‿ˈɒfən]), whereas <i>-like sounds are succeeded by a sound resembling /j/ (e.g. <they are> is articulated like [ˈðeɪ^{j}‿ˈɑː(r)]], Dalton & Seidlhofer 1994: 31). Additionally, a so-called 'intrusive /r/'-sound can but does not necessarily need to be inserted between neighboring vowels (e.g. <idea of> pronounced as [aɪˈdɪəʳəv], cf. Alameen & Levis 2015: 163). In respect of /r/-sounds, it equally needs to be pointed out that even in non-rhotic varieties like RP, final /r/-sounds between two vowels also tend to be pronounced in order to ease the transition between words (e.g. <far away> is articulated as [ˌfɑːr əˈweɪ], Dalton & Seidlhofer 1994: 30).

Taking this concise introduction into account, the most salient segmental and suprasegmental features of English, complemented by some of their basic distinctive features,[11] can be summed up as shown in Figure 1 (taken and adapted from Kelly 2000: 1).[12]

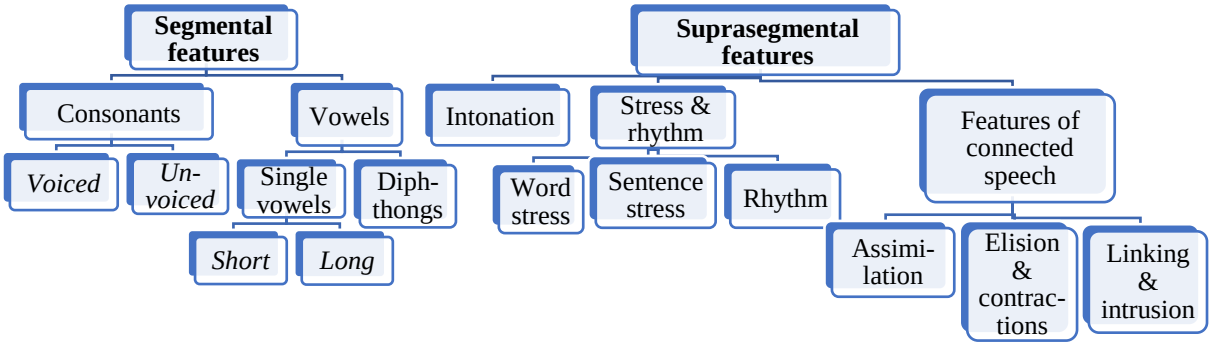

Figure 1. Features of pronunciation (taken and adapted from Kelly 2000: 1)

Given that the above-outlined segmental and suprasegmental features can have a tremendous effect on both the conveyed message and the speaker's intelligibility, targeting them in the EFL classroom shows significant potential for pronunciation development and performance enhancement in general. Relevant factors related to the teaching of pronunciation will be elucidated in the next section.

3. Teaching English pronunciation

Since the emergence of pronunciation teaching in the early 1950s, copious relevant teaching approaches and theoretical concepts have evolved, the most salient among which will be briefly introduced in the following subsection. Considering that the appropriacy of pronunciation norms and the choice of models are still subject to heated debates, both native speaker (NS) models and a newer approach targeting intelligibility will be presented. Additionally, the role of pronunciation in approbated documents such as the Austrian school curriculum and the *Common European Framework of References for Languages* (CEFR) will be examined since these demonstrate the relevance of phonological skills for the development of language proficiency and thus substantially influence the extent of pronunciation teaching in Austrian EFL classrooms. In the last section of this chapter, a variety of sample activities and task formats will be provided to offer practice-oriented information for teachers on the one hand and to establish a theoretical foundation for RQ3 on the other hand (cf. section 1).

[11] These are marked in italics in Figure 1.
[12] Again, triphthongs were omitted (for the reasons, cf. section 2.2.2).

3.1 Overview of relevant teaching approaches and theory

This subsection seeks to review predominant theoretical concepts as well as relevant teaching approaches. More specifically, due to their relevance to the analysis, salient characteristics of explicit as opposed to implicit pronunciation instruction will be presented in section 3.1.1. Afterwards, three types of approach towards pronunciation teaching will be explored, namely intuitive-imitative, analytic-linguistic, and integrative approaches. To conclude this section, current pronunciation teaching practices and future trends will be outlined.

3.1.1 Explicit vs. implicit pronunciation instruction

At large, a major distinction can be drawn between implicit and explicit pronunciation teaching. The two most pertinent features of implicit teaching processes are that the introduction of rules is entirely avoided and that the students are not instructed to pay attention to any specific linguistic forms (cf. Norris & Ortega 2000: 437). In view of pronunciation teaching, this would entail that instead of putting the primary focus on sounds and phonetic metaknowledge, pronunciation is indirectly integrated as a component of other tasks. Since the phonetic features are then contextualized and their communicative function is in the foreground, implicit teaching generally is in line with communicative language teaching (CLT) principles. To illustrate this, a commonly used implicit teaching technique is 'shadowing', sometimes also referred to as 'echoing' (Derwing & Munro 2014: 50), which prompts the learners to instantly restate what somebody else has said (Derwing & Munro 2014: 50). Similarly, various feedback methods like recasts and repetitions (Peltekov 2020: 2) equally play a pivotal role in English language teaching (ELT).[13]

In contrast, explicit instruction provides the learners with rules. These aim at supporting the students in becoming more metalinguistically aware (cf. Ellis et al. 2009, cited in Peltekov 2020: 3). In general, this approach stresses the use of metalanguage, the isolation of linguistic forms, and controlled practice (cf. Peltekov 2020: 3). Regarding pronunciation in particular, explicit teaching techniques might thus involve the application of phonetic symbols, or tasks focusing on specific phonetic features such as certain individual sounds or stress patterns. Typical examples for feedback techniques are explicit correction and metalinguistic feedback (i.e. comments on the phonetic correctness of a student's output, cf. Lyster & Ranta 1997: 47).

[13] As for the former, the students' erroneous utterances are reformulated by the teachers (Lyster & Ranta 1997: 46), whereas for the latter, the phonetically ill-formed utterances are replicated by the teacher using higher intonation to underscore the errors (Peltekov 2020: 2).

Although these feedback and teaching techniques are fundamental classroom practices, the primary aim of this introduction was to show the main differences between explicitness and implicitness because exclusively tasks adhering to the former principle will be examined in the thesis at hand. Besides this dichotomy, various pronunciation teaching approaches have emerged, a careful selection will be targeted subsequently.

3.1.2 Intuitive-imitative, analytic-linguistic and integrative approaches

This section will cover three popular approaches towards pronunciation teaching, namely intuitive-imitative, analytic-linguistic and integrative approaches, respectively. The former, i.e. the intuitive-imitative approach, was the sole approach used until the late nineteenth century. According to its principles, the learners have to listen and imitate models without ever receiving explicit information on the target forms (Celce-Murcia et al. 2010: 2). Therefore, it epitomizes implicit pronunciation instruction. It should be noted that due to technological progress, the required input can nowadays be provided in various forms, including, for instance, audio and video recordings.

In contrast, if an analytic-linguistic approach is adopted, explicit information on phonetic features is presented to the learners. Consequently, commonly used tools include vocal charts and the phonetic alphabet (Celce-Murcia et al. 2010: 2). However, it should be pointed out that instead of viewing them as opponents, these two approaches were intended to be combined, for example by implementing intuitive elements into the production phase of analytic-linguistic course sessions (Celce-Murcia et al. 2010: 2).

Lastly, the more recently emerged integrative approach will be further elucidated. Its leading paradigm is that pronunciation is an essential and integrated part of communication. Hence, it is for instance targeted in task-based activities and listening tasks having a phonetic focus (Hismanoglu & Hismanoglu 2010: 984). This is partly in line with Communicative Language Teaching principles (CLT, Celce-Murcia et al. 2010: 8), which will be further discussed in the following.

3.1.3 Current trends and future directions

Ever since the 1980s, the so-called 'communicative approach' seems to have dominated EFL classrooms (Celce-Murcia et al. 2010: 8).[14] The emergence of CLT in the late 1970s revolutionized former teaching practices by putting emphasis on successful communication (cf. Hismanoglu & Hismanoglu 2010: 985). However, traditional pronunciation teaching techniques and materials included phonetic training activities, listening and imitating, minimal pair drilling[15] (contextualized or on a single word level), as well as the use of visual aids, tongue twisters, developmental approximation drilling, the practice of vowel and stress shifts related by affixation, reading aloud and recording the learners (Celce-Murcia et al 2010: 9-10). Thus, they mostly failed to account for the tenets of CLT, while also largely focusing on segmental features (e.g. Celce-Murcia et al. 2010: 11; Ketabi & Saeb 2015: 185). Consequently, at early stages of this approach, the emphasis shifted towards teaching suprasegmentals in discourse contexts (cf. Celce-Murcia et al. 2010: 11).

Nevertheless, scholars recognized that, especially because of the upsurge in English use in international settings, pronunciation primarily ought to be intelligible rather than native-like (Ketabi & Saeb 2015: 185). Therefore, more recent pronunciation curricula opt for a balanced approach. The aim is to target those features that are pertinent for successful communication, irrespective of their nature (i.e. phonemic or prosodic, Celce-Murcia et al. 2010: 11). Additionally, it ought to be indicated that the implementation of both accuracy- and fluency-based activities as well as the adaptation of authentic materials are further key elements of current CLT.

Traditional pronunciation teaching methods also tend to evolve due to the influence of other disciplines such as psychology, sociology, neuro-linguistic programming, drama, multiple intelligences, and technology (cf. Afshari & Ketabi 2017; Celce-Murcia et al. 2010: 335-364). For instance, to account for the psychological and affective factors that might inhibit the pronunciation learning process, the use of educational hypnosis, relaxation techniques (e.g. breathing exercises), and drama-based activities (e.g. performing a NS role) has been proposed (Afshari & Ketabi 2017; Celce-Murcia et al. 2010). Moreover, numerous experts argue for the involvement of multiple senses when teaching pronunciation (e.g. Afshari & Ketabi 2017: 89;

[14] Despite the predominance of the CLT approach, it needs to be pointed out that other methods such as grammar-translation and reading-based approaches, as well as the Total Physical Response and the natural approach, also gained popularity in the 20th century (Celce-Murcia et al. 1996). They all varied in view of their pronunciation-focus. For instance, grammar-translation and reading-based approaches viewed pronunciation teaching as irrelevant (Celce-Murcia et al 2010: 3).

[15] A definition of the term 'minimal pair' can be found in section 2.1.

Celce-Murcia et al. 2010: 337). The underlying assumption here is that the utilization of several modes at once (i.e. visual, auditory, tactile, and/or kinesthetic) helps to cater to individual learner differences, including preferred learning styles, and different intelligence types (for Howard Gardner's Multiple Intelligence model, cf. Gardner 1983).

Nonetheless, one of the most auspicious fields in view of pronunciation teaching – probably because of its rapid advances – is technology. In recent years, a vast variety of computer hardware and software tools for pronunciation teaching have emerged. These so-called 'computer aided pronunciation training' (CAPT) systems can be used by language teachers for both teaching and testing their learners' pronunciation (Agarwal & Chakraborty 2019: 3732). By employing automatic speech recognition software, CAPT tools first aim at the detection and the diagnosis of mispronunciations in order to then provide the language learners with possible corrections (Agarwal & Chakraborty 2019: 3731). Although significant progress in this field was only made from the early 2000s onward, according to Agarwal and Chakraborty (2019: 3732), four major types of CAPT tools have already evolved for English: visual simulation-based, game-based, comparative phonetics-based and artificial neural network-based systems. The reason for the great interest in CAPT systems probably is its potential to provide learners "with a private, stress-free environment within which they can access virtually unlimited input, practice at their own pace and receive instantaneous feedback" (Hismanoglu 2006: 108). Nevertheless, empirical evidence also has caused serious concerns about the accuracy, appropriacy, richness and personalization of the tools' feedback (e.g. Derwing & Munro 2015: 128-129). Therefore, the two major goals that still remain to be pursued by CAPT developers are first, to achieve a maximum of accurately detected and diagnosed mispronunciations, and second, to increase the level of interactivity and personalization (cf. Agarwal & Chakraborty 2019: 3732). Only if these requirements are sufficiently met, can the tools also be implemented on a broader scale. To this end, however, more research needs to be conducted and additional steps, such as informing teachers about the correct use of the tools and improving their accessibility, need to be taken.

The basic insights given in this section clearly demonstrate that pronunciation teaching has always been subject to fluctuation and change. This has resulted in a broad variety of teaching paradigms, concepts, and methods. One fundamental concern they share, however, is the choice of appropriate phonetic targets.

3.2 Models, targets and norms

In the field of pronunciation teaching, heated debates are concerned with the selection of appropriate phonetic models and targets. While it is broadly agreed that learners need a pronunciation model to refer to (Rogerson-Revell 2011: 6), consensus about the choice of model is still lacking. Two major positions have formed in this respect: On the one hand, standardized varieties of English, such as RP and GA, can serve as targets. Such NS models still seem to be generally prevailing taking into account that teachers as well as students have proved to incline heavily towards native speakers (NSs) as a reference (for evidence concerning teacher trainers, e.g. Asakereh, Yousofi & Weisi 2019; Dontcheva-Navratilova 2018; for evidence related to teachers, e.g. Asakereh, Yousofi & Weisi 2019; Henderson et al. 2012: 20-23; Johnstone Young & Walsh 2010; for evidence regarding students, e.g. Brabcová & Skarnitzl 2018; Tsang 2020; Wach 2011). On the other hand, the increased use of English in international contexts paved the way for new pronunciation targets: Jenkins' (2000) Lingua Franca Core (LFC) features. Therefore, the subsequent sections will be dedicated to two NS models and the LFC, respectively.

3.2.1 Native models: RP and GA

As aforementioned, in today's EFL classrooms, two NS models are predominant, i.e. RP,[16] and GA. Both varieties have their origin in a specific region of their target community; more precisely, RP epitomizes southeastern British English, whereas GA aims to represent the American English accent spoken in the Midwest of the United States (Schmitt 2016: 28). Notwithstanding certain phonetic differences between them, they are both viewed as prestigious by their communities and have been scrutinized and codified in great detail over the years (Schmitt 2016: 28-29). Thanks to a general increase in research interest in the field, copious course books and teaching materials have been devised. Even though native accents do not reflect the majority of English speakers and that the attainability of such accents is criticized for being neither realistic nor necessary (cf. Jenkins 2000: 1), to date, these two models seem to dominate EFL lessons across the globe. Among other factors, the choice of model can be assumed to depend upon the teachers as well as the available materials. According to a study conducted by Henderson et al. (2012), for instance, the vast majority of 459 consulted practitioners of seven different European countries still teach RP. Nonetheless, due to technological progress and the overwhelming predominance of the American culture online,

[16] The term 'Received Pronunciation' was coined in the Victorian era in order to account for the socially well-accepted accent of London's upper class (Rogerson-Revell 2011: 6).

GA appears to be on the rise (Henderson et al. 2012: 21-22). Remarkably, however, the third most commonly used reference model in this study was "a type of International English" (Henderson et al. 2012: 20-23), which hence clearly demonstrates the increasing popularity of newer approaches towards pronunciation teaching. One of the most fundamental propositions in this regard is Jenkins' (2000) Lingua Franca Core.

3.2.2 Jenkins' (2000) Lingua Franca Core

This model targets phonetic features that are claimed to ensure mutual intelligibility among nonnative speakers (NNSs) in international settings. Based on her own empirical data, Jenkins (2000) identified four features that were essential for successful communication: the majority of consonant sounds, consonant clusters at the beginning and the middle of words, nuclear stress, and vowel length (cf. Jenkins 2000: 132). In contrast, she also found non-core features that despite their regular implementation in English courses, rarely resulted in miscommunications. They include the distinction between the consonants /θ/ and /ð/ (Jenkins 2000: 137), word stress (except nuclear stress), pitch movement, stress-timed rhythm, features of connected speech, and weak forms (Jenkins 2000: 146-156).

Over the past decades, the LFC has generated considerable public interest, which has also led to plenty of evolving research. Advocates of the LFC-approach praise, for instance, that it promotes intelligibility, is more approachable than NS norms, and allows the learners to maintain their natural accents and their identity (cf. Zoghbor 2018: 834-837). Moreover, scholars have questioned the appropriacy of NS models. Among the major arguments against them are that the extent of intelligibility of NSs' as opposed to NNSs' output is not by definition higher, and that the majority of communicative situations does not involve any NSs (Deterding & Gardiner 2018: 220). Consequently, the above-outlined reasons substantially support the use of LFC-based syllabi in English language courses.

Nevertheless, the LFC has also been subject to criticism. Considerable doubts have been uttered regarding a possible decrease in pronunciation standards if only LFC features are targeted (e.g. Walker 2010: 51-52). Concerns have furthermore been raised in respect of the still lacking widespread acceptance of this approach by practitioners and decision-makers in education (Deterding and Gardiner 2018: 228), and the vagueness of the descriptions of the LFC features (Ugarte Olea 2019: 81). Additionally, LFC opponents have criticized that since it solely aims to account for communicative situations among NNSs, NSs are discriminated against (e.g. Ugarte Olea 2019). Another related problem is that this approach is not appropriate for all contexts (e.g. Deterding & Gardiner 2018: 228-229; Trudgill 2005; Wells 2005) and thus needs

to be implemented with caution. The generalizability of Jenkins' empirical findings to international communications has equally been challenged because the data was exclusively collected in England (Isaacs 2018: 282). Lastly, Jenkins has been criticized for her missing systematicity in gathering and presenting the data, as this impedes the study's replication (Isaacs 2018: 282), while also limiting its validity fundamentally.

Taking these arguments into account, it becomes evident that, notwithstanding the growing popularity of this innovative approach, more research is required to support previous findings, stimulate new developments, and increase the general acceptance of the LFC. Moreover, a more integrative approach (Zoghbor 2018: 835) ought to be adopted to cater to a broader audience. Until these requirements are met, however, NS norms and the corresponding target models seem to remain indispensable components of pronunciation teaching practices. To which extent pronunciation is dealt with in EFL lessons in Austria can be assumed to be largely determined by its pertinence in the Austrian school curriculum and the CEFR, which will be investigated in the next section.

3.3 Official relevance of pronunciation teaching

In Austria, two major documents function as a framework for language teaching, namely the Austrian school curriculum and the CEFR. Therefore, they will be scrutinized in view of their pronunciation focus below. More specifically, regarding lower secondary learners, the curricula of 'AHS' and 'Mittelschule' will be explored. Due to the fact that curricula for adult education still seem to be entirely lacking, instead, the curriculum of AHS upper secondary will be taken into consideration to account for older, and cognitively more mature EFL learners. It should nonetheless be pointed out that the proficiency level targeted in this curriculum exceeds the level under examination in the present thesis.

3.3.1 Austrian school curriculum

Concerning the lower secondary curricula, the phonetic focus of AHS and Mittelschule is equally negligeable: they both solely comprise one identical passage that only refers to pronunciation peripherally. More precisely, in the section concerned with the use of teaching materials and learning aids, the potential of receptive mastery of phonetic transcription for the enhancement of learner autonomy is highlighted in both curricula, as they state "Das rezeptive Beherrschen der internationalen Lautschrift ist als Hilfsmittel bezüglich der Aussprache und Intonation nach Möglichkeit anzustreben. Damit wird das selbstständige Erarbeiten von

unbekanntem Wortmaterial gefördert".[17] This quotation predominantly centers on phonetic transcription rather than on pronunciation itself, which seems particularly astonishing taking into account that the age of the target learners usually merely ranges from 10 to 14. The complete absence of further references clearly illustrates that, as opposed to other areas such as vocabulary and grammar teaching, the role of pronunciation is only minor at lower language levels.

In contrast, more emphasis is put on pronunciation in the curriculum of AHS upper secondary since, regarding the students' linguistic competences, it clarifies "Lautwahrnehmung, Aussprache und Intonation sind in dem Maße zu schulen, wie sie für das vorgesehene Kompetenzniveau notwendig sind. Eine Annäherung der Aussprache an die Standardaussprache ist anzustreben".[18] Although auditory perception, pronunciation and intonation are explicitly mentioned in this passage, it is also specified that the extent to which these areas should be targeted is determined by the learners' language level.[19] Afterwards, standardized pronunciation norms are explicated to be the primary target, thereby leaving limited room for alternative models. Yet, the integration of different varieties is encouraged in the section devoted to the development of sociolinguistic competences:

> Nationale Sprachvarietäten sind exemplarisch zu integrieren. Bei speziell gegebenen Interessensschwerpunkten sind auch regionale, soziale, berufsspezifische und nicht-muttersprachliche Sprachvarianten zu berücksichtigen. Handelt es sich bei der gelehrten Fremdsprache um eine internationale Verkehrssprache (Lingua franca), ist auch der Kontakt mit nicht-muttersprachlichen Aussprachevarianten zu ermöglichen.[20]

According to these aims, most importantly national, but dependent on the learners' and the teachers' interests also social, job-related, and nonnative varieties ought to be introduced. Given that the term 'language variety' can but does not necessarily have to include pronunciation, however, it is added that in the case of lingua franca languages, speech samples of NNSs need to be addressed. Although these varieties only aim to complement rather than substitute NS norms, this clearly illustrates awareness of the lingua franca movement.

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[17] For the curriculum of AHS lower secondary, cf. https://www.ris.bka.gv.at/GeltendeFassung.wxe?Abfrage=Bundesnormen&Gesetzesnummer=10008568 (08 Dec. 2020).
For the curriculum of Mittelschule, cf. https://www.ris.bka.gv.at/GeltendeFassung.wxe?Abfrage=Bundesnormen&Gesetzesnummer=20007850 (11 Dec. 2020).

[18] https://www.ris.bka.gv.at/GeltendeFassung.wxe?Abfrage=Bundesnormen&Gesetzesnummer=10008568 (08 Dec. 2020).

[19] The respective requirements are further elaborated in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR), which will equally be discussed in this section.

[20] https://www.ris.bka.gv.at/GeltendeFassung.wxe?Abfrage=Bundesnormen&Gesetzesnummer=10008568 (08 Dec. 2020).

To sum up, the relevance of pronunciation in the lower secondary curricula of both AHS and Mittelschule is marginal, whereas a significantly stronger emphasis can be identified for upper secondary. This difference in extent of focus suggests that the phonetic emphasis should correlate with the students' language levels. However, this somewhat contradicts mainstream theories and research indicating that language learners starting at a younger age tend to outperform their older peers in view of pronunciation attainment (cf. section 4). Therefore, the relevance of pronunciation in these documents needs to be viewed critically and might require revision. Lastly, this section has shown that despite some encouragements to implement diverse language varieties, NS norms remain the overall target. Whether this also applies to the CEFR can be seen subsequently.

3.3.2 CEFR

Besides school curricula, general objectives for language learning, and more specifically for pronunciation, are defined in the CEFR. Its main aim is to serve as a framework for the establishment of language syllabi, curricula, and new materials, as well as for the assessment of language proficiency (cf. Council of Europe 2001: 1). The first publication of the CEFR in 2001 comprises copious descriptors in the form of can-do statements. They account for the overall learning aims of salient language skills and competences at six major levels of proficiency (from A1 to C2).[21] Regarding pronunciation in particular, the development of so-called 'phonological competence' is considered the main goal (cf. Council of Europe 2001: 116-117). According to the Council of Europe (2001: 116), this term denotes "knowledge of, and skill in the perception and the production of" phonemes, their allophones, and their distinctive characteristics, the phonetic composition of words including, for instance, their stress patterns and their syllable structure, as well as prosodic features, and various phenomena of reduction. Although the notion of 'phonological competence' thus covers a wide spectrum of phonetic areas, merely one descriptor called 'phonological control' was formulated in this respect (cf. Council of Europe 2001: 117).

This shortcoming was remedied in the CEFR's revised edition called *CEFR Companion Volume with New Descriptors* (Council of Europe 2020).[22] Its overall objective was to offer extensions of several scales, including the abovementioned descriptor 'phonological control'. In the new edition, the authors heavily criticized their previous approach towards pronunciation for two major reasons: first, the progression, especially the transition from B1 to B2, seemed

[21] These levels are partly also used in the Austrian curriculum.
[22] Its first version was already published online in 2018 (cf. Council of Europe 2018; for its scales for phonological control, cf. Table 7 in the appendix).

not to be realistic, and second, the primary target were NS norms. They admitted that learner-related, sociolinguistic as well as contextual factors cannot be accounted for if NS models that "ignore the retention of accent" are the principal aim (Council of Europe 2020: 133). Therefore, to be in line with more recent approaches (i.e. the LFC, cf. section 3.2.2), the intention was to shift the focus towards intelligibility, which they defined as the extent of "effort [that] is required from the interlocutor to decode the speaker's message" (Council of Europe 2020: 133). Although the concept of intelligibility has generally gained prominence in the field of pronunciation teaching, its implementation in the CEFR seems to be a vital step in increasing its acceptance.

Bearing in mind the considerable relevance of the CEFR to multiple areas of language teaching, more light should be shed on the new descriptors. Overall, three major subcategories were formed to account for current perspectives and to tackle the previously noted limitations: While one descriptor replaced the original one, two new scales centering on the articulation of individual sounds, and on prosody, respectively, were added. Their basic description is provided below (taken and adapted from the Council of Europe 2020: 133; for the more detailed scales, cf. Table 8 in the appendix):

(1) Overall phonological control
(based on the descriptor 'phonological control' in Council of Europe 2001)
e.g. intelligibility, influence from other languages
(2) Sound articulation
i.e. degree of clarity and precision of the speaker's utterances
(3) Prosodic features
e.g. control of intonation, rhythm and stress; ability to convey different shades of meaning

It can be seen that significantly more attention is paid to pronunciation teaching and learning in the Companion Volume. New developments resulting from the recent upsurge of interest in pronunciation teaching by researchers and practitioners alike, informed the establishment of descriptors that refer to crucial new concepts such as intelligibility and target both segmental and suprasegmental features (cf. appendix). Hence, these descriptors can serve teachers as a valuable teaching and assessment tool. Another major benefit of the extensions is that this raises awareness of the relevance of pronunciation for language acquisition in general, which might motivate teachers to increase the extent of pronunciation focus in their lessons.

All in all, it becomes evident that Austrian school curricula and the newest version of the CEFR differ considerably, not only with respect to the extent of emphasis on pronunciation, but also regarding the views they hold about appropriate targets. Given that pronunciation teaching still

seems to be a controversial issue, an examination of coursebooks is expected to yield interesting insights about the relevance assigned to pronunciation by material developers. This will thus partly be investigated in the analysis section of this thesis. To be able to describe the types of activities comprised in the books, a varied selection of typical and innovative examples will be presented hereinafter.

3.4 Sample activities

Despite the renewed interest in pronunciation teaching, literature on corresponding activities is still somewhat scarce. In general, however, raising awareness about certain phonetic features and pointing out rules and regularities seem to have become prominent teaching techniques. Specialists furthermore agree that, in order to enhance the learner's overall pronunciation performance, it is crucial to target both receptive and productive phonological skills (e.g. Kelly 2000: 15; Hewings 2004: 17). To this end, different activities, and task formats have evolved, some of which will be discussed below.[23] Due to the fact that the complex relation between pronunciation and spelling frequently poses difficulties to learners, practice activities in this respect will also be presented. Yet beforehand, in the next section, tasks targeting phonetic meta-knowledge will be introduced since they epitomize explicit instruction. Overall, it needs to be noted that, in accordance with the research aims of this thesis, solely explicit pronunciation tasks that are applicable with EFL beginners will be considered subsequently.[24] Although many of them seem not to adhere to CLT principles, they can significantly promote pronunciation acquisition by enhancing both the automatization of new phonetic features and the development of autocorrection skills (Lane 2010: 11). Irrespective of the tasks' nature, their adaptation to various learner- and context-related variables is essential to ensure the appropriacy of the tasks, as well as to maximize their effectiveness (for more information, cf. section 4).

[23] The terms 'activity', 'task' and 'exercise' are used interchangeably in this thesis since their possible distinction seems to be irrelevant to the research aims.
[24] Nevertheless, the activities can, of course, also be adapted to meet the needs of more advanced learners.

3.4.1 Targeting pronunciation on a meta-level

Phonetic and phonemic meta-knowledge is assumed to help learners substantially in improving their pronunciation skills. For instance, the ability to read phonetic symbols can be a vital first step towards autonomous pronunciation learning. Notwithstanding that some dictionaries use different characters (Grant 1993: 17), the symbols of the International Phonetic Alphabet seem to be predominantly employed in materials and can thus be introduced to the students. To practice their use, students can, for example, be asked to find specific symbols, stress patterns or entire transcriptions of given words in a dictionary (cf. Hewings 2004: 213). Practicing reading aloud such transcribed words or matching spellings of words to the corresponding transcriptions can also be useful activities to this end. In lieu of relying entirely on transcriptions, however, phonetic features can and should, of course, also be illustrated by means of audio files, for which digital dictionaries appear to be a valuable source.

Additionally, pointing out regularities of pronunciation patterns can prove helpful to students (for word stress rules in English, cf. Kenworthy 1987: 63-65). Instead of being presented by the teacher, the rules can also be deduced from suitable examples by the students. To support the formulation process, a classic gap-fill task can be used. At a later point in time, the gained knowledge can be tested in the form of a quiz, as this seems to be a ludic and competitive method to revise previous lesson contents.

Considering that the learners' motivation for pronunciation learning can enormously impact the effectiveness of activities (for learner-related factors, cf. section 4), Kenworthy (1987: 54) proposes tasks whose main goal is to increase the students' general interest in and awareness about pronunciation. One possibility she suggests is to implement a questionnaire investigating the students' opinions about the relevance of 'good' pronunciation, which can afterwards be discussed in groups or with the entire class.[25] The questions should encourage reflection upon personal pronunciation experiences and individual viewpoints regarding the value of pronunciation in specific situations (e.g. *How do you feel when a foreigner pronounces your name wrong?*, Kenworthy 1987: 55). Even though this activity can stimulate the students' motivation for improving their pronunciation skills, it seems evident that meticulous attention ought to be paid to both the selection and formulation of the questions. Besides such tasks centering on pronunciation on a meta-level, a broad variety of receptive task formats have been developed, some of which will be highlighted in the subsequent section.

[25] Kenworthy (1987: 54-55) points out that depending on the group's composition and the proficiency level, the learners' L1 can be used for the questionnaire and/or the discussion.

3.4.2 Targeting reception

For the vast majority of EFL learners, acquiring receptive skills can be asserted to be an expedient first step towards developing productive skills (Hewings 2004: 17). To practice such receptive abilities, both Hewings (2004: 17) and Morley (1991: 505) advocate listening tasks. More precisely, Morley (1991: 505) argues that such tasks can enhance the students' capacity of discernment, their ability to discriminate phonetic features as well as their general ability to comprehend the language. However, to fulfill their potential, appropriate aural input is key. Ideally, a broad range of non-standardized and standardized varieties should be introduced because this is believed to facilitate the comprehension process (Jenkins 2000). Consequently, the use of various sources including the teacher's speeches, traditional course book recordings, digital dictionaries, and authentic materials from the Internet, seems recommendable.

The aural input can be processed by means of different task formats (cf. Kenworthy 1987: 47-48). Many of them involve minimal pairs, i.e. words solely differing in a single phoneme (e.g. <choke> and <joke>, Kenworthy 1987: 46). Their principal aim is to practice the distinction between two similar sounds. For example, students can be asked to order such minimal pair words according to their sequence of appearance either in a recording or in a list read aloud by the teacher (e.g. (1) <sit>, (2) <set>, (3) <seat>). This can help students to perceive differences between sounds, especially in problematic areas such as vowel length and voicing. As an additional productive phase of this activity, students can devise their own sequence of words, say them aloud and let their partner(s) guess their words in turns. In this case, not only are students encouraged to articulate the sounds, but they also receive immediate feedback about the effectiveness of their productions. To avoid practicing the words solely in isolation, they can also be contextualized as demonstrated by Hewings (2004). He provides various gap-fill tasks to practice the distinction between two target sounds (Hewings 2004: 56-58). More specifically, the students have to choose which minimal pair word out of two viable options they heard in a recording. For illustration, sentences aiming at the distinction between /ɪ/ and /i:/ are given below (taken and adapted from Hewings 2004: 57). These targets seem somewhat pertinent since vowel quantity, especially of the high vowels /ɪ/, /i:/, /ʊ/, and /u:/, has been found to be challenging for Austrian learners (Wieden & Nemser 1991: 56):

> I can't …… without it. (live/leave)
> Don't…… on the floor. (slip/sleep)
> There's nothing to…… . (it/eat)

Similarly, learners can be prompted to count the appearances of a specific phonetic phenomenon in a given context. For instance, the number of occurrences of certain individual sounds, weak forms, or contractions in short sentences (cf. Kenworthy 1987: 48), or texts can be examined.

The distinction between sounds can also be trained in tasks requiring the identification of targets. Kenworthy's (1987: 48) suggestion is to introduce two difficult phonemes as either '1' and '2' or 'A' and 'B' (e.g. 1: /v/ in <van> vs. 2: /f/ in <fan>). Afterwards, the teacher says several words comprising these phonemes which the students have to identify and label accordingly. Instead of using numbers or letters, the students can also be asked to hold up cards or do a certain move to indicate their answers (e.g. standing up or sitting down, Pennington 1996: 229). In a similar vein, Taylor proposes a 'Yes/no game' (1993: 87 cited in Dalton & Seidlhofer 1994: 126) where students have to decide whether words contain a certain sound or not. Each round, those participants who do not show the right card or place last in holding it up are eliminated from the game until solely one winner remains. Due to its competitive character, this activity might be particularly appealing and motivating for younger learners.

Furthermore, to practice word stress or specific phonemes, categorization tasks are frequently implemented (cf. Kelly 2000: 80-81). As for this task format, possibly but not necessarily based on a recording, students have to allocate words to their respective columns according to a certain phonetic feature they comprise. To give an example, the following task could be used to work on stress patterns of nouns adhering to the lexical field 'professions' (taken and adapted from Kelly 2000: 80):

Oo	**Ooo**	**oOo**	**Oooo**	**ooOo**
doctor, artist, plumber, gardener, soldier, musician, businessman, teacher […]				

In this table, stressed syllables are represented by a capitalized <O>, whereas unstressed syllables are marked as <o>. If this table is printed on paper, the students can write down the nouns to the corresponding columns individually or in pairs. Alternatively, the interaction format could be easily altered, for instance, by putting these professions on cards, handing them out, and prompting the students to form groups based on stress patterns (cf. Kelly 2000: 81). Furthermore, the above-cited table could be copied to the board so that the students can add their cards accordingly (Kelly 2000: 81). Regardless of the format, however, Kelly (2000: 80)

is convinced that categorization tasks prove valuable for pointing out regularities to the students since they might transfer them to other words (Kelly 2000: 80), hence encouraging learner autonomy.

Another typical receptive task format is called ‘Same or different’ (cf. Kenworthy 1987: 48). Here, students have to indicate whether given items are identical (i.e. <S> for <same>) or different (i.e. <D> for <different>) in view of certain phonetic features like individual sounds (cf. Hewings 2004: 51), syllable structure, or stress patterns. Therefore, this activity effectively raises awareness of the targeted aspects and thereby enhances their attainment. For better illustration, Kenworthy (1987: 62) suggests the following words to practice the distinction between stress patterns:

operate	beautiful	S/D
milk and sugar	tea and coffee	S/D
coca-cola	lemonade	S/D

To put the prime focus of this task on perceptive skills, the students need to be instructed to complete the task by listening to either a recording or the teacher’s pronunciation of the words. As an alternative teaching method, students can also be encouraged to guess the answers by experimenting with word stress themselves. Either way, it is crucial to check and illustrate the correct answers afterwards.

Equally aiming at the improvement of perceptive skills are tasks prompting learners to identify and mark one word or phrase that differs in a certain phonetic feature from all other examples given in a list. These can thus be termed ‘Odd one out’-tasks (cf. Kenworthy 1987: 48). For elementary learners, Hewings (2004: 179-181) suggests this task format to practice the different phonetic representations of /s/-endings (i.e. in possessives, verbs and plurals). To exemplify, among the plural nouns <dogs>, <cats>, and <rabbits>, the former should be marked by the students due to its voiced pronunciation as /z/ as opposed to /s/ in the latter two cases. Additionally, Hewings (2004: 184) proposes that, in lieu of merely completing the task, each student could be asked to find a certain number of words, including one item that does not contain the target feature, so that the teacher can create a task based on their suggestions. This adaptation of the task seems particularly useful because a link between the target feature and the students’ lexical knowledge is established.

Individual sound discrimination and identification can also be practiced by playing ‘Bingo’ (cf. e.g. Kenworthy’s ‘Phonetic Bingo’ 1987: 50-51; Hewing’s ‘Minimal Pair Bingo’ 2004: 53; Kelly’s ‘Phonemic Bingo’ 2000: 40-41). As a preparation for this activity, students typically either receive or fill a square table in tic-tac-toe shape with nine words comprising the target sound(s). They can either be spelled out, transcribed, or represented in the form of pictures. To practice the distinction between /s/ and /θ/, for example, minimal pair words like <mouse>, <mouth>, <thank>, <sank>, <sink>, <think>, <sick>, <thick>, <sing>, <thing>, could be put into the squares (examples taken from Hewings 2004: 52). The caller then says selected words, which the students have to tick off on their sheets until the first student has completed an entire row or card and shouts “Bingo!”. Lastly, the winner’s answers are checked by letting him/her pronounce the words. This phase is vital since it allows the students to practice the words, while also receiving immediate feedback on their pronunciation. If more rounds are played, the students can also take the role of the caller. Overall, ‘Bingo’ seems thus to be a useful activity, not only due to its great potential to generate motivation, but also because it can be used to tackle particular areas of difficulty (e.g. vowels), train perception in general, or serve as a tool for problem diagnosis.

This section aimed to give basic insights into the vast variety of receptive formats, activities, and teaching methods. Even though some of the activities discussed above already involve productive phases, their primary aim is the development of perceptive and discriminative skills. However, it ought to be stressed that the majority of these tasks could be easily modified to target other aspects of pronunciation or different skill sets. The tasks introduced in the next section predominantly focus on productive phonetic abilities.

3.4.3 Targeting production

In view of productive skills, Morley (1991: 505) stresses that pronunciation should be practiced in activities requiring emulating, prepared as well as improvised speech productions from initial learning stages onward. Partially falling into Morley’s (1991: 505) first category, Dalton and Seidlhofer (1994: 131) distinguish four predominant kinds of tasks that aim at productive skills: listen and repeat, tongue twisters, minimal pairs, and minimal pairs in utterances. Although some specialists view traditional drilling techniques such as ‘listen and repeat’ as outdated, others, like Rogerson-Revell (2011: 23), value them for their potential to automatize language features and encourage the development of novel muscular habits. Therefore, to date, ‘listen and repeat’-tasks can still be assumed to be indispensable in pronunciation courses and materials.

Concerning Dalton and Seidlhofer's (1994: 131) second type, tongue twisters can be practiced chorally or individually to work on the articulation of specific sounds. Usually, the students are instructed to produce the sentences as rapidly as possible (e.g. Hewings 2004: 221), which increases this activity's playful character. With beginners, simplified versions like the following examples targeting aspirated consonants could be used (taken from Pennington 1996: 77-78):

> Peter Piper picked a pepper.
> Tiny Tim took his time.

Given that Dalton and Seidlhofer's (1994: 131) third and fourth type center on minimal pairs, it becomes evident that they are essential components of productive pronunciation practice. For example, they can be implemented in the form of a guessing game to practice the discernment of segmental features. More precisely, the first student pronounces a word from a given list of minimal pairs which their partner has to guess afterwards (Pennington 1996: 85). To shift the emphasis towards the viewable characteristics of sound articulation, this activity can also be transformed into a lip-reading game (cf. Hewings 2004: 68-69). Since the words are then only articulated soundlessly, solely sounds with visible differences can be targeted in this task (e.g. consonants such as /θ/ vs. /s/ or /θ/ vs. /d/; for other examples, cf. Hewings 2004: 68-67; or vowels like /i:/ vs. /u:/, cf. Hewings 2004: 42). Considering that numerous problematic sounds can also be distinguished when being produced silently, such a lip-reading game seems to be a useful remedial activity.

As a follow-up task, the students can be encouraged to embed the same minimal pair words in their own sentences or short dialogues because this requires the pronunciation of the targets in context. Dalton & Seidlhofer's (1994: 132) minimal pairs in utterances and Pennington's (1996: 274) sample dialogues for contextual discrimination between minimal pairs even go a step further by providing sentences in which both minimal pair words could be used (for dialogues including *pat/bat* or *time/dime*, cf. Pennington 1996: 78). Taking turns, one student has to select either of the words (e.g. *He hid/hit the ball.*, Pennington 1996: 274), whereupon their partner has to respond accordingly (e.g. *Where did he hide/hit it?*, Pennington 1996: 274). As a final step, the first student can give feedback regarding the correctness of his/her peer's answer. Therefore, both students have to perceive and pronounce the target sound(s) correctly, thus maximizing this activity's effectiveness. Nonetheless, complementary tasks allowing for the use of the sounds in free speech seem recommendable to encourage deeper engagement.

Individual sounds and other phonetic phenomena can also be targeted in combination with the students' lexical knowledge. For instance, students can simply be asked to find a certain number of examples for a specific phonetic phenomenon among words they have recently learned (cf. Hewings 2004: 184). Naturally, the word class or the lexical field can also be defined depending on the overall aims and needs. Consequently, this task's major advantages are its simple and effortless preparation as well as its adaptability. Similar to this, Pennington (1996: 123) proposes a competitive group activity, in which students have to find as many words comprising two target sounds within two to three minutes as possible (e.g. /ɪ/ vs. /i:/). They have to correctly allocate the words to the corresponding column to obtain points. Optionally, misplaced words can be penalized by point deductions (Pennington 1996: 123). Hence, this stimulating task can be used to activate vocabulary, as well as to enhance phonetic discrimination skills.

Even more than two sounds can be centered on in the game 'noughts and crosses' (cf. Kelly 2000: 41-42). As a first step of this pair or group activity, the students receive a grid with nine squares, each of which is filled with a phonetic symbol. In alternating turns, two opponents then try to mark noughts or crosses, respectively, by naming a word that contains the target sound (Kelly 2000: 41). The first student who successfully marks three in a row wins (Kelly 2000: 42). However, it ought to be pointed out that for this version of the game to work, the students need to be well acquainted with the selected phonetic symbols and their meaning. If this is the case, this activity's benefits are manifold: besides its ludic character and its resulting stimulating effects, it offers valuable practice of the phonetic symbols, while also establishing a link between lexical and phonetic knowledge.

To engage students more creatively, Pennington (1996: 83) suggests instructing the students to write either a poem or a story with given words containing a certain sound. For example, the phrases *picnic, in the park,* and *with pink party punch* could be used to practice the sound /p/ in word initial position. Of course, the incorporation of different or additional words can also be encouraged. As a next step, the texts should be corrected by the teacher before the students then have to read aloud their compositions. Reading aloud can generally prove to be an effective pronunciation activity if particular emphasis is placed on certain target features. This is in accordance with Kelly (2000: 81) who explicitly advocates reading aloud to work on stress and intonation.

Given that these two phonetic areas (i.e. stress and intonation) are almost inseparably linked, they are also frequently targeted together in activities. For instance, an easy and joyful method to introduce the notions of both sentence stress and intonation to beginners is elaborated in Hewings (2004: 142-144). He advises teachers to quote the famous utterances *My NAME'S BOND. JAMES Bond.* with falling intonation and to raise awareness about the difference in emphasis between the first and the second utterance. Afterwards, students should introduce themselves to their peers by using the same stress pattern (e.g. *My NAME'S POINTner. SARah Pointner.*, Hewings 2004: 142). Hewings' (2004:142-144) subsequent suggestion is to conduct a matching task whose items follow the same stress pattern (e.g. *What color's your car? – It's RED. DARK red.,* cf. Hewings (2004: 144)). After the results are compared, students can first practice saying these phrases and then try to find similar examples in pairs. During these stages, the teacher should monitor the students' output to provide corrective feedback if necessary (Hewings 2004: 143). Thus, the main aim of this task is to introduce the concepts of prominence and falling pitch as well as to offer an opportunity to practice the production of these features.

Particularly suitable to work on sentence stress with beginners are simple dialogs involving repetitions. Kenworthy (1987: 35) proposes the following sample:

A: WHAT do you DO?
B: I'm a comPUter PROgrammer. What do YOU do?
A: I work in a soLIcitor's OFFice.

Again, the teacher has to raise awareness about the stress shift, before letting the students practice the dialog in pairs. To allow for more communicative language use, students can subsequently be instructed to apply the same stress pattern in their own conversations based on common questions like *What's your name?*, *How are you?* or *Where are you from?* (Kenworthy 1987: 35). As the tendency towards reducing the second question, for instance, to *And YOU?* seems somewhat high for real-life conversations, this could equally be mentioned in the classroom (Kenworthy 1987: 35). Overall, this task's principal assets are its communicative nature as well as the relevance of the utilized phrases for authentic contexts.

Another possibility to practice foregrounding is by prompting students to say the same sentence multiple times with different stress placements (e.g. *WE did not go to the restaurant last Saturday night.* vs. *We did NOT go to the restaurant last Saturday night.*, taken from Pennington 1996: 178). For this activity to be effective, however, students need to be aware of the change in meaning that results from the shift in stress placement, which can be further targeted in matching exercises (cf. Dalton & Seidlhofer 1994: 55). Tasks involving contrastive

stress contexts can then serve as a follow-up activity (cf. Pennington 1996: 178-179). More precisely, the Pennington's suggestion is to hand out a list of sentences with different stress patterns (e.g. indicated in form of capitalized letters). In pairs, the students then have to choose one option and write a brief dialog to contextualize it. This dialog is subsequently practiced and performed so as to allow for guesses regarding the stress placement of the originally selected sentence.

Acting out dialogs can also be a useful activity for intonation improvement. Due to the fact that, similar to sentence stress, an alteration in intonation can substantially change the meaning of utterances, one dialog can be embedded into two entirely different contexts. Dalton and Seidlhofer (1994: 162-163) provide an exemplary conversation that could equally take place between a daughter and her parent or between two lovers. The authors' teaching idea is to randomly allocate either version of the instructions to each pair. Afterwards, the students have to first prepare and then enact their dialog in front of the whole class. Since the colleagues have to guess the nature of the characters' relationship, the actors ought to pay attention to prosodic features such as intonation, as well as to non-verbal features of communication. Ideally, the performances are filmed or recorded, as this facilitates the subsequent discussion in which students should talk about the clues that helped them in discovering the characters' attitudes. Although such activities provide a great opportunity to experiment with language features, more introvert students might not feel comfortable about acting out in front of their peers. Consequently, alternative tasks like filming or reading aloud the dialogs should also be offered.

Various prosodic features equally need to be used to differentiate meanings in Pennington's (1996: 180-181) pair work activity. Again, student A has to say a sentence, whose meaning student B has to guess subsequently. To provide an example, depending on the speaker's pronunciation, the sentence *The phone is ringing.* can be interpreted as *I am surprised by this.* or *We both expected it to ring, and you are to answer it.* (taken from Pennington 1996: 180). Therefore, not only can students practice several prosodic features at once, but they also receive immediate feedback by their peers.

To sum up, this section has introduced a great variety of task formats, teaching methods, and activities that aim to enhance the production of segmental and suprasegmental features. Given that the complex relation between pronunciation and spelling is a particularly challenging area for EFL learners, tasks in this regard will be further explored thereinafter.

3.4.4 Targeting the relation between spelling and pronunciation

Taking into account that 26 alphabetic characters aim to represent 44 sounds in English (for the sounds, cf. section 2.2), it becomes evident that letters can take different phonetic forms (Kelly 2000: 122). In the literature, they are hence accordingly referred to as 'multi-valued' (e.g. Kenworthy 1987: 94). A typical example is the letter <c> because it can either be pronounced as /s/ (e.g. in <celebrity>) or /k/ (e.g. in <cup>). Conversely, a variety of letters or a compound of multiple letters can also form a single sound (e.g. <pull>, <cook>, <should> articulated as /ʊ/). Other letters are completely elided in certain phonetic surroundings (e.g. <k> in <know>, <p> in <psychology>, cf. Kenworthy 1987: 96). As the complex relation between sounds and their written form might thus be a potential source of difficulty for learners, general rules and crucial irregularities should be pointed out to them (for rules, cf. Kenworthy 1987: 100-109; or Celce-Murcia et al. 2010: 439-444). In ideal circumstances, the learners can then apply this phonetic knowledge autonomously when encountering new words (Kelly 2000: 123).

Both the correspondence between spelling and pronunciation and the learners' autonomy can further be promoted by activities relying on phonetic transcriptions in dictionaries. For example, Kelly's (2000: 129) proposition is to provide learners with a list of words comprising a certain target letter (e.g. <a> in <pan>, <banana>, <ask>, etc.).[26] In small groups, they have to consult the dictionary to categorize the words in accordance with the different phonetic symbols representing the target letter. To give this activity a more ludic character and to stimulate the students' motivation, it can also be transformed into a competition. Another albeit somewhat similar possibility is to instruct learners to identify words containing a particular sound in a text. Afterwards, if necessary, their guesses can be verified by means of a dictionary (Kelly 2000: 129).

Additionally, homographs and homophones can serve as a valuable practice activity to establish a link between spelling and pronunciation. The term 'homograph' refers to words having identical spelling and different phonetic representations (e.g. <read> in the infinitive and past tense form), while the more frequent 'homophones' denote words that are identically pronounced but differ in writing (e.g. <one> and <won>, Kenworthy 1987: 95). Regarding the implementation of these linguistic phenomena, Pennington (1996: 217) suggests utilizing 'Odd one out'-tasks in which a third word should be differentiated from two homophonic ones.

[26] These are my own examples.

For illustration, four examples targeting diphthongs are given below (taken from Pennington 1996: 217):

die	day	dye
sail	sale	sell
mall	male	mail
pale	pail	pal

Similarly, learners can be asked to find pairs of identically sounding words in a list (e.g. <weight>/<wait>, <eight>/<ate>, etc., cf. Pennington 1996: 216-217). As a useful variation of this task, the words can be incorporated in sentences or a reading comprehension. Not only are the words then contextualized, but their difference in meaning can also be illustrated.

Lastly, the relation between spelling and pronunciation can be practiced using dictation. Even though teachers traditionally take the role of the dictators, alternatively, students can also dictate words or phrases to one another. Besides the limited effort and preparation time for teachers, substantial benefits of this activity include the engagement of both receptive and productive skills as well as its usefulness as a feedback method.

To summarize, in the first part of this chapter, major past, present and possible future directions towards pronunciation teaching have been discussed. It has become evident that to date, traditional teaching approaches as well as native norms still seem indispensable. Nonetheless, the recently re-awakened interest in pronunciation teaching has also resulted in new attempts to increase its overall importance as well as in considerable criticism of its fundamental principles. As outlined above, this has led to the establishment of new pronunciation targets – the LFC features – whose use has, however, not yet been successful on a larger scale. Although considerable efforts have also been made to revise and expand the corresponding learning descriptors of the CEFR, pronunciation still occupies a minor position in the Austrian school curriculum, and thus most likely also in Austrian EFL classrooms. In the final section, a vast variety of task formats and activities have been introduced to encourage the implementation of pronunciation by providing teachers with new ideas, while also forming the basis for the coursebook analysis in chapter 5. Since materials ought to cater to numerous contextual factors pertaining to both the learners and the setting, these will be highlighted in the next chapter.

4. Factors affecting pronunciation learning of young and adult EFL learners in Austria

As mentioned earlier, the thesis at hand centers on four commonly used coursebooks in Austria that aim at two different age groups, namely students in lower secondary (LS) or adult learners (AL). Given that the learners' age, their L1, and the setting have a strong impact on the overall learning objectives, conditions, and needs, these factors should also influence material design and will hence be investigated. A myriad of studies have explored the numerous variables affecting L2 pronunciation learning and their complex interplay (for research in this regard, cf. e.g. Moyer 2014; Pei & Qin 2019); yet among them, the age-factor has oftentimes received special attention in first and second language acquisition alike (FLA and SLA, respectively). Considering the relevance of this variable to the present project, age-effects and their underlying theories will be elucidated in the following subsection. Afterwards, light will be shed on the influence of the L1 in general, before problematic phonetic areas of German NSs will be focused on in particular.[27] Finally, due to the significant influence of environmental factors on phonetic acquisition, peculiarities of the Austrian setting will be described.

4.1 Age

Age and its impact on language acquisition has been widely debated for a long time. Previous research in SLA has suggested that adults initially outperform younger learners not only in areas such as morphology and syntax (e.g. Krashen, Long & Scarcella 1979) but also in pronunciation (e.g. Fuhrmeister, Schlemmer & Myers 2020). Nonetheless, scholars also agree that in the long run, L2 learners with an early age of onset normally attain better language proficiency than learners commencing in adulthood (Singleton 2003: 14). This tendency seems to particularly apply to accent development because even though the comparability of research findings in this field is oftentimes hampered by great differences in methodology, participants, and setting (e.g. FL settings vs. 'naturalistic' settings[28]), numerous studies have indicated an age-related decline in phonological acquisition (e.g. Scovel 1988; Flege et al. 2006).

[27] It should be clarified, however, that despite its status as official language, German certainly is not the L1 of all EFL learners in Austria. Nonetheless, this simplification will be made throughout this thesis for reasons of practicality.

[28] This term refers to settings where the L2 also forms an essential part of everyday life outside the language classroom.

Regarding possible reasons for this downward trend, experts have customarily referred to the critical period hypothesis (CPH). Originally developed for FLA and then expanded to SLA,[29] the CPH postulates the existence of one – or more (cf. Seliger 1978) – sensitive period(s) in which the conditions for language acquisition are optimal (for more information, cf. sections 4.1.1 and 4.1.2). After the completion of this critical period (CP), however, attaining native-like proficiency is claimed to be highly unlikely or – pursuant to the strongest version of the CPH – even impossible. Provided that these pivotal turning points do exist, the question of their precise occurrence arises. One of the most seminal propositions in this respect was put forward by Lenneberg (1967). In his famous work *Biological foundations of language* (Lenneberg 1967), he introduced a neurologically-based hypothesis according to which the CP for language acquisition ended at around puberty. It has received considerable support from certain scholars (e.g. Scovel 1988) while also being seriously challenged by others. Various counterhypotheses have evolved in the process, a particularly significant one by Krashen (1973).[30] He asserted the completion of the critical period to be as early as around the age of five. To understand their common ground as well as the differences between these two major theories, they will be described in greater detail hereinafter.

4.1.1 The critical period by puberty hypothesis

Initially propounded by Penfield and Roberts (1959) and then further developed by Lenneberg (1967),[31] this version of the CPH posits that due to cerebral changes, native-like language acquisition becomes impossible after puberty. Lenneberg (1967) believed that for languages, the interhemispheric specialization, i.e. the lateralization of specific language functions to either of the cerebral hemispheres, occurs progressively from birth until its completion at around twelve.[32] At this point, the brain is assumed to lose its plasticity which also has severe consequences for foreign language acquisition. Lenneberg (1967: 176) stated in this regard that "the incidence of 'language-learning-blocks' rapidly increases after puberty" and that "automatic acquisition from mere exposure to a given language seems to disappear after this age" so that "foreign languages have to be taught and learned through a conscious and laboured

[29] This expansion has also been subject to considerable criticism (e.g. Mayberry & Kluender 2018).
[30] Additionally, as stated earlier, Seliger's (1978) assumptions advocating multiple sensitive periods also gained prominence. Due to the fact that in line with Lenneberg (1967), Seliger (1978) assumes that learners mostly lose their ability to acquire native-like pronunciation in a FL around puberty (cf. Seliger 1978: 16), this theory will not be further examined in the thesis at hand.
[31] Lenneberg (1967) centered on FLA; his line of thought was later extended to L2 acquisition by Johnson and Newport (1989).
[32] However, scholars generally assumed the critical period to end at slightly different ages, mostly ranging from nine to twelve (cf. Dollmann, Kogan & Weißmann 2020: 789).

effort" (Lenneberg 1967: 176). He then added that "[f]oreign accents cannot be overcome easily after puberty" (Lenneberg 1967: 176). Hence, not only did he observe general differences in language acquisition before and after puberty (i.e. incidental and intentional learning, respectively), but he also referred to an increased persistency of accents when new pronunciation patterns are acquired after the completion of the CP. These ideas were particularly supported by Scovel (1988). In line with his predecessor, he situated the end of the CP for pronunciation mastery at the age of twelve and forecast the foreign accents of later L2 learners to remain easily detectable (Scovel 1988: 123). In addition, however, he underscored the unique position of pronunciation within the language learning process by pointing out its neuromuscular involvement (Scovel 1988: 101; or Scovel 2000: 219).

Because of the crucial implications for EFL classrooms in general and pronunciation teaching in particular, Lenneberg's theory sparked heated debates among experts in the field. A pivotal counterproposition in this regard was made by Krashen (1973).

4.1.2 The critical period by childhood hypothesis

Unlike his colleagues, Krashen (1973) argued for the turning point to be as early as age five. Apart from this, he largely agreed with Lenneberg (1967): First, before the completion of the lateralization process, both cerebral hemispheres are engaged in language-related processes that include speech production, whereas afterwards, the left hemisphere is more dominantly used (Lenneberg 1967: 150).[33] Second, the end point of lateralization and thus of the CP can be determined by means of studies that are concerned with left and right cerebral injuries of children and adults, and their effects on speech development. Krashen (1973) even re-examined one of Lenneberg's (1967) sources (i.e. Basser 1962). Even though he equally found evidence that injuries to the right hemisphere provoke aphasia more frequently in children than adults (cf. Krashen 1973: 64) – which hence indicated that the lateralization process still was incomplete in childhood – he noticed that the vast majority of Basser's (1962) subjects had already been injured before the age of five (Krashen 1973: 65) rather than, as Lenneberg (1967) asserted, up until puberty. More precisely, Krashen realized that merely one of the twenty injuries occurred later, at age ten. Given that this child did not suffer from aphasia, however, this case did not support Lenneberg's claim according to Krashen (1973: 65). Seeking to prove his theory, Krashen then reviewed research from other fields, including, for instance, studies involving dichotic listening, and psychological tests (cf. Krashen 1973). Since the findings

[33] Nevertheless, in the event of severe injury, a language function can also be transferred from the dominant to the other hemisphere (i.e. *transfer*, cf. Krashen 1973: 67).

further confirmed his beliefs, he concluded that the completion of cerebral specialization already had to be reached at around five (Krashen 1973: 65). Nonetheless, he stressed that the "[c]ompletion of lateralization […] does not mean the establishment of an absolute barrier to language acquisition" (Krashen 1973: 72). Consequently, the author believes that older learners still have the ability to acquire a language.

Although Lenneberg's (1967) and Krashen's (1973) proposals have initiated extensive research on the matter, findings as to whether such a clear-cut period exists have remained inconclusive. Today, extreme versions of the CPH (e.g. Scovel 1988) are broadly rejected. Instead, scholars usually argue for a more linear and constant decline in L2 learning (e.g. Singleton 2003). Regarding pronunciation mastery in particular, a growing body of evidence has demonstrated that exceptional adult learners are indeed capable of obtaining a native-like accent (e.g. Ioup et al. 1994; Bongaerts, Planken & Schils 1995; Moyer 1999; Nikolov 2000; Dollmann, Kogan & Weißmann 2020). These studies prove that natural, age-related disadvantages in accent attainment can be compensated for by other variables such as increased cognitive abilities or the learners' access to diverse communication opportunities with NSs (both examples taken from Dollmann, Kogan & Weißmann 2020). As such beneficiary conditions also yield valuable implications for teaching, more research will probably be dedicated to them in the future.

These particular cases notwithstanding, it seems evident that the vast majority of older learners rather tends to encounter difficulties in acquiring new pronunciation patterns. Besides a potential critical period for pronunciation, numerous other decisive factors can contribute to these age-related differences. For instance, adults frequently rely on their cognitive abilities, especially on their analytic skills. However, these skill sets seem not to be as effective in terms of phonological acquisition as the "more natural skills" employed by younger learners (Lane 2010: 5). To bridge this gap, teachers could thus particularly support adult learners by implementing both explicit pronunciation instruction and practice opportunities since these have shown to enhance pronunciation (e.g. Hansen Edwards 2017: 394).

Additionally, some age-related socio-psychological factors are sometimes stated as possible causes for the decline in phonological proficiency of adults (Lane 2010: 4). More precisely, in comparison with children, older learners supposedly feel more profoundly connected to their native culture (Lane 2010: 4), which can substantially inhibit phonological development in the L2. Nevertheless, a positive attitude towards both the target culture and accent can still boost phonological acquisition. Due to the strong influence of the learners' attitudes on their learning progress, their motivation, and multiple other factors, it might be useful to investigate the

students' opinions about the TL and culture. This would allow teachers to provide necessary additional information and adapt their courses accordingly. Apart from identity, attitude, and motivation (for a more detailed account, cf. Hansen Edwards 2017), a myriad of other interrelated individual factors also has proved to affect phonological acquisition, including, for example, aptitude, personality, and anxiety (for a review of these factors, cf. chapter 4 in Richter 2019). As these variables might differ substantially between the learners, it is of utmost importance that teachers are aware of them and adapt their pronunciation teaching practices to the respective target group.

Taking all these findings into consideration, age does seem to have a strong influence on pronunciation learning and achievement. Despite the contradicting evidence and contrastive views on whether a critical period for language learning exists, previous research has revealed that adult learners tend to encounter more problems in respect of pronunciation acquisition than children (e.g. Lane 2010). Ultimately, this results in an age-related decline in pronunciation attainment whose exact reasons, however, are not yet fully clear (Rogerson-Revell 2011: 17). As outlined above, it can be assumed that among other variables, neurological, cognitive, and socio-psychological factors play a vital part in this regard. Although they are beyond the control of the teacher, attempts can be made to limit the decline in phonological performance by providing explicit pronunciation instruction as well as appropriate practice materials, thereby demonstrating yet again the relevance of the subsequent analysis. In addition to the learners' age, the impact of the L1 on pronunciation has also generated avid interest among scholars. It will hence be further elaborated in the next section.

4.2 The L1

The fact that based on NNSs' foreign accents, NSs are usually able to identify the L1 – provided they are familiar with it – clearly illustrates the strong influence of the L1 on L2 pronunciation (Lane 2010: 5). Yet, not only does the L1 have an impact on the production but also on the perception of L2 sounds (Lane 2010: 5). For example, if two L2 sounds are represented by one single sound in the L1, it might be challenging for learners to perceive the difference (Lane 2010: 5). Consequently, for decades, it has been believed that the more similar the phonological systems of languages are, the easier they are to acquire (e.g. Kenworthy 1987: 4). The basis of this conjecture forms the concept of 'positive L1 transfer', which, together with its counterpart 'negative transfer', will be exposed below. Nevertheless, it should be underscored that a contrastive body of research suggests the precise opposite: multiple studies have found that phonological differences between the language systems can actually facilitate the acquisition process (e.g. Selinker 1992).[34]

4.2.1 Positive and negative transfer

Both positive and negative transfer – the latter sometimes also termed 'interference' (Celce-Murcia, Brinton & Goodwin 1996: 20) – rely on the contrastive analysis hypothesis originally proposed by Robert Lado (1957). This theory's underlying assumption is that the L1 functions as a filter for the L2, thereby either facilitating or impeding the acquisition process. If linguistic items are similar in both languages, they are assumed to be easily transferable from the L1 to the L2; those processes are thus coined 'positive transfer'. Conversely, target structures that either do not exist or lack similarity to L1 structures presumably inhibit the learning process, hence the terms 'interference' and 'negative transfer' (cf. Celce-Murcia, Brinton & Goodwin 1996: 19-20). Despite initial, prevalent approval, this theory has been subject to severe criticism (Celce-Murcia, Brinton & Goodwin 1996: 20). Nonetheless, the vast majority of scholars maintain that negative transfer is relevant in L2 phonological acquisition and plays a pivotal role in accent development (Celce-Murcia, Brinton & Goodwin 1996: 20).

[34] For example, researchers have obtained evidence for the fact that entirely new sounds tend to be pronounced more accurately than phonemes that have a similar equivalent in the L1, whereas L2 phonemes that considerably resemble the L1 sounds are frequently miscategorized as identical (Rogerson-Revell 2011: 19) and are thus likely to be mispronounced.

The notion of linguistic transfer is closely linked to the concept of markedness. Its aim is to explain and predict challenges that learners are likely to face when acquiring specific phonological features. In essence, markedness theory posits that some features are 'marked', i.e. "more specific, less frequent, more limited, later acquired" (Celce-Murcia, Brinton & Goodwin 1996: 22), whereas others are 'unmarked', i.e. "more basic, or neutral, more universal, more frequent, first acquired" (Celce-Murcia, Brinton & Goodwin 1996: 22). According to this theory, the acquisition of marked features is believed to be more challenging. For instance, closed syllables with a consonant in word-final position (e.g. <shop>) are more marked and thus more difficult to acquire than open syllables ending with a vowel (e.g. <play>) that are hence less marked (Lane 2010: 6). Following this line of thought, different degrees of markedness of a certain phonetic feature in two languages would then cause problems to learners (cf. e.g. Celce-Murcia, Brinton & Goodwin 1996: 22-23; Lane 2010: 6).

Using these and other strategies, scholars were able to identify phonological areas that seem to be generally difficult to learners irrespective of their L1 (cf. Lane 2010: 10). These features could therefore serve as useful targets, especially in multilingual classrooms. Taking into consideration that speakers with the same language background tend to have similar pronunciation problems, depending on the group composition, teachers could also aim at L1-related areas of difficulties. Given that in Austria both the official and the predominant language is (Austrian) German, potentially problematic areas for NSs with this L1 background will be pinpointed hereinafter.

4.2.2 Phonetic areas of difficulties for Austrian EFL learners

When elaborating on pronunciation difficulties for German NSs,[35] it should be pointed out that the phonetic features of Austrian German (AG) differ in some respects from those of other German-speaking countries.[36] Consequently, this also results in slightly different accented English (for a more detailed account on the differences between German German and AG, cf. Richter 2019: 136-137). To date, empirical research investigating the particularities of Austrian English is still limited to approximately six works (i.e. Wieden & Nemser 1991; Grosser 1993; Hrubes 2008; Mende 2009; Tatzl 2011; Richter 2019). Richter (2019) reviewed them to identify the most crucial phonological areas of difficulties for Austrian learners. In view of segmental features, she found the following (Richter 2019: 144):

[35] For brief overviews of phonetic difficulties of German NSs, cf. e.g. Kenworthy (1987: 136-138), Kelly (2000: 144-146), Hewings (2004: 234) or Rogerson-Revell (2011: 276-278).
[36] Of course, AG also shows phonological differences between regions.

- /æ/: mispronounced as /e/ and vice versa.
- /ɜː/: mispronounced as a diphthong and substituted with /øə/
- /ə/: articulation as a full vowel
- /ɔː/: insufficiently long or articulated as a diphthong /oə/
- /əʊ/:[37] second phoneme is somewhat omitted, thus rather pronounced as /oː/
- /eɪ/: second phoneme is somewhat omitted, thus rather pronounced as /eː/
- /w/: not enough lip rounding, thus leading to articulation as /v/
- /v/: frequently articulated as /w/, insufficient vibration
- /ð/: replaced by /d/
- /θ/: replaced by /s/ or /f/
- /z/, /ʒ/, /ʤ/: substituted with voiceless counterparts
- /p/, /t/, /k/: aspiration in initial position of stressed syllables often not sufficient
- /r/: usually not articulated in RP if preceded by a vowel (aside from linking) yet often pronounced (probably due to GA influences)
- /ɬ/: tendency towards pronouncing dark l (as in <fee<u>l</u>>) as clear l (as in <<u>l</u>isten>)

Remarkably, the majority of those problems can be traced back to the learners' L1 given that most of the above-stated sounds are either non-existent (e.g. /æ/, /ɜː/, /ð/, /θ/, /z/, /ʒ/, /ʤ/) or realized in a different manner in AG (e.g. /ə/, /w/, or /ɬ/, Richter 2019: 144). As these features have been demonstrated to be particularly challenging to Austrian learners, they seem to be useful targets in EFL pronunciation lessons in Austria.[38]

Similarly, negative L1 transfer might also be the reason for the mispronunciation of certain suprasegmentals. More precisely, Austrian NSs seem to experience difficulties in the subsequent areas (Richter 2019: 145):

- Word stress and vowel reduction: lacking reduction of vowels to /ə/ in unstressed syllables (e.g. <trav<u>e</u>ler>)
- Sentence stress: failure to establish a steady rhythm by stressing content words and de-stressing function words
- Weak forms: lacking reduction of function words, such as prepositions, pronouns, articles, etc.
- Linking: words rather pronounced separately

Owing to the fact that German and English are somewhat different in terms of their propensity towards vowel reduction and linking in certain surroundings, it seems only little astonishing that these features are sometimes perceived as flawed in AG NSs' output (e.g. in <<u>a</u>s hard <u>a</u>s> and <took‿off his coat>, Richter 2019: 152). To enhance the phonological performance of these students, teachers could try targeting the respective suprasegmentals in class.

[37] This phoneme primarily accounts for RP. In GA, it is usually realized as /oʊ/ (cf. section 2).
[38] Naturally, this is a generalization. The selection of pronunciation foci should always be adapted to the needs of the respective target group.

Besides the literature review, Richter's (2019) work also encompasses an empirical part in which the above-outlined findings are tested. In essence, the aim of her study was to examine the effect of English medium instruction on phonological acquisition of 55 adults studying Entrepreneurship at an Austrian university of applied sciences. She analyzed two sound files (i.e. T1 and T2) from each of ten carefully selected students. Evenly divided into a focus and a control group, the participants were asked to read the same text at the beginning and at the end of their bachelor's program as this would allow for conclusions about the students' phonological progress. It is striking that the allegedly difficult sounds /æ/, /ɜː/, /ə/, /ɔː/, /θ/, /p/, /t/, /k/, /r/, and /ɬ/ were found to pose little to no problems at all at T1. In contrast, confirmative evidence was obtained regarding difficulties with the diphthong /eɪ/[39] and the lenis consonants /w/, /v/, /ð/, /z/, /ʒ/, and /ʤ/ since their correctness ratings ranged from merely 0% to 30% (cf. Richter 2019: 147). Furthermore, remarkably, despite general phonological progress from T1 to T2, /ð/ scored a devastating 0% of correctly produced sounds on both tests. As this doubtlessly demonstrates the participants' reluctance to acquire this sound (Richter 2019: 148), it can be concluded that explicit instruction and practice opportunities might be particularly useful in this respect. Lastly, previous findings were also replicated regarding certain suprasegmental features: at T1, the most severe problems were encountered with weak forms followed by linking, which – higher scores at T2 notwithstanding – remained to be somewhat challenging for the students (cf. Richter 2019: 152-153). Consequently, these features might also need attention in EFL lessons with NSs of AG. In view of Richter's (2019) results, it generally ought to be stressed that they should be viewed as complementary rather than contradictory to the previous scholars' works, especially considering the limited sample size of the study.

By and large, despite the substantial lack of research in the field, this section provided crucial insights into typical phonological problem areas of Austrian EFL learners. Whether the above-outlined challenging features are explicitly addressed in EFL coursebooks utilized in Austria will become evident in chapter 5. Beforehand, however, particularities of the Austrian setting will be elucidated.

[39] Nevertheless, both diphthongs investigated in this study, i.e. /əʊ/ and /eɪ/, were found to approximate monophthongs (cf. Richter 2019: 146). This tendency towards monophthongization also seems to account for German NSs (e.g. Kenworthy 1987: 138; Rogerson-Revell 2011: 277).

4.3 The Austrian setting

The setting is known to affect L2 acquisition significantly, particularly because of its influence on the extent of L2 use and exposure. To date, numerous researchers have examined the impact of those and other factors on phonological acquisition and obtained contrastive results (for short reviews of these factors, cf. e.g. Rogerson-Revell 2011: 19; Lane 2011: 5; Richter 2019: 104-108). Although English is not considered an official language of Austria, over the last decades, the broad and easy access to authentic input via the Internet has certainly shaped how English pronunciation is taught, learned, and practiced in- and outside current Austrian EFL classrooms. On the one hand, vast amounts of receptive language input are available to the students, for example, in the form of English-speaking TV shows, films, podcasts, and music. On the other hand, partly due to new developments like the globalization and the ascension of English to the world's prevalent lingua franca, the productive use seems to have massively augmented in both extent and value on a global scale. In Austria, aside from professional, business-related, and cultural contexts, this also becomes evident in the education system. Not only are content and language integrated learning programs offered in Austrian schools, but also more and more study programs at Austrian universities seem to rely on English as a medium of instruction. Additionally, because of technological advances, conversations ceased to be restricted by physical boundaries, thus leading to additional communication opportunities with both NSs and NNSs. Considering that there is a higher tendency towards pronunciation improvement if a language is utilized frequently (Lane 2010: 5), the increased extent of English use and exposure can potentially enhance the EFL learners' phonological attainment. Nonetheless, it should be pointed out that these factors largely depend on the learners' own initiative as well as on their access to technology and might hence vary greatly among learners.

All in all, this chapter has illustrated that phonological acquisition is considerably influenced by various factors. It has been shown that the learner's age, their L1 and the typically resulting areas of phonemic difficulties, as well as the extent of English exposure and use have a strong influence on pronunciation learning and therefore ought to be taken into account by teachers where possible. Ideally, these contextual variables should thus also have an impact on the development and selection of teaching materials. To shed more light on age-related differences in pronunciation teaching materials, the subsequent empirical part will examine the explicit pronunciation tasks comprised in four commonly used coursebooks in Austria that target either lower secondary students or adult learners.

5. Coursebook analysis

Teaching materials can broadly be considered "key classroom tools which are designed to facilitate language learning" (Gray 2013: 3). Yet, their true potential can only be fulfilled if they are adapted to contextual variables, i.e. to factors relating to the learners and the setting (cf. McDonough & Shaw 2011: 6; also cf. section 4) because these have a tremendous effect on the learners' abilities, needs, and goals. Notwithstanding the general upsurge of online tools and materials, traditional coursebooks – alternatively also termed textbooks – still tend to form the basis for current EFL lessons in copious countries, including Austria. In this context, the books have to conform to the respective school curriculum (cf. section 3.3.1) in order to be approbated by the Austrian ministry of education. Although the extent to which teachers follow such coursebooks might nonetheless differ, it seems evident that these materials have a significant influence on the selected contents and teaching practices.

Aiming to provide deeper insights into the frequently neglected field of pronunciation teaching, the subsequent analysis seeks to investigate explicit pronunciation tasks in four coursebooks that are commonly employed with EFL beginners in Austria (for further information regarding the selection criteria of the coursebooks, cf. section 5.1). Given that young and adult learners differ substantially in numerous factors affecting their learning aims, needs, and success (cf. section 4), it can be assumed that differences in both extent and choice of pronunciation focus as well as in employed task formats can be observed in the coursebooks. To further explore the matter, two coursebooks will be examined per age group:[40]

For students in lower secondary (LS)	For adult learners (AL)
• *More! 1* (MLS, Gerngross et al. 2016)	• *Empower A1* (EAL, Doff et al. 2016)
• *Prime Time 1* (PLS, Bottazzi et al. 2017)	• *Great! A1* (GAL, Cohen et al. 2011)

The analysis (cf. section 5.2) follows the methodology presented in the next subsection. It should be pointed out, however, that due to the content limitations of master's theses, the examination of the corresponding workbooks, teacher's books, and electronic materials of each series will be disregarded. For the same reason, tasks with an implicit pronunciation focus will not be taken into account.[41] Owing to these constraints, the gathered data can be subject to thorough scrutiny, hence also allowing for more profound findings.

[40] The abbreviations used to refer to the books are constituted by the first letter of the books' names succeeded by the initials of their target group.

[41] These tasks can equally be argued to aim at pronunciation but lack markers of explicitness (cf. Table 3 in section 5.1). Common examples include singing along with songs or reading aloud dialogues.

5.1 Methodology

Prior to the analysis, the four above-mentioned coursebooks were selected based on the following criteria: first and foremost, they had to target two specific age groups, namely LS on the one hand, and AL on the other hand. Regarding the former, it should be clarified that Austrian lower secondary schools generally embrace the grades five to eight. Nevertheless, in this study, exclusively books aiming at grade five could be taken into consideration because according to the second criterion, the books had to adhere to the proficiency level A1. Furthermore, to ensure their relevance to the targeted context, numerous practitioners, teacher trainees, and teaching institutions in Austria had been consulted: In view of the coursebooks for lower secondary schools (CLS), practitioners and teacher trainees at the main university of Vienna had been queried. Among them, the overwhelming majority had responded to employ MLS. Considering that the only other frequent answer was PLS, these two books were chosen to form the data sets of the younger group.[42] In a similar vein, various teaching institutions offering EFL classes in Austria's biggest cities Vienna, Graz, and Linz had been questioned regarding their choice of English books (i.e. Volkshochschule Wien, WIFI[43] Wien, Sprachschule Aktiv Wien, Urania Graz, and WIFI Linz). Since an astonishing variety of books had been cited, two additional selection criteria had to be established. While one of them was concerned with the books' accessibility, the other one regarded the books' publishing houses. More precisely, books from different houses were favored as this can be assumed to allow for more diversified findings. In the end, EAL, and GAL had remained the sole, appropriate representatives for the older target group and will hence constitute the remaining data sets.[44] Lastly, it should be highlighted that the latest edition of each book will be put under examination.

With regard to the analysis, a mixed methods approach will be adopted. This term denotes "a general type of research that includes quantitative and qualitative research data, techniques and methods" (Ayiro 2012: 489). As already mentioned in the introduction of the present thesis, three questions will guide the analysis of each individual coursebook. Among them, the first one is exclusively quantitative in nature, whereas the remaining two will be viewed from both a quantitative and a qualitative angle:

[42] Special thanks go to the publishing house Helbling for supporting this research project by providing a free printed sample of MLS.
[43] 'WIFI' serves as an abbreviation for *Wirtschaftsförderungsinstitut der Wirtschaftskammer Österreich*.
[44] It ought to be underscored once more that rather than identifying the most commonly employed books in Austria, the aim was to find books that are indeed used in this context.

RQ1) How many explicit pronunciation tasks can be identified?
RQ2) What is their major focus (i.e. segmental or suprasegmental features, entire words, or the correspondence between pronunciation and spelling)?
RQ3) Which formats are employed in these tasks?

Due to its considerable relevance to the above-outlined research aims, the notion 'task' ought to be clarified. In the thesis at hand, it describes an entity comprising all task formats[45] that center on the same phonetic target(s). Given that the tasks have to focus on pronunciation explicitly (cf. RQ1), merely tasks showing markers of explicitness will be taken into account. Having used the concept of explicit pronunciation instruction as a starting point for the establishment of these marker-categories (cf. Peltekov 2020: 3, cited in section 3.1.1), two basic signs of explicitness were found in the books, i.e. (1) metalanguage and (2) layout-related ways of putting emphasis on phonetic features. Illustrated by examples and definitions, they are summarized in Table 3.[46]

Table 3. Markers of explicitness

Marker	**Examples**
(1) Use of metalanguage (e.g. in the table of contents, in the title of the task, in the instructions etc.)	• general terms referring to pronunciation such as *pronunciation* and *sound(s)* • references to specific segmentals or suprasegmentals (e.g. *tone*) • phonetic symbols • German equivalents of pronunciation-related phenomena and references (e.g. *Lautschrift, Wie hört sich […] an?*)
(2) Highlighting phonetic features	• underlining • bold print • different colors

Following the identification of one or more such markers in the coursebook, the respective task's focus was examined (cf. RQ2). Five major labels were distinguished in this regard: 'Segmentals', 'Suprasegmentals', 'Whole word', 'Spelling', and 'Borderline case'. Accompanied by their definitions, they will be provided Table 4.

[45] Concerning the various formats, they are indicated in the form of numerical codes in each book's table in section 9.3 in the appendix.
[46] These markers deserve to be mentioned since they demonstrate the tasks' relevance to the research aims. It should equally be pointed out that occurrences in which students were merely provided with phonetic information had been disregarded because of their lack of active student involvement.

Table 4. Task foci and their definition

Task focus	**Definition**
'Segmentals'	• tasks focusing on the individual sound level (i.e. vowels, and consonants, as well as their respective qualities; including consonant clusters) • can have a secondary focus (e.g. on spelling) which is not counted.
'Suprasegmentals'	• tasks focusing on larger segments like syllables • tasks focusing on prosodic features
'Whole word'	• tasks focusing on the pronunciation of entire words rather than on specific features
'Spelling'	• tasks focusing on the complex relation between pronunciation and spelling • usually involve phonetic transcription and/or metalanguage (e.g. <letter>)
'Borderline case'	• tasks in which the focus is doubtlessly put on pronunciation, yet the specific phonetic area remains unclear • tasks in which multiple areas are **equally** targeted (e.g. both segmentals and suprasegmentals, etc.)

To form these categories, both deductive and inductive reasoning were applied since the former two were based on the literature, while the latter three were added in accordance with the data (for definitions of these concepts, cf. e.g. Azungah 2018: 391). After having then been marked by means of color codes (cf. section 9.3), the tasks were counted in an attempt to answer RQ1. If two phonological areas were targeted within one task yet to a different extent, solely the major emphasis was counted, whereas the secondary focus was mentioned in the respective analysis-section. It should be noted that overlaps of this kind were exclusively identified in EAL between the categories 'Segmentals', and 'Spelling'. Conversely, if a primary focus could not be determined, the tasks were considered to be borderline cases.

Next, the task formats, and types of each task were scrutinized (cf. RQ3). To this end, 16 major categories were established, to which the respective formats were then assigned. '(P)' was created as a supplementary category in order to account for the short productive phases that were commonly added to receptive task formats. An overview of the task formats, their definitions, and examples will be presented in Table 5.

Table 5. Task formats and the respective definitions and examples

Numerical code	Task format	Definition	Examples
1	Rule	• usually involving questions targeting meta-knowledge • sometimes concerned with particular examples; sometimes targeting general rules • answer options can but do not have to be provided	• quiz • ticking the correct rule • answering meta-questions
2	Awareness-raising	• attention is drawn towards a certain feature • usually involving bold print or underlining	• listening to target X (sometimes a question is subsequently added) • listening and noticing target X • listening and practicing the target sounds • looking at a table with pronunciation-related information
3	Ordering	• ordering items according to their sequence of appearance on a recording	• numbering words
4	Matching	• matching A to B	• matching words to their transcribed form
5	Identifying	• identifying sounds/stress/intonation/words comprising certain features • often, one out of two given forms has to be selected	• identifying the target (e.g. main stress in questions) • identifying (and ticking) words that comprise a certain feature • marking the target (e.g. underlining, circling, etc.) • either A or B (e.g. sound A or sound B, stressed or unstressed, raising or falling intonation, etc.)
6	SoD	• i.e. 'Same or different' • deciding whether items are identical or different in certain respects	• the same or different sounds/number of syllables/word stress, etc.
7	Categorizing	• adding words to the corresponding column	• adding words to a column in accordance with the (usually marked) sounds they comprise
8	OOO	• i.e. 'Odd one out' • identifying the item that differs from all other items • usually, a list of approx. three items is given	• identifying the odd word out (normally the 'odd' word encompasses a different sound)
9	Games	• have a playful character	• e.g. *Sound Bingo*
10	Counting	• counting certain features	• counting words in sounds/syllables/a sentence
11	Gap-fill	• filling gaps in words or texts • mostly, answer options are provided	• filling gaps with letters/words
12	L+R	• i.e. 'Listen and repeat' • immediate imitation of the recording • the repetition generally has to be made in-between the items/utterances	• listening and repeating words or sentences • listening, repeating, and reading aloud sentences

13	CP	• i.e. 'Communicative practice' • generally succeed other formats; usually added as a final stage • have a communicative focus • no immediate listening phase before the productive stage • often prompt the application of previously learned knowledge in freer speech • frequently involve minor alternations or new examples of previously targeted phrases/dialogues	• practicing the dialog, but changing details such as names/items • practicing saying the questions + selecting one out of several given responses • practicing pronouncing questions + adding a response to form a dialog
14	TIW	• i.e. 'Transcription into words' • transforming phonetic transcription into their written form • rather than selected from given options, the answers have to be actively produced by the students	• transforming transcriptions into words or letters
15	TIP	• i.e. 'Transcription into pronunciation' • guessing the pronunciation of words based on their transcription	• saying the words given in phonetic transcription
16	Other	• phases of tasks that do not fit into any other category • occur too infrequently to form a proper category • only occur in one coursebook	• translating items • spelling words • writing down what is said (i.e. dictation)
(P)	(P)	• i.e. 'Practice' • practicing saying something • occurs in combination with another (usually receptive) task format • does not necessarily include a prior listening phase • the repetition needs to be made after the entire recording (as opposed to in-between utterances as in the 'L+R'-format) • not limited to one mere repetition	• listening and practicing saying sounds/words/phrases/sentences/questions etc. Note: As '(P)' is merely an additional stage of another task format, it can generally not be viewed as proper format. Given that it nonetheless deserves to be considered in the analysis, it was put into parenthesis.

As a final step of the analysis, the findings of the four books were compared so that general as well as age-related tendencies in terms of explicit pronunciation tasks can be revealed and implications for future teaching can be drawn. Having now presented the methodology of this research project, the next section will be devoted to the examination of the four data sets.

5.2 Data analysis

Taking into consideration that a coursebook's explicit pronunciation focus also tends to depend on the publishing house, the overall length of the coursebooks, and the existence of complementary materials, information in this conjunction is given in Table 6.

Table 6. Information about the coursebooks

	MLS	**PLS**	**EAL**	**GAL**
No. of units (subdivided into parts?)	18 + 1 extra unit	16	12 (A-B-C)	9 (A-B-C-D) + 3 extra units
No. of pages	156	184	168	208
Publishing house	Helbling	ÖBV	CUP	Klett
Year of publication	2016	2017	2016	2011
Additional workbook and/or online materials	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
RP or GA?	RP	RP	RP	RP

Although the four books resemble one another in view of their length, target variety, and additional materials, several differences should be pointed out: Concerning the external structure of the coursebooks, it became evident that both CLS encompass more and thus shorter units, whereas the CAL comprise longer units that are rather divided into subsections. Furthermore, while MLS and PLS were published by Austrian publishing houses, EAL was originally put out by a British and GAL by a German publishing company. Lastly, it seems noteworthy that GAL's latest edition dates considerably further back than the other three coursebooks, which might affect the findings. Subsequent to this concise introduction of the materials, each book will be analyzed individually. The first one under scrutiny will be MLS.

5.2.1 More!1

Overall, thirteen explicit pronunciation tasks were found in MLS. Without exception, they adhere to the same task format, i.e. 'Listen and repeat' (cf. Figure 2). In the following sections, this task type will be referred to as 'L+R' (for a list of task formats and their definitions, cf. Table 5). Nine of the identified tasks focus on segmentals, two center on the pronunciation of particular words, and merely one targets a suprasegmental feature (for a detailed overview of the tasks in MLS, cf. Table 10 in the appendix). Given that equally only one task had to be classified as borderline case (for the reasons, cf. below), it seems obvious that this book's phonetic focus is predominantly placed on individual sounds.[47]

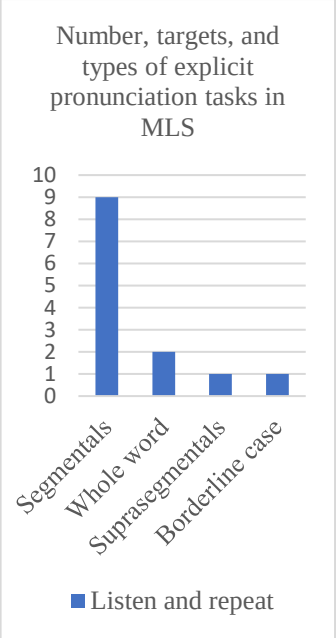


Figure 2. Number, targets, and types of explicit pronunciation tasks in MLS

Regarding the tasks' explicit character, several markers are used to indicate their pronunciation focus: Aside from being cited under *Pronunciation* in the table of contents, each task carries the title *Sounds right*, followed by a subtitle that either consists of the target words or of phonetic symbols. Besides these uses of metalanguage, in most tasks, a combination of underlining and bold print is employed to draw particular attention to the respective targets.[48]

When examining the foci of the tasks, it becomes evident that each task aims at a different feature. Among the prevalent 'Segmentals'-tasks, it seems striking that an overwhelming eight tasks center on an individual sound in isolation (i.e. /z/, /p/, /w/, /ʧ/, /ɜ:/, /æ/, /ð/, /θ/), whereas the only remaining task deals with three different targets at once (i.e. /t/, /d/, and /ɪd/). Taking into consideration that the latter exercise aims at the distinction of the similar yet clearly differing final sounds of regular verbs in the past tense form, the direct opposition of these sounds might facilitate the learning progress.[49] Equally noteworthy is the fact that despite the predominance of 'Segmentals'-tasks, the data set completely lacks tasks centering on diphthongs. Instead, two of the remaining tasks are dedicated to entire words, namely <can> and its negated form <can't> on the one hand, and the names of the months on the other hand.

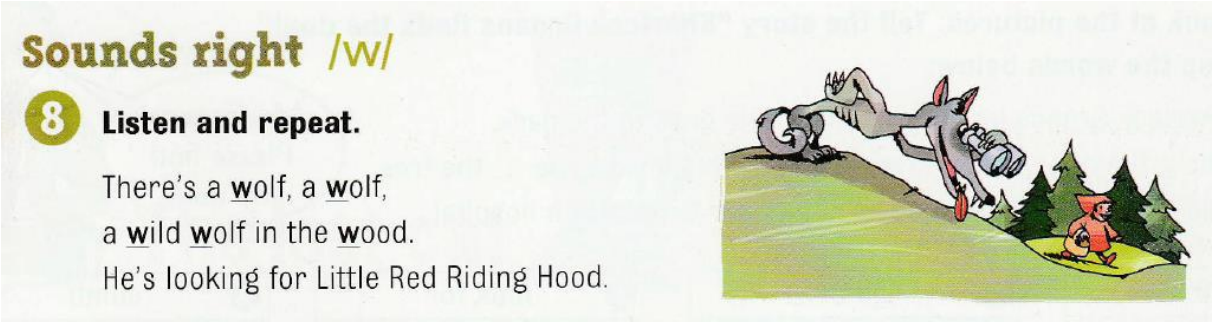
[47] Additionally, copious songs, chants, and poems, as well as numerous other tasks falling into the category 'L+R' are comprised in MLS (for more details, cf. Table 11 in the appendix). Due to the fact that they only aim at pronunciation implicitly, however, they exceed the scope of this paper.
[48] Only two exceptions exclusively utilize bold print.
[49] It should furthermore be highlighted that unlike most other tasks in MLS, this particular example creates a link between phonetic and grammatical knowledge.

These tasks fall into the category ‘Whole word’ because in lieu of only specific phonetic features, the entire words are accentuated in the tasks. Similarly, they are cited in their entirety in the table of contents and in the headings of the tasks. Disregarding the borderline case (for more information, see below), the focus of the only residual task is on the suprasegmental feature sentence stress. Nonetheless, it should be underscored that this particular task is merely implemented towards the end of the last regular unit of the book, thereby raising the likelihood of its omission. Consequently, this further demonstrates the general preference of segmental features in MLS.

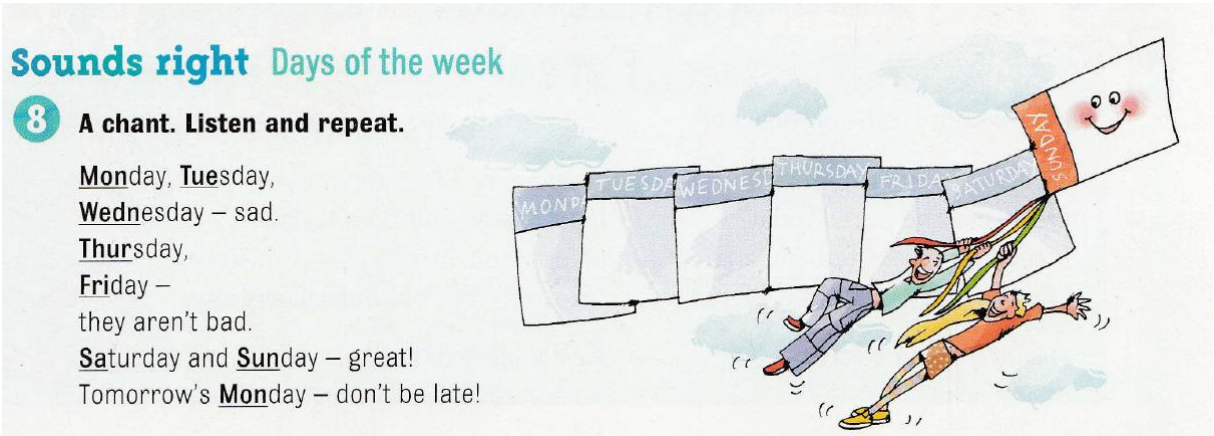
Aside from their different foci, the tasks strongly resemble each other. As mentioned earlier, solely one task type was employed (i.e. ‘L+R’).[50] Furthermore, the tasks only encompass two phases asking the students to first listen and then repeat a somewhat short text. Therefore, the time required for the tasks’ completion can generally be assumed to be limited.[51] Closer scrutiny of the tasks then reveals that the texts show a tendency towards comprising repetitions, and rhymes, as well as rhetorical devices such as alliteration and anaphora. These stylistic choices effectively place stronger emphasis on the targeted features or words, while also adding rhythm to the texts and making them appealing. It seems equally remarkable that, oftentimes visualized by a picture, the content of most texts seems somewhat comical and picturesque.

Most of these typical characteristics are exemplified by the following segmental task focusing on the consonant /w/ (taken from Gerngross et al. 2016: 46, ex. 8). Here, the learners are prompted to listen to and subsequently repeat a brief text comprising the target sound five times. Since three of them occur in the same word (i.e. <w̲olf>), this book’s strong reliance on repetition becomes evident. Moreover, taking into account that the two remaining phonemes are equally placed in word-initial position, an alliteration is formed. Another typical feature that can be observed in this example is the use of rhyming language (i.e. <wood>/<Hood>). In respect of its content, an allusion to the well-known fairy tale *Little Red Riding Hood* is made. Finally, as usual, the text is also illustrated by an accompanying image (see below).

[50] The label of the task format predominantly also corresponded verbatim to the instructions of the tasks.
[51] Except for one poem comprehending 14 lines, the length of the texts ranged from a mere two to eight short lines. Overall, these texts comprise the respective phonetic aspects between four and nine times.



Despite the overall similarity of the tasks in MLS, one minor exception needs to be shed light on: the borderline case *Days of the week*. Even though it is marked as having its pronunciation focus on the days of the week in the table of contents as well as in the unit itself, as demonstrated below (taken from Gerngross et al. 2016: 33, ex. 8), merely the first syllable of each day is highlighted in the text. Consequently, this would suggest that the focus of this task is on word stress rather than on the entire lexical items. Taking into consideration that the weekdays are not particularly emphasized in the sound file, however, both 'Suprasegmentals' and 'Whole word' seem reasonable categories for this task. Therefore, it was classified as 'Borderline case'.



By and large, accounting for almost two thirds of the thirteen explicit pronunciation tasks, segmental features are clearly prioritized in MLS. Overall, the tasks were found to be simply structured, highly repetitive in nature, and little time-consuming. What is more, 'L+R' is the only employed task format in this coursebook, which clearly indicates its heavy reliance on imitation. Taking into account that words and structures tend to be reemployed multiple times in the tasks themselves, the book's equally strong emphasis on repetition becomes evident. The last remarkable finding concerns the frequent use of melodic, rhythmic as well as rhyming elements, as these features give the tasks a song-like character. Having now analyzed the tasks in the first coursebook for young learners, the next subsection will be devoted to the second book of this age group, namely PLS.

5.2.2 Prime Time 1

Even though the explicit pronunciation focus in PLS seems generally negligeable (cf. Bottazzi et al. 2017), the few identified tasks showed a surprisingly broad range of task formats. As indicated in Figure 3, overall, eight tasks with specific emphasis on pronunciation were found. Among them, a vast five deal with individual sounds, solely one centers on the pronunciation of whole words, and two fall into the category 'Borderline case'. Considering that not a single task is explicitly concerned with suprasegmentals, it is apparent that segmental features play the central role in PLS.[52]

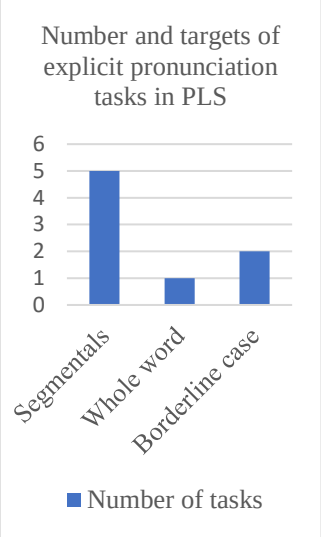


Figure 3. Number and targets of explicit pronunciation tasks in PLS

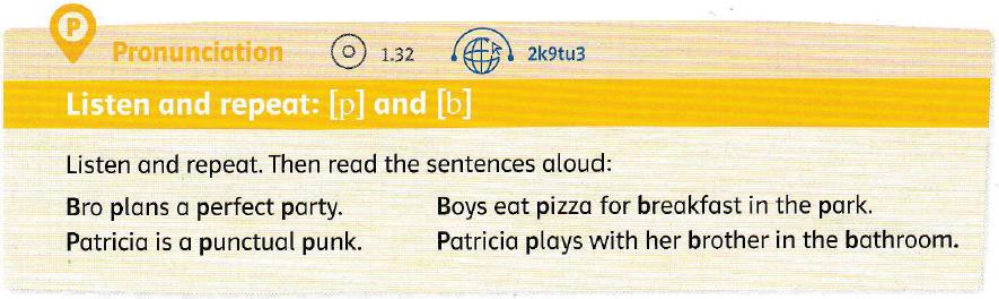
The above-outlined tasks were analyzed more closely because of the following indicators of explicitness: To begin with, each task is cited under *Pronunciation* in the table of contents. Additionally, either the same term or other metalinguistic references (e.g. *Sound* in both borderline cases) are usually used as the tasks' headings. Furthermore, in each of the five segmental tasks, the phonetic symbols are applied. Lastly, four tasks employ bold print, and one task uses underlining to foreground the respective sounds or words.

In view of the targets, the choice of individual sounds deserves closer examination. Astoundingly, with only two exceptions (i.e. /i:/ vs. /ɪ/ and /v/ vs. /w/), solely stops are explicitly centered on in PLS (i.e. /t/ vs. /d/, /p/ vs. /b/, as well as /p/ vs. /b/ and /k/ vs. /g/). Interestingly, these sounds exclusively occur in word-initial position in the tasks. It is furthermore remarkable that instead of being centered on individually, in PLS, two phonemes are generally contrasted to one another. Owing to this contrastive approach, more attention is drawn towards their – mostly sole – distinctive feature, like for instance a difference in voicing or vowel quality.

With regard to the task design, it appears remarkable that four segmental tasks were found to be almost identical. In essence, they each consist of one to four short sentences resembling tongue twisters and encompass the respective sounds between six and a vast 21 times. As shown by the example below (taken from Bottazzi et al. 2017: 36), the tasks' overall focus on pronunciation is explicated in the heading, which is then further specified by a subtitle

[52] It should be mentioned that PLS also comprehends a considerable number of implicit pronunciation tasks, including various songs, raps, and chants as well as other tasks adhering to the 'L+R'-task format (for more information, cf. Table 13 in the appendix).

consisting of the targeted phonetic symbols – in this case, the plosives /p/ and /b/. In the texts, the letters representing the phonemes are usually highlighted in bold print, hence the level of explicitness of the tasks further increases. Concerning the task formats, with one minor exception (i.e. the task centering on /i:/ and /ɪ/), again, they solely employ 'L+R'. However, it should be stressed that, in addition to the classic receptive and imitative phase, the tasks in PLS encompass a third phase asking the students to read the sentences aloud (see below). Therefore, in this coursebook, the phrases have to be pronounced more frequently than in traditional 'L+R'-tasks.


Pronunciation 1.32 2k9tu3

Listen and repeat: [p] and [b]

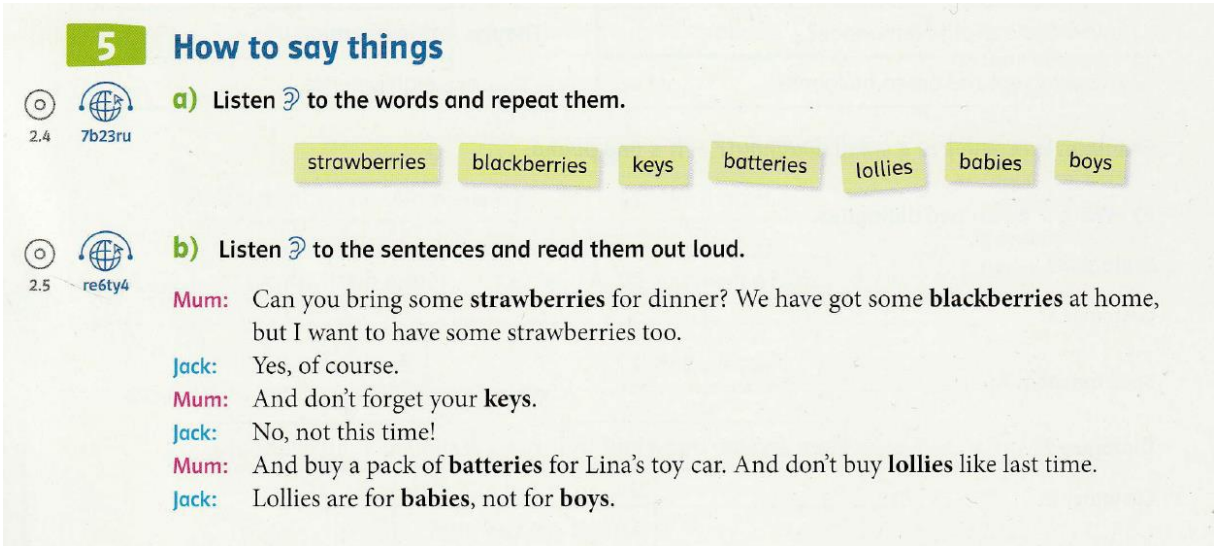
Listen and repeat. Then read the sentences aloud:

Bro plans a perfect party.
Patricia is a punctual punk.
Boys eat pizza for breakfast in the park.
Patricia plays with her brother in the bathroom.

Notwithstanding its general accordance with the above-described features, several particularities of the task focusing on /i:/ and /ɪ/ (cf. Bottazzi et al. 2017: 64, ex. 3c) should be pointed out. First, in lieu of the usual 'reading aloud'-phase, the 'L+R'-phases are complemented by the task format 'Categorizing'. More precisely, after the initial receptive and imitative phase, the students are prompted to allocate underlined words to either of two columns depending on the sounds they contain. Second, this task's marking techniques seem outstanding since whole words rather than just letters are highlighted in the task and underlining is used instead of bold print.

It appears moreover remarkable that the only other 'Segmentals'-task (cf. Bottazzi et al. 2017: 84, ex. 12a) does not correspond to the above-outlined description. In this particular case, pictures are applied to refer to eight different fruits having either /p/, /b/, /k/ or /g/ as a first sound. These plosives can nonetheless be assumed to be at the heart of the exercise because their phonetic symbols are provided above the pictures. Additionally, they were explicitly cited in the table of contents. Given that after the usual 'L+R'-phase, the students have to apply the words communicatively in a two-phased speaking activity, two task formats can be identified in this task, namely 'L+R' and 'Communicative practice' (i.e. 'CP'). Generally speaking, this task thus further expands the variety of input presentation techniques and task formats that are employed in PLS.

Equally unique is the only task focusing on the pronunciation of entire words. As illustrated below (taken from Bottazzi et al. 2017: 42, ex. 5), in this task, the students are instructed to listen to and repeat seven isolated plural nouns ending with the voiced sound /z/ (e.g. <keys>, <babies>, etc.). Afterwards, these words are contextualized in a short dialog that the students have to listen to and then read aloud. Consequently, due to its four distinctive phases in total, this task accounts for two 'L+R'-task formats. Even though it could be argued that this task's secondary focus is placed on spelling (e.g. <boys> vs. <strawberries>), taking into consideration the task's heading (i.e. *How to say things*) and the use of bold print to draw attention to the whole words, it becomes obvious that its main stress is put on pronunciation.



5 How to say things

2.4 7b23ru

a) Listen to the words and repeat them.

strawberries | blackberries | keys | batteries | lollies | babies | boys

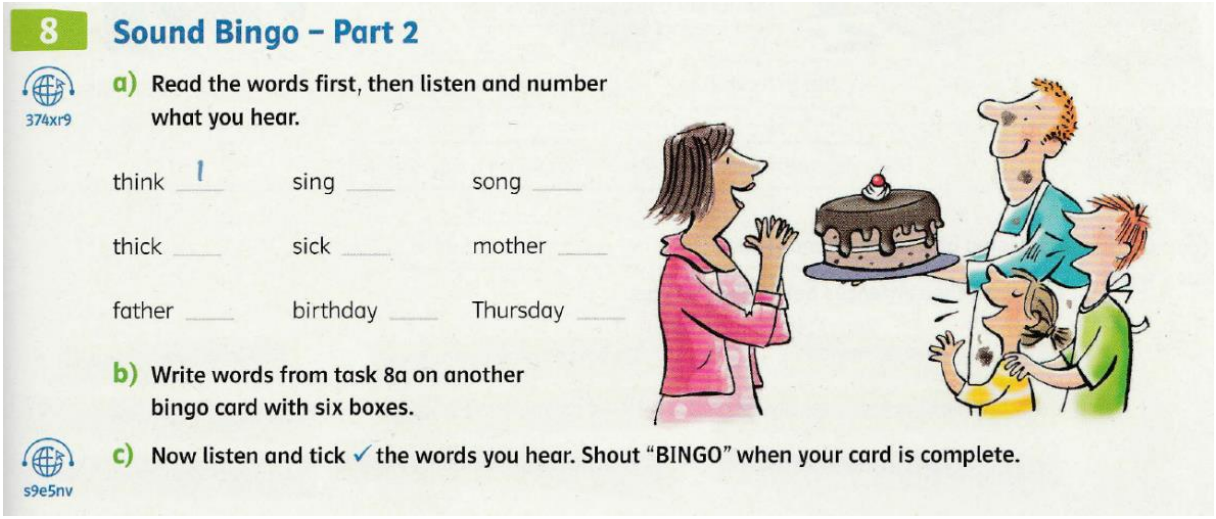
2.5 re6ty4

b) Listen to the sentences and read them out loud.

Mum: Can you bring some **strawberries** for dinner? We have got some **blackberries** at home, but I want to have some strawberries too.
Jack: Yes, of course.
Mum: And don't forget your **keys**.
Jack: No, not this time!
Mum: And buy a pack of **batteries** for Lina's toy car. And don't buy **lollies** like last time.
Jack: Lollies are for **babies**, not for **boys**.

As a final part of this book's analysis, the two consecutively occurring borderline cases will be shed light on. Although both of them are conjointly referenced in the table of contents (i.e. as *Listen and spell*) and carry the identical main title (i.e. *Sound Bingo*, cf. Bottazzi et al. 2017: 51, ex. 7 and ex. 8), in the analysis at hand, they account for two separate tasks because they have different targets. Given that each activity comprises its own instructions for the game 'Bingo' despite being implemented on the same page, the task type 'Games' was counted twice. Yet, the tasks employ different formats to introduce their set of words. More precisely, the introductory phase of the first activity falls into the category 'L+R' since, following a prior listening phase, the students are asked to listen to and then imitate twelve words. Remarkably, these lexical items exclusively consist of a word-initial bilabial plosive, a subsequent vowel, and either a dental plosive or the nasal sound /n/ in final position and thus tend to form minimal pairs (e.g. <bad>, <bed>, <bid>, <bit>, <Pete>, etc., cf. Bottazzi et al. 2017: 51, ex. 7a).

As demonstrated below (taken from Bottazzi et al. 2017: 51, ex. 8), the second Bingo-task prompts the students to first read nine words and then bring them in the correct order based on the recording. Hence, it seems self-explanatory that this subtask corresponds to the format 'Ordering'. Compared to the first activity, the second set of words involves fewer minimal pairs (e.g. <sing> and <song> or <thick> and <sick>; see below). Yet, considerable phonetic similarities can still be observed; for instance, the words comprise either dental or alveolar fricatives. Given that the focus of both Bingo-tasks could either be classified as 'Segmentals' (i.e. due to the heading *Sound Bingo* and the use of minimal pairs), 'Whole words' or – taking into consideration the overall heading *Listen and spell* – even 'Spelling', they had to be assigned to the category 'Borderline case'.


8 Sound Bingo – Part 2

374xr9

a) Read the words first, then listen and number what you hear.

think 1 sing ___ song ___

thick ___ sick ___ mother ___

father ___ birthday ___ Thursday ___

b) Write words from task 8a on another bingo card with six boxes.

s9e5nv

c) Now listen and tick ✓ the words you hear. Shout "BINGO" when your card is complete.

Taking these findings into account, it becomes apparent that even though only few explicit foci can be identified in PLS, a slightly greater variety of task formats is used than in MLS. Although segmental features were again primarily aimed at and 'L+R' is still the prevailing task format by far, four other formats were equally found in this coursebook, namely 'Categorizing', 'Ordering', 'Games', and 'CP' (cf. Figure 4).[53] Considering that the tasks were generally observed to involve multiple phases, their completion can furthermore be assumed to require more time and effort than in MLS. In order to allow for age-group related insights, the next two sections will be dedicated to the analysis of the two selected coursebooks for adult learners.

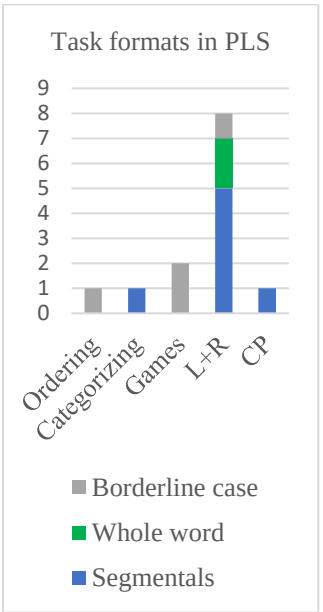


Figure 4. Task formats in PLS

[53] To give a more detailed account of the identified task formats, their distribution among the foci (i.e. 'Segmentals', 'Whole word', 'Borderline case') has also been indicated.

5.2.3 Empower A1

In EAL, an outstanding explicit pronunciation focus as well as a surprisingly enormous variety of task formats were identified (Doff et al. 2016). Due to the fact that each of the three subparts of the twelve units comprises at least one pronunciation task,[54] in total, an overwhelming 78 tasks with explicit pronunciation focus were found in the book. The distribution of their foci is depicted in Figure 5: With a staggering 43 tasks, more than half of the tasks are dedicated to segmentals. Still an astonishing 24 tasks are devoted to suprasegmentals, and seven tasks belong to the category 'Spelling'. In contrast, merely four tasks had to be classified as 'Borderline case[s]', and astoundingly, 'Whole word'-tasks are completely absent. Overall, it seems thus evident that segmental features are again somewhat prioritized in EAL.[55]

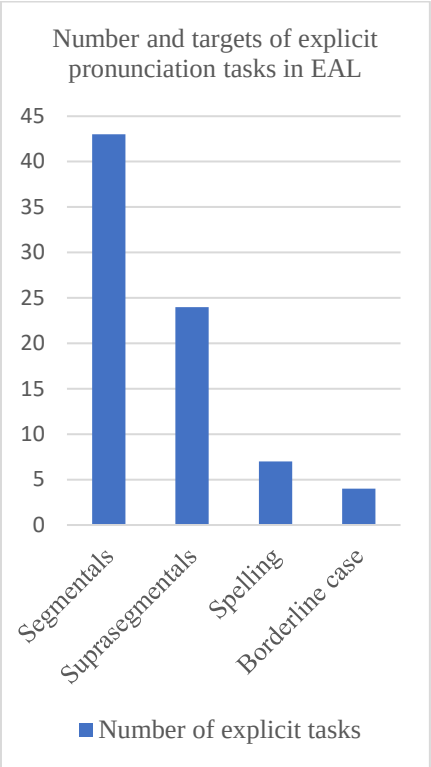


Figure 5. Number and targets of explicit pronunciation tasks in EAL

Before examining the tasks more thoroughly, additional information regarding the analysis of the collected data ought to be provided. Firstly, it should be highlighted that in most 'Segmentals'-tasks, a secondary focus is placed on the correspondence between sound and spelling because in addition to being explicitly stated in both the main heading and the table of contents (i.e. *Sound and spelling*), different written forms are usually used in the tasks to represent the target sounds. Conversely, the majority of 'Spelling'-tasks equally tend to lay emphasis on either segmental or suprasegmental features. Taking these unavoidable overlaps into account, the tasks' main focus was generally categorized based on the subheading, the instructions, and the nature of the tasks themselves. Following these principles, a task entitled */t/ and /d/* was for instance classified as a 'Segmentals'-task, whereas a task carrying the title *The letter a* was rather considered a 'Spelling'-task.[56]

[54] As mentioned in Table 6, these subparts are labeled *A*, *B*, and *C*.
[55] Additionally, an equally overwhelming quantity of implicit pronunciation tasks can be found in EAL (for more information, cf. Table 15 in the appendix).
[56] These and other examples will be further discussed below.

Secondly, some tasks in EAL center on two features at once (e.g. on linking and weak forms in Unit 4). Considering that these almost exclusively belong to the same overall category (i.e. 'Suprasegmentals' or 'Segmentals', respectively), only one focus was counted in these cases. Nonetheless, one outlier was found to simultaneously target both sentence stress and the pronunciation of a particular word. Due to these divergent foci, it was thus considered a 'Borderline case' (for more details, see below).

Thirdly, in view of the number of foci, it should be underscored that a somewhat cyclic approach is adopted in EAL. Phonetic foci tend to reoccur not only in the sections referred to as *Review*, but also in the units themselves. Among the overall number of tasks presented in Figure 6, a staggering 24 'Segmentals'-, six 'Suprasegmentals'- as well as four 'Spelling'-tasks employ previous foci to a certain extent (cf. Figure 6).[57] It seems furthermore striking that the respective features are either used in different items, in combination with another target (e.g. main stress in sentences combined with intonation) or, alternatively, a new facet of the same phonetic aspect is introduced (e.g. word stress in single nouns vs. word stress in compound nouns). Taking into account these alterations, it appears obvious that the respective tasks ought to be counted separately.

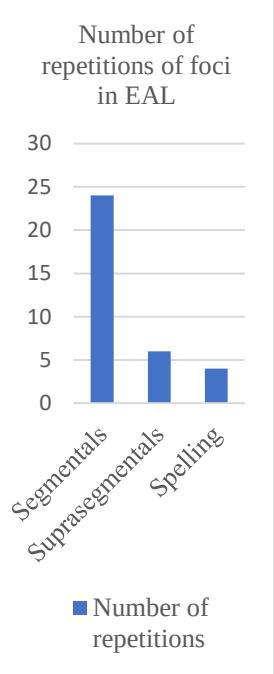


Figure 6. Number of repetitions of foci in EAL

Fourthly, the above-mentioned tasks show numerous markers of explicitness: to begin with, without exception, the tasks' target area is indicated in a column entitled *Pronunciation* in the table of contents. Moreover, in the units, the tasks are usually explicitly labeled *Sound and spelling* or *Pronunciation*. The heading is then usually followed by the targeted feature in smaller font. More precisely, in 'Segmentals'-tasks, the respective phonetic symbols are cited, whereas 'Suprasegmentals'-Task normally rely on more broadly phrased subheadings like *Tone* or *Emphasizing what you say*. Interestingly, various visual indicators are employed to draw closer attention to the particular aspects. For example, while bold print is generally utilized to accentuate individual sounds, underlining rather tends to mark word and sentence stress. Additionally, different symbols are used to visualize vowel length (i.e. ¯ for long and ^ for short vowels), intonation (⬀ for rising and ⬂ for falling intonation) or linking (‿).

[57] Indications about revisions of foci can be found in the last column of Table 13 in the appendix (e.g. '1.rep', '2.rep', etc.).

When elucidating the choice of foci, it becomes apparent that most individual sounds are covered in EAL. More precisely, except for the sound /ɔɪ/, every vowel is explicitly targeted to some extent. Similarly, the majority of consonants – albeit particularly plosives, affricates, and certain fricatives – and even consonant clusters in both word-initial, and -final position are centered on in this coursebook (for an overview, cf. Table 13 in the appendix). Due to this book's extensive focus on pronunciation, it might even be more striking that nasal sounds (i.e. /m/, /n/, and /ŋ/), and the phonemes /ʒ/, and /f/ are not at all addressed. In terms of prosodic features, again, most areas are highlighted, including syllables, word stress, sentence stress, intonation, and linking with the semi-vowels /w/, and /j/. In contrast, features of connected speech such as elision and assimilation are generally neglected (cf. section 2.3.3). Lastly, regarding the foci of the tasks adhering to the category 'Spelling', they are concerned with the different phonetic representations of the letters <a>, <o>, and <oo> as well as with inaudible syllables (for an example, see further below).

Concerning the employed task types, as can be seen in Figure 7 on the next page, a vast twelve different formats were identified in EAL (excl. '(P)').[58] Astoundingly, 'Identifying', 'Awareness-raising', and 'Categorizing' rank amongst the prevailing formats. Hence, this clearly demonstrates the strong focus on receptive phases in this coursebook. Nonetheless, taking into consideration that an incredible 71 complementary productive phases '(P)', eighteen instances of 'R+P', and five cases of 'CP' were found (cf. Figure 7), the book's equally strong emphasis on phonetic production becomes evident. It should be noted, however, that surprisingly, the classic 'L+R'-format only places third in terms of its number of occurrences (excl. '(P)', cf. Figure 7), which thus further underscores the enormous relevance of receptive task formats in this book. In addition to the above-outlined formats, ten cases were classified as 'Rule'. This therefore indicates that considerable stress is laid on phonetic metaknowledge. Traditional formats such as 'Matching', 'SoD', 'OOO', 'Counting', and 'Gap-fill' are also implemented in EAL, albeit less frequently. To complete this list, one sole format had to be categorized as 'Other'. Consequently, overall, merely the formats 'Ordering', and 'Games' as well as tasks based on phonetic transcription (i.e. 'TIW' and 'TIP') seem not to be employed in EAL.

[58] To give a more detailed account of the identified task formats, their distribution among the foci (i.e. 'Segmentals', 'Suprasegmentals', 'Spelling', 'Borderline case') has also been indicated in Figure 7.

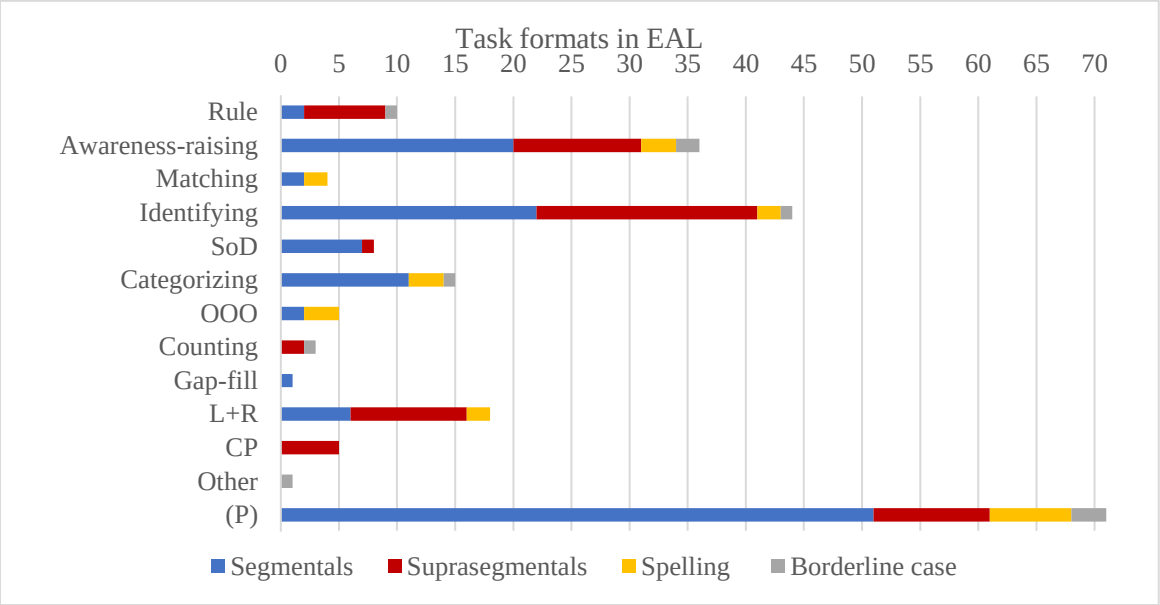


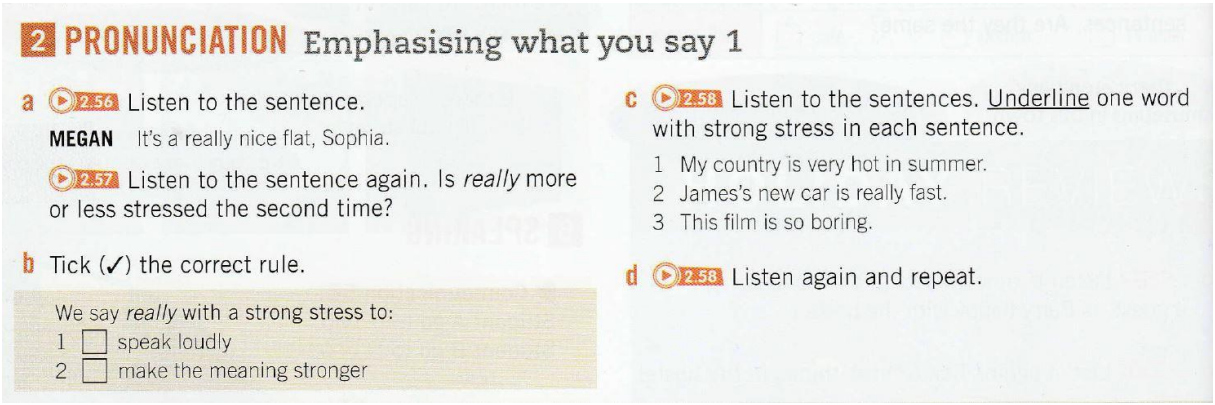
Figure 7. Task formats in EAL

Notwithstanding this extraordinary variety of foci and formats, numerous tasks were revealed to have similar tendencies. Based on their targets, layout and number of applied task formats, they can broadly be subdivided into the following groups (for a detailed overview of this book's data, cf. Table 14 in the appendix):

1) Group 1:
   - entitled *Pronunciation* followed by their target(s)
   - comprise the most elaborate subtasks
   - take in the largest space (i.e. at least a quarter of a page)
2) Group 2:
   - labeled *Sound and spelling* succeeded by their precise focus (i.e. usually individual sounds)
   - provide additional phonetic information about lexical items and structures targeted in the units, thereby establishing a link between pronunciation and other fields like grammar or vocabulary
   - take the form of small, orange-shaded boxes
3) Group 3:
   - broadly referred to as *Pronunciation* without any further specifications
   - usually only implemented as a subpart of another language focus, mostly taking the form of additional instructions for a previous task
   - vary considerably in number of employed formats
4) Group 4:
   - occur in the *Review*-section, thus mostly involving at least one repeated focus
   - generally employ one to two formats that are complemented by '(P)'
   - commonly use tables as a presentation technique and hence necessarily correspond to the format 'Awareness-raising'
   - limited variety in task formats (i.e. exclusively 'SoD', 'Identifying', and 'Categorizing'[59])

[59] The only exception is 'OOO' in one task.

Due to the high number of tasks, merely a few prime examples can be discussed subsequently. To epitomize Group 1, a 'Suprasegmentals'-task focusing on stress was selected. It should be pointed out, however, that as opposed to the majority of the other tasks of this group, in this particular case, the official linguistic term of the targeted feature is not explicitly stated in the subheading. More precisely, instead of *Main stress in sentences*, the less precise formulation *Emphasising what you say* is used (see below, taken from Doff et al. 2016: 41, ex. 3d). Aside from that, the task shows each of the above-outlined characteristics of group 1: not only is its main heading *Pronunciation*, but it also requires a considerable amount of space on the page (see below) and comprehends a high number of employed task formats, namely a vast four (i.e. in their order of appearance: 'Awareness-raising', 'Rule', 'Identifying', and 'L+R'). As a first step of the task, while listening to two different versions of the same sentence, the students have to pay attention to the extent of emphasis put on a particular word (i.e. <really>).[60] Afterwards, one of two answer options should be selected to complete a rule concerned with the aim of stress placement. As a third stage, the students are prompted to mark the main stress in three new examples in accordance with the recording, thereby again offering perceptive training opportunities. Lastly, after having listened to the sentences once more, the learners have to pronounce the utterances themselves. Overall, this task clearly illustrates the book's strong emphasis on receptive skills on the one hand and on metaknowledge on the other hand.



2 PRONUNCIATION Emphasising what you say 1

a 2.56 Listen to the sentence.

MEGAN It's a really nice flat, Sophia.

2.57 Listen to the sentence again. Is *really* more or less stressed the second time?

b Tick (✓) the correct rule.

We say *really* with a strong stress to:
1 ☐ speak loudly
2 ☐ make the meaning stronger

c 2.58 Listen to the sentences. Underline one word with strong stress in each sentence.

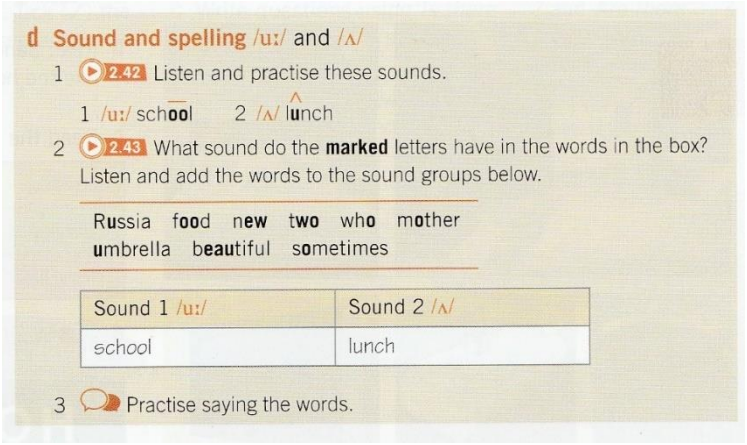
1 My country is very hot in summer.
2 James's new car is really fast.
3 This film is so boring.

d 2.58 Listen again and repeat.

Next, a typical 'Segmentals'-task of Group 2 will be examined. Since their phonetic symbols are cited in the subheading and the respective phonemes are doubtlessly at the heart of the exercise, the major focus of tasks of this kind is generally assumed to be on individual sounds (for an example, see below).[61] In the introductory phase of the example below (taken from Doff

[60] Unfortunately, this is only an assumption based on the given instructions since the audio files were not accessible.
[61] Usually, one such task deals with one to three sounds.

et al. 2016: 41, ex. 3d), the students are prompted to listen and subsequently practice the target sounds /u:/, and /ʌ/. To visualize the sounds' difference in vowel length, the symbols '¯' and '^' are given above the alphabetical letters that represent these phonemes.



d Sound and spelling /u:/ and /ʌ/

1 2.42 Listen and practise these sounds.

1 /u:/ sch**oo**l 2 /ʌ/ l**u**nch

2 2.43 What sound do the **marked** letters have in the words in the box? Listen and add the words to the sound groups below.

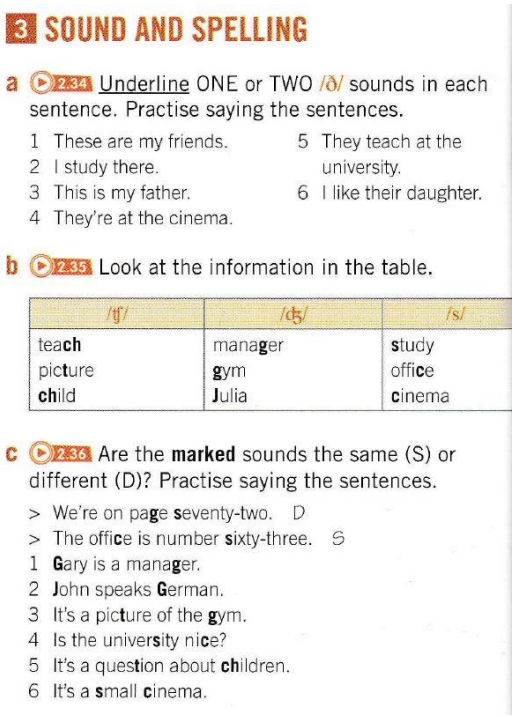
Russia food new two who mother
umbrella beautiful sometimes

Sound 1 /u:/	Sound 2 /ʌ/
school	lunch

3 Practise saying the words.

Their corresponding letters are furthermore emphasized by means of bold print. Aside from this, the choice of words seems noteworthy (i.e. <lunch> pronounced as / lʌntʃ/ vs. <school> articulated as /sku:l/) because as usual, the selected items also demonstrate the discrepancy between spelling and pronunciation. Afterwards, in the second stage of the task, using the same highlighting techniques, nine words are provided. Following an initial listening phase, the students are instructed to add these words to either of two columns depending on the comprised sounds and to then pronounce the words to complete the task. Consequently, the task comprehends the formats 'Awareness-raising' (incl. '(P)') and 'Categorizing' (again incl. '(P)'). Generally, it should be stressed that copious tasks in EAL share these exact task formats and features.[62]

Given that several examples of group 3 will be elaborated on in the part discussing the book's borderline cases, two tasks exemplifying group 4 will be centered on hereinafter (illustrated on the right, taken from Doff et al. 2016: 38, ex. 3a-c). While exercise 3a explicitly targets the feature /ð/, 3b and 3c center on the phonemes /ʧ/, /dʒ/, and /s/. Therefore, this section accounts for two distinctive 'Segmentals'-tasks. Considering that they were both implemented in the *Review*-section, it seems only little surprising that each of the four targeted sounds had already been dealt with in previous tasks.[63] This hence clearly illustrates the book's cyclic approach.



3 SOUND AND SPELLING

a 2.34 Underline ONE or TWO /ð/ sounds in each sentence. Practise saying the sentences.

1 These are my friends.
2 I study there.
3 This is my father.
4 They're at the cinema.
5 They teach at the university.
6 I like their daughter.

b 2.35 Look at the information in the table.

/ʧ/	/ʤ/	/s/
tea**ch**	mana**g**er	**s**tudy
pic**t**ure	**g**ym	offi**c**e
child	**J**ulia	**c**inema

c 2.36 Are the **marked** sounds the same (S) or different (D)? Practise saying the sentences.

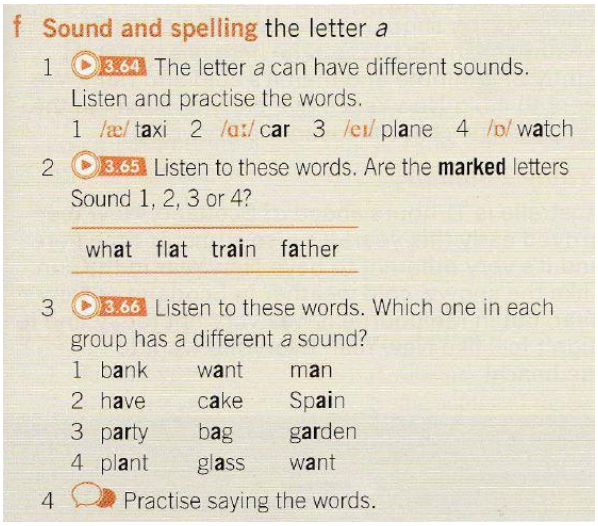
> We're on pa**g**e **s**eventy-two. D
> The offi**c**e is number **s**ixty-three. S
1 **G**ary is a mana**g**er.
2 **J**ohn speaks **G**erman.
3 It's a pi**c**ture of the **g**ym.
4 Is the univer**s**ity ni**c**e?
5 It's a ques**t**ion about **ch**ildren.
6 It's a **s**mall **c**inema.

[62] Nonetheless, the second above-mentioned task format is sometimes also substituted by 'Identifying' or 'SoD'.
[63] Remarkably, however, the former three sounds are covered in the same unit, whereas the phoneme /s/ is focused on beforehand. More precisely, it is contrasted to /z/ and /ɪz/ in two prior tasks.

Regarding the employed formats, in task 3a (cf. Doff et al. 2016: 38, ex. 3a), the students are asked to mark the occurrences of /ð/ in six utterances and then practice the articulation of these sentences. Thus, this task is constituted of the format 'Identifying' and an additional productive phase '(P)'. In the second task (i.e. Doff et al. 2016: 38, ex. 3b+c), the students have to examine a table comprising multiple sample words with foregrounded letters, which consequently corresponds to the format 'Awareness-raising'. The implicit aim of this stage probably is to point out common written representations of the three target sounds since afterwards, the students have to decide whether the pronunciation of the marked letters is identical or different (hence conforming to the format 'SoD'). As usual, this receptive phase is then complemented by a final productive phase allowing the students to articulate the respective utterances (i.e. '(P)'). On the whole, it seems evident that the latter two tasks are prime examples of group 4, not only in terms of their targets (i.e. revision of segmentals) but also concerning their number and types of task formats.

As exclusively tasks concentrating on segmentals or suprasegmentals have been presented so far, the focus will now be shifted towards 'Spelling'-tasks. Although the seven identified cases fall into different groups, some similarities can be observed. For instance, the tasks generally tend to comprise three to four different formats and thus count among the most extensive tasks in this coursebook. Furthermore, three of them center on certain letters (i.e. <o>, <a>, and <oo>) and their various possible phonetic representations (for an example, see below). Interestingly, these letters are without exception retargeted in the *Review*-sections of the respective unit (i.e. <o> and <a> in combination, and <oo> in a supplementary task). Again, it should be mentioned that, especially taking into consideration that phonetic symbols are used in the five tasks, a secondary focus is doubtlessly also placed on segmentals. Yet, given that, if existent, the major emphasis is usually determined by the subheadings in the present thesis (e.g. *The letter a*, see below), the tasks were considered to predominantly focus on the relation between spelling and pronunciation. In contrast, the other two tasks seem to put their secondary stress on suprasegmentals rather than on individual sounds since they primarily target inaudible letters and syllables. Their classification as 'Spelling'-tasks seems nonetheless justifiable because of their use of spelling-related metalanguage, not only in the respective subheadings (e.g. *Syllables and spelling*, Doff et al. 2016: 76, ex. 2) but more importantly also in the task instructions (e.g. *Do you hear all the letters?*, Doff et al. 2016: 76, ex. 2; or *We don't always say all the letters*, Doff et al. 2016: 78, ex. 3b). It should be noted that being implemented in the *Review*-section, the latter of these two tasks also aims at the revision of previous content.

For illustration, the task concerned with the letter <a> will be analyzed in more detail below. To introduce the different phonemes that can be represented by the letter <a>, the respective phonetic symbols are used (i.e. /æ/, /ɑ:/, /eɪ/, and /ɒ/), while the corresponding letters are accentuated in bold print. In addition to this visual input, the students are asked to listen to the items. It seems thus obvious that this stage accounts for the format 'Awareness-raising'. Due to the fact that the students are then instructed to "practice the words" (Doff et al. 2016: 73, ex. 2f.1), '(P)' again serves as a complementary phase. Afterwards, labeled as *2*, four words comprising marked letters have to be matched to the previously introduced sounds, hence exemplifying the task format 'Matching'. As a third substage, the students have to identify one out of three items that has a different sound (i.e. 'OOO'), before having to pronounce the words as a final step (i.e. '(P)'). Therefore, like the majority of explicit pronunciation tasks found in EAL, this example encompasses multiple task formats that allow for both receptive and productive pronunciation development.


f **Sound and spelling** the letter *a*

1 3.64 The letter *a* can have different sounds. Listen and practise the words.
1 /æ/ taxi 2 /ɑ:/ car 3 /eɪ/ plane 4 /ɒ/ watch

2 3.65 Listen to these words. Are the **marked** letters Sound 1, 2, 3 or 4?

what flat train father

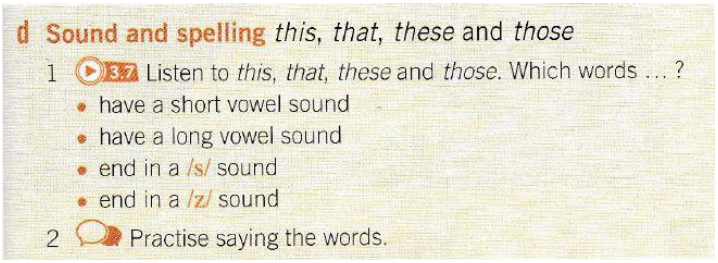
3 3.66 Listen to these words. Which one in each group has a different *a* sound?
1 bank want man
2 have cake Spain
3 party bag garden
4 plant glass want

4 Practise saying the words.

Lastly, the four borderline cases will be examined in their chronological order. The first one belongs to group 3 since, besides being termed *Pronunciation*, it merely consists of two lines of instructions and is only one minor element of an entire section focusing on grammatical items. In this case, the structures <there is> and <there are> are at the heart of the passage. Despite epitomizing each of the group's overall tendencies, this task is unique in that it is this book's sole pronunciation task involving dictation. More precisely, as demonstrated above (taken from Doff et al. 2016: 40, ex. 2b), the students are prompted to write down several sentences in accordance with the recording. Given that the next step is to count the words of each utterance, the task comprehends two formats, namely 'Other' and 'Counting'. Nonetheless, it had to be classified as 'Borderline case' because its major emphasis could be argued to be put on the correspondence between pronunciation and spelling or on linking, thereby either falling into the category 'Spelling', or 'Suprasegmentals', respectively.


b 2.38 **Pronunciation** Listen and write the sentences. How many words are there in each?

As opposed to the previous task, the second borderline case (illustrated on the right, taken from Doff et al. 2016: 57, ex. 2d) adheres to group 2. Succeeding the main heading (i.e. *Sound and spelling*), the task's targets are specified to be the function words *this, that, these,* and *those* (see above), thereby suggesting the principal emphasis to be on entire words. Nevertheless, the subsequent questions clearly draw the students' attention towards segmental features by instructing them to identify differences in vowel length on the one hand, and the phonemes /s/, and /z/ in word-final position on the other hand while listening to the recording. It seems noteworthy that different marking techniques further underscore the dual focus: the phonemes are highlighted in orange, whereas the whole words are printed in italics. To finish the task, as usual, the learners have to articulate the words. Although it appears evident that the employed task format is 'Identifying' followed by an additional practice phase '(P)', this task could either be categorized as 'Whole word' or 'Segmentals' and had thus to be assigned to the category 'Borderline case'. Generally speaking, it should be pointed out that only a small minority of the numerous explicit pronunciation tasks in EAL are exclusively devoted to grammatical words like in this particular example.

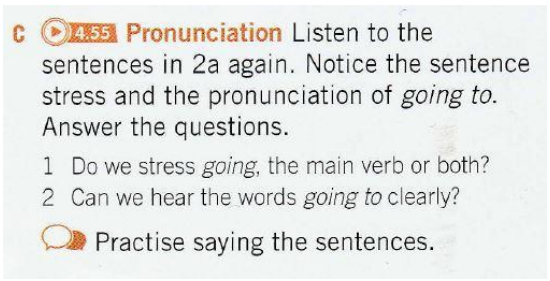

d **Sound and spelling** *this, that, these* and *those*

1 3.7 Listen to *this, that, these* and *those*. Which words … ?

- have a short vowel sound
- have a long vowel sound
- end in a /s/ sound
- end in a /z/ sound

2 Practise saying the words.

The third borderline case forms part of group 3. Taking into account its initial instructions (i.e. *Notice the sentence stress […]*, taken from Doff et al. 2016: 96, ex. 2c) as well as its more detailed questions (see *1* and *2* on the right), this task appears to have its major focus on suprasegmentals. However, since the learners are also asked to pay attention to the pronunciation of the phrase *going to* multiple times (see above), alternatively, the task's focus could be attributed to the category 'Whole word'. Notwithstanding the somewhat ambiguous focus, the task formats seem to be clearly identifiable as 'Awareness-raising' (i.e. *Notice […]*, see above) – including an initial listening-phase as usual – then 'Rule' (i.e. answering meta-questions about stress placement), and a final '(P)' (i.e. *Practice saying […]*, see above). Similar to copious other tasks in this book, the completion of this somewhat challenging task hence requires cognitive and analytical skills as well as phonetic metaknowledge.


c 4.55 **Pronunciation** Listen to the sentences in 2a again. Notice the sentence stress and the pronunciation of *going to*. Answer the questions.

1 Do we stress *going*, the main verb or both?
2 Can we hear the words *going to* clearly?

Practise saying the sentences.

Implemented in a section called *Writing Plus*, the fourth borderline case centers on the pronunciation of the alphabetical letters. It is the sole task that does not correspond to any of the four established groups. As indicated below (taken from Doff et al. 2016: 154, ex. 2c.a+b), the students are prompted to listen to the pronunciation of the letters, match the missing ones to the word encompassing the same sound, and pronounce all letters as a last step. More precisely, the targets are initially presented in a table whose seven columns are dedicated to different vowels that are comprised in the pronunciation of at least one alphabetical letter (i.e. the phonemes /eɪ/, /iː/, /e/, /aɪ/, /əʊ/, /uː/, and /ɑː/, respectively, cited in Doff et al. 2016: 154, ex. 2c.a). To refer to the sounds, their phonetic symbols are provided in orange font, which clearly demonstrates the explicit pronunciation focus of the task. Additionally, the letters representing the target sounds are highlighted in bold print in the sample words. Accompanied by their full phonetic transcription, the 26 alphabetical letters are then distributed among the columns in accordance with the vowels they contain (see below, taken from Doff et al. 2016: 154, ex. 2c.a). Taking into consideration both the layout and, more importantly, the instructions of the task, the formats were classified as 'Awareness-raising' (i.e. *Listen to […]*, see below) and 'Categorizing' (i.e. *Add the letters to the group […]*, see below), succeeded by oral practice '(P)' (i.e. *Say […]*, see below). However, it should be noted that regarding the categorization of the letters (see below, cited in Doff et al. 2016: 154, ex. 2c.b), the required information can simply be copied from the table (see below, taken from Doff et al. 2016: 154, ex. 2c.a). Consequently, the perceptive efforts as well as the general difficulty of the task are substantially limited. Moreover, it seems noteworthy that, except for the vowel /e/, the phonemes had already been dealt with earlier in the coursebook, hence again indicating the strong emphasis on revision. Lastly, the overall classification of this task ought to be revisited. Given the undeniable focus on specific individual sounds especially in the initial stages of the task, 'Segmentals' appears to be a fitting category. Nonetheless, it also seems reasonable to consider alphabetical letters as lexical items, thus rather advocating the category 'Whole word'. Alternatively, the relation between the letters' pronunciation and their written form can be viewed as the task's main target, which would then fall into the category 'Spelling'. Due to these indeed legitimate possibilities, the task had to be categorized as 'Borderline case'.

Part 1: The alphabet

a 164 Listen to how we say the letters of the alphabet.

/eɪ/ (*day*)	/iː/ (*we*)	/e/ (*ten*)	/aɪ/ (*hi*)	/əʊ/ (*no*)	/uː/ (*you*)	/aː/ (*car*)
Aa /eɪ/ Hh /eɪtʃ/ Jj /dʒeɪ/ Kk /keɪ/	Bb /biː/ Cc /siː/ Dd /diː/ Ee /iː/ Gg /dʒiː/ Pp /piː/ Tt /tiː/ Vv /viː/	Ff /ef/ Ll /el/ Mm /em/ Nn /en/ Ss /es/ Xx /eks/ Zz /zed/	Ii /aɪ/ Yy /waɪ/	Oo /əʊ/	Qq /kjuː/ Uu /juː/ Ww /dʌbəljuː/ ('double u')	Rr /aː/

b Add the letters to the group with similar sounds. Say the letters.

R H ~~Q~~ O Z Y C F

1 (**you**) U, Q, W
2 (**day**) J, __, A, K
3 (**hi**) I, __
4 (**we**) T, __, B, D, E, G, P, V
5 (**te**n) N, L, __, M, S, X
6 (**car**) __
7 (**no**) __

All in all, in this subsection, it became evident that EAL comprises an astonishingly tremendous pronunciation focus encompassing a staggering 78 explicit tasks. These vary considerably in terms of their targets, combination of substages, extent, and layout. With the most prevalent category being yet again 'Segmentals', except for 'Whole word', all kinds of targets were identified in the book. Nevertheless, it should be noted that overlaps between the categories were commonly observed, especially between 'Segmentals' and 'Spelling'. Another outstanding finding is that the targets tend to reappear in new variations, which hence underscores this book's strong emphasis on repetition. Regarding the employed task formats, not only a high number overall but also an overwhelmingly broad range was revealed. Nonetheless, the tasks typically involve an initial listening-phase accompanied by a visualized introduction of the targets, as well as a final practice phase '(P)'. Consequently, despite being oftentimes extended by supplementary formats, numerous tasks still somewhat resemble the classic 'L+R'-phases. Lastly, it should be mentioned that this book displays a tendency to raise awareness of general rules and pronunciation patterns, thereby indicating a cognitive approach towards pronunciation acquisition. For this and other reasons, cognitive and analytic skills as well as a certain level of metaknowledge seem to be indispensable to complete most explicit pronunciation tasks in EAL. Whether these extraordinary findings also hold true for the second CAL will become apparent in the next subsection.

5.2.4 Great! A1

With fifteen explicit tasks in total, prima facie, the extent of pronunciation focus in GAL (Cohen et al. 2011) seems to be somewhat similar to the CLS.[64] When investigating the foci more thoroughly, however, it becomes obvious that this book's principal emphasis is placed on the complex relation between pronunciation and spelling since more than half of the identified tasks fall into the category 'Spelling' (i.e. nine tasks, illustrated in Figure 8), whereas the only remaining six tasks are classified as 'Borderline case' (for the reasons, see below). Therefore, surprisingly, tasks clearly centering on segmentals, suprasegmentals and whole words are completely absent in this coursebook (for an overview of the collected data, cf. Table 16 in the appendix).

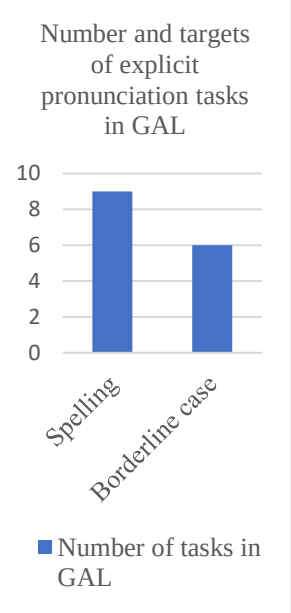


Figure 8. Number and targets of explicit pronunciation tasks in GAL

Most importantly, the above-mentioned tasks were considered to have an explicit pronunciation focus because of their application of phonetic symbols. Additionally, the tasks frequently utilize pronunciation-related metalanguage either in their instructions (e.g. *Lautschrift*, *Lautschriften-angaben*, *Aussprache*, *phonetics*, etc.), or, in one case, in the heading of the task's subsection (i.e. *Pronunciation and spelling*, cf. Cohen et al. 2011: 85). The examples cited here also illustrate another typical – and compared to the other coursebooks indeed unique – feature of GAL, namely its tendency to apply German. It should nonetheless be pointed out that the use of the learners' alleged L1 is mostly limited to the so-called *Homestudy*-sections (i.e. part *C* of each unit).[65] In contrast to these markers of explicitness, foregrounding techniques such as bold print and underlining were not found in GAL.

Moreover, it should be pointed out that astonishingly numerous activities address the alphabetical letters. Given that their phonetic distinction is frequently exclusively based on individual sounds (e.g. /iː/ to account for the alphabetical letter <e> vs. the diphthong /aɪ/ for the letter <i> vs. /eɪ/ for <a>, etc.), these tasks could be argued to have a certain pronunciation focus. Nevertheless, because of the complete lack of signs of explicitness, they are not relevant to the present analysis and will hence be disregarded.

[64] Similar to the above-described coursebooks, GAL also comprehends implicit pronunciation tasks (e.g. traditional 'L+R'-tasks lacking markers of explicitness, two songs, tasks prompting the students to listen to and read aloud dialogues, etc., for more information, cf. Table 17 in the appendix).

[65] The reason for this remarkable choice probably is to ensure that the students are also able to comprehend the instructions in absence of their teacher, who might serve as a facilitator and resource during lessons.

Due to the fact that, aside from the use of phonetic transcription, the tasks only show few similarities, they will be examined individually hereinafter. Beforehand, however, a concise overview of the employed task formats will be provided. As demonstrated in Figure 9,[66] instead of the classic 'L+R'-tasks, the prevailing category in GAL is 'Other' (cf. 'Other' in Figure 9, for more details, see below). The second place is shared by 'TIP' and 'TIW'. To explain these abbreviations, the former asks the students to guess the pronunciation of words based on their phonetic transcription (cf. 'TIP' in Figure 9), whereas the latter prompts the transformation of phonetic transcription into written words or letters (cf. 'TIW' in Figure 9). Taking into account that both formats involve phonetic transcription, its considerable relevance in GAL becomes obvious. Besides the three frontrunners, the other used formats include three instances of 'L+R', closely followed by 'Matching', and finally 'Rule' and 'Categorizing'. Additionally, in three borderline cases, the receptive formats are complemented by a practice phase (i.e. '(P)').

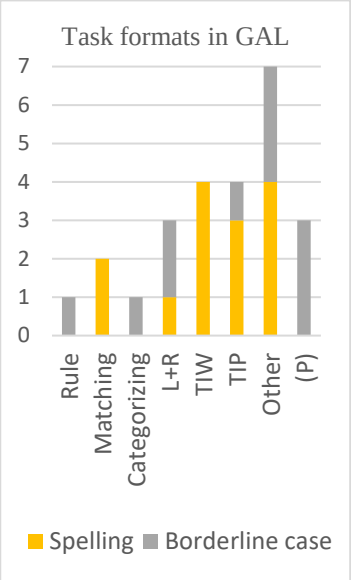
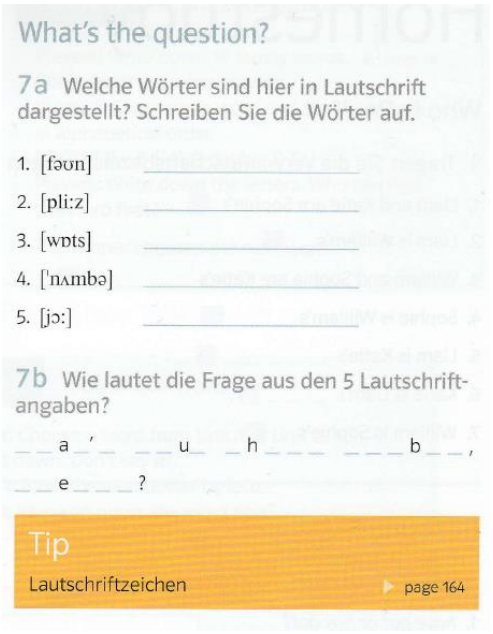


Figure 9. Task formats in GAL

To allow for deeper insights, the tasks will now be analyzed in greater detail. As illustrated by the yellow markings in Figure 9, the predominant 'Spelling'-tasks show a vast variety of task formats. Implemented on a page that exclusively targets alphabetical letters, the first task with this focus prompts the students to transform the transcription of the pronunciation of the alphabetical letters into their written equivalents to form ten commonly used acronyms. For example, */viː/ /aɪ/ /piː/* is provided in item number six (taken from Cohen 2011: 22, ex. 3b, item 6), which should then be transformed into <VIP>. Because of the fact that the students subsequently have to listen to and repeat the resulting words, the formats fall into the categories 'TIW' and 'L+R'. In the *Homestudy*-section of the same unit, this task is replicated with the only differences being that first, three first names in lieu of acronyms are spelled (e.g. */diː/, /eɪ/, /viː/, /aɪ/, /diː/* for <David>, taken from Cohen 2011: 26, ex. 6a, item 2) and second, the students just have to check their answers by listening to the recording as a final step. Therefore, the second 'Spelling'-task solely accounts for the 'TIW'-format. By and large, these two tasks allow for practice in respect of both the comprehension of the phonetic symbols and the pronunciation of the alphabetical letters.

[66] To give a more detailed account of the identified task formats, their distribution among the foci 'Spelling', and 'Borderline case' has also been indicated.

The third identified ‘Spelling’-task requires the transformation of transcribed words – rather than just letters – into their written form, as does a similar task later in the book. In the former case, the students are encouraged to transform five transcribed words into their spelled version before bringing them in the correct order to form a question (i.e. *What’s your phone number, please?*, see on the right, taken from Cohen et al. 2011: 26, ex. 7ab).[67] Hence, this task’s formats belong to the categories ‘TIW’ (i.e. ex. 7a) and ‘Other’ (i.e. ex. 7b). Remarkably, its initial phase was reused in the penultimate explicit pronunciation task of this book. To elaborate on this, in the latter example, the learners have to bring two transcribed words of the lexical field *occupation* into their spelled form (Cohen et al. 2011: 67, ex. 2b), thereby solely applying the format ‘TIW’. Despite the low amount of time and effort needed for its completion, this task demonstrates yet again that the development of the students’ ability to read phonetic transcriptions is a major aim of this coursebook.


What's the question?

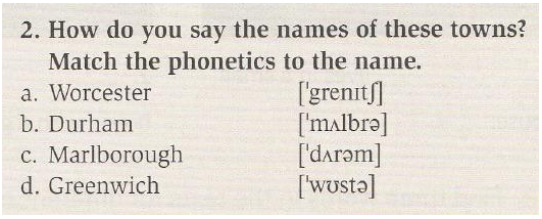
7a Welche Wörter sind hier in Lautschrift dargestellt? Schreiben Sie die Wörter auf.

1. [fəʊn] _____
2. [pliːz] _____
3. [wɒts] _____
4. [ˈnʌmbə] _____
5. [jɔː] _____

7b Wie lautet die Frage aus den 5 Lautschrift-angaben?

_ _ a _ ’ _ _ _ u _ _ h _ _ _ _ _ _ _ b _ _ ,
_ _ e _ _ _ ?

Tip
Lautschriftzeichen page 164

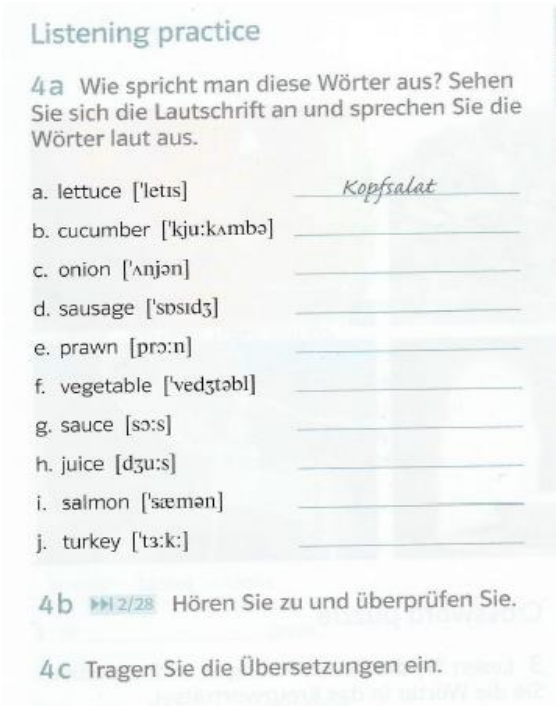

2. How do you say the names of these towns? Match the phonetics to the name.

a. Worcester	[ˈgrenɪtʃ]
b. Durham	[ˈmʌlbrə]
c. Marlborough	[ˈdʌrəm]
d. Greenwich	[ˈwʊstə]

In place of ‘TIW’, two other ‘Spelling’-tasks employ the task type ‘Matching’ to address the relation between the phonetic transcription of words and their written form. Concerning the first one (cf. Cohen et al. 2011: 51, ex. 7a.2, see above), the students are asked to match four phonetic transcriptions of cities to their spelled versions. In the other task, by contrast, the learners have to fill the gaps of a text about Edinburgh by substituting five transcribed adjectives for their written forms given in a box (cf. Cohen et al. 2011: 55, ex. 2). Due to the fact that the learners can simply match the transcriptions to the cited spelled words and hence do not need to comprehend or even read the text to fill the gaps, ‘Matching’ seems to be the appropriate category for this task. Furthermore, it should be clarified that notwithstanding certain similarities, this task does not fulfill the criteria of ‘TIW’ because the students are provided with answer options (for the definitions of the formats, cf. Table 5). Taking into account that in

[67] Interestingly, a reference to the explanation of the phonetic symbols is merely given after the task (see orange box above, taken from Cohen 2011: 26). It alludes to the *Vocabulary*-section of the book (cf. Cohen 2011: 164) in which the phonetic alphabet, including the markers of word stress, is thoroughly introduced. However, it should be noted that in order of appearance, this is already the fourth task using phonetic symbols in GAL.

both tasks, the words need to be neither listened to nor pronounced at any point, it becomes apparent that their primary stress is laid on the acquisition of the phonetic symbols rather than on pronunciation development.


Listening practice

4a Wie spricht man diese Wörter aus? Sehen Sie sich die Lautschrift an und sprechen Sie die Wörter laut aus.

a. lettuce ['letɪs] Kopfsalat
b. cucumber ['kju:kʌmbə]
c. onion ['ʌnjən]
d. sausage ['sɒsɪdʒ]
e. prawn [prɔ:n]
f. vegetable ['vedʒtəbl]
g. sauce [sɔ:s]
h. juice [dʒu:s]
i. salmon ['sæmən]
j. turkey ['tɜ:k:]

4b ⏭ 2/28 Hören Sie zu und überprüfen Sie.

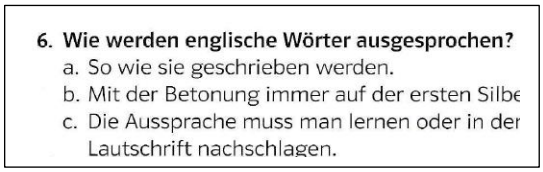
4c Tragen Sie die Übersetzungen ein.

Finally, each of the last three 'Spelling'-tasks consists of two formats, namely 'TIP' and 'Other'. As an initial phase of these tasks, the students have to guess the pronunciation of words based on both their written and transcribed form, thereby accounting for 'TIP'. While in one task, the students are prompted to spell the words as a last step (Cohen et al. 2011: 85, ex. 5), in both other activities, the learners have to verify the accuracy of their predictions by listening to the recording (Cohen et al. 2011: 80, ex. 4abc, see on the right; and Cohen et al. 2011: 98, ex. 5abc). Therefore, unlike the four previous examples, these tasks involve both receptive and productive pronunciation practice. It should nonetheless be highlighted that their identical classification as 'Other' notwithstanding, the final phases of the latter two tasks differ substantially. In the example illustrated above, the words have to be translated into German, which, along with the instructions of the task, clearly indicates the paramount importance of the learners' native language in this coursebook. In contrast, the second task asks the students to form the infinitives and past participles of a set of verbs in the past tense. Owing to this stage, the phonetic input is linked to prior grammatical knowledge.

Having scrutinized the nine 'Spelling'-tasks, the six borderline cases will now be explored. Remarkably, these tasks mostly show significant differences, not only in view of the employed formats, but also in terms of the reasons why they were assigned to this category. The first task is again concerned with the pronunciation of the alphabetical letters. After having been introduced to the English alphabet by means of a rap in the previous task,[68] the learners have to categorize the letters (i.e. from <A> to <Z>) according to the sounds they comprise (cf. Cohen 2011: 22, ex. 1b). For this purpose, three monophthongs (i.e. /i:/, /e/, /ɑ:/), three diphthongs (i.e. /eɪ/, /aɪ/, /əʊ/) as well as one combination of two individual sounds (i.e. /ju:/) are provided in

[68] Due to their possible relevance for pronunciation teaching purposes, it should be noted that songs, including raps, are otherwise scarce in GAL.

the book. To give an example, next to the phonetic symbols /ju:/, the students would have to write the letters <Q>, <U>, and <W>. It seems noteworthy that the sounds and the respective letters are color-coded to facilitate the exercise. Given that some symbols might not be self-explanatory (e.g. /əʊ/), the students might even exclusively rely on the color-codes when completing the task. Due to the fact that before categorizing the letters, the learners also have to pronounce them, overall, the task consists of the task types 'Categorizing' and '(P)'. Taking into consideration that on the one hand, the correspondence between the written form (i.e. the alphabetical letters) and their English pronunciation is practiced, and that on the other hand, specific individual sounds are stressed, both 'Spelling' and 'Segmentals' appear to be adequate categories for this task, hence justifying its classification as 'Borderline case'.


6. **Wie werden englische Wörter ausgesprochen?**
a. So wie sie geschrieben werden.
b. Mit der Betonung immer auf der ersten Silbe
c. Die Aussprache muss man lernen oder in der Lautschrift nachschlagen.

Regarding the second borderline case, it forms part of the regularly reoccurring multiple-choice quizzes at the end of each unit. Of the usual six questions comprising three answer options each, three items seem to center at least partially on pronunciation (for an example, see above, taken from Cohen et al 201: 27, item 6). Nevertheless, two of them could also be viewed as targeting lexical rather than phonetic knowledge because the students are asked which of the cited alphabetical letters rhyme (i.e. <J> and <K>, cf. Cohen et al 201: 27, item 2) and which letter sounds like the word <are> (i.e. <R>, cf. Cohen et al 201: 27, item 4). In the last item, however, as demonstrated above (taken from Cohen et al 201: 27, item 6), three different areas of pronunciation are explicitly referred to, namely word stress, phonetic transcription, and the correspondence between pronunciation and spelling. Therefore, this item comprises even multiple instances of metalanguage (i.e. *Betonung, Silbe, Aussprache,* etc., see above). Even though this task aims to raise awareness about phonetic meta-knowledge by means of questions and can hence be identified as 'Rule' (cf. Table 5), its primary phonetic focus cannot be determined.

In the third task of this category (cf. Cohen et al. 2011: 62), the students are instructed to practice the articulation of a vast 38 different jobs without prior exposure to their pronunciation. To simplify the process, the items are provided in their written and transcribed form, the latter being the only marker of explicitness of this activity. Since both versions of the words directly succeed each other, it could be argued that a link between spelling and pronunciation is created, thereby suggesting the focus 'Spelling'. Nevertheless, if the transcriptions only serve as occasional, additional support, the task rather ought to be assigned to the category 'Whole word'. Owing to these ambiguities, it had to be classified as 'Borderline case'. In light of its

formats, assuming that the students guess the words' pronunciation based on the transcriptions, the first phase of the task corresponds to the format 'TIP'. Afterwards, the format 'L+R' allows the students to verify their anticipations and practice the words again. As a last phase, the students are asked to identify words that are spelled identically in their L1, hence falling into the category 'Other'. Besides promoting the ability to decode phonetic transcription, this task demonstrates yet again the book's strong tendency to establish a relation between the TL and the learners' L1.

In opposition to these cases, the last three borderline cases fall into this category because of their limited extent of explicitness and their thus resulting debatable relevance to the present analysis. To begin with, in a traditional 'L+R'-task (cf. Cohen et al. 2011: 73.1a), merely three of sixteen items related to the lexical field *breakfast* are accompanied by their phonetic transcriptions. Although the task's overall focus is doubtlessly placed on pronunciation, its extent of explicitness appears questionable. Similarly, three transcribed words in brackets are also the sole indication of explicitness in a task asking the students to replace five repetitions of the word <terrible> by either of three synonyms in a dialogue (i.e. <awful>, <horrible>, or <dreadful>, cf. Cohen et al. 2011: 116, ex. 4c). As the transcriptions seem to serve as additional aid rather than as fundamental basis of the activity, its classification as 'Borderline case' seems legitimate. Due to the fact that the students are afterwards prompted to exchange the words randomly while reading aloud the text, the task encompasses the format 'Other' and a final productive phase '(P)'. The last activity falling into this category comprises the exact same task types. In this case, the students have to first spell and then pronounce the 58-letter name of a small village in North Wales (i.e. cf. Cohen et al. 2011: 85, ex. 4ab).[69] Given that the sole marker of explicitness is the task's heading (i.e. *Pronunciation and spelling*) and that its major focus can either be assumed to be on segmentals (i.e. when pronouncing the alphabetical letters) or on entire words (i.e. the name of the city), it also ought to be considered a 'Borderline case'.

To conclude, an average number of explicit tasks including numerous borderline cases, and a considerable variety of formats were found in GAL. More importantly, however, the analysis revealed that a sharp focus is put on the complex relation between sound and spelling, on the pronunciation of the alphabetical letters, as well as on phonetic transcription in general. Additionally, the learners' L1 was observed to play a vital role in this book. In the next chapter, the implications of the presented findings will be discussed, and conclusions will be drawn.

[69] It is called Llanfairpwllgwyngyllgogerychwyrndrobwllllantysiliogogogoch.

6. Discussion

When comparing the results of the coursebooks, it becomes evident that in terms of explicit pronunciation tasks, several age-specific tendencies can be identified: While the CLS (i.e. MLS, and PLS) comprise a similar number of tasks, predominantly focus on segmental features, and rely heavily on formats requiring repetition, both books for adults (i.e. EAL, and GAL) show a surprisingly strong emphasis on the correlation between pronunciation and spelling, as well as a broader range of task formats. It should nonetheless be stressed that the data sets of the CAL diverge sharply since EAL encompasses an outstanding number of tasks with by far the widest range of foci and task formats, whereas GAL's extent of explicit focus seems somewhat comparable to the CLS.

The scant treatment of pronunciation in the Austrian school curriculum notwithstanding (cf. section 3.3.4), each of the four books was found to include relevant tasks. Although the numbers of tasks in GAL and MLS are indeed somewhat similar (i.e. fifteen and thirteen, respectively), the divergence between the remaining two books is enormous (i.e. an overwhelming 78 tasks in EAL as opposed to a mere eight tasks in PLS). Therefore, by and large, the CAL seem to comprise a significantly more extensive pronunciation focus. In this regard, it should again be underscored that the above-mentioned tasks only indicate the books' explicit pronunciation focus because owing to the limited scope of master's theses, implicit activities had to be disregarded. Taking into consideration the copious cases identified in EAL, it seems obvious that the development of phonetic skills is one of this book's primary foci. A possible reason for this remarkable particularity lies in the book's publishing house (cf. Table 6). To elaborate on this, both CLS and GAL were published by German-speaking companies, whereas EAL's publisher is British. Consequently, unlike their germanophone colleagues, the British authors seem to consider the development of pronunciation skills a key component of successful language acquisition. However, given that GA-specific features are completely ignored in this book, exclusively the authors' own accent is instructed and practiced, hence clearly demonstrating author-related bias. Therefore, it seems evident that a multitude of factors heavily affect the development of materials, and thus also the findings of the present study.

Next, the tasks' foci will be investigated more thoroughly. Generally speaking, except for GAL, a heavy stress on segmental features was observed in the books. This choice seems legitimate taking into account that vowel length, most consonants, and consonant clusters count among the core features of the LFC (cf. Jenkins 2000: 132) and are hence assumed to be essential for effective communication. Another reason might be that in comparison with German, English

contains numerous similar yet clearly distinctive sounds (cf. Richter 2019: 144). As they are thus susceptible to negative transfer (cf. Celce-Murcia, Brinton & Goodwin 1996: 19-20), explicit instruction in this respect seems to be the key to pronunciation enhancement.

It is furthermore remarkable that even though certain individual sounds have already been proven to pose problems to NSs of Austrian German (cf. section 4.2.2), the coursebooks differ considerably in terms of their selection: Concerning MLS, of the somewhat broad range of selected phonemes, the vast majority does indeed appear to be challenging for Austrian learners (i.e. /z/, /p/, /w/, /ɜ:/, /æ/, /ð/, and /θ/, cf. Richter 2019: 144). In view of /p/, for instance, it should be pointed out that, as outlined in section 4.2.2, particularly sufficient aspiration in initial position of stressed syllables seems to be difficult (Richter 2019: 144) and that this can be practiced in all six instances of the respective task. In contrast, the two remaining 'Segmentals'-tasks focus on the less difficult devoiced affricate /ʧ/, and the plosives /t/, /d/ and the combined sounds /ɪd/, respectively. Given that more problematic sounds such as the voiced sounds /ʒ/, /ʤ/, or /v/ are not at all covered in this book, they would probably be more useful aims for the target group.

Regarding PLS, it seems astonishing that half of its 'Segmentals'-tasks are at least partially concerned with plosives. Similar to MLS, only relevant examples are provided in these tasks. Nonetheless, whether /p/ and /b/ have to be targeted in half of them appears to be highly debatable, especially taking into consideration the overall somewhat limited explicit pronunciation focus of PLS. Another task contrasts the two high vowels /i:/ and /ɪ/ with each other so that their difference in vowel length can be practiced. As mentioned above, vowel length is included in Jenkins' (2000: 132) list of salient features for successful communication and might thus deserve attention. At the heart of the sole remaining PLS-task are the phonemes /v/ and /w/. Due to the fact that these sounds are frequently confused by Austrian German NSs (cf. Richter 2019: 144), opposing them to one another might be a particularly helpful technique. Overall, the CLS hence comprise a divergent yet overlapping selection of segmentals. Remarkably, they target these features using different approaches: most tasks in MLS are devoted to one single sound, whereas the tasks in PLS center on two – usually similar – phonemes at once. The latter seems to be an effective method to draw the students' attention towards the sole distinctive feature of two sounds, while the former allows the learners to concentrate fully on one phoneme and therefore appears to be less challenging. Consequently, both approaches show potential to be pedagogically valuable, but their appropriateness highly depends on the phonetic targets, the learners, and the respective context.

In EAL, on the other hand, individual sounds are commonly targeted both in isolation and in combination with other sounds. Nevertheless, in addition to aiming at two or more phonemes conjointly in order to stress their distinctive qualities (e.g. in terms of vowel quantity, or voicing), this book encompasses tasks in which phonemes with several differing features are contrasted with each other (e.g. /u:/ vs. /ʌ/, cf. Table 12 in the appendix). The objective of this type of task probably is to demonstrate that sound and spelling (e.g. <u> and /u:/) do not necessarily correlate, hence indicating the strong focus on spelling in the CAL. In view of the selection of segmentals, affricates, certain fricatives, and yet again plosives seem to play the primary role in EAL. Moreover, it appears somewhat surprising that tasks concerned with consonant clusters were also found in EAL. Although these groups of sounds are believed to be particularly important at the beginning and in the middle of words (Jenkins 2000: 132), however, they are solely targeted in word-initial, and word-final position in this coursebook. Another remarkable finding is the fact that – an extraordinary explicit pronunciation focus, and numerous revisions of targets notwithstanding – certain sounds are entirely disregarded in EAL, including, for instance, the phoneme /ʒ/. This appears to be a questionable choice because speakers of Austrian German tend to replace this and other voiced sounds (e.g. /z/, and /ʤ/) by their voiceless counterparts (Richter 2019: 144). Taking into account that GAL did not comprise any 'Segmentals'-tasks, general age-related tendencies of the CAL cannot be identified. Nonetheless, the data of the other three books reveals that they tend to prioritize different sounds using different targeting approaches (i.e. only individual sounds, two sounds at once, or a combination of these two methods, respectively). Closer scrutiny has furthermore indicated that the books' selection of segmental features can broadly be assumed to correspond to Austrian EFL learners' needs.

As opposed to the strong emphasis on individual sounds, suprasegmentals are only scarcely centered on in three of the four coursebooks. More specifically, while a variety of prosodic features are targeted in EAL, merely one task concerned with sentence stress is implemented in MLS, and a complete lack of exercises in this respect was revealed in both GAL, and PLS. Therefore, general age-related differences can again not be observed. The overall rarity of explicit tasks targeting suprasegmentals might partially result from the fact that an implicit approach is employed to practice these features. For instance, it could be argued that in both CLS, suprasegmentals such as stress, and rhythm are also practiced in the 'Segmentals'-tasks, as these frequently involve poems, rhymes, and tongue twisters. Apart from this, the extreme marginalization of prosodic features also seems to be in compliance with Jenkins' list of non-core features since it predominantly comprehends suprasegmentals (i.e. word stress aside from

nuclear stress, pitch movement, rhythm, features of connected speech, and weak forms, cf. Jenkins 2000: 146-156). Nevertheless, taking into consideration that Austrian EFL learners frequently encounter difficulties with suprasegmental features such as word and sentence stress, vowel reduction, weak forms, as well as linking according to recent research (Richter 2019: 145), explicit practice opportunities in this regard might be particularly advantageous in the given context.

Another striking finding concerns the fact that both CAL place a strong focus on the complex relation between pronunciation and spelling. It should be noted that the corresponding tasks were not only found frequently but also exclusively in the coursebooks for older learners. More precisely, as indicated in section 5.2.4, the primary emphasis of most tasks in GAL is put on the comprehension of phonetic symbols. Surprisingly, this appears to be in conformance with the Austrian lower secondary curricula of AHS[70] and Mittelschule,[71] whose only passage referring to pronunciation is identical and underscores the relevance of phonetic transcription to promote autonomous pronunciation acquisition (cf. section 3.3.1). Unlike GAL, in EAL, the major stress is specifically laid on the divergence between written letters and their phonetic representation because each letter is usually illustrated by different sounds (cf. 'Spelling'-tasks outlined in section 5.2.3). To attract the students' attention and to facilitate the retention of the new information, the respective letters are foregrounded by means of marking techniques, thereby catering to visual learners. Even more astonishing seems the fact that the relation between sound and spelling is also targeted in the majority of 'Segmentals'-tasks, which hence further amplifies the immense importance of this pronunciation area in EAL. Although it seems obvious that both CAL put great stress on the correspondence between sound and spelling, the reasons for this tendency can only be speculated on. Nonetheless, it should be pointed out that the tasks' completion usually requires cognitive and thereof especially analytic abilities and that these skill sets generally tend to be applied by adults when they approach pronunciation learning (cf. Lane 2010: 5). Consequently, the task design can be assumed to reflect the alleged needs and preferences of older learners in particular. In contrast to the CAL, the CLS do not comprise a single task centering on transcription or on the relation between pronunciation and spelling. Notwithstanding that the relevance of the ability to decode phonetic transcription is stated in lower secondary curricula (cf. section 3.3.1), solely the CAL account for this focus.

[70] https://www.ris.bka.gv.at/GeltendeFassung.wxe?Abfrage=Bundesnormen&Gesetzesnummer=10008568 (08 Dec. 2020).
[71] https://www.ris.bka.gv.at/GeltendeFassung.wxe?Abfrage= Bundesnormen&Gesetzesnummer=20007850 (11 Dec. 2020).

Equally interesting is the fact that merely two books explicitly revisit certain features, namely PLS, and EAL. While in the former book, the only recurring targets are the bilabial plosives /p/ and /b/, in EAL, numerous foci occurred multiple times which indicates thus again the book's outstanding stress on pronunciation. Usually forming part of the so-called *Review*-sections, these tasks frequently retarget the previous foci in new combinations with other sounds. Such an extensive emphasis on repetition appears to be extremely valuable considering its well-known positive effects on the retention of the respective forms. Additionally, however, owing to minor alterations in terms of targets and task formats, the features are presented and practiced in new ways so that a link to other phonetic areas and/or to the students' prior knowledge can be established. Therefore, taking the significant benefits of the repetition of targets into account, their complete lack in MLS and GAL seems unfortunate.

Having discussed the most crucial findings regarding both the number of explicit pronunciation tasks and their foci, the employed task types will now be explored. By and large, a broader variety of formats was observed in the CAL. Nevertheless, irrespective of the target group, task formats requiring imitation and repetition still seem to play a key role in controlled pronunciation practice. In accordance with Dalton and Seidlhofer's (1994: 131) presumed predominant task types for productive skills, the traditional 'listen and repeat' ('L+R') ranks among the prevailing formats in each of the four books under examination. Although critics might view them as obsolete and their communicative value can certainly be questioned, their great potential for the automatization of new phonetic features on the one hand and the development of autocorrection skills on the other hand (Lane 2010: 11) as well as for the development of novel muscular habits (Rogerson-Revell 2011: 23) still appear to be valid arguments for the implementation of this task type regardless of the age of the learners. In view of the CLS, it seems remarkable that aside from one minor exception in PLS, each of the tasks in the books includes a 'L+R'-phase. Therefore, this format constitutes a vast two thirds of the formats in PLS and even all task formats in MLS. An age-based argument for the heavy reliance on imitative practice in the CLS could be that the repetition of aural input complies with an intuitive rather than a cognitive approach towards pronunciation acquisition. Hence, younger learners' less mature brains and their thus resulting poorer analytic skills are taken into consideration. Apart from that, more generic reasons that are not age-related can also be found to explain this task type's frequency, like, for instance, its significant potential to enhance the formation of habits. Moreover, it was observed that exclusively in both CLS, the used texts oftentimes take the form of poems, chants, and rhymes (i.e. MLS), or tongue twisters (i.e. PLS), the latter of which correspond again to Dalton and Seidlhofer's (1994: 131) typical task formats

for articulation training (cf. section 3.4.3). The exploitation of these kinds of texts can generally be argued to prove particularly effective since similar to repetitions, rhythmic and melodic elements are believed to facilitate the memorization of utterances. Additionally, they are probably perceived as joy-, and playful and can hence also generate the learners' motivation. Nevertheless, as these arguments hold true for all age groups, the complete absence of these text types in the CAL seems surprising and unfortunate. Furthermore, it became evident that MLS utilizes comical images to illustrate the story-like content of the texts. Even though such illustrations might also be appealing to adults, the arising resemblance to both comics and tales can be considered to specifically cater to the interests of young learners. Lastly, it should be underscored that the lack of comic, rhyming and musical elements in the CAL notwithstanding (cf. sections 5.2.3 and 5.2.4), as mentioned above, they comprehend copious other 'L+R'-tasks to prompt the repetition of previously introduced utterances. Consequently, it can be concluded that imitation still forms an integral part of pronunciation activities irrespective of the age group.

In sharp contrast to this prevalent format is the extremely scarce task type 'Games'. More precisely, on the whole, merely two consecutive Bingo-tasks were identified in this respect, both of which were found in PLS. Although adults might nonetheless benefit from the implementation of games, their absence in the CAL somewhat seems to be in line with age-specific expectations. To further elaborate on the choice of Bingo in particular, its use for pronunciation development appears to offer several advantages: not only can the discrimination between sounds be practiced in an enjoyable way, but due to this games' competitive nature, it can also effectively enhance the students' motivation, especially when played with younger groups. Probably because of these and other benefits, various versions of the game have emerged (cf. e.g. Kelly's 'Phonemic Bingo' (2000: 40-41), Kenworthy's 'Phonetic Bingo' (1987: 50-51), and Hewing's 'Minimal Pair Bingo' (2004: 53)). Similar to Hewing's (2004: 53) suggestion, either all (i.e. *Part 1*) or at least some (i.e. *Part 2*) target words constitute minimal pairs in the tasks in PLS. In this regard, it should also be noted that despite forming the bases of numerous receptive and productive pronunciation tasks in the literature (cf. section 3.4.2), minimal pairs are only marginally used in PLS, and EAL, while even being completely absent in MLS, and GAL.

Another age-related finding is that receptive task formats are significantly more frequent and diverse in the CAL. Disregarding the above-mentioned Bingo-phases, PLS only encompasses two different receptive formats (i.e. 'Ordering' and 'Categorizing'), whereas MLS ignores these formats entirely. In opposition to this, both GAL and especially EAL show substantially more instances as well as a greater variety of receptive formats. When examining the CAL's overlaps, it becomes apparent that they only share the formats 'Matching', 'Categorizing', and 'Rule'. Among these three, the occurrences of 'Rule' deserve special attention. The central aim of these phases is to point out norms and regularities, which appears to be a useful learning aid. More specifically, the students are usually either encouraged to formulate phonetic rules (i.e. in EAL, and GAL), or to deduce tendencies from examples (i.e. solely in EAL), hence epitomizing the adoption of a deductive approach. Since the students have to apply their cognitive and thereof particularly their analytic abilities to complete these phases of the tasks, the learners' cerebral maturity, and their generally assumed preferred learning methods seem again to have been taken into consideration. An equally remarkable observation is that the receptive formats are almost exclusively (i.e. in EAL) or at least sometimes (i.e. in GAL) followed by a productive phase (labeled '(P)'). As a consequence, the adult learners have to engage in multiple ways and thus also more deeply with the respective phonetic targets. At large, it should again be stressed that despite these similarities between the CAL, EAL's range of receptive formats remains beyond comparison. To be more exact, merely four of the sixteen self-developed task categories were not found in EAL (i.e 'Ordering', 'Games', and the two task types centering on phonetic transcription 'TIW', and 'TIP'). Regarding these absent formats, it appears particularly striking that the latter two of them account for the vast majority of tasks in the other CAL. Yet again, this indicates the great individual differences between the four coursebooks, especially between the two CAL.

Next, GAL's extraordinarily strong focus on the ability to decode transcribed words will be further highlighted. It seems remarkable that 'TIW' and 'TIP' occur uniquely in this coursebook; more importantly, however, they are even the two prevailing task types in GAL. This demonstrates the enormous stress laid on phonetic transcription – even significantly more than on productive pronunciation training itself. Therefore, the authors of this book appear to consider the ability to decode phonetic transcription key to successful pronunciation attainment. Indeed, the teaching of phonetic transcription shows considerable potential: in line with the curriculum, it could be argued that it can promote learner autonomy.[72] To elaborate on this, as

[72] https://www.ris.bka.gv.at/GeltendeFassung.wxe?Abfrage=Bundesnormen&Gesetzesnummer=10008568 (08 Dec. 2020).

English pronunciation diverges largely from its spelling, basic knowledge of the phonetic symbols and their meaning can enable learners to interpret phonetic information provided in a dictionary, thereby allowing them to verify the pronunciation of words independently. Besides this general reason, an age-related argument for the exclusive implementation of transcription-related tasks in books for adult learners can equally be found: the decoding process generally requires cognitive skills which thus particularly corresponds to adult learners' preferred learning styles. Nonetheless, even though decoding skills in phonetic transcription can certainly support the pronunciation acquisition process, it seems obvious that activities in this regard cannot replace productive pronunciation practice. By and large, it can be concluded that – the benefits of phonetic transcription-related activities notwithstanding – the general lack of explicit pronunciation tasks aiming at productive skills in GAL seems debatable.

As a final part of this discussion, certain shortcomings of the present thesis ought to be mentioned. To begin with, this project solely investigated pronunciation activities in teaching materials. Hence, their actual use in EFL lessons remains unclear and should be subject to future research. Moreover, owing to the limited scope of this master's thesis, solely two coursebooks per age group could be analyzed. Taking their large differences into consideration, an alteration in book selection or sample size might have generated different findings, thus indicating the indispensability of more research in this regard. Additionally, the workbooks, teacher's books, and electronic materials of each series should be examined so that a more general account on the matrials' extent of pronunciation focus could be provided. For the same purpose, not only explicit but also implicit tasks could be scrutinized in complementary studies. Despite these limitations, the thesis at hand proves useful to language teachers because it introduces crucial pronunciation-specific concepts, as well as a variety of teaching methods, and activities, while also raising awareness of crucial age-related differences between learners and the respective adaptations in materials. In doing so, it promotes the implementation of pronunciation instruction on the one hand and supports practitioners in catering more to their learners' needs on the other hand. Taking these manifold reasons into account, it seems clear that future research dedicated to the replication and/or extension of the present project, for instance to diverse contexts and various proficiency levels, would be expedient.

To conclude, fundamental differences between the coursebooks notwithstanding, some general tendencies became evident. Overall, three books show a similar extent of pronunciation focus (i.e. MLS, PLS, and GAL), whereas one CAL (i.e. EAL) places a surprisingly overwhelming emphasis on explicit pronunciation training. With EAL hence being an exceptional case,

explicit pronunciation tasks generally seem to remain somewhat scarce in currently used materials. In view of the selection of foci, it was found that segmental features are clearly prioritized over suprasegmentals in the majority of books (i.e. in MLS, PLS, and EAL). Surprisingly, however, a new focus was observed to be particularly prominent in both CAL, namely the complex relation between spelling and pronunciation. Additionally, essential differences were revealed in terms of the applied task formats. While the playful task format 'Games' could only be identified in the CLS, more cognitively demanding tasks such as the deduction of phonetic rules (i.e. 'Rule'), and tasks based on phonetic transcription (i.e. 'TIW' and 'TIP') were exclusively employed in the CAL. Therefore, the tasks attempt to cater to age-related differences between the learners in view of their cognitive abilities, and their presumed preferences of learning styles and learning approaches. Nevertheless, aside from these age-dependent propensities, the analysis equally showed that the traditional imitation-based format 'L+R' still plays a crucial role in all books and seems thus to remain a central component of current pronunciation teaching practices irrespective of the learners' age.

7. Conclusion

With pronunciation being a substantial part of oral communication, it doubtlessly deserves attention within EFL teaching. Nevertheless, pronunciation has oftentimes been marginalized within the field of language teaching. Only in recent years, considerably more research has been dedicated to this domain. One area that has received particular attention is the effects of age on phonological acquisition. Broad consensus on the age-related decline in phonological attainment notwithstanding, research investigating in how far the age-factor and the resulting differences in needs and preferred learning styles are reflected in pronunciation tasks was still completely lacking. Therefore, this thesis has been devoted to the examination of explicit pronunciation tasks in four commonly employed coursebooks in Austria, whereof two each target secondary school students, and adult learners.

To form the theoretical basis for the empirical part, general information regarding English pronunciation and its teaching has initially been given. More precisely, as a first step, the most salient phonetic features of English have been briefly introduced. The subsequent concise overview of important pronunciation teaching concepts has then revealed that although the relevance of pronunciation within the field of English language teaching has fluctuated over the years, currently, a somewhat balanced approach is advocated, not only in terms of implicit and explicit teaching methods, but also in terms of the choice of targets (i.e. segmental vs. suprasegmental features). Additionally, owing to the gain in prominence of communicative language teaching principles on the one hand, and the stronger need for English communication in a vast variety of contexts on the other hand, more emphasis seems to be put on communicative competence, thereby also paving the way for new phonetic target models (i.e. the Lingua Franca Core). Despite the still prevailing position of native models, alternative approaches could play a more central role in future classrooms. Similarly, technological developments that result in new tools for pronunciation training might equally influence future teaching practices. In view of the current teaching situation, however, endeavors to increase the relevance of pronunciation such as in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages have not yet reached the Austrian school curriculum. To inspire teachers nonetheless, a broad range of activities and task formats has been provided in the final part of section 3.

Due to the fact that teaching materials generally ought to be adapted to contextual factors which can also be assumed to affect the findings of the present study, crucial variables such as the learners' age, their first language, and the Austrian setting, have been elucidated in section 4.

Given the focus of this thesis, the age-factor has been investigated more thoroughly: Adult learners were found to have increased cognitive maturity and hence generally tend to approach pronunciation acquisition by applying cognitive and analytic skills. Furthermore, unlike their younger colleagues, they rarely achieve native-like phonetic proficiency. However, considerable evidence for successful adult learners demonstrates that pronunciation skills can indeed be acquired and improved irrespective of the age of onset, thus legitimizing explicit pronunciation instruction with every age group.

In the empirical part, despite great differences between the books, especially between the coursebooks for adult learners, age-related tendencies could be identified. Concerning the coursebooks for lower secondary students, it was found that besides having a similar extent of explicit focus, they predominantly comprise tasks that target almost exclusively segmental features and rely heavily on repetition. Mostly, rhymes, and tongue twisters are used, which, in conjunction with two 'Games', indicates a more natural and playful approach towards pronunciation acquisition. In contrast, both coursebooks for adult learners place heavy emphasis on the correlation between pronunciation and spelling by employing a significantly larger variety of task formats. Since they frequently require the application of both cognitive and analytic skills, the increased cognitive maturity of adult learners is generally taken into account. Yet, it should be underscored that the adult book *Empower A1* stood out due to its extraordinarily high number of tasks, range of foci, and variety of task formats. Overall, it can be concluded that the design of explicit pronunciation tasks seems to cater to presumed differences between the age groups regarding cognitive abilities and preferred learning styles.

Because of the narrow scope of master's theses, certain limitations were unavoidable. First, solely two coursebooks per age group could be examined. Taking their great differences into consideration, a bigger sample size or a change in book selection might have yielded different findings, which thus demonstrates the urgent need for further research. Moreover, implicit pronunciation tasks and the complementary materials of each book series should be analyzed to allow for a broader and more holistic picture of the materials' extent of pronunciation focus. Given that this thesis nonetheless supports teachers in understanding pronunciation phenomena and approaches, in becoming aware of age-related differences between learners and the respective adjustments made in materials, and in expanding their range of pronunciation activities, it forms a vital step in encouraging the implementation of pronunciation instruction, while also enabling practitioners to cater more to their target group's needs. Therefore, future research devoted to the replication and/or extension of the present study seems invaluable.

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9. Appendix

9.1 CEFR

Table 7. Scales for *phonological control* (taken from Council of Europe 2018: 136)

PHONOLOGICAL CONTROL			
	OVERALL PHONOLOGICAL CONTROL	**SOUND ARTICULATION**	**PROSODIC FEATURES**
C2	Can employ the full range of phonological features in the target language with a high level of control – including prosodic features such as word and sentence stress, rhythm and intonation – so that the finer points of his/her message are clear and precise. Intelligibility and effective conveyance of and enhancement of meaning are not affected in any way by features of accent that may be retained from other language(s).	Can articulate virtually all the sounds of the target language with clarity and precision.	Can exploit prosodic features (e.g. stress, rhythm and intonation) appropriately and effectively in order to convey finer shades of meaning (e.g. to differentiate and emphasise).
C1	Can employ the full range of phonological features in the target language with sufficient control to ensure intelligibility throughout. Can articulate virtually all the sounds of the target language; some features of accent retained from other language(s) may be noticeable, but they do not affect intelligibility.	Can articulate virtually all of the sounds of the target language with a high degree of control. He/she can usually self-correct if he/she noticeably mispronounces a sound.	Can produce smooth, intelligible spoken discourse with only occasional lapses in control of stress, rhythm and/or intonation, which do not affect intelligibility or effectiveness. Can vary intonation and place stress correctly in order to express precisely what he/she means to say.
B2	Can generally use appropriate intonation, place stress correctly and articulate individual sounds clearly; accent tends to be influenced by other language(s) he/she speaks, but has little or no effect on intelligibility.	Can articulate a high proportion of the sounds in the target language clearly in extended stretches of production; is intelligible throughout, despite a few systematic mispronunciations. Can generalise from his/her repertoire to predict the phonological features of most unfamiliar words (e.g. word stress) with reasonable accuracy (e.g. whilst reading).	Can employ prosodic features (e.g. stress, intonation, rhythm) to support the message he/she intends to convey, though with some influence from other languages he/she speaks.
B1	Pronunciation is generally intelligible; can approximate intonation and stress at both utterance and word levels. However, accent is usually influenced by other language(s) he/she speaks.	Is generally intelligible throughout, despite regular mispronunciation of individual sounds and words he/she is less familiar with.	Can convey his/her message in an intelligible way in spite of a strong influence on stress, intonation and/or rhythm from other language(s) he/she speaks.
A2	Pronunciation is generally clear enough to be understood, but conversational partners will need to ask for repetition from time to time. A strong influence from other language(s) he/she speaks on stress, rhythm and intonation may affect intelligibility, requiring collaboration from interlocutors. Nevertheless, pronunciation of familiar words is clear.	Pronunciation is generally intelligible when communicating in simple everyday situations, provided the interlocutor makes an effort to understand specific sounds. Systematic mispronunciation of phonemes does not hinder intelligibility, provided the interlocutor makes an effort to recognise and adjust to the influence of the speaker's language background on pronunciation.	Can use the prosodic features of everyday words and phrases intelligibly, in spite of a strong influence on stress, intonation and/or rhythm from other language(s) he/she speaks. Prosodic features (e.g. word stress) are adequate for familiar, everyday words and simple utterances.
A1	Pronunciation of a very limited repertoire of learnt words and phrases can be understood with some effort by interlocutors used to dealing with speakers of the language group concerned. Can reproduce correctly a limited range of sounds as well as the stress on simple, familiar words and phrases.	Can reproduce sounds in the target language if carefully guided. Can articulate a limited number of sounds, so that speech is only intelligible if the interlocutor provides support (e.g. by repeating correctly and by eliciting repetition of new sounds).	Can use the prosodic features of a limited repertoire of simple words and phrases intelligibly, in spite of a very strong influence on stress, rhythm, and/or intonation from other language(s) he/she speaks; his/her interlocutor needs to be collaborative.

Table 8. Scales for *phonological control* (taken from Council of Europe 2020: 134-135)

	Phonological control		
	Overall phonological control	**Sound articulation**	**Prosodic features**
C2	Can employ the full range of phonological features in the target language with a high level of control – including prosodic features such as word and sentence stress, rhythm and intonation – so that the finer points of their message are clear and precise. Intelligibility and effective conveyance and enhancement of meaning are not affected in any way by features of accent that may be retained from other language(s).	Can articulate virtually all the sounds of the target language with clarity and precision.	Can exploit prosodic features (e.g. stress, rhythm and intonation) appropriately and effectively in order to convey finer shades of meaning (e.g. to differentiate and emphasise).
C1	Can employ the full range of phonological features in the target language with sufficient control to ensure intelligibility throughout. Can articulate virtually all the sounds of the target language; some features of accent(s) retained from other language(s) may be noticeable, but they do not affect intelligibility.	Can articulate virtually all the sounds of the target language with a high degree of control. They can usually self-correct if they noticeably mispronounce a sound.	Can produce smooth, intelligible spoken discourse with only occasional lapses in control of stress, rhythm and/or intonation, which do not affect intelligibility or effectiveness. Can vary intonation and place stress correctly in order to express precisely what they mean to say.
B2	Can generally use appropriate intonation, place stress correctly and articulate individual sounds clearly; accent tends to be influenced by the other language(s) they speak, but has little or no effect on intelligibility.	Can articulate a high proportion of the sounds in the target language clearly in extended stretches of production; is intelligible throughout, despite a few systematic mispronunciations. Can generalise from their repertoire to predict the phonological features of most unfamiliar words (e.g. word stress) with reasonable accuracy (e.g. while reading).	Can employ prosodic features (e.g. stress, intonation, rhythm) to support the message they intend to convey, though with some influence from the other languages they speak.
B1	Pronunciation is generally intelligible; intonation and stress at both utterance and word levels do not prevent understanding of the message. Accent is usually influenced by the other language(s) they speak.	Is generally intelligible throughout, despite regular mispronunciation of individual sounds and words they are less familiar with.	Can convey their message in an intelligible way in spite of a strong influence on stress, intonation and/or rhythm from the other language(s) they speak.

	Phonological control		
	Overall phonological control	**Sound articulation**	**Prosodic features**
A2	Pronunciation is generally clear enough to be understood, but conversational partners will need to ask for repetition from time to time. A strong influence from the other language(s) they speak on stress, rhythm and intonation may affect intelligibility, requiring collaboration from interlocutors. Nevertheless, pronunciation of familiar words is clear.	Pronunciation is generally intelligible when communicating in simple everyday situations, provided the interlocutor makes an effort to understand specific sounds. Systematic mispronunciation of phonemes does not hinder intelligibility, provided the interlocutor makes an effort to recognise and adjust to the influence of the speaker's language background on pronunciation.	Can use the prosodic features of everyday words and phrases intelligibly, in spite of a strong influence on stress, intonation and/or rhythm from the other language(s) they speak. Prosodic features (e.g. word stress) are adequate for familiar everyday words and simple utterances.
A1	Pronunciation of a very limited repertoire of learnt words and phrases can be understood with some effort by interlocutors used to dealing with speakers of the language group. Can reproduce correctly a limited range of sounds as well as stress for simple, familiar words and phrases.	Can reproduce sounds in the target language if carefully guided. Can articulate a limited number of sounds, so that speech is only intelligible if the interlocutor provides support (e.g. by repeating correctly and by eliciting repetition of new sounds).	Can use the prosodic features of a limited repertoire of simple words and phrases intelligibly, in spite of a very strong influence on stress, rhythm and/or intonation from the other language(s) they speak; their interlocutor needs to be collaborative.

9.2 Overview of the collected data

In this section, the identified explicit pronunciation tasks of each book will be enumerated in their chronological order. More specifically, in the subsequent tables, the unit or part of the unit (e.g. A/B/C), the assigned category, the targets, and the numerical code of the task formats will be given. For illustrative purposes, the tasks will be color-coded based on their focus (i.e. 'Segmentals' in black, 'Suprasegmentals' in red, 'Whole word' in green, 'Spelling' in yellow, 'Borderline cases' in violet). Furthermore, remarks will be added in note form to describe the tasks more closely, thereby allowing for insights into the structure and the extent of pronunciation focus of each task. To the same end, the overall number of phases and indications regarding the corresponding instructions will be provided. To illustrate, a task with the instructions *Listen and repeat the words*. would comprise two phases (i.e. (1) listening and (2) saying the words, respectively), whereas a task prompting the students to listen, repeat and then read items aloud would account for three phases. Despite not being targeted in the research per se, information in this respect seems particularly valuable for readers lacking access to the coursebooks since it enables them to form a more concrete idea of the tasks, while also facilitating the comprehension of the above-described analysis. For reasons of convenience, abbreviations and codes will be used in the tables, which will briefly be introduced in Table 9. Additionally, as mentioned in the analysis part of this thesis, each coursebook encompasses tasks that can be argued to target pronunciation implicitly. As their number might also influence the quantity of explicit pronunciation tasks, they will also be presented in the next sections. Overall, it ought to be pointed out, however, that the subsequent tables and remarks are not exhaustive.

Table 9. Overview of abbreviations and codes used in the tables of the appendix

Code	**Meaning**	**Note**
GR	grammar	
L	listen	
La	listen again	
L (check)	listen and check your answers	
L (note)	listen and notice feature X	e.g. noticing the sentence stress, tone, word stress, etc.
L (tick)	listen and tick the correct answers	e.g. ticking all items including feature X
L (underline)	listen and underline feature X	e.g. *Listen […] and underline the stressed syllables*. (Doff et al. 2016: 12, ex. 2c)
L + rep	listen and repeat	
neg	negation	
prac	practice	e.g. practice saying the words
pron.	pronunciation	
Q	question	
(Q)	this phase involves one or more questions	e.g. *Does the tone change or stay the same?* (Doff et al. 2016: 13, ex. 5a); to illustrate the book's tendency to formulate its instructions in the form of questions
SoD	same or different	
sen.	sentence	
syll.	syllable(s)	
tick	tick the items with feature X	e.g. *Tick the sentences with a /r/ sound.* (Doff et al. 2016: 14, ex. 3c)
transcr.	transcription	
voc.	vocabulary	
1.rep	first repetition of this focus	e.g. if it is the second task targeting feature X; also applicable to all other ordinal numbers followed by <rep>
4x	the target occurs four times in the entire task/text	also applicable to all other numbers followed by <x>
(?)	unclear; uncertain	

Regarding the codes consisting of 'L' followed by words in brackets, it should be clarified that the latter always allude to what the students have to do while listening, hence accounting for only one phase overall.

9.2.1 MLS

Table 10. Overview of data in MLS

Unit	*Category*	*Target*	*No. of substages*	*i.e.*	*Task formats*	*Notes*
U1	Segmentals	/z/	2	L + rep	12	underlined, bold; 2 lines: 4x
U4	Segmentals	/p/	2	L + rep	12	underlined, bold; 2 lines: 6x, alliteration
U5	Borderline case	days of the week	2	L + rep	12	Suprasegmental (i.e. word stress) or Whole word?; stressed syllable in weekdays; underlined, bold; 4 sentences: 7x marked
U6	Whole word	<can>, <can't>	2	L + rep	12	underlined, bold; 8 lines: 4Q + 4 neg.; 7x; communicative follow-up: sent. about oneself
U7	Segmentals	/w/	2	L + rep	12	underlined, bold; 3 lines: 5x, in initial position
U8	Segmentals	/tʃ/	2	L + rep	12	underlined, bold; 4 rhythmic lines: 5x, in initial position
U9	Segmentals	/ɜː/	3	L + read + rep	12	underlined, bold; 4 rhythmic lines: 5x
U10	Segmentals	/æ/	2	L + rep	12	underlined, bold; 6 rhythmic lines: 7x
U11	Segmentals	/ð/	2	L + rep	12	underlined, bold; 4 rhythmic lines (aabb): 8x
U14	Segmentals	/θ/	2	L + rep	12	in bold + pink; 14 rhythmic lines: 8x
U14	Whole word	months and dates	2	L + rep	12	months in bold; 6 short lines, not rhyming
U16	Segmentals	/t/, /d/, and /ɪd/	2	L + rep	12	underlined, bold; 3 sent./sound; 1 sound/sent.
U18	Suprasegmentals	sentence stress	2	L + rep	12	*stress time*; underlined, bold; short dialog (5 turns); 6 stresses; link to GR (i.e. negation in the past tense: <didn't>)

Table 11. Additional noteworthy tasks in MLS

Tasks	*Number*
Song: listen + sing along	11
Poem: listen + read	2
Chant: listen + repeat	6
Listen + act out the dialogue	9
Listen + repeat	3
Listen + then say the items	3
	34

Notes:

- Numerous songs, poems, and chants
- No repetition of focus

9.2.2 PLS

Table 12. Overview of data in PLS

Unit	***Category***	***Target***	***No. of substages***	***i.e.***	***Tasks formats***	***Notes***
U2	Segmentals	/t/, /d/	3	L + rep + read aloud	12	1 long sentence; 6x in bold; labeled "pron."
U4	Segmentals	/p/, /b/	3	L + rep + read aloud	12	4 sentences comprising both; 15x in bold; labeled "pron."
U5	Whole word	concrete and abstract nouns in plural form	4	L + rep (words in isolation) + L + read sent. aloud	12, 12	heading: *How to say things*; words in bold, words in context
U6	Borderline case	various sounds, esp. vowels + /p/, /b/, /t/, /d/	5	L + L + rep + write 5 words + L (tick + shout "Bingo!")	12, 9	1.rep; minimal pairs with /b/, /p/ & various vowels (e.g. <bad>, <beat>, <bed>, …); headings: *Listen & spell + Sound Bingo – Part 1*; 'Spelling', 'Whole word', or 'Segmentals'?
U6	Borderline case	various sounds, esp. /s/, /ð/, /θ/	4	read + L (number words) + write 6 words + L (tick + shout *Bingo!*)	3, 9	some minimal pair words; headings: *Listen & spell + Sound Bingo - Part 2*; 'Spelling', 'Whole word', or 'Segmentals'?
U8	Segmentals	/i:/, /ɪ/	3	L + rep + add words to column	12, 7	10 underlined words in 3 sent.; both sounds in each sent.
U10	Segmentals	/p/, /b/, /k/, /g/	5	L + rep + tick what you love + tell partner + tell class	12, 13	2.rep; phonetic symbols; link to voc.: fruit
U14	Segmentals	/v/, /w/	3	L + rep + read aloud	12	4 lines; 21x (11x /w/ & 10x /v/); both sounds in each sent.; link to previous task (story)

Table 13. Additional noteworthy tasks in PLS

Tasks	***Number***
Songs	7
Raps	3
Chants	1
Listen + repeat (vocabulary)	3
Listen + act out dialogues	3
Listen + read aloud dialogues	1
	18

Notes:

- 1 repetition of focus (i.e. /p/ vs. /b/)

9.2.3 EAL

Table 14. Overview of data in EAL

Unit	*Category*	*Target*	*No. of substages*	*i.e.*	*Task formats*	*Note*
1A	Segmentals	long or short sounds	2	L (note) + prac	2 (P)	
1B	Suprasegmentals	syllables + word stress	4	L (Q) + L (note) + L (underline) + L + rep	10, 2, 5, 12	
1C	Suprasegmentals	syllables + word stress	2	L (Q) + L (underline)	10, 5	1.rep
1C	Suprasegmentals	sentence stress	3	L (note) + prac + prac (incl. reply)	2 (P), 13	
1C	Suprasegmentals	intonation	3	L (tone stay the same or change?) + L + rep	5, 12	
U1: Review	Segmentals	long or short sounds	2	mark + prac	5 (P)	1.rep
U1: Review	Segmentals	/r/	3	table + tick + prac	2, 5 (P)	
2A	Segmentals	/h/	2	L (Q) + prac	5 (P)	
2B	Segmentals	/s/, /z/, /ɪz/	5	L (Q) + prac + L (Q) + La + rep	5 (P), 5, 12	
2B	Segmentals	long or short sounds	3	L + La (Q) + prac	2, 5, (P)	2.rep
2C	Suprasegmentals	sentence stress in Q	3	L (note) + La + R	2, 12	
2C	Suprasegmentals	intonation in Q	5	L (mark whether intonation goes up or down) + La + rep + prac + check	5, 12, 13	
U2: Review	Segmentals	/s/, /z/, /ɪz/	2	allocate words to columns + prac	7 (P)	1.rep
U2: Review	Segmentals	/h/	2	tick + prac	5 (P)	1.rep
3A	Suprasegmentals	syllables + word stress	3	La (Q) + underline stress + prac: 2 things	5,5	2.rep, other words
3A	Segmentals	/iː/, /ɪ/, /aɪ/	4	L + prac + L + add to column + prac	2 (P), 7 (P)	
3B	Segmentals	/ɑː/, /ɔː/	4	L + prac + L (+ add to box) + prac	2 (P), 7 (P)	
3C	Suprasegmentals	syllables + word stress	4	identify words with 2 syllables + L (check) + La (underline) + prac	2, 5, 5 (P)	3.rep
3C	Suprasegmentals	sentence stress: the weak form <of>	4	L(Q) + L (Q) + prac + prac other phrases	6, 5, (P), 13	new aspect: weak form <of>
U3: Review	Segmentals	/iː/, /ɪ/, /aɪ/	2	tick a or b + prac	5 (P)	1.rep
U3: Review	Segmentals	/ɔː/	2	tick words + prac	5 (P)	1.rep
4A	Suprasegmentals	sentence stress in Q with <do>	5	La (note) + Q (tick answer to complete rule) + La + rep + prac (incl. answer)	2, 1, 12, 13	
4B	Segmentals	/ð/	5	L + prac + L to words + rep + prac	2 (P), 12 (P)	

4C	Suprasegmentals	linking and weak forms	3	L (Q) + La + rep	1, 12	
4C	Segmentals	/tʃ/, /dʒ/	4	L + prac + L (which one different?) + prac	2 (P), 8 (P)	
U4: Review	Segmentals	/ð/	2	underline sound in sent. + prac	5 (P)	1.rep (sent)
U4: Review	Segmentals	/tʃ/, /dʒ/, /s/	3	table + SorD in sent. + prac	2, 6 (P)	1.rep + new sound
5A	Borderline case	linking (?)	2	L + write the sent. (Q) + count the words	16, 10	'Spelling', or 'Suprasegmentals'?
5A	Segmentals	/u:/, /ʌ/	4	L + prac + L (add to column) + prac	2 (P), 7 (P)	
5B	Segmentals	/ʃ/	4	L + prac + L (underline) + prac	2 (P), 5 (P)	
5B	Suprasegmentals	word stress	2	L (note) + prac	2 (P)	4.rep of word stress, but limited extent: only two words
5C	Suprasegmentals	sentence stress: main stress	6	L + La (Q) + rule (tick) + L (underline) + La + rep	2, 1, 5, 12	
U5: Review	Segmentals	/u:/, /ʌ/	2	add to column + prac	7 (P)	1.rep
U5: Review	Segmentals	/ɒ/, /aʊ/, /əʊ/	3	table + SorD (marked sounds) + prac	2, 6 (P)	new in review
6A	Suprasegmentals	word stress	2	L (Q) + prac	1 (P)	two-words jobs: new
6A	Segmentals	/ɜ:/	4	L (Q) + L (identify sound in words) + Q (rule) + prac	5, 5, 1 (P)	
6B	Segmentals	consonant clusters (in word-initial position)	4	L + prac + L (underline consonant cluster) + prac	2 (P), 5 (P)	
6B	Suprasegmentals	sentence stress: Q with <when>	1	L (note + tick)	2, 1	<when> is new
6C	Segmentals	/l/ or /d/?	3	La (Q) + La + rep	5, 12	
6C	Suprasegmentals	sentence stress: main stress	5	L (note) + La + rep + L (underline stress) + prac	2, 12, 5 (P)	1. rep
U6: Review	Segmentals	/ʌ/, /ɔ:/	3	table + SorD + prac	2, 6 (P)	2.rep; but contrast is new
U6: Review	Segmentals	consonant clusters (in word-initial position)	2	match same words + prac	4 (P)	1. rep
7A	Segmentals	/p/, /b/, /k/, /g/	4	complete words + L (check) + Q + prac	11, 5 (P)	
7A	Borderline case	<this>, <that>, <these>, <those>: vowels + /s/, /z/	2	L (4Q) + prac	5 (P)	'Whole word' or 'Segmentals'?; link to GR
7B	Segmentals	/ʃ/, /dʒ/	4	L + prac + add to box + prac	2 (P), 7 (P)	1. rep of /ʃ/, 2. rep of /dʒ/; contrast is new
7C	Suprasegmentals	linking: /w/, /j/	7	L (note) + prac + complete rule + L (/w/ or /j/) + La + rep + prac	2 (P), 1, 5, 12 (P)	
U7: Review	Segmentals	/p/, /b/, /k/, /g/	2	underline sounds in words + prac	5 (P)	1.rep

U7: Review	Segmentals	/ʃ/, /dʒ/, /s/	2	add to box + prac	7 (P)	2.rep + add /s/
8A	Suprasegmentals	sentence stress: <was> and <were>	2	L (Q: <was> & <were> stressed?) + prac	5 (P)	
8B	Segmentals	/t/, /d/	4	L + prac + L (Q: /t/ or /d/ in words) + prac	2 (P), 5 (P)	link to GR: past tense; follow up: say verbs + past tense in pairs
8C	Suprasegmentals	main sentence stress + intonation	4	L (note; Q: fall or rise after main stress?) + prac in dialogs in pairs + switch roles	2, 5, 13	both rep; new: ideas combined
U8: Review	Segmentals	/t/, /d/	2	add to box + prac	7 (P)	1.rep
U8: Review	Segmentals	/eɪ/, /aɪ/	3	table + SorD + prac	2, 6 (P)	3.rep of /aɪ/; /eɪ/ new in review; new opposition, too
9A	Spelling	the letter <a>: /æ/, /ɑ:/, /eɪ/, /ɒ/	5	L + prac + L (identify sounds) + L (odd one out) + prac	2 (P), 4, 8 (P)	
9A	Suprasegmentals	sentence stress: <didn't>	1	L (Q)	5	
9B	Spelling	the letter <o>: /əʊ/, /aʊ/, /ɒ/	6	L + prac + L (identify sounds) + L (odd one out) + La + rep	2 (P), 4, 8, 12	
9C	Spelling	syllables and spelling (inaudible letters)	5	L (Q); La + rep + L (underline) + prac	2, 12, 5 (P)	
U9: Review	Spelling	letters <o> + <a> (all sounds)	2	odd one out + prac	8 (P)	1.rep
U9: Review	Spelling	syllables and spelling (inaudible letters)	1	add to column	7	1.rep
10A	Segmentals	/ʧ/ and /θ/	5	L + prac + L (add to column) + Q: rule + prac	2 (P), 7, 1 (P)	2.rep of /ʧ/; new: /θ/
10A	Suprasegmentals	sentence stress (present continuous)	1	L (underline stressed words)	5	
10B	Segmentals	/ə/	3	L (2Q) + L (underline sound) + prac	5, 5 (P)	first time explicit
10B	Suprasegmentals	sentence stress (main stress in present cont.)	1	La (Q: main stress in 3 sentences)	5	
10C	Segmentals	/ɪə/, /eə/	4	L (odd one out) + L (add to column) + La + rep	8, 7, 12	
U10: Review	Segmentals	/ʧ/, /θ/, and /ð/ + letters	3	note + add to column + prac	2, 7 (P)	3.rep of /ʧ/; 1.rep of /θ/; 2.rep of /ð/
U10: Review	Segmentals	/ɪə/, /eə/	2	SorD + prac	6 (P)	1.rep
11A	Segmentals	/ɜ:/	4	L(Q) + underline sounds + L (check) + prac	6, 5 (P)	1.rep
11B	Suprasegmentals	sent. stress (comprising <can> or <can't>)	3	L (identify stressed occurrences of <can> and <can't>) + prac + underline to complete rule	5 (P), 1	new example

11C	Suprasegmentals	sent. stress	3	La (underline main stress) + La + rep	5, 12	rep: combination of previous foci
11C	Segmentals	consonant clusters (in word-final position)	5	L (note) + La + rep + L (match symbols to written form) + prac	2, 12, 4 (P)	new consonant clusters
U11: Review	Segmentals	/ɜ:/	2	tick words + prac	5 (P)	2.rep
U11: Review	Segmentals	consonant clusters (in word-final position)	2	SorD + prac	6 (P)	1.rep (1.rep, but new clusters)
12A	Borderline case	sent. stress + <going to>	3	L (note sent. stress + <going to>) + complete rule + prac	2, 1, (P)	'Whole word' and 'Suprasegmentals' at once?
12B	Segmentals	/v/, /w/	4	L + prac + L + prac	2 (P), 12	
12C	Spelling	letters oo: /u:/; /ʊ/	3	L (2Q) + L (column) + prac	5, 7 (P)	
U12: Review	Segmentals	/v/, /w/	2	circle /v/ & underline /w/ + prac	5 (P)	1.rep; resembles a tongue twister
U12: Review	Spelling	letters oo: /u:/; /ʊ/	2	add to column + prac	7 (P)	1.rep
Writing Plus	Borderline case	alphabet and spelling; /eɪ/, /i:/, /e/, /aɪ/, /əʊ/, /u:/, /ɑ:/	3	L + add to group + prac	2, 7 (P)	'Segmentals', 'Spelling' or 'Whole word'?; rep of various sounds; alphabetical letters

Table 15. Additional noteworthy tasks in EAL

Task	***Number***	***Notes***
Listen + repeat	34	usually intro of voc.; often using pictures
Listen + practice the conversation	20	read aloud; often with changes (names, food, drink, price, kind of transport, platforms, bus stops)
A says X; B says Y	7	follow-up; practice pronunciation once more; more communicatively
Practice saying X	5	
Guess the word	1	follow-up; practice pronunciation once more; more communicatively
Songs, poems, chants	0	
	67	

Notes:

- Numerous repetitions of focus

9.2.4 GAL

Table 16. Overview of data in GAL

Unit	*Category*	*Target*	*No. of substages*	*i.e.*	*Task format*	*Notes*
2B	Borderline case	alphabetical letters (/eɪ/, /i:/, /e/, /aɪ/, /əʊ/, /ju:/, /a:/)	3	L + prac + write letters with same sounds	7 (P)	'Spelling', 'Whole word', or 'Segmentals'?; different references for <z> in RP vs. GA is pointed out
2B	Spelling	alphabetical letters + transcription-spelling relation (well-known acronyms)	3	L (write down missing letters based on transcr.) + L (check) + rep	14, 12	also: lexical knowledge
2C	Spelling	alphabetical letters + transcription-spelling relation (lexical field: 'names')	2	transfer transcr. of spelled names into letters + L (check)	14	
2C	Spelling	transcription-spelling relation (random, frequent words)	3	transfer transcr. of words into words + formulate a Q + L (check)	14, 16	
2C	Borderline case	phonetic knowledge	1	answer the Q	1	1Q: *Wie werden englische Wörter ausgesprochen?*
4A	Spelling	transcription-spelling relation	1	match phonetics to name	4	Only 4 items
4C	Spelling	transcription-spelling relation	1	match words to phonetics in a text (contextualized)	4	
5A	Borderline case	transcription-pron.-spelling relation (lexical field: 'professions')	3	prac + L + rep + find jobs that are the same in L1	15, 12, 16	'Spelling' or 'Whole word'? jobs' transcr. in brackets; follow-up: contrastive analysis
5C	Spelling	transcription-spelling relation (lexical field: 'professions')	1	transfer transcr. of 2 professions into written words	14	
6A	Borderline case	"breakfast things" (Cohen 2011: 73, ex. 1a)	2	L + rep	12	'Whole word'?, 3 words transcribed; no other markers of explicitness
6C	Spelling	transcription-pron. relation (nouns of the lexical field 'food')	3	say transcribed words + L (check) + write translation	15, 16	
Xtra2	Borderline case	spelling correctly + spelling-pron. relation (i.e. name of a village)	2	spell word + say it	16 (P)	labeled *Pronunciation and spelling*
Xtra2	Spelling	transcription-pron. relation + spelling correctly (random, frequent words)	2	say transcribed words + spell them	15, 16	labeled *Pronunciation and spelling*
7C	Spelling	transcription-pron. relation (verbs in past tense form)	3	say transcribed words + L (check) + write infinitive + past participle form	15, 16	link to GR
9A	Borderline case	transcription-pron. relation (three adjectives)	1	prac dialog (+ choose word from box)	16 (P)	only the 3 answer options transcribed; no other markers of explicitness

Note: in the column *Target* of Table 16, the words in brackets refer to the nature of the words targeted in the respective task.

Table 17. Additional noteworthy tasks in GAL

Tasks	***Number***	***Notes***
Listen + read aloud (dialogs)	21	Adaptations like a change of proper names were sometimes required.
Listen + repeat (lexical items)	4	
Listen + sing along	2	1 song, 1 rap
Spelling tasks	6	
Spelling games	5	
	38	

Notes:

- It needs to be pointed out that spelling tasks and spelling games deserve to be mentioned in Table 17 since the pronunciation of alphabetical letters requires the distinctive use of individual sounds.

9.3 Abstract (English)

This thesis focuses on the teaching of English pronunciation and its implementation in EFL materials. More precisely, given that the age of the learners has proved to be particularly influential in view of phonological attainment, the aim is to investigate explicit pronunciation tasks in coursebooks targeting EFL beginners of two opposing age groups, namely students in lower secondary school and adult learners. Possible differences are sought to be identified in terms of number, focus, and type of employed explicit pronunciation tasks. Due to the complete lack of research in this respect, the present thesis yields crucial insights into age-related tendencies in task design, while hopefully also providing practitioners with new ideas for their pronunciation teaching.

To form the theoretical bases of this thesis, first, the phonetic features of English, carefully selected teaching theories, and approaches, as well as pertinent target models are introduced. Afterwards, the role of pronunciation in both the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* and two Austrian school curricula is discussed, before numerous sample activities are then presented to serve as a foundation for the analysis. Lastly, with age being a central theme, factors related to the learners and the setting are elucidated, as these tend to affect the collected data set significantly.

In the empirical part, the explicit pronunciation tasks of two coursebooks per age group are analyzed: *More! 1,* and *Prime Time 1* for secondary school students, and *Empower A1,* and *Great! A1* for adult learners, respectively. Quantitative and qualitative research shows that the coursebooks for younger learners comprise a similar number of tasks, the vast majority of which focus on segmental features and rely heavily on formats requiring repetition. In contrast, both books for adult learners place surprisingly strong emphasis on the correlation between pronunciation and spelling, and use a broader variety of – especially receptive – task formats. Nonetheless, *Empower A1* generally stands out because of its extraordinarily high number of comprised tasks, great range of foci, and vast variety of task formats. Overall, the design of the employed explicit pronunciation tasks seems to cater to presumed differences between the two age groups in terms of cognitive abilities and preferred learning styles.

9.4 Abstract (German)

Diese Masterarbeit befasst sich mit dem Unterrichten der englischen Aussprache und deren Aufbereitung in Unterrichtsmaterialien. Da erwiesen ist, dass das Alter der SchülerInnen einen besonders großen Einfluss auf den Erfolg des Aussprachelernens hat, untersucht diese Arbeit die expliziten Ausspracheübungen in Schulbüchern zweier unterschiedlicher Altersgruppen, nämlich SchülerInnen in der Unterstufe und Erwachsene. Genauer gesagt wird versucht, mögliche Unterschiede hinsichtlich der Anzahl an expliziten Ausspracheübungen, ihrer Fokusse und der angewandten Aufgabenformate zu identifizieren. Aufgrund der fehlenden Forschung auf diesem Gebiet gibt diese Arbeit wertvolle Einblicke in altersbezogene Unterschiede im Aufgabendesign. Gleichzeitig sollen LehrerInnen durch die vielfältigen Beispiele und Methoden für ihren eigenen Unterricht inspiriert werden.

Als theoretische Grundlage für diese Arbeit werden zuerst die phonetischen Merkmale des Englischen, sorgfältig gewählte Unterrichtstheorien und -methoden, sowie relevante Aussprachemodelle vorgestellt. Anschließend wird die Rolle der Aussprache im *Gemeinsamen Europäischen Referenzrahmen für Sprachen* und in zwei österreichischen Lehrplänen analysiert, bevor dann zahlreiche Beispielaktivitäten beschrieben werden, um die Basis für die Analyse zu schaffen. Abschließend werden unter besonderem Fokus auf altersbezogene Einflüsse Faktoren in Bezug auf das Setting und die Lernenden erforscht, weil diese die gesammelten Daten signifikant beeinflussen.

Im empirischen Teil werden die expliziten Ausspracheübungen in zwei Schulbüchern pro Altersgruppe analysiert: *More! 1* und *Prime Time 1* für SchülerInnen in der Unterstufe bzw. *Empower A1* und *Great! A1* für Erwachsene. Die quantitative und qualitative Untersuchung dieser vier Lehrwerke hat gezeigt, dass die Schulbücher für jüngere SchülerInnen eine ähnliche Anzahl an Übungen aufweisen, welche zumeist auf einzelne Laute abzielen und stark auf Wiederholung basieren. Im Gegensatz dazu setzen die Kursbücher für Erwachsene einen überraschend starken Schwerpunkt auf den Zusammenhang zwischen der Aussprache und der Schreibweise englischer Wörter. Zudem verwenden sie eine große Vielfalt an – vor allem rezeptiven – Aufgabenformaten. Trotzdem ist *Empower A1* durch die zahlreichen, expliziten Ausspracheaufgaben, sowie durch das breite Spektrum an aufgegriffenen phonetischen Merkmalen und Aufgabenformaten auffallend. Diese Ergebnisse deuten daraufhin, dass die Schulbücher Unterschiede zwischen den beiden Altersgruppen in Bezug auf ihre kognitiven Fähigkeiten und bevorzugten Lernstile berücksichtigen.

9.5 Non-plagiarism declaration

I hereby declare that the information on which my work is based has been collected by me personally and has not been plagiarized from any unacknowledged sources. I have properly credited the source of any and all quoted or paraphrased material.

Vienna, June 2022 _____

(Sarah Pointner)