INTRODUCING ENGLISH AS AN INTERNATIONAL LANGUAGE TO INTERMEDIATE STUDENTS BY TASK-BASED AUDIO MATERIALS IN FEBRES CORDERO HIGH SCHOOL

Tesis previa a la obtención del Título del Grado de Magíster en Lengua Inglesa y Lingüística Aplicada

Autor: Rosa Elena Niola Sanmartín
C.I.: 0105193676

Director: Dra. Anne Carr
C.I.: 0106499700

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RESUMEN

El Inglés se ha convertido en un idioma global considerado para la comunicación internacional. La presentación del Inglés como un Idioma Internacional a estudiantes de nivel intermedio pretende elevar el conocimiento consciente en los estudiantes de esta lengua de que el Inglés tiene variaciones en diferentes contextos.

El presente estudio se llevó a cabo con los estudiantes del Tercer Año de Bachillerato del Colegio Febres Cordero. En una etapa inicial, el investigador recopiló material de audio de entrevistas con extranjeros que están en Ecuador, siendo éstos hablantes nativos de Inglés. Esta información fue presentada como material para la intervención después de que el pre-test haya determinado el desenlace de la intervención. Después del proceso de aplicación del estudio, los estudiantes respondieron con un incremento en su conocimiento sobre las variaciones de vocabulario. Además la encuesta de seguimiento proveyó información cualitativa tanto sobre las actitudes positivas del estudiante como el nivel de satisfacción frente al estudio.

En el capítulo I consta el marco teórico en el que éste estudio está basado. En el capítulo II se describe la metodología y el proceso usado en la intervención. El capítulo III analiza la información recopilada del pre-test antes y el post-test después de la intervención. Adicionalmente, se presenta la información reunida de la encuesta de seguimiento. Finalmente, el capítulo IV incluye las conclusiones y recomendaciones.

Palabras claves: INGLÉS COMO IDIOMA INTERNACIONAL, LINGÜÍSTICA, DIALECTO, VARIACIONES, TASK-BASED, CONCENTRIC CIRCLES, PEDAGOGÍA
ABSTRACT

English has become a global language considered for international communication. Introducing English as an International Language to intermediate students aims to raise awareness on English learners about English having variations in different contexts.

This study was carried out with third year Bachillerato students in Febres Cordero High School. Initially, the researcher collected audio material from interviews with foreigners staying in Ecuador who were native speakers of English. This data was then presented as material for the intervention after a pre-test to determine the students’ knowledge about variation of English vocabulary in different native-English speaking countries; a post-test was administered to determine the outcome of the intervention. After the treatment, students responded with an increase in their knowledge of vocabulary variation. Moreover, a follow-up survey provided qualitative data about students’ positive attitude and level of satisfaction toward the intervention.

Chapter I documents the theoretical justification on which this study is based. Chapter II describes the methodology and process used for the intervention. Chapter III analyzes the data gathered from the pre-test before and post-test after the intervention. Additionally, data from the follow-up survey is presented. Finally, chapter IV summarizes the process with the conclusions and recommendations.

Key words: ENGLISH AS AN INTERNATIONAL LANGUAGE, LINGUISTICS, DIALECT, VARIATION, TASK-BASED, CONCENTRIC CIRCLES, EIL PEDAGOGY.
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C.I.: 0105193676
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DEDICATORY

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INTRODUCTION

English as an International Language

Our world offers a wide variety of opportunities for everyone. It seems that the demands of modern society are leading us to the acquisition of certain skills that will allow each and every person to enter a globalized world and interact with others successfully. English should no longer be considered a language specific to certain nations, but also as an international language, used by both native and non-native speakers alike. Therefore, Ecuadorian English as Foreign Language (EFL) students must be aware of the varieties of the English language as used by each group.

Since English is considered the language for international communication, the research I have carried out is focused on the variations that can be found among different backgrounds. I find it useful for Ecuadorian education, since its aim is to raise awareness in English learners regarding the variations in the forms of speech used by different individuals within their respective contexts, and to broaden learners’ knowledge beyond the textbooks, to include actual usage. The textbooks used for teaching English in the Ecuadorian curriculum at primary and secondary schools contain a variety of topics about the country. However, in my view, these books do no present much information about the globalized world in which the students will be faced with varying unique contexts.

The problem for which this project was postulated refers to the risk that students fae by not developing their communicative skills more fully, and by only learning a foreign language within the scope of a single context. They need to be aware of English usage within a global environment, while continuing to remember to include those elements specific to the local variation.

Research questions

The following questions arise for this research:

- How important is it for an English learner to be aware of the varieties of the language?
  - How can this awareness improve communicative skills among students?
  - Why do teachers need to teach the varieties of a given language?
  - Will students learn more about a language when exposed to real-world communication with non-native speakers of English?
This research responds to a general objective that introduces certain aspects of International English at Febres Cordero High School, using authentic listening materials.
CHAPTER I: Literature Review

1.1 Linguistic Variations

English as an International Language, according to the article “Basic Assumptions in English Teaching English as an International Language” published by Talebinezhad (par. 3), is related to the use of English that people around the world adopt in order to communicate. This article delineates some characteristics of EIL from different perspectives. EIL is considered an important means for accessing the world’s intellectual and technical resources for various subjects and sciences. Talebinezhad summarizes some of the characteristics of EIL as:

- Descriptive: EIL is descriptive because it depicts the way English functions nowadays, by people using the regional variation of the language to communicate casually among themselves, rather than using a more formal or standardized version of English (par. 4).

- Reformative: This characteristic arose due to some inadequacies of the EFL/ESL models. Interactors in EIL are unpredictable because EIL learners are directed to communicate not only with speakers from the Inner and Outer Circles, but also with those in the Expanding Circle. Interactors can include both native speakers, and those from countries where English is not the official language (par. 5).

- Functional: It makes reference to the function of English, in that the broader use of English by different people around the world cannot be fully observed if the focus is on a limited assortment of regional variations (par. 8).

- Non-artificial: English is a natural language that has attained international status as a medium for worldwide communication (par. 9).

- Inter-varietal: This means that because there are multiple varieties of English, EIL considers every English speaker to be a “user.” Learners should prepare to understand variations of English used in social interactions by considering the varieties, dialects, and sociolects within a given language community. This characteristic strongly suggests that diversity is a driving force for the spread of English in a globalized world (par. 9).

- Cross-cultural: Cultural diversity and linguistic variation are facts. Students need to prepare for real world communication by embracing the fact that variations in English usage and grammar exist all over the world. Even though English is
independent of any cultural background, it does describe and illustrate all cultures (par. 11).

- **Universal:** English is widely used for international business, politics, tourism, and for educational purposes. It is a way of communicating between native and non-native speakers, even as the common language between groups of non-native speakers (par. 11).

- **Multicultural:** English is the means used to successfully gain access to a variety of cultures. It portrays a multicultural perspective because of the speakers’ interactions. When teaching English as an international language, there is no specific culture to be taught, yet all are represented (par. 12).

- **Intercultural:** English, itself, is not connected to any particular culture, but the use of English or any other language is governed by culturally specific influences. Pronunciation, syntax, grammar, and speech are different across cultures, even between different countries in which English the native or predominant language, such as the United States, Australia, England, and Canada (par. 12).

English as an International Language refers, in general, to a model for critical thinking, research, and practice. It is a model shift in TESOL, SLA, and the applied linguistics of English, responding to the difficulties which are correlated with the rapid spread of English around the world in recent years (Sharifian, 2). To understand the development of this topic, it is necessary to distinguish between the terms “International English” and “English as an International Language.” According to Sharifian, it is common that learners confuse both terms; thus, “International English” implies yet an additional variation of English, much like American English, British English, Australian English, International English, etc. On the contrary, English as an International Language (EIL) rejects the idea of selecting a particular variation of English to be considered as the *lingua franca* for international communications. EIL, therefore, highlights that English, with its many variations, is a language for both international and intercultural communication (2). “EIL calls for a critical revisiting of the notions, analytical tools, approaches, and methodologies within the established disciplines, to include the sociolinguistics of English and TESOL, which explored various aspects of the language” (Sharifian, 2). In other words, the main purpose of EIL, as a model, is to distinguish World Englishes, developed by Bolton in 2004, and by Kachru in 1986 and 1992. Kachru, for
instance, explains the role and use of English into three concentric circles: the Inner Circle, Outer Circle and Expanding Circle. The Inner Circle makes reference to the countries where English is the native or predominant language. The Outer Circle makes reference to those countries which utilize English as a second language; and the Expanding Circle includes countries that use English as a foreign language (Sharifian, 3). These three concentric circles will be explained in detail in the Literature Review Chapter. However, the important point is to understand that World Englishes refers to the Englishes from all three circles. EIL develops within a diversity of contexts, used among speakers around the world, each one having their cultural and national backgrounds; all these background are included in World Englishes (3).

1.1.1 Definitions: variety, dialect, accent

The understanding of English as an International Language (EIL) is mainly focused through the differentiation of some key words that will be used in this thesis.

The first definition refers to a key element in sociolinguistics known as a variable. As explained by Trask and Stockwell in their book, *Language and Linguistics: The Key Concepts*, variables are based on the principle that “a linguistic feature can have different realizations and that these are distributed in correspondence with a social factor” (314). The linguistic variable is a characteristic of a given language. It is usually a phonetic attribution of a particular accent which has at least two distinguishable variants; however, lexical and grammatical features have been also been associated with this term. The standards of these variants are not randomly selected but have a correlation with a social variable such as age, class, gender, geography, politics, education, etc. In statistical terms, there exist two variables: the dependent variable, which refers to linguistic features, and the independent variable when referring to social factors (316).

The word “variation” is another term that will be utilized in the development of this thesis. Merriam-Webster’s Dictionary defines a “variation” as follows: A change in the form, position, condition, or amount of something; b. Something that is similar to something else, but different in some way; or c. The extent to which, or the range in which, a thing varies.”

Raymond Hickey, in his website *Studying the Varieties of English*, indicates that in linguistics “… the term *variety* is used to refer to any variant of a language which can be sufficiently delimited from another one” (n.p.). There are several factors to determine those variations; they may be social, cultural, historical, spatial, or a grouping of these. The term
variety came to into use from excessive use of the term dialect, which did not imply only a regional variation of a language, but also other linguistic variations. A variation comes to sociolinguistics due to the need of a specific term that includes linguistic investigation of urban populations from a social point of view. The use of this term refers to a variant of a language, considering that there are a large number of varieties in any language.

Trask defines the word variation as “the existence of observable differences in the way a language is used in a speech community” (315). In other words, we must conclude that there is no such thing as a totally homogeneous manner in which a single language is used within a single community. Each person has their own way of speaking. For instance, men do not speak like women, adolescents do not speak like adults, cultivated people do not speak like uncultured people, etc. Besides these exemplifications, it could be said that even the speech of a single person is not homogeneous; it adapts according to the circumstances. For example, a person does not use the same language to talk to friends as when being interviewed for a job. Each context determines the way people speak (316). Before the 1960s, these features were not considered more than disturbing details regarding the use of a language, and these details were not taken seriously for purposes of study. However, after the 60s, sociolinguists began to give importance to variation and it became an object of investigation, thus starting a revolution of linguistics. Now, a variation, far from being an inconsequential topic, is a “vital part of ordinary linguistic behavior” (316). A variation shows strong correlations with social variables, such as class, gender, and others, becoming at present a prominent feature of sociolinguistic investigations. Additionally, it is important to note that “the introduction of the quantitative approach to language description has revealed important patterns of linguistic behavior which were previously invisible” (316). Trask also emphasizes that a variation is typically the “vehicle of language change,” through which speakers begin to assimilate show attracting and significant differences in which they use one or another feature or forms of the language available in a community. Therefore, a sociolinguistic variable and its related concepts have become the primary consideration regarding the description of speech.

In regard to dialect, the Merriam Webster dictionary defines it as: A regional variety of language distinguished by features of vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation from other regional varieties and constituting together with them a single language. Thus, the social dimension of a language is not referred to as dialect. “The standard of a language is nothing
more than a dialect which achieved special political and social status at some stage in the past, and which has been extensively codified (Hickey, n.p.).

Every language that is spoken over a significant geographical area is going to be spoken differently, depending on the given location; these kinds of differences are known as *regional dialects*. Moreover, the original dialect in a specific place is not necessarily the same among everyone in that community or place. Even then, within a single community, a language may be spoken differently among the various members of different social groups. The latter forms what are known as *social dialects* or *sociolects*. For instance, the English spoken in London is evidently different from the English in Liverpool, Glasgow, or many other cities. Even within London itself, there are as many as five different sociolects. Likewise, the English spoken in the United States differs, depending on the state or region. For example, people in New York City speak very differently than do those in New Orleans. Even within these two groups, the English is spoken dissimilarly; for instance, stockbrokers do not speak like automobile mechanics. It is important to notice that everybody speaks some dialect or another. (Trask, 72).

To be more specific regarding the dialect as a regional variation of language, Trask uses the term *dialectology*, meaning “dialect geography.” Several studies of regional variation had been conducted in order to determine and illustrate those variations in terms of a single feature. “Dialectology has had a distinctively historical dimension, which researchers, often using historical documents, place names, and archaeological evidence to investigate dialectal change and diffusion, and also using dialect evidence for historical research in return” (72).

According to Trudgill and Hannah, *Standard* is the variety of the English language commonly accepted for writing and speaking by educated speakers. It is the variety of the language that students of English learn when receiving formal education. The term Standard English refers to grammar and vocabulary known as dialect, rather than to pronunciation understood as accent (qtd. in Jenkins, 35). Moreover, Trudgill describes Standard English as a “set of grammatical and lexical forms” generally employed in dissertation and written forms by educated people whose native language is English. This Standard includes colloquial and slang vocabulary, swear-words, etc. (qtd. in Jenkins, 35). Thus, for Hickey, Standard English is a codified language in a country. This standard can then be classified to other varieties as non-standard, through implicit or explicit comparison (n.p.).
In certain parts of the world, one can recognize a “geographical dialect continuum,” which makes reference to fact that there are both large and small differences between dialects, and that the further one gets from a particular starting point, the greater the differences one can find. At this point, the role of mutual intelligibility must be considered, which refers to the mutual comprehension among those with differing dialects. Mutual intelligibility ensures that those speaking each of the various dialects present over a given area. It can be understood by speakers of other dialects who live in neighboring zones. Dialect continua and mutual intelligibility range across adjacent set of zones to ensure there is never a complete breakdown of language comprehension between those zones. For that reason, Hickey emphasizes that “the greater the geographical separation, the greater the difficulty of comprehension” (Hickey, n.p.).

Regarding accent, it is the distinctive way in which a given group of people pronounce a language. There are regional, social, and individual factors which influence the way a language is pronounced by different people within a given community, and that pronunciation gradually changes over the time. In some cases those differentiations are dramatic. A person may be able to identify an accent as being different from their own, depending on where he or she comes from, along with the experiences he or she has had. In the case of American English, for instance, one may distinguish a New England accent form a Texan accent. Speakers of any language are able to do so. One important aspect that has to be considered is that every person has an accent, and it is not possible to speak without one. Some people find it easier to recognize certain accents better than others, which may it be due to familiarity, prestige, personal sensitivity, or other factors. For instance, in the early days of cinema, British people were not able to understand the Americans in their “talkies,” for the reason that they were not familiar with—and not used to—hearing Americans speak (Trask, 3).

Trask exemplifies the accent concept by saying that Britain has maintained the single most prestigious accent called Received Pronunciation or RP, which is an accent that emerged from the more eminent private schools during the nineteenth century. This particular accent was embraced as the “voice of the BBC.” This accent is not related to any particular region, though it is similar to accent characteristics in the south-east of England. Those learning English in Britain today are taught to speak using the RP accent. Despite this, there is great variation in accents, both regionally and socially speaking, even within the small islands of Britain and
Ireland (3). On the other hand, American English, having evolved independently from the English spoken in England itself, has some distinctive accents in the east coast and in the south; “West of the Appalachians, the differences level out somewhat, with less local variation apart from a few large cities” (4). It is necessary to take into account that for American English, an accent is generally considered to be just one aspect of a dialect, while in Britain, dialect includes only grammar and vocabulary. Accent is considered an independent from dialect due to its dependence on pronunciation.

1.1.2 Particular features of varieties

English has many variations, not only in the countries where it is a native language, but also in countries which have adopted English usage as either a second or a foreign language. These variations of English spoken in non-native countries are described as *New Englishes* which are learned as second language, or as a language with wider multilingual repertoire acquisition (Jenkins, 25).

The term *New Englishes* includes several varieties of English which are not uniform in their characteristics or actual use. However, *New Englishes* share four criterion:

- First, it has been introduced through the educational system, then either taught as a subject or as a medium of instruction.
- Second, its development has taken place is areas where English is not the language spoken by most of the population.
- Third, its usage has a range of functions among people who speak or write in the region where it is used.
- Finally, it has become “localized” by adopting unique language characteristics of its own (25, 26).

The main levels of variation are pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary/idiom, and discourse style. Although, the different varieties are not internally uniform in each country, there is sufficient common ground to be able to recognize the English spoken by people representing different nationalities in particular, be it American, British, Australian, or even Indian or South-African (26).

Variation in pronunciation is one of the features of New Englishes. In this aspect, Jenkins describes two subdivisions from which there are variations: consonant sounds and vowel sounds. For consonant sounds, Jenkins demonstrates this using the fricative sounds /θ/ and /ð/.
as in the words ‘thin’ and ‘this’, which have different pronunciations when speaking with a British Received Pronunciation accent. They are pronounced in several ways by speakers of New Englishes. In India, for instance, people use the sounds /t/ and /d/ instead of the fricative sounds above mentioned. Thus, the words are pronounced like ‘tin’ and ‘dis’. In contrast, African English speakers use a special accent which combines the two phonetic sounds /tθ/ and /dð/, therefore they pronounce these words like ‘t-thin’ and ‘t-this’. Jenkins assumes that these variations in pronunciation may have been a result of the effort of speakers to produce the precise L1 English sound (27). Nevertheless, she also indicates that this process of changing pronunciation was due to L2 English-speaking teachers. When they started to teach English in schools, they produced models of sounds for their students to learn and use, thus modeling their own sounds. Over time, these sounds were accepted as local variations (27). Additionally, more examples are given to demonstrate the variations that came into use in different non-English-speaking countries. In India, for example, the wound /w/ is pronounced as /v/; therefore, the word wet is pronounced /vet/. Speakers of Philippine, Malaysian, and other New Englishes pronounce the voiceless sounds /p/, /t/, and /k/ without aspiration, consequently, they sound like /b/, /d/, and /g/. Examples of this variations are found in the words ‘pin’, ‘tin’, and ‘cap’ which sounds very close to ‘bin’, ‘din’, and ‘gap’ (27). Moreover, there are two particular sounds that are not distinguished in most varieties; these are the clear and dark /l/, which are found in words like ‘lip’ and ‘pill’ (27).

The second subdivision of the variations is the vowel sounds. There are two terms used to define how in what manner vowel sounds vary across different countries: quality and quantity.

Vowel quality is determined by the positioning of the tongue within the mouth when forming words. Quality can vary according to how high or low the tongue is sitting inside the mouth, and also by how far—fore or aft—the tongue is positioned inside the mouth. It also refers to “. . . the degree to which the lips are rounded or spread” (28).

Vowel quantity refers to “how long the sound is actually maintained.” Some patterns of variations among countries that speak English as a second language, like India, Singapore, African countries, Malaysia, are presented by Jenkins (28):

- Minimal distinction between the short and long vowel sounds like /i/ and /iː/, /o/ and /uː/
Many New Englishes pronounce the Received Pronunciation /a:/ without the length, in this case the word ‘staff’, for instance, has a very close sound to the word ‘stuff’.
- The tendency to pronounce the schwa sound /ə/ as a full vowel /a/ at the end of words.
- In several New Englishes, the diphthongs tends to be pronounced “both shorter and as monophthongs” (28).

Platt et al. are mentioned by Jenkins to present some characteristics by which they summarize the main grammatical tendencies of the New Englishes, referring to certain people, things and ideas. Some of the categories of the grammatical variations are the following:
- A disposition for not pluralizing some nouns: in India, “up to twelve year of schooling,” and in Jamaica, “and they know all four dialect” (29).
- A pattern use for specific/non-specific system for nouns instead of a definite/non-definite system, such as in India: “everyone has car,”, or “I’m staying in one house with three other” (29).
- Quantifiers are changed in their form: in West Africa, “some few fishermen may be seen”; in Singapore, “don’t eat so much sweets” (29).
- In some countries they don’t consider a distinction between the third person pronouns he and she: in East Africa, “when I first met my husband, she was a student; in Malaysia, My mother, he live in Kampong” (29).
- The tendency to change the word order of the noun phrase: in Ghana, “a two-hour exciting display”; in Singapore, “ninety over cheques.”
- In relation to the lack of the use of the third person singular, simple present-tense form: in Philippines, “she drink milk.”; in India, “Every microcosm consist of many cells.”; limited conjugation of past tense forms: in Hong Kong, “Mandarin, I learn it privately.”; in Singapore, “My wife pass her Cambridge” (29).

The vocabulary variations presented in English happen mainly in the Standard forms across regions. Jenkins explains this assumption in two parts, taking into account that, firstly, it will be focused in the variations among Standard English in England, North America, and Australia. Second, it will make reference to the similarities and differences regarding the varieties of English between two of these regions, England and North America.
British, American, and Australian Standard English each have their own features which help to differentiate between them. The main aspect of variation among them is vocabulary, with some lexical differences in each one (Jenkins, 76). First, when the early settlers came to North America, including what is now known as Canada, they had a necessity to give names to certain items for which they did not already have names. In these regions, “thousands of words either do not exist at all in one or other variety, or have completely or partially different meanings. They did this by extending the meaning of existing English words, creating new words, or borrowing items from the indigenous population, the Native Americans” (Jenkins, 76-77).

Some samples of how English vocabulary varied are given as follows:

- Extended meaning to the word ‘corn’ which referred exclusively to wheat grain in Britain, but to ‘maize’ in North America.

- An example of creating a new word, such as ‘butte’ which, according to Merriam-Webster’s Dictionary, is “a type of hill with a flat top and steep sides, and which is found in the south-western United States.”

- Examples of borrowing new vocabulary include the words ‘moccasin’, ‘squash’, and ‘toboggan’.

Additionally, the developments that took place independently in North America, as in Britain, led to further dissimilarities between the two varieties. For instance, in North American English they use the words: ‘windshield’, ‘hood’, and ‘trunk’ for the British English words: ‘windscreen’, ‘bonnet’, and ‘boot’, respectively (77).

Trudgill and Hannah are cited by Jenkins to highlight the variations that exist among Standard Englishes. They present the differences between American English and British English into four categories:

- Same Word, Different Meaning’. Since the meaning of the words “may never be appreciated and clarified” (77), it probably is the major problem to cause miscommunication; and this miscommunication tends to remain unresolved (77).

- Same Word, Additional meaning.

- Yet a third category involves the same word, but with “difference in style, connotation, frequency of use.”;
And the forth category is the “Same concept or item, Different Word” (77). In the following chart, Jenkins illustrates the four categories of vocabulary variation; each one has different words with their meaning in both American English and British English. For purposes of identification, the following chart uses the terms EngEng, for British English, and USEng, referring to American English.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category 1: same word, different meaning</th>
<th>EngEng meaning</th>
<th>USEng meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>homely</td>
<td>down to earth, domestic</td>
<td>ugly (of people)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pants</td>
<td>underpants</td>
<td>trousers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pavement</td>
<td>footpath, sidewalk</td>
<td>road surface</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category 2a: additional meaning in USEng</th>
<th>Meaning in common</th>
<th>Additional meaning in USEng</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bathroom</td>
<td>room with bath or shower and sink</td>
<td>room with toilet only</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>regular</td>
<td>consistent, habitual</td>
<td>average (as in size), normal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>school</td>
<td>institution of education at elementary level</td>
<td>all institutions of education including universities</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category 2b: additional meaning in EngEng</th>
<th>Meaning in common</th>
<th>Additional meaning in EngEng</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>smart</td>
<td>intelligent</td>
<td>well-groomed</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category 3: same word, difference in style, connotation, frequency of use</th>
<th>EngEng usage</th>
<th>USEng usage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>autumn</td>
<td>common; all styles</td>
<td>uncommon; poetic or formal ('fall' used instead)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to fancy (to like, want)</td>
<td>common, informal</td>
<td>uncommon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quite</td>
<td>negative or neutral</td>
<td>positive</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category 4: same concept or item, different word</th>
<th>USEng only</th>
<th>EngEng only</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>faucet</td>
<td>Corresponds to EngEng</td>
<td>Corresponds to USEng</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sophomore</td>
<td>second-year student</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>queue</td>
<td>line</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pavement</td>
<td>sidewalk</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 1. British English / American English lexical differences (Jenkins, 78)
Australian English and British English do not have a lot of differences referring to lexis; however, it is said that the differences rely on the category of idiomatic language and slang (Jenkins, 77). Initially, the Australian lexical came into from borrowings from the Australian aboriginal languages with words known out from Australia such as ‘kangaroo’ and ‘boomerang’; and words which were not well known as the previous such as “gibber (a rock), corroboree (a large gathering) and jumbuck (a sheep)” (77). Moreover, there exist some words taken from the indigenous flora and fauna; words such as “calombo” which is a plant, “mallee” which is a tree, and “kookaburra” which is a bird (79). The following list of vocabulary variation shows adaptations in form or meaning of words that already existed in British English but had been modified for Australian English usage:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Australian English</th>
<th>British English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Barrack for</td>
<td>support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Footpath</td>
<td>pavement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sedan</td>
<td>estate car</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stroller</td>
<td>push-chair</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paddock</td>
<td>field</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Additionally, Trudgill and Hannah present some illustrations of slang terms used only in Australian English. This is due to the major lexical differences between British English and Australian English in colloquial usages of the language (qtd. in Jenkins, 79). For instance, the term “dag” is a tender term referring to an eccentric person; the term “chine” is used to talk about a mate; “an offsider” meaning a partner or friend; “a sheila” refers to a girl; while a “crook” means someone who is ill or an angry person. “To spit the dummy” makes reference to a person who loses his/her temper. To say “she’ll be apples” means that everything will be all right, along with many others (79). Another particularity of Australian English is the use of abbreviations or shortening of lexis. Jenkins points that this tendency, known as “clipping,” is present among all speakers of English; nonetheless, Australians engross with “clipping” more often that other English speakers. To do so, Australians uses “diminutive suffixes” such as “-ie,” “-y” or “-o”; for example: the word “barbecue” changes to “barbie,” the word “Australian” becomes “Aussy,” and “afternoon” changes to “arvo” (80).

Standard and non-standard English in countries where it is the native language, has got attention for being stigmatised as much as they differ from the variety considered as standard.
However, for Trudgill and Chambers, the grammatical and lexical distinction in the regional and social varieties of English spoken by its native speakers is considered to be superficial; thus, Jenkins cites Trudgill and Chambers declarations regarding this topic:

“The vast majority of native speakers around the world differ linguistically from one another relatively little, with more differentiation in their phonetics and phonology than at other linguistic levels. Most English people, for example, betray their geographical origins much more through their accents than through their vocabulary or grammar. The vast majority speaks mainstream varieties of English, standard or non-standard, which resemble one another quite closely, and which are all reasonably readily mutually intelligible. Differences between these mainstream varieties may be regionally and socially very diagnostic, but they are generally linguistically rather trivial, and where not trivial, quite regular and predictable. Grammatically, in particular, these varieties are very close to standard English.” (qtd, in Jenkins, 81-82)

Trudgill and Chambers also present some examples to show how working-class speech differs in many regions of Britain. These differentiations are noticeable in few ways when morpho-syntax analysis. Among the differentiations, Jenkins exemplifies the following:

- Multiple negation: *I didn’t do nothing.*
- The use of “ain’t” as a negative form of be or auxiliary verb to have: *I ain’t doing it,* *I ain’t got one.*
- The use of “never” to refer to a single occasion in the past: *I never done it.* (i.e., *I didn’t do it*).
- Extension of the third-person –s to first- and second-person verb forms: *I wants,* *you wants,* *he wants.*
- Regularization of the verb “to be”: “we was, you was, they was,”
- Regularization of some irregular verbs: “*I draw,* *I drawed,* *I have drawed,* *I go,* *I went,* *I have went,*”
- Optional use of –ly with affected adverbs: *He writes real quick.*
- Unmarked plurality of nouns of measurement after numerals: *twenty year,* *ten pound.*
- Using different forms of the relative pronouns: *The man what lives here.*
Regularization of reflexive pronouns: *myself, yourself, hisself, herself, ourselves, yourselves, theirselves*, and

Distinctions between the main and auxiliary verb *to do*: *You done it, did you?* (i.e., *You did it, didn’t you*) (82).

Different attitudes have arisen towards Standard English in the U.S., and these attitudes are more related to race rather than class, due, in part, to the fact that there are several dialects of English spoken by speakers of Hispanic English and Black English (AAVE) (83). Some of the differences are presented in the vowel systems which make a distinction between northern and southern cities. Moreover, as in this part of the chapter, the differences between Standard English within regions are being considered, the following examples summarize some of the main variations that exist in Standard English:

- Most vernacular in the north and the south present these features regarding to irregular verbs: past tense as participle form, for example, *I had went down there*, or *He seen something out there*.
- The use of the completive “done,” which is a form used in African American vernaculars to indicate a completed action, for example, *I done forgot what you wanted*.
- Use of the habitual form of the verb “to be,” also used in AAVE with no change in meaning, but also with no conjugation of the verb: *She usually be home in the evening*.
- The presence of A- prefixing, a characteristic more common in rural dialects; the prefix a- occurs in gerunds where the word in question functions as a verb: *She was a-coming home*, or *He starts a-laughing*. This form is not applied in words that functions as nouns or adjectives.
- Double-modals usage: *I might could go there, You might ougtha take it*.
- Pronouns varieties are found in vernacular dialects of American English:
  - Regularization of reflexive forms: *He hit hisself on the head*.
  - Extension of object forms to co-ordinate subjects: *Me and him will do it*.
  - Adoption of a second person is used in the southern part of the US: *Y’all won the game*. In parts of the north-eastern U.S., you’re more likely to hear: *Youse won the game*. 
- Extension of object forms to demonstratives: *Them books are on the shelf.* This feature is common also in non-standard British English.
- Personal dative use of the object pronoun: “*I got me a new car,* or *We had us a little old dog.***

### 1.2 Kachru’s Concentric Circles

English is a widespread language over multiple continents. It has been so expanded internationally that, nowadays, according to Basarally, non-native English speakers outnumber native speakers. The language has experienced many changes, which are being studied linguistically. The main change is Englishes. Models have appeared to describe the spread of the language; each model suggests different approaches to define English as a global language, and the relationship that it has with non-native speakers coming from a variety of different geographical and linguistic contexts (1).

Most people who speak English are aware of the differences, especially those between American English and British English. In fact, “Oscar Wilde … described the situation as “two countries divided by a common language’.” (qtd. in Harmer, 6). There are some grammatical structures which follow a different pattern, depending on what kind of English or the location in which the person is communicating. For instance, a British speaker is more likely to use the expressions “*I’ve got a book about it,*” or “*Have you got the time?*” while Americans tend to use a slightly different variation, such as “*I have a book,*” or “*Do you have the time?*” (Harmer, 6). The British also utilize “*have*” to indicate the completion of a task, or to indicate that they did something in the past. For instance, when asked if they’ve ever climbed a mountain, a person from Britain is likely to say, “*I have done,*” while an American would simply say, “*Yes,*” or “*Yes I have.*” So while a given pattern for British may be common and straightforward for them, for Americans the same construction is often likely to sound incomplete or insufficiently accurate. As it has been pointed in the previous topics, English has many differences in vocabulary, pronunciation, syntax, etc., which are called variations. These features are found in all varieties of English, whether as a native language or second language. To clarify this assumption, Harmer says “All varieties, whether South African, Canadian, Sri Lankan, or Nigerian, will have their own specific words and phrases, their own grammatical mannerisms and pronunciation idiosyncrasies” (7). Nevertheless, it does not say that a single variety of English in any given country is the only one that is found there; each
country has its own regional variation or dialects. Each region, social class, ethnic group, gender, or even each individual person may have their own variation of the language. These factors influence the use of the language and the way it is judged by the speakers (Harmer 7).

Since we face the phenomenon of English varying among the people within given countries where it is a widely spoken language, several linguists have proposed models to explain and show the diversity of English around the world; they are Kachru, Modiano, McArthur, Strevens, and a few others.

To develop this thesis, one model proposed by linguist Braj Kachru is being studied. Kachru suggested a model of three concentric circles by which he explains the diversity of English around the world, separating the native speakers from non-native speakers in different circles and giving them the distinction of “non-native Englishes varieties”. The model consisted of three concentric circles: Inner Circle, Outer Circle and Expanding Circle (Basarally 1).

In the Inner Circle, Kachru includes countries where English is the native language. In the Outer Circle, there are the countries where English is used as a second language, while the Expanding Circle includes countries where English is used for specific purposes, or as a foreign language (Harmer, 8). The following diagram represents Kachru’s circles:

![Diagram of Kachru's concentric circles]

**Figure 2: A diagrammatic representation of Kachru’s circles, based on Kachru (1985)**

Figure 2. Kachru’s concentric circles (Harmer, 8)

Kachru presented his model of concentric circles as “World Englishes,” explaining that they represent “the functional and formal variations, divergent sociolinguistic contexts, ranges
and varieties of English in creativity, and various types of acculturation in parts of the Western
and non-Western world” (Rajadurai).

Additionally, Jenkins presents another chart developed by Kachru in 1992, after he
received feedback from some scholars who had found that the circles presented
certain limitations. She considers that Kachru’s circle illustration, despite its limitations, has
been the most useful and influential model (18). She also considers that the three circles
“represent the types of spread, the patterns of acquisition, and the functional allocation of
English in diverse cultural contexts.” (18). The Inner Circle is considered “norm-providing,”
while the Outer Circle is “norm-developing,” and the Expanding Circle as “norm-dependent.”
In reference to scholars’ reactions about the concentric circles, Kachru’s words are cited in
Jenkins’ book that “the implications of this sociolinguistic reality of English use around the
world have gone unrecognised, and that attitudes, power and economics have instead been
allowed to dictate English language policy” (20). Moreover, he has suggested that the
questions had been constructed into a misreckoning of the model, including its characteristics,
implications and interpretations (21). Despite the issue of the limitations, some scholars have
found it very useful to improve upon Kachru’s model.

At the beginning, when Kachru proposed the three-circle model, it was considered very
valuable since it brought to light knowledge and recognition about the varieties of English
around the world. Therefore, systematicity, strength, innovativeness, forthcoming potential,
and relative prestige were some features that the three circle models have promoted from the
varieties of English. The model has contributed the desire to continue the process of
codification and legitimization, thus, ending in the identification of literature studies and
pedagogical samples toward the traditional norm-providing varieties. Therefore, the models
strengthen and accentuate the pluralism, linguistic variety, and roundness (Rajadurai, 8). As
mentioned before, some scholars and a few linguists criticized Kachru’s model by stating that
it had some limitations regarding the population from each circle and the circumstances under
which someone might be considered a native speaker. However, Kachru noted that the circles
could have been a reduction of some areas, and that other difficulties exist regarding
categorization of some countries like Jamaica and South Africa.
Kachru had recognized that there are some “gray areas” among the circles (Rajadurai 4). Moreover “he has pointed out that languages have life cycles, particularly in multilingual communities, and the status of a language may shift overall, or even within a given locality” (qtd. in Rajadurai 4). Additionally, it is stated that Kachru’s circle model had not been designed to be unique and unalterable, thus allowing for timely changes in the model, which are expected to happen due to the dynamism of the situation, the spread of the language, power and politics, and globalization (Rajadurai 4-5). Finally, Basarally, considers Kachru’s circles as very significant to the sociolinguistic development of the English language. He stated that the model was successful in raising awareness of the existence of other Englishes as different varieties, rather than as rough efforts to learn the language (10).
1.2.1 Inner Circle

The Inner Circle predominates in countries having a traditional basis in the language, where English is considered the native language of the majority populace. The United States, England, Canada, Australia and New Zealand are the countries which comprise this circle. It has been considered as a “norm-providing” circle, establishing the model of the language despite its variations among countries (Rajadurai 3). It is considered the elite position of the model. However, Graddol indicates that the model sets the English native speaking countries at a disadvantage since it shows the Inner Circle as the model of accuracy of the language, dominated entirely by the more-elite social classes, which gets into a linguistic imperialism. This, however, is not true because the model is being presented as indivisible language. McArthur also emphasizes that in some regions, it is possible to find language mosaics, (Rajadurai, 9) or varieties about what has been discussed before in this thesis. Moreover, Rajadurai includes comments that Inner Circle countries do not represent native speakers at all due to the presence of many immigrants who speak other languages, which is driving a change in the demographics in relation to the and the number of non-native speakers living in the Inner Circle countries (10). Nevertheless, as it was state in the previous topic, Kachru declared that it is necessary to consider that the model has not been designed to be unique and unchangeable, and due to dynamism of the world, the language will continue to vary over time (Rajadurai 4-5).

1.2.2 Outer Circle

The Outer Circle is considered as a norm-developing model of the language. It is composed of the countries where English occupies an official status, representing institutionalized functions: social, educational, administrative, and literary. In few words, the Outer Circle comprises the countries where English is considered a second or an official language. Most countries from the Outer Circle are countries colonized by either England or the United States, such as Malaysia, Singapore, India, Ghana, Kenya, among others (Rajadurai, 7). There has arisen a certain tension among these countries considered as norm-developing countries which are presenting different attitudes between the linguistic norms or rules that determine the language and the linguistic behavior that every single person develops when learning it (Rajadurai, 3). That is to say that a number of countries from either the Outer or Expanding Circle have developed their own patterns that provide norms for
internal communication, and are also transmitting those models to other countries through textbooks, training programs, teachers, and literature in English (Rajadurai, 6). The model disclaims the notion that the Outer Circle countries have been marked by “fossilization” and the promotion of “interlanguage.” These terms are related to second-language acquisition that describes fossilization as the frequent use of inaccurate grammatical structures, and thus the repeated use of those structures predisposes learners to be cognitively unable to use the precise syntax of the language. On the other hand, interlanguage is the speech of the learner who has grammatical mistakes; this is considered a state that the learner gets before moving to a native-like achievement and proficiency (Basarally, 4).

Strevens, mentioned in Rajadurai’s article, noted that non-native English teachers are being supplied to the Expanding Circle; thus, providing those countries with a “new” model. For instance, India has supplied teachers of English to China, Belgium has sent teachers to Morocco, and so on. Moreover, according to Honey, India is considered the third largest publisher of books in English, and it’s a major producer of university graduates representing many different disciplines (6). Outer-Circle countries have become suppliers of educational goods and services to other countries in the same circle and even to the Expanding Circle (7). Another example is cited by Rajadurai, indicating that even Outer Circle countries offer English instruction to foreign students who are interested in gaining proficiency in the language. Curiously, even countries in the Inner Circle employ teachers from other circles for schools and universities (7).

The phenomenon of “nativization of English” is considered to demonstrate just how much power and influence the language has within a given community where it has been able to adapt and be adopted in their culture and their private lives. In this way, it has resulted in the raising of new varieties of English, each somewhat different from each other and from its traditional roots. Likewise, there are people who allege that English is their first language and include themselves as being part of the Inner Circle (Rajadurai, 8). This prompted Richards to argue that the term “native speaker” should not be limited by one’s birthplace, but rather by the proficiency one possesses in that language. He proposed a redefining of the term “native speaker of English” as “one who learns English in childhood and continues to use it as his dominant language, and has reached a certain level of fluency in terms of grammatical well-formedness, speech-act rules, functional elaboration and code diversity…” (qtd in Rajadurai,
For Kachru, speech norms and registers were pointless to the sociolinguistic reality of the English speaker in the Outer Circle since the language has been obtained in an educational setting following the standard language model of the Inner Circle. The variations from the standards of the Inner Circle are not considered errors, but rather representations of learning English in a multilingual context (Basarally, 4). “Kachru saw variations as differences, not deficits, because localized varieties of English were used for communication amongst non-native English speakers, and English is used to impart local culture not only that of the Inner Circle” (qtd. in Basarally, 4). On the other hand, there also exist other speakers belonging to the Outer Circle who hardly use the language outside the classroom.

1.2.3 Expanding Circle

Finally, the Expanding Circle includes the rest of the world. They are countries where English is learned as a foreign language for international communication, as well as for specific purposes in some areas like science and technology. Some of the countries that are representative of this circle include China, Egypt, Indonesia, South Korea, South America. These countries are norm-dependent in terms of language acquisition. The varieties are essentially external, since they are following existing patterns from within certain Inner-Circle countries (Rajadurai, 3).

In terms of proficiency, Kachru considers that the speakers form the Expanding Circle have developed either no-competency or native-like competency. These people could be considered as belonging to either or the other circles due to their relative proficiency in the language (Rajadurai, 8). Rajadurai includes an example of some countries where English is spoken with a high level of proficiency, and could be considered part of the Outer Circle; the difference would rely on the fact that Outer Circle countries consider English as a second or an official language. In Germany, for instance, people use English at home, intensively or extensively, for long time. Although English is not the official language, it is used in different backgrounds: social, cultural, and educational (Rajadurai, 8).

For a better understanding about the three concentric circles’ classification, Harmer now questions the circumstances surrounding English learners in the Expanding Circle; he explains that it is difficult for students of English to choose an appropriate variation to learn. He describes that, in Brazil, as well as other countries representing the Expanding Circle, people learn English at different ages, under different circumstances, and in different places. In this
country, there are two of the largest institutions for teaching English: the “Cultura” and the “Bi-National” institutes. The first one is an institution that focuses on schooling British English, and the second one focuses their teaching-learning process on American English. Both organizations being well-known; it is learners’ burden to choose which variety to learn (9). The same situation happens in all countries around the globe; each country and each person, depending their perspectives, could learn any variation of English. In some cases, there are learners of English who choose the variation according to their future goals as studying, working, traveling, etc. Reasons are innumerable, however, there are some influential factors which also help the learner decide which variety of English to study, such as the teachers, friends, institutions and their degree of academic excellence, their personal study habits, and more. Everything depends on every individual person involved. (10). Harmer takes into account Svartvik’s point of view, who said that if the language is being learned as a foreign language in a country of the Expanding Circle, then the appropriate variation to choose for learning would be one from the Inner Circle. This is true, even though the Inner Circle has its own varieties that are marked, yet are not so diverse as the Outer Circle. That idea makes it less difficult to decide for those in the Expanding Circle, but the situation would be reversed for a learner in Outer Circle countries who is trying to choose which variation to learn. Outer-Circle learners are already in an English-speaking environment (10).

To sum it up, one could say that both teachers and learners should teach and/or learn the variation which best reflects their intended use of the language, or the variation with which a given student is most like to come into contact. Moreover, Harmer explains that even if the teacher or student have decided upon a specific variation to acquire, it is important to be exposed to other variations when developing different skills like listening, reading, writing, and even speaking. In this way, the learner will not get used to listening to and understanding only their own teacher or a single variation of the language (10). Then, the importance of the present thesis work, students need to be prepared to contact speakers of other language varieties and accents of English, and be able to understand their pronunciation, sentence structure, and even their vocabulary.
1.3 Pedagogy and principles for EIL

Definitions given to the term English as an International Language (EIL) are similar to English as a Lingua Franca (ELF), English as a Global Language and English as a World Language. All those terminologies are associated with the use of the language for international communications by non-native speakers. The norms that regulates each one have little difference, since their pedagogies are used in international models. The focus of EIL is such that English can be used anywhere, regardless of location or national boundaries, making it suitable for use by both native and non-native speakers. Moreover, it is composed of an array of interlocking and interdependent competences that compensate, counteract, and reinforce each other (Rajadurai, 11, 14).

One of the issues discussed in Rajadurai’s journal is the necessity to consider that the dominant language would not always be the most / ideal model of accuracy to consider English as an International Language. This is due to the informal varieties of the Inner Circle, which seldom work on a global scale. Rajadurai considers Modiano’s idea that many regional varieties in the United States or the UK are not comprehensible at all to other speakers of English (10). One example of this is “…Australian kids in Japan having huge problems communicating in English because they have no notion of how much their own speech works only in an Australian context” (qtd. in Rajadurai, 10). This is to say that, due to the regional varieties which are understandable and commonly used in certain areas or by a certain group of people, it is difficult to justify the central position occupied by the Inner Circle, when there are many speakers outside the Inner Circle who speak English with a high degree of proficiency (10).

Based on the previous idea, there arises the need to identify and reflect on the model of English in a sociolinguistic reality. Therefore, Rampton, cited in Rajadurai, suggests replacing the terms “nativeness” with “competence” and “native speaker” to “expert speaker” to connote proficient users of English (10). Likewise, Modiano recommended to consider excellent communicators of English as an International Language in the Inner Circle. He considers native speakers have varied regional accents and dialects which makes it harder to switch EIL in other contexts. Additionally, he distributes native speakers of regional dialects into a second circle together with non-native speakers who speak international unintelligible varieties to speakers of EIL. Then, a third circle which includes amateur speakers of EIL (Rajadurai, 10).
Rajadurai presents three main pedagogical points to be considered for teaching EIL. First, the benchmark for standards and reference points used in the teaching of an appropriate model of English should be the competent native speakers, or non-native proficient speakers and expert users of the language, any of which could be found anywhere in the world, not only in the Inner Circle countries. Second, the model recognizes the importance of admitting the impact of globalization on the language, and respond to it through comprehensible English. In the classrooms, the curriculum, materials, and classroom practices should be established in such a way as to raise awareness of language perspectives and cross-cultural communication. Moreover, students should learn to adapt their expectations and accommodate to different interlocutors. Third, it is important to consider English as an expanding global language, even though the teaching methodology has to carry on in a manner that respects the local culture of learning. Simply put, English can take speakers outward to a broader range of communications when there is global interaction, and bring them inward when spoken within the local community, thus respecting the individual and his or her social identity. Educators must embrace the uses of English for global communications, but without losing local context (Rajadurai, 14).

The principles for EIL pedagogy have been analyzed by McKay and Bokhorst-Heng from a particular perspective—interactions among L2 learners. EIL curriculum should comprehend the interactions of English as a *lingua franca*. ELF interactions suggest that including some of the following objectives during the planning and development of the EIL curriculum will result in an ideal outcome. These include practicing repair strategies such as clarification, rephrasing and repetition, and conversational routines with different topics such as agreement, disagreement and turn-taking. Moreover, a very important component should be included to promote awareness that pragmatic norms differ cross-culturally. Finally, learners need their own autonomy to express their own pragmatic norms without forgetting that those norms differ from other cultures, thus minimizing misunderstandings (McKay and Bokhorst-Heng, 162-163). From the implications for teaching pragmatic competence, some debates among linguists have arisen. Some of the authors previously cited provide short explanations. House, for instance, considers that the curriculum to teach English should be focused on the learners’ need for competency in international communications through the medium of the English language; he considers it inappropriate to teach pragmatic norms only from a country in the
Inner Circle. Prodromou believes that teaching English should have a phonological emphasis, since it can bring difficult to the learner for communicational purposes. Moreover, he considers that if the grammatical point has been learned, even if the student makes some mistakes, it should still be considered “learned” and not further addressed in the classroom. This of course, means that certain grammatical mistakes will not be fully resolved. Finally, Seidlhofer considers the EIL curriculum to be a complex pedagogical matter and it’s very important for teachers to choose a good curriculum that satisfies the particular needs of the learners within their own context (McKay and Bokhorst-Heng, 163). Deciding on what to teach in a classroom with ELF features depends also on the learners’ expectations, according to Timmis. In a survey he undertook with some students and teachers, he concluded that a group of them want to attain a pronunciation model close to that of a native speaker; meanwhile, other group only considers pronunciation important as it pertains to a specific context. Yet others emphasize accomplishing grammatical competence based on native-speaker norms (164).

From what has been reviewed above, there is a debate regarding the necessity for teaching to native-speaker grammatical standards. Kou, for instance, considers English to play an important role in functional international interactions, and thus it would be inappropriate not to teach grammatical standards, and learners will be exposed to situations where they need to demonstrate their proficiency in English.

Teaching grammatical norms in an ELF curriculum has become a complex issue. In the case of ELF, it is important to distinguish some of the topics for this debate. The first issue refers to the learner’s goals and needs; some learners would use English for basically functional transactions, such as ordering in a restaurant, traveling, and making purchases. For others, English will play an important role in attaining academic or professional goals. The second issue is to distinct phonological and grammatical goals; while some bilingual users want to achieve native-like pronunciation, most bilingual users wish to attain native-like grammatical proficiency. The third issue refers to highlight the features that emerge from a corpus of ELF interactions, or, in this case, the learners’ level of proficiency and communicative goals need to be clearly delineated in order to corpus can be taken to represent a particular type of bilingual users of English (McKay and Bokhorst-Heng, 164).
Additionally, McKay and Bokhorst-Heng present some principles for a socially sensitive EIL pedagogy in six steps. The first principle states that “EIL curricula should be relevant to the domains in which English is used in the particular learning contexts” (195). It considers the whether the usage of English within particular countries may be formal or informal, everyday conversation, or academic usage. A language curriculum should be adapted to the learners’ lives, and, depending on the context, the curricula should consider the students’ needs. The second principle is that “EIL professionals should strive to alter language policies that serve only to promote English learning only among the elite of the country” (196). This principle refers to the opportunities that everyone should have an opportunity to learn English, rather than it being a privilege only for a certain group of select individuals. Establishing government-funded opportunities in which all citizens are able to learn the language seems to be the best way of guaranteeing greater opportunities for all. The third value is “EIL curricula should include examples of the diversity of the English varieties used today” (196). This concerns the regularity of the varieties of English and how the different varieties affect personal and societal identities. The pedagogy should be directed in such a way as to give equal status to all the variations of English, and also to encourage awareness in the use of those variations. By applying this principle, learners’ receptive skills to process different varieties of English will be improved. Moreover, it will foster a mindset that English does not belong only to native speakers. The particular varieties to be taught will depend on the learners’ local context. The next principle is that “EIL curricula need to exemplify L2-L2 interactions” (196). Adapting L2-L2 interactions in the classroom will prepare learners to communicate with L2 speakers. This would be ideal because it can create the awareness that English permits communication with no geographical or cultural limitations. Additionally, “EIL should be taught in a way that respects the local culture of learning” (197). Teachers have the task to design a pedagogy that teaches a global language and, at the same time, respects the local culture of the learners. This principle looks to avoid threatening learners’ identities, and also teachers’ credibility. It’s important to understand the local culture, learners’ style and needs, and local teachers are in the best position to decide what constitutes a good curriculum in regard to this principle (197).

Ferit Kilickaya, in her journal, also makes a contribution about the role of the educator in the teaching of English. Kilickaya questions the kind of English that educators should teach,
especially in the Expanding Circle. She points out that the kind of English teachers should teach depends on the aim that both teachers and learners have established. If students from the Expanding Circle are learning English in the United States, for instance, obviously the kind of English to be taught would be the American. However, if the goal is for learners to communicate not only in a specific context, but also allow the students communicate across cultures, then teachers have the role to assist the students in understanding and thriving in situations where they are exposed to different accents and varieties of English. Teachers should be prepared to raise awareness and create communicational strategies across cultures in order to develop an open attitude towards the differences in the contexts, and adjust their expectations according to those settings. Moreover, she considers that for better pedagogical strategies, students should be informed about the varieties, and teachers should be given possibilities to coordinate and cooperate with other teachers among the three circles. It is important to comprehend the uses of English in different countries, not only from one nation. Finally, Kilickaya suggests that publishers and teachers should include World Englishes in their books, materials, and in testing or assessments.

1.3.1 EIL used in particular learning contexts

Nowadays, many scholars and independent learners are involved in English teaching and learning. As it has been stated in the previous pages, English has become the access door to the world, to a global communication. Most learners are involved in a learning process having different but specific goals for each case. Some have their own interest on learning a new language; for others, it is a requirement for work, school, professional development or any other area. Each learner has their own context and purpose. In the case of the Expanding Circle countries, English is more than a language to communicate with native speakers. It may have internal purposes, such as higher education, employment, and a requirement of the Ministry of Education. The fact that English has become a lingua franca has led to a debate about which variety of English to teach (McKay and Bokhorst-Hen 45).

1.3.2 EIL curricula for diversity of English

In this section, some examples are offered that describe the main issues that exist in teaching English in countries within the Expanding Circle. These are presented from three different perspectives: motivating students, educating competent and confident English
teachers, and in designing locally appropriate methods (McKay and Bokhorst-Hen 46). The authors assert that students in the Expanding Circle countries have little motivation to learn English; it may be due to the fact that learners are required to learn English, simply because it is part of the curriculum. In this situation, English classes have a large number of students; however, there are also other learners who desire to acquire proficiency in the new language. To help with motivation, it is necessary to distinguish between integrative motivation and instrumental motivation. The first one makes reference to the aspiration to participate in social groups where the target language can be used. Instrumental, then, refers to motivation as it pertains to goals for getting a job or gaining entrance to universities. It is important to recognize that Expanding Circle countries do not provide stages for integrative motivation; however, the authors suggest other factors that allow motivation in students. It must be analyzed from the view of values and attitudes of the learners’ social context. This is to say that some scholars may wish to pass an English exam, to gain social prestige, to get a job, or to gain the ability to access information, to travel, to get higher salaries, to communicate with other English speakers, etc. Educators must attempt to determine the social factors that can motivate their students, and incorporate that motivation within the classroom (McKay and Bokhorst-Hen 47). It seems to be that, in Expanding Circle countries, instrumental motivation is significant for learners rather than integrative motivation.

The second issue the authors mention deals with teacher competence; the issue here is that some teachers lack of skill or lack of confidence to be effective. Clearly, in countries where the target language does not have constant instruction, it needs appropriate resources so that teachers can develop their fluency levels in English and pedagogical knowledge. The ministry of education must provide these resources so that teachers can be constantly prepared. Another reason is the lack of teachers’ confidence. Some English teachers lack confidence, especially in relation to native speakers since most believe that native English-speakers teachers have superior abilities for speaking, listening, reading or writing. This issue has been raised due to in some cases where native speakers, even untrained, are hired over competent bilingual teachers. Thus, as Canagarajah quoted in McKay and Bokhorst-Hen, it is believed that bilingual teachers are pressed and become anxious regarding obtaining native-like pronunciation; those inhibitions make some teachers lose their way in the educational process. It is crucial that bilingual teachers be valued in this era of globalization, since its main strength
is that bilingual teachers understand the local conditions and can bring into the classroom interactions with global concerns (49-50).

Another perspective to consider for the successful implementation of English instruction is the design of locally appropriate methods. In many Expanding Circle countries, the Ministries of Education have been working on selecting an appropriate teaching methodology. At present, the method that most countries in the Expanding Circle have chosen is the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). Nunan quoted in McKay and Bokhorst-Hen listed some of the characteristics of this method: it emphasizes learning by communication through interaction; it presents authentic texts into the learning situation; provides opportunities to focus on the learning process, using the learner’s own personal experience as a contributing tool; and it provides an attempt to link what is learned in class with the use outside of the classroom (51). Nevertheless, CLT implementation in Expanding Circle countries is difficult due to large classes and expectations about the role of teachers and learners. Some countries have adopted a new curriculum which requires the development of listening and speaking skills rather than only grammar acquisition. There have arisen three sources of difficulty when using CLT in the language classroom: the educational system itself, when having large classes, grammar-based exams, insufficient investment, and a deficiency in supporting teacher education. Another source is when students’ low English proficiency levels, their lack of motivation, and their resistance to classroom participation challenges the use of CLT. Finally, the author suggests that “teachers’ feelings of inadequacy are compounded by the fact that the current Ministry of Education guidelines promote the use of CLT” (52). Therefore, it is essential that teachers analyze their own context and social situation to come up with approaches to teaching English, rather than following a certain methodology influenced by other countries. Teachers need to develop, through research, teaching methodologies that include political, economic, social and cultural factors, and the situation of each country (53). “...the most effective method must be one locally produced by educators who, aware of the global reach of English, and are also fully informed of the learning parameters of the local context” (qtd in 54).

1.3.3 Exemplifications of L2 – L2 interaction

Interactions among learners of English from either Outer or Expanding Circle are exemplified in this section. These kinds of interactions occur among non-native speakers of
English mostly belonging to the Expanding Circle, and according to Mckay and Bokhorst-Heng, it is known as English as a *lingua franca* talk; meaning the use of English as a contact language.

The authors concentrate on the identification of pragmatic characteristics of the interactions; to achieve this, they mention Firth’s technique, which consists of applying conversational analysis to ELF interactions rather than its original purpose of analyzing only monologues. When exploring the interaction from a conversational analysis, the speaker is considered a language user (157). Additionally, the authors recall Meierkord’s five more common aspects from non-native speakers in an ELF interaction; first, the pauses between conversational expressions are often used; second, the speakers choose common and simple topics to talk about; third, some participants prefer to keep conversations short; another one is that speakers pause for a long time between turns; the last feature mentioned is that participants tend to use several phrases of politeness when interacting (159).

To some extent, these features could reflect the low proficiency level of English that learners still have about the language as well as their insecurity when discussing a given topic. Therefore, understanding pragmatic features relies on the capacity to analyze the background of the speakers, including demographics, social context, and purpose of the interaction and speaker’s level of English (160).

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**CHAPTER II: Research Methodology**

2.1 Raising awareness of English variations

In Ecuador, the curriculum for English as a Second Language at state primary and secondary schools is based on the textbooks “Our World through English” (OWTE) consisting
of six volumes. These books contain a variety of information related to Ecuador, e.g. geography, tourism, education, culture, arts, etc. At the time of the application of the study, the OWTE textbooks were used widely in the state schools of Ecuador. The series was created by the so-called CRADLE project (Curriculum Reform and Development for the Learning of English) in which the Ministry of Education and Culture worked together with the British Council to improve the effectiveness of English language teaching and learning. The books so designed became part of the national curriculum. However, in my view, these books do not present much information about the globalized world that the students may be faced with in different contexts. Thus, they are not able to reflect the richness of other cultures of a global society that are part of the lives and circumstances of native and non-native English speakers elsewhere. Moreover, many course books used in Ecuador focus mainly on American culture. Learners should be able to communicate with any speaker of English, be it native or non-native, recognizing the social context and linguistic variety to avoid misunderstanding and miscommunication.

2.1.1. Development of the study

The research, Introducing English as an International Language to intermediate students by task-based audio materials, was implemented as a quasi-experimental intervention that also included qualitative data since one of the research objectives is to evaluate the effectiveness of the audio material in improving students’ awareness of the varieties of English and their communicative skills.

This research was carried out in Francisco Febres Cordero High School. This high school has two areas for Bachillerato; they are Electronics and ICT. Students involved for this study are between 16 – 17 years old in second year of bachillerato. These two groups were selected because the researcher was the new English teacher in those classrooms. Therefore, as an assigned teacher, I decided, took the opportunity to teach both groups, and treat them as a control and as a treatment group. Even though, I understand that one group would have been their own control since a pre-test and post-test was applied to them.

The research was developed into two parts: first, the researcher collected the data by interviewing foreigners; second, this data was presented to students in a treatment group while
a control group received English instruction according to the syllabus and also was given general information about variations of English language.

The methodology for this intervention consisted of quantitative and qualitative focus. The quantitative data was gathered through the application of the pre-test and post-test to the participants. The qualitative data was collected through the interviews to foreigners and follow up survey from the students. Additionally, this study is a quasi-experimental design since the subjects were exposed to a treatment having a pre-test and post-test. During the process of this study, methods such as inductive, deductive and analytical had been applied; as well as the techniques to achieve the objectives.

**Data collection**

As the starting point, the researcher investigated in books, articles and texts what is considered English as an International Language with its features, variations, dialects or accents. The theories and concepts of the research were already mentioned in the previous chapter. The researcher, based on the investigation, defined some of the varieties of English to be studied. The vocabulary selected is based on the CEFR reference for level A1-A2 that refers to basic users of the language.

Initially, I, as the teacher, was informed that the students have an intermediate level of English. However, when I applied a diagnostic test that was mandatory at the beginning of the school year, and was provided by the director of the English area, I learnt through this diagnostic test that the students’ level was lower than it was reported. It was not intermediate level according to the CEFR. Consequently, it was necessary to slightly modify the plan and establish a selection for basic vocabulary variations, rather than other features like pronunciation and syntax. To do so, general terms for casual conversations were selected.

This study consists of two main parts focused on the research objective: To introduce certain aspects of International English at Febres Cordero High School using authentic listening materials. Each part was developed according to the specific objectives of this research:

- To design and pilot an interview-based project carried out by the researcher involving foreigners and resulting in authentic audio materials.
To introduce the concept of English as an International Language at Febres Cordero High School in Cuenca.

To adapt the current textbook in such a way that an international / global aspect is also included.

To increase the students’ awareness of the varieties of English.

To evaluate the effectiveness of the audio material in improving students’ awareness of the varieties of English and their communicative skills.

The mentioned objectives are detailed below.

**General Objective**

To introduce certain aspects of International English at Febres Cordero High School using authentic listening materials. This objective is focused to the main problem: Students risk not developing their communicative skills to the full when learning a foreign language exclusively in a single context; they need to be aware of the use of English in a global environment without forgetting the local one.

**Research Objective One**

The initial step, responds to objective one: to design and pilot an interview-based project carried out by the researcher involving foreigners and resulting in authentic audio materials, is described as follows:

First of all, to introduce certain aspects of International English, the researcher selected common terms which have a variation in other regions or other countries which native language is English. The terms were searched in the internet from the websites: Learn English British Council, British Library “Learning Sounds Familiar?,” Lancaster University – Department of Linguistics and English Language, Oxford English Dictionaries. Most of these websites rank almost the same terms as the most common lexical variations in American English, British English, and some in Australian English.

**Convenience Population**

The selection of the convenience population is in two parts; first, the selection of key players: native English speakers to gather the data through interviews; second, the participants chosen for the application of this study.
Convenience sample of foreigners

The former, research data for interviewees, was done through two sources: the ITUR (Touristic Information) office which provided general statistics on the quantity of foreigners who visited the city of Cuenca and a Language Institute having foreigners for the interview.

ITUR offered general statistics on the amount of visitors in the city. The information indicates that, in 2012, the 78% of the total amount of tourists into Ecuador were foreigners. The biggest number of tourists comes from mainly the United States, Canada, England and other countries that are not listed because the present study involves only native English speakers. (ITUR, database)

During the process of gathering information through interviews, some aspects were considered to determine the participants, which will be named Key players, at this stage:

1. The first and most important was the key players’ native language was English.
2. Four people took part for the interview.
3. Additionally, some of them were studying Spanish at a language school in the city.
4. A further aspect, the interviewees are from different countries such as the USA, England, Canada and Australia.
5. Moreover, they hold a high educational level; they are professionals: a social worker, an economist, a lawyer and a university student.

Description of the intervention group

The convenience sample chosen for the application of this study was from Febres Cordero High School. The research was addressed to students at this public high school. This high school has the Bachillerato level with two areas: Information, Communication and Technology (ICT) and Electronics. The third year of Bachillerato was selected due to the smaller number of students, compared to the other courses; the participants shared the same background of the English language. Also, the students attend to classes in the morning schedule, from 7:00am to 1:00pm.

Additionally, the participants belonged to families from lower-middle class; they were between 16-17 years old. The first group belonged to third Bachillerato in the area of Electronics; they were 25 students divided into 20 male and 5 female whereas the second group was from the same school year but in the area of ICT with 30 students: 18 male and 12
female. Both groups had 5 periods of English instruction per week, each period of class consisted of 40 minutes. The subjects were randomly selected for both control and treatment groups. Thus, third Bachillerato Electronics was the treatment group and ICT was control group.

English instruction for the control group was based on the syllabus that the Ministry of Education provided for this school year, while the instructions for the intervention group was focused on the variation of English vocabulary. It is important to mention, at this stage, that initially the researcher was informed that the level of both groups was intermediate; thus, meaning that, according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) students were able to comprehend main points of a standard input about familiar topics in everyday situations like work, school, spare time, etc., to produce simple coherent texts on familiar or interesting subjects, to describe and explain experiences and events, to give opinions and talk about plans. (CEFR, 24).

One would assume that the reported level would have been according to the diagnostic test that every high school applied to the students. Taking into consideration that in the previous years, the Ministry of Education did not offer guidelines for English levels, but each teacher was required to test it through a diagnostic quiz. The previous teacher may not have reported the level according to the CEFR. Thus, as the researcher started working at this public high school, a new diagnostic test was elaborated at the beginning of the school year. It was a requirement from the government that all English teachers must test the knowledge of the students. The diagnostic test from the new teacher did not show the informed level for the students.

The new vision of the level of English of the Bachillerato was lower. Students were basic users (beginners) of the English language. The general guidelines for the levels were taken from the CEFR. According to the global scale of levels presented by the CEFR, students were able to understand sentences and expression used to express ideas of immediate importance such as basic personal information, occupations, family, local places, etc., to “communicate in simple and routine tasks requiring a simple and direct exchange of information on familiar and routine matters. Can describe in simple terms aspects of his/ her background, intermediate environment…” (CEFR, 24).
Application of the method

After the selection of the “key players” native speakers for the interviews; to carry out the interview, a structured questionnaire was elaborated (See Appendix). In the first part of the questionnaire, there were two questions related to their personal information such as name and country of origin. In the second part questions related to the previously selected variations were asked. The topics for those questions included lexical contents of every day usage like food, places, clothing, and celebrations & seasons.

The participants were asked to indicate other ways to name words in the same language. Some of them indicated synonyms, definitions, examples or even described the vocabulary. They allowed the interviewer to record their voices and use those interviews as a resource to teach vocabulary variations of English to the students at Febres Cordero High School. For the interview, the speakers could first read the survey and write the answers so that they can think of the way they use each vocabulary word.


The information obtained from the interviews gave the researcher ways to produce authentic materials to be applied in class. The next step at this process was to categorize the answers into the already mentioned topics: food, places, clothing, and celebrations & seasons.

Research Objective Two

This objective is to adapt the current textbook in such a way that an international / global aspect is also included. To achieve this objective, the researcher created the lesson plans based on the selected lexical topics gathered from the interviews. For this new school year, the Ministry of Education released a new regulation regarding the textbooks that were being used for English instruction in public schools. The Ministry of Education was no longer working with the CRADLE project; they started a process to change the English textbooks to new ones.
based on teaching language approaches guided by the Common European Framework Reference for Languages.

This new regulation, made a slight modification in the course of this objective since the Ministry of Education stopped distributing the Our World through English textbooks for public schools. However, schools were not given yet any new textbooks until May, in the current school year, 2012 – 2013. Instead of working with new textbooks, teachers were instructed to create their own material based on the level A1 from the CEFR that describes that learners at this level are able to understand everyday terms and basic phrases. They can talk about and exchange personal information, talk about people they know, interact with basic questions and answers of familiar topics (Modern Languages Division, 33). This new regulation indicated that all school years, from eight level of basic education to third year of Bachillerato would receive the same level, A1.1, of instruction at the current school year; once that all of them have the same level, the following school year, they will include level A1.2, later on A2.1, then A2.2, following B1.1 and B1.2. This project was intended to be fulfilled in the next six years, since each year one level would be included.

Consequently, the researcher created lesson plans based on the data already gathered from the audio materials, also focused on the topics that are related to level A1. The lessons plans present activities related to Task-based instruction; where students focused on the understanding of the English vocabulary variations rather than the understanding of grammatical structures.

The contents taught to the experimental group:

1. English, an International language
15. Seasons & Celebrations, vocabulary variation, part 3.

With the group that was receiving the intervention about Introducing English as an International Language, it was necessary to apply a Pre-test based on the vocabulary variations that were taught. It will be explained in more detail in the following objectives.

After the application of the Pre-test, the instruction for the lessons was based on a presentation of countries where English is spoken as native, second, and foreign language. This introduction was based on Kachru’s concentric circles, which were already explained in the previous chapter.

In the next step on the process, the lessons with the audio material were presented. For this purpose, the lessons plans were based in the task-based instruction (See Appendix). The audio material was classified by the categories already mentioned above; for purposes of teaching, it was selected by parts. For instance, the lexical category Food was divided into four parts in order to analyze the different audio samples from the interviews. One audio sample was selected for each class, for each category. Thus, the experimental group participants were able to listen to different variations in different lessons.

Larsen-Freeman and Anderson indicate that Task-based instruction comprehends three stages: the pre-task, task, and post-task (156). Therefore, the lessons follow this format. In this study, the pre-task has to do with vocabulary recognition activities such as: identify images, fill-in gaps, matching vocabulary, order words, write vocabulary, dictation, and spelling. Then, the task itself was focused on listening to the audio material, listening comprehension activities, completing texts, creating short dialogues, and constructing simple sentences using the variations of vocabulary from the audio. Finally, the post-task activity focused on clarification of the use of the lexical variation in specific countries. Corrections and further doubts were also clarified.
A class acting as the control group received regular instruction according to the guidelines presented by the CEFR for this level. The topics are:

- **Personal information**
  - Simple present to be, affirmative statements, negative statements
  - Information questions
  - Read information in a profile
  - Listening for specific information in an interview
  - Write a description of your favorite singer/actor

- **Where are you from?**
  - Countries and nationalities
  - Singular and plural nouns
  - Articles
  - Write an e-mail
  - Ask questions to get personal information

- **My family**
  - Talk about family
  - Describe people
  - Possessive forms
  - Simple present: affirmative and negative statements
  - Read a family tree
  - Identify people

- **I like pop music!**
  - Talk about likes and dislikes
  - Affirmative and negative statements with the verb like
  - Information questions
  - Listen for details in an interview

For this group, the topics listed above were part of the topics that the Ministry of Education provided while the books were distributed to public schools. The control group received regular instruction; however, they were also presented vocabulary variations in general terms. It is that they were not exposed the same way the experimental group but were given the information about variations of vocabulary in English in different countries.
Research Objective Three

This objective aimed to introduce the concept of English as an International Language at Febres Cordero High School in Cuenca. To achieve this objective the audio material that was obtained by interviewing foreigners was adapted to lesson plans. The chart used to classify the data was used as a reference to prepare the lesson plans for each class. Throughout the development of the lessons, the information was taught by parts.

The lesson plans were prepared following the techniques from the Task-Based Instruction (TBI) method. Task-based “aims to provide learners with a natural context for language use.” (Laarsen-Freeman, 144). Learners have the opportunity to interact while they perform a task; it is considered that this interaction helps the acquisition of the language since students develop abilities to understand each other and transmit a message with a previous understanding of the meaning.

TBI holds some essential assumptions that are applied when teaching with this method. These are as follows: the emphasis is not considered a product but it is a process; the basic activities are meaningful and the tasks highlight communication and meaning; through engaging tasks, learners interact and communicate to learn the language; the activities and task can be related to real life situations or pedagogical purpose of the class; the tasks are gradual depending on the level of the complexity; the experience of the learner, the complexity of the activity, the language level and the extent of support are some of the aspects to be considered to select the difficulty of the task (Richards & Rodgers, 224).

The treatment started in the second week of March and lasted until the last week of May 2013. The treatment was applied in two and three sessions per week. Each session was forty minutes. There was total of thirty-eight hours of instruction dedicated to both the experimental and control group; it included the two periods for the application of the pre-test and post-test.

All sessions in the treatment group were taught with lesson plans. The following description is a sample of a class from a lesson plan used in one of the sessions; for further details some lesson plan samples are annexed to this study (See Appendix).

The teacher starts the class with a warm up, asking questions referred to the vocabulary checked in the last session. The teacher asks questions providing context so that the students recognize the word variation. The students recall the vocabulary. Some of them recognize the correct variation. Then the teacher shows some pictures for the new vocabulary and asks
students to say the name of the images. After this, students talk in pairs, constructing a statement with the words. Later on, the teacher presents the audio material. Students listen to it three times. First, students listen to it for a general idea. The second time, students get more ideas, but still they need to listen a third time to understand better. Then, the teacher provides a handout with a short dialogue to be completed with the vocabulary that was taught. In this dialogue, they write the variation of words according to the context. The teacher and students check the dialogue together. After that, students form new sentences with the vocabulary variations they listened; they work in pairs to do this activity. Next, the teacher checks the activity. Correction is done through student’s participation. This way, the teacher verifies the students’ output and correct at the same time. This process is similar to the other sessions since, for the treatment group, all of them are taught by task-based instruction (See appendix).

**Research Objective Four**

The objective to evaluate the effectiveness of the audio material in improving students’ awareness of the varieties of English and their communicative skills is analyzed through the pre-test and post-test results.

Initially, a pre-test was applied to the participants. It was conducted to measure students’ knowledge about the variations of vocabulary in English.

**Research instrument**

The pre-test was designed by the researcher based on the previously selected vocabulary for the interviews, according to the CEFR guidelines for basic users. It aimed to measure the students’ knowledge about vocabulary variations of English before conducting the study. It was applied to both groups, experimental and control, at the beginning of the treatment. The participants took this test in one class session. The pre-test contained two sections: general background information and vocabulary variation test.

The general background information part contains questions related to students’ exposure to any English language context. In this high school, a high percentage of students have direct family and/or relatives who live in other countries, due to immigration issues. For that reason,
the first part includes three closed questions referring to visiting or having relatives in English speaking countries; also, they are asked the names of the countries. Another question included in this area is whether or not they practice English out of school; this question, in order to learn about student’s exposure to English language.

In the second part of the pre-test, it includes the questions about vocabulary variations. This is a structured questionnaire where the participants have three options for answering. The correct variation, an incorrect one, and none of them as an option. There were 17 questions about vocabulary variations. These questions were related to the categories food, places, clothing, and celebrations & seasons. Students had to select an appropriate variation in each question. This instrument was crucial to carry on this study and also to analyze and compare the results later on.

After the treatment, a post-test was applied. The post-test measured the achievement of both groups at the end of the treatment. This test was also applied in one class session to the group that received the intervention and control group. In this test, there were no questions for background information since they already provided this data in the pre-test. It contained 17 structured questions. All of them related to the variations assessed in the pre-test and studied during the treatment. The results of this test demonstrated the accomplishment of the group. The results will be analyzed in the following chapter.

**Research Objective Five**

This objective is to increase the students’ awareness of the varieties of English. To measure this objective, a follow up survey was applied to the treatment group. This survey was designed by the teacher to gather qualitative data regarding the degree of satisfaction of the participants towards the intervention, thus, appreciating whether the intervention helped them to raise awareness of the varieties that a language, specifically English can have. As well as the pre and post tests, the questionnaire was anonymous, clear instructions were included in it; also, it was in Spanish in order that students were able to express their ideas without any constraint. It has seven questions: six were structured questions and one was open-ended question. The questions were related about the degree of satisfaction about their participation in the treatment. In the last question, students were able to write any comment about the
intervention. The survey questions were written in Spanish because of the limited English proficiency of the students.

Validity and Reliability

The validity of the pre-test and post-test was maximized by item selection. The items are based on the CEFR guidelines for basic users’ level. To do so, students need to select an item to complete a statement. In this way, the results can provide reliable data of students’ achievement or ability. Their level of difficulty was stated by the teacher based on CEFR guidelines, after the diagnostic test that the high school applied.

The pre-test and post-test are the instruments to increase reliability by giving the same test to both groups, treatment and control. Moreover, both test included the same items for selection, which also validates the process and makes it reliable.

Operationalization

The aim is to measure how students’ awareness of the varieties of English can enhance their communicative skills. The improvement was operationalized by asking the participants to identify the different varieties of English that were presented to them. Due to the aspects that leaded to a slight modification, only vocabulary items were taken into consideration. Moreover, two guest speakers were invited to meet the students.

The guest speakers were Australian. They were invited to two sessions, one for each person. The class was recorded; however, due to in the high school the physical space is not enough for the whole number of students. At the time that the guest speakers came to the class, the primary school was in the break-time; therefore, the audio recorded from these sessions is not of good quality. For that reason, only parts of these are transcribed, and some instances of communicative acts between the participants and guest speakers are analyzed. As part of the triangulation process, the guest speakers were asked to provide feedback on the experience of the encounter.

Data Organization Techniques

The data organization will be carried out depending on the variables of this study. The data obtained from both the pre-test and post-test will be presented through tables, charts, and
descriptive statistical graphics that will allow explaining the information in a clear way. For this purpose, the tests results maintain the categories for correct, incorrect and none of them answers. In the tables, the data will show the students´ results with its percentage according to the number of participants in each group. The percentage is made over 30 for the treatment group and over 25 for the control group.

Moreover, the data obtained from the final survey will be organized according to the number of students’ answers and the open-ended questions will be organized regarding on the pattern of the majority of answers.

**Data Analysis Techniques**

Quantitative and statistical charts will show the analysis of the introduction of English as an International Language. Each chart will exemplify the students´ answers for the three categories of responses. The charts will show data from the pre-test as well as the post-test; which will demonstrate the relations or differences between the treatment and control groups, and the two tests. Additionally, the final survey will demonstrate the students´ attitudes towards the process. For the open-ended questions, the majority of responses will determine the patterns to be analyzed.

**Limitations of the study**

The results obtained from this study would have been more conclusive with regards to the introduction of English as an international language if there has not presented some limitations. First, the students´ English proficiency level was a limiting aspect for applying the intervention with the different variations. For that reason, only vocabulary variations were selected.

Moreover, students at all public schools were not provided with a textbook due to the change of textbooks from the Ministry of Education. Therefore, it was not possible to adapt any textbook to create the material. On the contrary, the researcher was more autonomous to create and select the material for the classes.
Another limitation may be due to the time the research was carried on; at this time, students were in the second term of the school year and were busy with projects, assignments, etc. previous to the end of the school year.

Additionally, the classrooms were not well equipped. The physical environment was not very appropriate for a classroom; it was a small room for the students. The room was located near the snack bar in the high school; moreover, in this institution, the break-time for school and high school had different schedules. When the school was in break-time, high school was in classes. There was no space for children to have their break-time, thus, they stayed in the corridors. Both of my classrooms were located on the first floor. This aspect affected specially the class with guest speakers.

2.1.2. Transcription of data

The interviews provided the necessary data to be used as the audio materials. Four foreigners participated in the gathering of this data. The interviews were based on the variations that English has in vocabulary in different countries. This information was very helpful since it became the material that was presented in the intervention. (See appendix) Interview 1: the speaker is from Canada but has lived in England for a few years. He provides useful information with definitions, synonyms, and examples about the variations of vocabulary. Interview 2: the speaker is from the USA. Interview 3, the speaker is from England. Interview 4, the speaker is from Australia. The key players had an important role since they agreed to be recorded and on the use of the audio as materials to teach the vocabulary variations in English for this study.
CHAPTER III: Data Description, Analysis and Interpretation

This chapter will present the analysis and interpretation of the pre-test, post-test and the follow-up survey which was applied to the participants. The pre-test and post-test were applied to the experimental and control group while the final survey was applied only to the experimental group since it was based on the experience of the intervention. The data is presented in tables, charts and statistical graphics, which will allow the understanding of the results from the study.

Initially, the data obtained from the pre-test administered to both the treatment and control group will be analyzed. The pre-test contains two parts: background information and questions focused on vocabulary variation that was the purpose of this study. The first part consists of students´ contact with English speaking environment and the exposure they have to learn and
improve their skills in the target language. It contains three multiple choice questions and one open-ended question.

The section of questions about vocabulary variation, which aims to evaluate student’s awareness of English as an International Language is presented. In this section, the questions tested students’ knowledge of variations in vocabulary. In the following chart, the aim to improve communicative skills through the exposure of variations of vocabulary to students is illustrated. To do so, the researcher defined four categories of variations. Each category responds to daily used lexicon; for instance, category 1 contains 5 items related to food. Here, the vocabulary tested were variations for the words: cookie, candy, French fries, chips and evening meal. Category 2 contains items related to places. The tested variations were: apartment, toilet, reception, parking lot, and elevator. Category 3 contains items related to clothing. The proposed variations were: trousers, sweater, pants, and thongs. Category 4 contains items related to seasons and celebrations. The variations presented were for: Christmas, vacation, and autumn. As seen, each item is related to each category, and the categories presented for the study are related to the lexical aspect of the variations that English presents in international settings.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Items Related To</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Food</td>
<td>cookie, candy, French fries, chips, and evening meal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Places</td>
<td>apartment, toilet, reception, parking lot, and elevator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clothing</td>
<td>trousers, sweater, pants, and thongs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seasons</td>
<td>Christmas, vacation, and autumn</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Therefore, the tested vocabulary is presented in detail through tables and charts containing the results and percentages. For purposes of analyzing the information, a general table illustrates all the results from both tests. The results are presented with the three options in the test: correct, incorrect and no choice. Later, to give more emphasis to the results, a chart provides a comparison between the correct answers from both groups to indicate the students’ knowledge about variations. The incorrect answers and no choice answers are presented at the beginning in order to have an overview about the results from both groups and at both instances, pre and post tests. However, incorrect and no choice answers are not be analyzed in detail since they are not crucial to this analysis. Finally, the results of the post-test are presented in the same format when the correct answers from both tests and both groups are compared.
Background information for English contact

The first question considered whether or not the student had visited or lived in an English speaking country. The second question refers to students having relatives in an English speaking country, and the third question refers to students practicing English out of school. The results are shown as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GROUPS</th>
<th>EXPERIMENTAL</th>
<th>CONTROL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>YES</td>
<td>NO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Have you ever been to an English speaking country?</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Do you have relatives in an English speaking country?</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Do you practice English out of school?</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Students' background information: Experimental and Control Groups.

As it can be seen, the answers given to questions 1 for both experimental and control groups show that most of the students have not visited or lived in an English speaking country. For the experimental group, only 2 students (6.67%) indicated so while in the control group only 1 student (4%) have visited or lived in an English speaking country, whereas 28 students (93.33%) from the experimental and 24 students (96%) from the control group answered 'no' to the questions.

Additionally, for question 2, the answers given by the two groups indicate that 20 students (66.67%) from the experimental and 13 students (52%) from the control groups have relatives in an English speaking country. Also, from both groups, 10 (33.33%) and 12 (48%) students respectively indicated not to have relatives in an English speaking country.

Finally, for the third question, 4 (13.33%) students from the experimental group indicated practice of English out of school while 26 (86.67%) answered not to. On the other hand, 3 (12%) students from the control group indicated so while 22 (88%) students answered no to practice English out of school.

The data indicates that both, experimental and control groups have little exposure to people speaking the target language and do not have much background either in variations of the language. Although, students do not have much contact with the target language, it is
important that they are aware of the variations that English has, especially lexicon variations that are the focus in this study. Thus, learners prepare themselves for a future contact with English speakers from different backgrounds. Therefore, the following table shows that some of the students have relatives in English speaking countries, mostly in the United States:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question 2: If so, which countries do you have relatives?</th>
<th>United States</th>
<th>Canada</th>
<th>No mention</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EXPERIMENTAL GROUP</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CONTROL GROUP</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Students having relatives in an English speaking country. Experimental and control groups.

The table shows that of the 20 students from the experimental group who have relatives in an English speaking country, 17 (85%) of them have relatives in the United States. While from the 13 students in the experimental group, 12 (92.31%) of them provided the same information. Another country is Canada whose answer corresponds to only 1 (5%) student from the experimental group and no one from the control group. Additionally, from the experimental group, 2 (10%) students indicated to have relatives in an English speaking country but did not mention the country. Similarly, it happens with 1 (7.69%) student from the control group.

**Vocabulary variation Pre-test**

After analyzing the first part of the test, the results from the vocabulary variations in the pre-test are shown. The pre-test contains four categories with a total of seventeen items. Each item had multiple choice questions with three options: the correct variation, a second word that could be related or different, and none of them. Table 3 presents the results from the four categories with each item about vocabulary variations with the coding for the answers as correct, incorrect, and none of them. For purposes of analyzing the information, each category contains the items for vocabulary variations. (For more detail about each question as well as about the all the questions, refer to Annex 2.) The results, in the following table, belong to the pre-test for both groups, experimental and control. They are presented with the number of answers and percentages in each question.
In this table, the results are seen in detail from the pre-test applied to both groups, experimental and control. This chart of the results includes the categories for the questions: food, places, clothes, and celebrations. Also, it shows the lexicon variations that were utilized in this study and presented in the tests. Additionally, in the results, the classification of the answers into: correct, incorrect and none of them with its percentages are appreciated. Thus, for the first word ‘cookie’ we can see the number of students that chose the correct answer and the percentage that it represents. The same occurs with the variations for candy, French fries, chips and evening meal; and so on with the other categories. It is important to keep in mind the experimental group consisted of 30 students and the control group 25 students. Therefore, the percentage was calculated over those numbers. Also, the number of students who obtained incorrect and none of the answers are shown again with their percentages. This format was applied and is shown in this table for all the items.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CATEGORY</th>
<th>VOCABULARY VARIATION</th>
<th>EXPERIMENTAL GROUP</th>
<th>CONTROL GROUP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>CORRECT</td>
<td>PERCENTAGE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FOOD</td>
<td>COOKIE</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CANDY</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>33,33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>FRENCH FRIES</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CHIPS</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>36,67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EVENING MEAL</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>63,33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PLACES</td>
<td>APARTMENT</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>33,33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TOILET</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>56,67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RECEPTION PLACE</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>13,33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PARKING LOT</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>36,67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ELEVATOR</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLOTHES</td>
<td>TROUSERS</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>43,33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SWEATER</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>26,67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PANTS</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>THONGS</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>36,67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SEASONS &amp; CELEBRATIONS</td>
<td>CHRISTMAS</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>VACATIONS</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>33,33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>AUTUMN</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>53,33</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Pre-test results: Experimental and Control group
Table 3 illustrates the students’ answers for correct, incorrect and none of them. They have been grouped by categories. These results give a general overview of the students’ knowledge of vocabulary variations. However, these charts do not determine yet the analysis itself. The analysis will be focused on the correct answers that students obtained from the tests.

![Bar chart](image)

**Figure 5. Results from the Pre-test in Category 1: Food, for experimental and control groups.**

This chart indicates the percentage of correct answers in the pre-test for the experimental and control group. The experimental group obtained a 34.7% of correct answers; whereas, the control group obtained a 37.6% of correct answers. Additionally, the experimental and control group obtained a 42% and 42.4% of incorrect answers respectively. For the last option, none of them, the experimental group obtained a 23.3% while the control group obtained a 20%.

As can be seen, both groups have an average result for correct, incorrect and no choice answers where correct and incorrect answers do not differ much. Thus, the treatment might indicate whether or not learners achieved variations awareness of the target language.
Figure 6 represents the results in Category 2: Places; the experimental group obtained lower results than the control group. The first obtained 34% and the control group obtained 46.4% of correct answers. For the incorrect answers, the groups obtained almost the same percentage, 36.7% and 36.8% respectively. Finally, the 29.3% of no choice answers are for the experimental group and the 16.8% is for the control group.

The data indicates that the control group is more aware of the variations regarding the category Places, while the experimental group differs from this with almost 8 points. Moreover, for incorrect answers, almost the same average does not have knowledge on these vocabulary variations. On the other hand, the experimental group has a higher average than the control group for none of them answers.
Figure 7. Results from the Pre-test in Category 3: Clothes, for experimental and control groups.

Figure 7 represents the results in Category 3, regarding to Clothes items. The experimental group obtained 29.2 percent for correct answers, a 33.3% of incorrect answers, and 37.5% for none of them answers. On the other hand, the control group has 31%, 39% and 30% of the answers respectively.

The chart indicates that the experimental group selected the ‘none of them’ option as the highest for the items presented here, whereas, the control group selected the incorrect answers. However, it does not mean that the whole group was incorrect; the correct answers indicate an approximate average around 30%.

Figure 8. Results from the Pre-test in Category 4: Seasons & Celebrations, for experimental and control groups.
This figure shows the results obtained in Category 4, regarding Seasons & Celebrations. The experimental group obtained a 35.56% for correct answers, a 57.78% for incorrect answers and a 6.67 for none of them answers. Similarly, the control group, with a short difference, 42.67% for correct answers, 50.67% for incorrect answers and the same average for none of them answers.

Both groups chose the incorrect answers as the best option. Then the correct answers take the second place. Finally the third option was left for just a couple of students.

The previous charts gave a visual explanation of the general results shown in table 3. After presenting this overview, the comparison of the results from both groups is made. For purposes of analysis and regarding the focus of this study, the researcher considered it important to analyze and compare only the correct answers from both tests. Since the analysis is focused on whether the learners’ awareness of the variations of the target language improves their communicative skills, the correct answers are important to obtain the response.

Likewise the previous charts, the analysis is focused on the results per category. Thus, in the next table, the results by categories and number of correct answers with their percentage are shown.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PARTICIPANTS</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EXPERIMENTAL GROUP</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>34.67</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>29.17</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>35.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CONTROL GROUP</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>37.60</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>46.4</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>31.00</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>42.67</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: Correct answers in Pre-test per categories. Experimental and control group.

This table explains the correct answers from both groups. To analyze this information the items were calculated over the number of responses in the category, then, they were summed up and averaged. It shows that in the experimental group, in Category 1, corresponding to Food items, a 34.67% of the group answered correctly; in category 2, Places, a 34%; in category 3, Clothes, a 29.17%; and in category 4: Celebrations, a 35.56% of the students obtained correct answers. On the other hand, the control group obtained a 37.60% of correct answers in category 1, a 46.4% in category 2, a 31% in category 3 and a 42.67% in category 4.
The following chart explains the average of correct answers in the four categories for both groups.

![Vocabulary Variations Pre-test Chart]

**Figure 9. Pre-test correct answers from the four categories: Experimental and Control groups.**

This chart visualizes the results from the Pres-test, for the coding of correct answers where the experimental and control group do not differ much regarding their knowledge of vocabulary variations in the target language. In categories 1 and 3, there is a slight difference of 2.9 in the first case and 1.8 in the second case. However, in category 2 and category 4, there is a difference between the results; there is a 12.4 and a 7.1 points of difference respectively.

These results indicate that both groups are in similar conditions at the beginning of the study; thus, the post test results will indicate any changes in the experimental group after the treatment.

**Vocabulary Variations Post-test**

After the application of the intervention to the experimental group, both groups were evaluated with the post test. It consisted of the same categories that were presented in the pre-test: food, places, clothes, and seasons & celebrations. Moreover, the same items were taken into account for this evaluation. The items were chosen at the beginning of this study,
regarding daily exposure of learners to this vocabulary. The vocabulary variations post-test aimed to analyze and compare the data obtained with the pre-test for both, experimental and control group.

The following table shows the results obtained from the post-test from both groups. Again, this is a chart containing all the results from the four categories with the corresponding vocabulary variations in each case for correct, incorrect and none of them answers with their percentages.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CATEGORIES</th>
<th>VOCABULARY VARIATION</th>
<th>POST TEST</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>EXPERIMENTAL GROUP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CORRECT</td>
<td>PERCENTAGE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FOOD</td>
<td>COOKIE</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CANDY</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>FRENCH FRIES</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CHIPS</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EVENING MEAL</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PLACES</td>
<td>APARTMENT</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TOILET</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RECEPTION PLACE</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PARKING LOT</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ELEVATOR</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLOTHES</td>
<td>TROUSERS</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SWEATER</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PANTS</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>THONGS</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SEASONS &amp; CELEBRATIONS</td>
<td>CHRISTMAS</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>VACATIONS</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>AUTUMN</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5: Post-test results: Experimental and Control groups.

This table shows the results from the post-test for both groups, experimental and control. There are 17 items that are grouped into categories. The table illustrates all the items and all the results. Therefore, one can appreciate the results from each item. For instance, in the experimental group, the variation for the word ‘cookie’ obtained 19 correct answers, 9 incorrect answers and 2 none of them answers. On the other hand, the control group obtained 6
correct, 13 incorrect and 6 none of them answers. This process is followed for the 17 items presented, and as it can be seen, the items are grouped into categories for purposes of analysis.

In the following charts, there is a visual explanation of the results per category. In this case, the reader can appreciate the comparison of results in the post-test for both groups.

Figure 10. Results from the Post-test in Category 1: Food, for experimental and control groups.

Figure 10 illustrates the results obtained from the experimental and control groups. It indicates that the experimental group obtained a 52.67% of correct answers, a 30.67% of incorrect answers and a 16.67% of none of them option. On the other hand, the control group obtained a 38.4% of correct answers, a 39.2% of incorrect and a 22.4% of none of them answers.
This chart indicates that the experimental group obtained better results: a 50.67% for correct answers, 34% of incorrect answers, and 15.33 for none of them answer. On the other hand, the control group obtained 40.8% of correct answers, 36% of incorrect answers and 23.2% of none of them answers.

In category 3, regarding Clothes items, the results are 43.33% of correct answers, 35% of incorrect answers and a 21.7% of none of them answers for the experimental group. In
contrast, the control group obtained a 33% for correct answers, a 31% of incorrect answers, and a 38% of none of them option.

![Bar chart showing results from the Post-test in Category 4: Seasons & Celebrations](image)

**Figure 13.** Results from the Post-test in Category 4: Seasons & Celebrations, for experimental and control groups.

In category 4, regarding seasons & celebrations, the experimental group obtained 67.78% correct answers whereas the control group obtained 41.33%; for incorrect answers, they obtained 26.67% and 37.33% respectively. For the none of them option, the experimental group obtained a 5.56% while the control group obtained a 21.33%.

In the previous charts, the results from the post-test from both groups were presented. The results were classified into categories, similar to the format of the results from the pre-test. That charts illustrated the results from both groups after the treatment. One can appreciate that there is a difference between the results. However, as the researcher decided to take into account the correct answers for purposes of data analysis and interpretation, some charts will be presented with this information.

The following table indicates students’ answers after the treatment. The answers are registered from both groups and per categories. The table shows the number of correct answers with its percentage considering the number of students from the sample.
Table 6 shows the results from the post test for correct answers. In category 1: Food, the experimental group obtained 79 (52.67%) of correct answers while the control group obtained 48 (38.4%). Additionally, in category 2, the experimental group achieved 76 (50.67%) of correct answers whereas the control group achieved 51 (40.8%) in the same coding. In category 3, the experimental group scored 52 (43.33%) of correct answers while the control group scored 33 (33%) of correct answers. Finally, category 4 shows that the experimental group obtained 61 (67.78%) of correct answers but the control group obtained 31 (41.3%) of answers with the same coding.

As it can be appreciated, the experimental group has obtained better results than the control group. The researcher will present more charts to clearly explain and compare the results from both groups in both test. The following illustration will present the results visually.
Figure 14 reflects that for all categories, the experimental group achieved more correct answers than the control group. For the experimental group in categories 1 and 2, there is a slight difference in the results, for category 3, there are less right answers; however, that still represents a difference when compared to the control group. In category 4, there is a high increase for correct answers from the experimental group. Besides, the chart shows that the control group maintains an average for the results in all categories.

In the following charts, there is a comparison between the pre-test and post-test from both groups, experimental and control. At this stage, the results from each category will show the starting point from both groups and the achievements that the study has given. Table 6 indicates the results from both groups in a general way; on the following lines, there will be a description of the results per category with its corresponding percentages and graphics.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CATEGORY 1: FOOD</th>
<th>CATEGORY 2: PLACES</th>
<th>CATEGORY 3: CLOTHES</th>
<th>CATEGORY 4: SEASONS AND CELEBRATIONS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PARTICIPANTS</td>
<td>PRE TEST</td>
<td>POST TEST</td>
<td>PRE TEST</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EXPERIMENTAL GROUP</td>
<td>34,67</td>
<td>52,67</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CONTROL GROUP</td>
<td>37,60</td>
<td>38,40</td>
<td>46,40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7. General comparison of results between the pre-test and post-test, from experimental and control groups.

Initially viewed, it gives the results that the experimental group achieved better scores after the intervention in all categories. In some categories, the results give a higher percentage than other categories. It might be due to several factors that will be explained at the end of this analysis. On the other hand, the control group shows similar results in both, the pre-test and post-test. In some cases, the control group increases 2 points in the results while in other categories, it decreases 5 points.

To have a clearer view, the general comparison table has been separated by categories. The following charts display the information and explain the results.
Figure 15. Comparison between the pre-test and post-test results for category 1, from the Experimental and Control groups.

Figure 15 illustrates that in the pre-test, the experimental group obtained 34.67% correct answers while in the post test the results increased to 52.67%. On the other hand, the control group achieved 37.60% in the pre-test; obtaining similar results in the post-test with 38.4%. In this category, there is a clear difference before and after the study. The increase range for the experimental group is 18 points. The control group obtained a slight raise of 0.8 points.

Figure 16. Comparison between the pre-test and post-test results from category 2, from the Experimental and Control groups.
The chart shows that in category 2, regarding Places items, the experimental group obtained 34% of achievement in the pre-test while in the post-test, the results increased to 50.67%. On the contrary, the control group obtained 46.4% in the pre-test but decreased in the post-test with a 40.8% in the results. After the study, the experimental group shows an increase of 16.67 points regarding both tests. The control group shows a decrease of 5.6 points.

![Bar Chart: Category 3: Clothes](image)

**Figure 17.** Comparison between the pre-test and post-test results from category 3, from the Experimental and Control groups.

Figure 17 illustrates that the experimental group obtained 29.17% in the pre-test while in the post-test, it obtained 43.33% of the right answers. On the other hand, the control group obtained 31% in the pre-test while in the post-test, it obtained 33% of achievement. After the study, it shows that there is an increase rate of 14.17 points for the experimental group. The control group shows a slight rise of 2 points.
Figure 18. Comparison between the pre-test and post-test results from category 4, from the Experimental and Control groups.

Figure 18 compares the results from the experimental group where in the pre-test they obtained 35.56% while in the post-test they obtained 67.78% of correct results. On the other hand, the control group shows a decrease from 42.67% in the pre-test to 41.33% in the post-test. However, this is a slight difference in the results of this group. Moreover, it can be seen that after the study, the experimental group achieved the highest results with a difference of 32.22 points from the pre-test to the post-test. The control group shows a slight decrease of 1.34 points.

This analysis shows the final results from both pre-test and post-test. It can be seen that the understanding of lexical variation after the treatment increased. During the treatment, students worked with task-based activities; this might be the reason why there is an increase in the results. Each category shows different amounts of increase; thus, category 4: seasons & celebrations show the highest results. This category had only three items for vocabulary variation. Also, the factor of physical conditions should be mentioned since for the last months of the school period, the students were assigned another classroom that was very noisy, especially at primary schools’ break-time. This high school held two break-time sessions: one for primary school and one for secondary school. Moreover, students were already used to the methodology of the work in class. Category 1: food shows the second highest results. In this
category, there were 5 items. This might be due to the fact that students are familiarized with basic food vocabulary; Category 2: places holds the third highest results and Category 3: clothes shows the lowest achievement. However, the table shows the accomplishment of the intervention for the experimental group. Meanwhile, the control group shows little achievement in categories 1 and 3, and a decrease in categories 2 and 4.

**Follow up Survey**

The follow up survey was administered only to the experimental group after the intervention period in order to collect information about the degree of satisfaction and awareness about the intervention. It contained six structured questions and one open-ended question.

The charts below represent students’ answers in the survey.

Question 1: ¿Did the lessons help you to understand that English is an international language that presents some variations?

![Figure 19. Question 1, results from the follow-up survey to students.](image)

The table shows that 100% of the students agree that the intervention helped them to understand that English has variations in different countries.

Questions 2: How would you rank the activities developed in class? This table indicates the appreciation that students have to the different activities that were developed in class.
Table 8. Question 2, results from the follow-up survey to students.

The next chart shows the results from question two in bar graphs. For instance, listening to the interviews makes reference to the audio materials and the highest rank is excellent. For teacher’s explanation, the highest rank is excellent. For class with guest speakers, the highest score is Excellent. For vocabulary collection activities, the highest score is Very good; and for visual material, it is Very good.

Figure 20. Question 2, results from the follow-up survey

Figure 20 indicates that the students’ results to the appreciation of the activities during the class. As seen, “teacher’s explanation” and “class with guest speakers” are the most preferred by students. However, there is a small number of students who also rank these activities as poor. The “listening to the interviews” activity also ranks as excellent for some students while an approximate number rank the same activity as very good and good. “Visual material” and “Vocabulary collection” is also ranked as very good by most of the group.
Question 3: After listening to the interviews and doing the class activities, how easily could you understand the variations of the vocabulary presented? The results in this question indicated that still a 40% of the students found it very difficult to understand the variations. A 32% indicated to be difficult; a 24% indicated as easy; and only a 4% of the students registered very easy. The results might be due to this question ask about the ease with which students understood the variations; maybe the students assumed to answer the easiness from the complete process. At the beginning, from what I—as the teacher—perceived, it was difficult for all of the participants. The following chart illustrates students’ results.

Figure 21. Question 3, results from the follow-up survey

Question 4. Indicate the level of satisfaction about the class with guest speakers. As seen, a 72% of the participants were satisfied about the class with the guest speakers. A 24% indicated to be little satisfied, and a 4% registered not to be satisfied. These results might be due to the fact that students found interest in having new people in the class; they could listen and interact with some questions and answers, but also the guest speakers used most of the time the target language, English. Each student has a different appreciation from this encounter.

Figure 22. Question 4, results from follow-up survey
Figure 22. Question 4, results from the follow-up survey

Question 5. Which of the following activities with the guest speakers was the most interesting for you? Choose one option. The following chart gives the results in this question. It is appreciated that most students found the questions & answers interactions, interesting since they were able to ask about different topics like the variations themselves and also topics of interest like music, tradition and holidays. These topics were not part of the plan but as the students were very interested on asking these kinds of questions, I set a short time to do this. After all, the presence of the foreigners in the class broadened students’ interest and curiosity about the outside world.

Figure 23. Question 5, results from the follow-up survey

Question 6. Do you think it will be better for students to learn English considering the variations of an international language? Most students, 72%, completely agree to this possibility. A 20% of students agree, while an 8% of them disagreed. This last result might be due to students in this group were studying a technical specialization at this high school, thus, they might be interested in learning English for this purpose.
Question 7. What do you recommend for this course that might improve the intervention period? This last question was open-ended. Recommendations from students are varied. Here, I decided to make a list; some of them were very related and had been written under a general statement. Students recommend:

- Invite more guest speakers for the classes.
- Translate the dialogues to help understanding.
- Watch videos with the vocabulary presented
- Teach also the culture of the countries from where the variations were presented.
- Teach more technical English for their specialization.
- Slow down the dialogues.
- Provide better books to use in classes.

Summary

The results analyzed in this chapter indicate positive results from the application of the intervention to the experimental group. The sessions presented some activities in which they could work. Also, the vocabulary was reinforced each time they listened to an interview. Analyzing only the correct answers was important to compare the results. The incorrect and no choice answers have served to get a general view on the students’ achievements.

The follow-up survey helped to analyze qualitative data, regarding their degree of awareness, satisfaction and interest. Most of the students have a good perception of what the
intervention was in the classes. Moreover, they had the opportunity to express their ideas when asked about the recommendations.
CHAPTER IV: Conclusions and Recommendations

CONCLUSIONS

During the research there have been three stages for introducing aspects of English as an International Language: literature review, interviewing foreigners and presenting authentic materials to the students with a pre-test, post-test, survey and data analysis; the following conclusions can be made.

According to the experts cited in the literature review, teaching English as an international language allows the students to communicate not only in a single context but also across cultures. Teaching English as an international language cultivates an open attitude regarding the difference in the contexts in which the variation is used. The integration of variations in teaching a language improves learner’s communicative skills.

From the academic research for variations of English as an International language, it is concluded that English varies from one location to another and from inner to outer countries. The teaching of variations is essential to have a more effective communication among English speakers, being native or non-native.

Moreover, the communication among native speakers or non-native speakers becomes fluent when being aware of these variations that exist not only with vocabulary but also pronunciation, grammar and conversations.

A language adapts and evolves during times and contexts. A language is not universal; that is, it is not the same around the world. It varies according to the context, culture, location, etc. The context leads the meaning; the variations have its own meaning according to the context.

The current research was focused on presenting variations of International English to students at Febres Cordero high school. The process was made through introducing audio materials to the class; the research was applied to two groups: a treatment and a control group.

The exposure of students to these variations is important to raise awareness of different ways of communication. Students understand that English as well as the learner’s native language have some particularities which are own. These particularities provide a significant
connotation to the language function about the speakers’ reality; therefore, context is still a relevant element for teaching – learning a language.

Tailoring audio materials to students who are not in contact with the target language showed an improvement in the lexical component; also, an improvement of the understanding of the language in different contexts.

The pre-test and post-test show enrichment during the process. Learners have had the opportunity to understand the differences between vocabularies used into different parts where English is spoken. They are aware that English is not only a standard form but it varies according to the place where it is spoken.

This awareness provides students with significant learning; thus, becoming a reason for raising their level of English, specifically with this study, raising awareness of the variations of English as an international language.

The implementation of the audio materials allowed students to understand that English presents different forms in different contexts; however, their low English proficiency level did not allow the study to take a deeper look at more variations like syntax, pronunciation, or other communicative features that are own in particular places or contexts.

The contact with foreigners increased students’ level of interest towards the language. According to the follow-up survey and the teacher’s perception, students became more curious and interested with the guest speakers.

Learning about the group, especially their level of English proficiency is crucial for both the group and the teacher in order to collect accurate data and to carry out the treatment as expected.

Even though, their level of English was not the expected, it was important to learn about their real level so that the selection of the materials would be more precise for this group. Additionally, the students’ background towards the exposure to English context, also determined that it was necessary for an accurate selection of the variations to be taught. It was selected according to their reality and needs.
Students’ awareness of a globalized world opens their minds and possibilities to broaden their interest; in this high school, students take technical specializations in Bachillerato. My perception is that English was not very important for them because they were not aware of the importance of it. For most of them, their expectations are to finish high school and work as technicians like most of their peers from the other school years. As indicated in chapter II, students belong to lower-middle class; most of them worked after school, a couple of them were already parents, some of them have their parents working abroad. With this intervention, they could relate what they were learning with a more global idea of the use of English and go beyond their goals.

The Ministry of Education decided to change the common textbooks “Our World Through English” to new ones that encompass with the CEFR; however, the books were not distributed for some months and neither the students or the teacher had a textbook to adapt. It had a positive and negative impact. The positive impact is that the teacher had more autonomy to apply the study in the class. However, the negative is that there is no adaptation of the textbook when there is no textbook.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Now the thesis is concluded, some recommendations for future researchers have arisen:

- As the present study introduced English as an international language only with vocabulary variations, additional studies may be carried out to present wider lexical, pronunciation, and grammar content to extend the richness of the target language.
- Before defining the students’ level of English proficiency, apply a diagnostic test to determine their real level and plan a more focused topic with a clear knowledge of it.
- Analyze in a more detailed way the behavior and improvement of students through a longer exposure to these variations by devoting a longer period of time for the application.
- It is advisable to apply the pre-test to the participants before collecting the audio material in order to have an accurate knowledge of the participants’ level; it is recommended to do so previous to the elaboration of the material.
- For a better comprehension of the variations, to extend the participation of guest speakers, and to analyze deeper the interaction among the guests and the students. Students may compare and analyze themselves the differences when having more interaction with guests from different countries.

- As the pre-test and post-test themselves indicate the achievements of the group, I recommend that in a further study, the researcher applies the intervention only to one group and uses the pre-test as the control itself so to determine the achievement or failure.

- Include a cultural aspect, especially with foreigners, since it raises students’ interest on learning not only about the topics of the intervention but also further topics, like culture, traditions, music, etc.

- Additionally, it is recommended to apply this study in a high school with regular Bachillerato, where the courses are concentrated on humanities preparation, not only with technical bachillerato content.

- To ensure that the researcher gets the support from the institution in order to use a classroom with a good atmosphere: no noise interruption, clearer rooms, good materials to use; also, ensure to program the lessons when there is no separate break-time for different school sessions.
WORKS CITED


Hello, my name is Elena Niola. I am participant in a Master’s program at the University of Cuenca. I am currently working on my thesis project. It is about variation that English language has in different countries. Can I ask you a few questions, please?

(Read: you can first write the answers. After that, you will be asked to read the answers and I will record your voice.)

What’s your name?
My name is ________________________________.

Where are you from?
I’m from ________________________________.

As we know, there exist some variations in vocabulary that people use in everyday conversations. Let me ask some questions about those variations.

What do you call a “cookie” in your country?
In ___________ a cookie is _____________________________________________________.

We eat cookies with _______________________________________________________.

Can you give me a synonym for “candy”?
Candy is also a ________________________________________________________.

What comes to your mind if I say “French fries”?
Well, in my country “French fries” is ________________________________________.

What do you call “chips” in your country?
In my country, Chips are ________________________________________________.

We eat chip when ________________________________________________________.

What do you call an “evening meal”?  
An evening meal is ________________________________________________________.

I generally eat an evening meal with ________________________________________.
What is another name for “apartment”?  
An apartment is ____________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________.

What do you call a “toilet”?  
A toilet is _________________________________________________________________

What do you consider a “reception place”?  
A reception place is __________________________________________________________.

Do you know a synonym for “parking lot”?  
Another word for “parking lot” is ____________________________________________.
This is a place where ________________________________________________________.

Can you describe what an “elevator” is?  
An “elevator” is ____________________________________________________________.
We use ______________________________________________________________________.

What do you call “trousers”?  
Trousers are _____________________________________________________________.

What is another word for “sweater”?  
Sweater is known as ________________________________________________________.
We use ______________________________________________________________________.

What do you understand by “pants”?  
Pants are _________________________________________________________________.

Give another name for thong sandals.  
Thongs are also known as ____________________________________________________.

Do you know another name for “Christmas”?  
Christmas is also known as _________________________________________________. On
Christmas, people __________________________________________________________.

What is another name for “vacation”?  
Vacation is a ____________________________________________________________.
People go on ________________________________________________________________.

Which word do you use for the season: winter or fall?  
__________________________________________________________________________.

Thank you very much for your cooperation.
GROUP: TREATMENT | DATE: April 25th, 2013 | TIME: 8:20 to 9:00 | N. of Students: 30 (M:28 / F:2)

TOPIC: Vocabulary variations

OBJECTIVE: To analyze part of the vocabulary variations from an interview to foreigner.

AIMS: Students will recognize that lexicon in the English language varies from one country to another.


WARM-UP ACTIVITY (5 – 10 minutes) | Draw on the board three circles. Write names of three English speaking countries. Divide the class into three groups. Make a small list of vocabulary related to food from the previous audio material.

PRESENTATION: (10 – 12 minutes) | Write on the board the language that will be analyzed in the class; ask for the meaning of the words. Show flashcards about the new vocabulary. Play the first part of Hugo’s interview making sure that students listen only to the selected vocabulary for this class. After the students listen to the interview, ask them about some words that they hear. Listen again twice or three times if necessary, and ask Ss to come to the board and write the new words that they heard in the interview. Example: cookie = biscuit. Help Ss to understand the meaning of the words. Display Ss a short dialogue. Students complete the dialogue with the new words. Check the activity and correct mistakes. Ss are asked to write statements using the new vocabulary in the class.

(12 – 15 minutes)

CONCLUSION: (5 minutes) | Write the words on the board randomly. Ask Ss to write the variation of each word.

LESSON PLAN
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<th>GROUP: TREATMENT</th>
<th>DATE: May 13th, 2013</th>
<th>TIME: 9:00 to 9:40</th>
<th>N. of Students: 30 (M:28 / F:2)</th>
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<tr>
<td>TOPIC:</td>
<td>Vocabulary variations</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>OBJECTIVE:</td>
<td>To analyze part of the vocabulary variations from an interview to a foreigner</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AIMS:</td>
<td>Students will recognize the vocabulary and use it in short dialogues</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LANGUAGE:</td>
<td>Food: cookie, candy, French fries, chips.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WARM-UP ACTIVITY</td>
<td>Hangman: write on the board the first and last letters of the following words: biscuit, sweet, chips and French fries.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRESENTATION:</td>
<td>Play the first part of Michael’s interview making sure that students listen only to the selected vocabulary for this class. After the students listen to the interview, ask them about some words that they hear. Listen again twice or three times if necessary, checking Ss comprehension. Write the words in the board. Play the interview and stop it after each question and answer. Check Ss’ answers. Ask questions about the examples that Michael gives in his interview. Example: A: What is another name for ___? B: A _____ is a ___________.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CONCLUSION:</td>
<td>Ask Ss orally the name of the interviewee, and some information he provided. Example: Where is Michael from? What does Michael eat with cookies?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

UNIDAD EDUCATIVA FRANCISCO FEBRES CORDERO
THESIS APPLICATION - LESSON PLAN
<table>
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<th><strong>GROUP:</strong></th>
<th><strong>DATE:</strong></th>
<th><strong>TIME:</strong></th>
<th><strong>N. of Students:</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>TREATMENT</strong></td>
<td><strong>May 21\textsuperscript{st}, 2013</strong></td>
<td><strong>9:40 to 10</strong></td>
<td><strong>30 (M:28 / F:2)</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**TOPIC:** Vocabulary variations

**OBJECTIVE:** To analyze the second part of the vocabulary variations from Michael’s interview.

**AIMS:** Students will recognize that lexicon in the English language varies from one country to another.

**MATERIALS:** Human: teacher and students. Materials: board, markers, radio, computer, recordings.

**LANGUAGE:** Vocabulary: Christmas, vacation. Places: apartment, item, lobby, parking lot, elevator, drugstore.

**WARM-UP ACTIVITY** (5 – 10 minutes) Write this sentence on the board. “I have coffee and cookies. An American has coffee and cookies, too.” Have Ss repeat the sentences and underline the nouns.

**PRESENTATION:** (15 minutes) Play the second part of Michael’s interview making sure that students listen only to the selected vocabulary for this class. After the students listen to the interview, ask them about some words that they hear. Listen again twice or three times if necessary, checking Ss comprehension. Write the words on the board. Play the interview and stop it after each question and answer. Check Ss’ answers. In pairs, Ss ask questions about the examples that Michael gives in his interview. Example: A: What is another name for ___? B: A _____ is a ___________.

**CONCLUSION:** (5 minutes) Write a group of words and ask students for a synonym.

**APPENDIX 3. PRE-TEST**
PRE-TEST

Class: _____ Level: _____ Gender: _____ Feminine _____ Masculine Age: _____

1. Responda las siguientes preguntas.

¿Alguna vez ha estado en un país de habla inglesa? Si _____ No _____ ¿cuánto tiempo? __________

¿Tiene parientes en un país de habla inglesa? Sí _____ No _____ ¿En qué país? ________________.

¿Practica inglés fuera del colegio? Sí _____ No _____

Si su respuesta es afirmativa, ¿qué actividades realiza para mejorar su nivel del idioma?

___________________________________________________________

2. Encierre en un círculo la respuesta correcta.

1. For British, a cookie is:
   a. a biscuit  b. a cake  c. none of them

2. A candy is also known as:
   a. sweet  b. cookie  c. none of them

3. For British, french fries are:
   a. chips  b. fries  c. none of them

4. For British, potato chips are also called:
   a. crisps  b. fries  c. none of them

5. In the USA, an evening meal is known as:
   a. tea  b. dinner  c. none of them

6. For British and Australians, an apartment is a:
   a. department  b. flat  c. none of them

7. For Americans, the word “toilet” means:
a. lobby  b. bathroom  c. none of them

8. A reception place is also known as:
   a. lobby  b. hall  c. a none of them

9. For British and Australian, a “parking lot” is a:
   a. car park  b. a park  c. none of them

10. In the Britain an elevator is a:
    a. lift  b. stairs  c. none of them

11. British wear trousers while Americans wear:
    a. underwear  b. pants  c. none of them

12. In some English speaking countries, a sweater is also known as:
    a. cardigan  b. jacket  c. none of them

13. British wear pants while Americans wear
    a. Bikini  b. underwear  c. none of them

14. In Australia, women wear a kind of sandals called thongs, in the USA, they
    wear:
    a. Flip-flop  b. high-heels  c. none of them

15. In Australia, Christmas is also called:
    a. Saint Claus  b. Chrissie  c. none of them

16. In some English speaking countries, vacations means:
    a. free day  b. holiday  c. none of them

17. The season autumn is also known as:
    a. Fall  b. winter  c. none of them.

THANKS FOR YOUR COOPERATION!

APPENDIX 4. POST-TEST

UNIDAD EDUCATIVA FRANCISCO FEBRES CORDERO
Encierre en un círculo la respuesta correcta.

1. For British, a cookie is:
   a. a biscuit   b. a cake   c. none of them
2. A candy is also known as:
   a. sweet   b. cookie   c. none of them
3. For British, french fries are:
   a. chips   b. fries   c. none of them
4. For British, potato chips are also called:
   a. crisps   b. fries   c. none of them
5. In the USA, an evening meal is known as:
   a. tea   b. dinner   c. none of them
6. For British and Australians, an apartment is a:
   a. department   b. flat   c. none of them
7. For Americans, the word “toilet” means:
   a. lobby   b. bathroom   c. none of them
8. A reception place is also known as:
   a. lobby   b. hall   c. a none of them
9. For British and Australian, a “parking lot” is a:
   a. car park   b. a park   c. none of them
10. In the Britain an elevator is a:
    a. lift   b. stairs   c. none of them
11. British wear trousers while Americans wear:
    a. underwear   b. pants   c. none of them
12. In some English speaking countries, a sweater is also known as:
    a. cardigan   b. jacket   c. none of them
13. British wear pants while Americans wear
    a. Bikini   b. underwear   c. none of them
14. In Australia, women wear a kind of sandals called thongs, in the USA, they wear:
   a. Flip-flop       b. high-heels       c. none of them
15. In Australia, Christmas is also called:
   a. Saint Claus    b. Chrissie       c. none of them
16. In some English speaking countries, vacations means:
   a. free day       b. holiday        c. none of them
17. The season autumn is also known as:
   a. Fall           b. winter         c. none of them.

THANKS FOR YOUR COOPERATION!

APPENDIX 5. FOLLOW-UP SURVEY

CUESTIONARIO PARA MEDIR EL GRADO DE SATISFACCIÓN SOBRE LA ENSEÑANZA DE “ENGLISH AS AN INTERNATIONAL LANGUAGE”
Este cuestionario es anónimo y tiene el propósito de medir el grado de satisfacción de las actividades presentadas en clase durante el período de aplicación del proyecto. Por favor, responda las preguntas con honestidad.

INSTRUCCIONES: Por favor, lea con atención cada pregunta y conteste con sinceridad de acuerdo a lo que se le solicita.

1. ¿Las clases le ayudaron a comprender que el Inglés es una lengua internacional que presenta variaciones?
   Sí  No
   Por favor, explique su respuesta:
   __________________________________________________________
   __________________________________________________________

2. ¿Qué escala asignaría a las actividades desarrolladas en clase? Clasifique las opciones de 5 a 1.
   ______ Escuchar las entrevistas
   ______ Explicación de la profesora
   ______ Clase con extranjeros
   ______ Recolección de vocabulario
   ______ Uso de material visual

3. Después de escuchar las entrevistas y realizar las actividades en la clase, ¿con qué facilidad usted pudo entender las variaciones de vocabulario en Inglés?
   Con mucha facilidad  Con facilidad  Con dificultad  Con mucha dificultad

4. Indique su nivel de satisfacción sobre la clase con los extranjeros invitados.
   Satisfactoriamente  Poco satisfactorio  Con dificultad  Con mucha dificultad

5. ¿Cuál de las siguientes actividades de la clase con extranjeros le interesó más? Seleccione una opción.
   ______ Escuchar su pronunciación
   ______ Aprender más vocabulario
   ______ Interacción con preguntas y respuestas
   ______ Aprender sobre su cultura

6. ¿Cree que será mejor para los estudiantes aprender Inglés considerando las variaciones como un idioma internacional? Subraye su respuesta.
a. Completamente de acuerdo
b. De acuerdo
c. En desacuerdo
d. Completamente en desacuerdo

7. En relación a las actividades de este estudio ¿Qué recomienda para que éste curso mejore?

________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

GRACIAS POR SU COLABORACIÓN!

APPENDIX 6. FOREIGNER'S INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPT.

Interview 1

- **Interviewer:** We are now with Michael. Michael Conrad. He’s going to give some information and he’s also going to cooperate with the vocabulary variations, that he has in his country. Let’s listen to him. So, your name is Michel Conrad.
- **Interviewee 1**: Yeah!
- Ok. Let’s start with the questions about vocabulary variations. What do you call a cookie in your country?
- A cookie is a dessert. Dough mixed with butter, sugar, and other ingredients like chocolate or raisins and then baked in the oven.
- Ok, thank you. Can you give me a synonym for candy?
- Candy is a sweet or possibly a dessert or junk food. Junk food includes other unhealthy foods as well, not just candy. “Sweets” is the best synonym.
- Thank you. What comes to your mind if I say “French fries”?
- French fries are sliced potatoes that are fried, served hot with salt and usually ketchup. They’re crispy on the outside and soft in the inside.
- Ok, thank you. That’s a very good description of French fries. What do you call chips in your country?
- Chips are also fried potatoes but sliced much thinner, crispy throughout with a wide variety of seasonings.
- Ok, and do they come packed or not?
- Yeah, they come packed just, and served at room temperature.
- Ok, thank you.
- We eat chips when snacking. Sometimes, they are served with sandwiches but mostly eaten by themselves.
- What do you call an evening meal?
- Aah… to me, an evening meal is dinner. And generally we eat dinner with friends or family.
- Ok. thank you. For dinner, is it generally what you eat every day? Or just in special occasions?
- Dinner, we eat every day and for us, it’s typically the largest meal of the day.
- Oh, yeah… because lunch is …
- Lunch is smaller and often eaten alone. Because you take a small break from work and have a light lunch and then have a big dinner with friends or family later on… every day.
- Ok, that’s very interesting. Here, lunch is the main meal.
- Yes, I’ve discovered.
- Yeah, in my, our country, lunch is the main meal and it is a big meal but dinner is just aah, something small.
- Yeah, I’ve found that in at least in a restaurants in Ecuador, breakfast, lunch and dinner are all huge..
- (laughs) what’s another name for apartment?
- Aah, it’s a condo if it’s privately owned.
- Yeah, thank you. And what do you call a restroom?
- A restroom is a bathroom.
- What do you consider a lobby?
- A lobby is a waiting room of an office building.
- You don’t have a lobby in your house?
- No
- What do you have instead of a lobby?
- It’s possible to have a lobby in your house, but it’ll have to be a mansion, a huge house. But the front area of a house, we would call a...(foye)** check word in dictionary.
Thank you. ... Do you know a synonym for a parking lot?
- Aaah, a parking garage; typically a parking garage is bigger and most likely enclosed, whereas a parking lot is typically out in the open.
- Ok. Thank you. Can you describe what an elevator is?
- An elevator is the means of quickly travelling between floors of a tall building.
- Ok. Do you have, do you know another name for elevator?
- I’ve heard the word lift but it’s not commonly used in the United States.
- Ok, thank you. What do you call pants?
- Pants are what we wear from the waist down long enough to reach our feet and with two legs.
- Ok. Good description. What is another word for sweater?
- I don’t have one. Hmm, just a sweater.
- Just sweater?
- Just sweater. We use that word for a long sleeve shirt that’s knitted.
- Ok. That’s good. Thank you. Do you know another name for Christmas?
- No, I don’t. (laughs)
- Ok. What is another name for vacation?
- In the United States, we use the word break. Aah, for example, aah, when school children have a vacation from school, we call it a break, like Christmas break, or spring break… aah, but people go on vacation; they don’t go on break; they go on vacation.
- Ah that’s a good differentiation between the two words: break and vacation.
- I have heard that people go on holiday, but we don’t use that in the United States. We say people go on vacation.
- Ok, Michael; it’s been very interesting to learn about some variation of vocabulary in the United States.
- Sure
- Thank you very much for your cooperation.
- You’re welcome.

Interview 2.

Interviewer: what do you call a cookie in your country?

Interviewee 2: a cookie is a cookie. It’s the same. That’s what we call it.

And do you have another name for candy?
- No… well, sweets sometimes. Sweets but we call it candy.
- What about French fries? Can you describe how French fries are?
- Sure, uh, we call the French fries and they are just fried potatoes. Uhm.. kind of little sticks… thin sticks…
- What about chips? Is there another name for chips? Or what do you call chips?
- We call them chips. Like baked potatoes. Slices really thin and fried.
- For chips, do they come in a bag, or just like French fries?
- Aah, they come in a bag if you buy in a store, but in a restaurant, then, they’re like fries, like on your plate.
- What about an evening meal? What do you call this?
- We call it dinner. Sometimes, supper. Some people call it supper; older people call it supper, and it’s kind of an earlier dinner.
- What do dinner consists of?
- Aah, we’re vegetarian. But normally, a meat, some kind of grain and a veggie. It’s the biggest meal. The biggest of the day.
- Ok, and another name for apartment?
- Condo. If you own it, it’s called a condo or condominium. Or if it has no… if it’s just one big room, sometimes it’s a studio.
- Does it depend on the size to change the name? like small ones or big ones?
- No, an apartment is on a building where you’re renting. Like you don’t own it, you’re renting, and there is like a bunch of units in one building, that’s called an apartment.
- What about toilet? There are different words to refer to toilet, which is the appropriate?
- We use toilet. The same word. (There’s other funny things to call it like “the throne”). Yeah, the toilet, the bathroom.
- What is more common: toilet or bathroom?
- Bathroom. What about restroom?
- Yes, both, restroom and bathroom. – Restroom is more often used in public, like a public place you ask for a restroom. I mean, you can still ask for a bathroom but there’s no bath in a restaurant. At home, you always call it bathroom, no restroom but if you’re in a mall or a restaurant, you have to call it a restroom.
- In a building, you have an elevator. Is there another name for this?
- No, we just call it elevator.
- We’re going to talk about clothes. What do you wear, trousers?
- No, pants, pants or jeans.
- What about sweater. Is there another name for sweater?
- No, we call it sweater. A sweater and a sweat shirt are two different things.
- What about pants?
- We just call them all pants.
- What about thong sandals?
- We call them flip flops.
- When do you wear flip flops?
- Every day, whenever I can. When it’s warm. You can’t wear it to a nice restaurant or a fancy club. You can’t wear it to work. Anytime you’re more casual, even when it’s cold.
- Celebrations. Do you celebrate Christmas?
- We do.
- What is another name for Christmas?
- Just Christmas. Jesus birthday.
- Another name for vacation?
- That’s it, vacation! Maybe go on a trip. But we call it vacation.
- How do you call it when you have festivities?
- Like celebrations? Holidays. It depends, there’re some that are holidays but there’re some that are just celebrations.
- What do you call the season after summer?
- Fall. It can also be called autumn. Some people say autumn.
Interview 3

Interviewer: What’s your name?

Interviewee 3: My name is Gloria.

- What do you call a cookie in your country?
  - A cookie is something to eat like we eat chocolates.
- Can you give me a synonym for candy?
  - Aahmm, no. It’s a sweet but I don’t have a synonym. It’s hard and it’s eaten by children and it’s sweet.
- What comes to your mind if I say French fries?
  - Aah, it comes fried. The potato that you can eat in McDonald’s.
- What do you call chips in your country?
  - Aah, chips in my country are the slim fried potatoes, sliced. Like umh, yeah,... It’s something that you have for example, before lunch or with a drink or... but it’s not a meal; it’s like an appetitive. Like a snack.
- And do you know what is the difference between... umh, like French fries are hot and they are fried and chips are cold?
  - Yeah.
- Ok. What do you call an evening meal?
  - The dinner.
- Can you describe dinner?
  - Uhm, it’s usually, you eat it with friends and family and it’s either cold or warm, and it’s the main meal from the day.
- Oh, yeah. So, for you, dinner is the main meal in the day. Not breakfast?
  - No, not breakfast, and lunch, it’s usually just a sandwich and it’s cold.
- Ok, what’s another name for apartment?
  - A flat.
- What do you call a restroom?
  - The toilets.
- Is it common to use the word toilet?
  - Yeah, you say toilets.
- What do you consider a lobby?
  - A lobby is two things: it’s the place where you can rest, but it’s also a group making pressure to obtain something. Like for example, a group of people who are supported by, I don’t know, the petrol industry and are trying to influence decision; that’s called a lobby.
- Oh yeah, that’s useful to know. Do you know a synonym for parking lot?
  - A parking place?
- Can you describe what an elevator is?
  - Yeah, it’s a... something that brings you up and down in a house or a building which have more floors...
- Do you know another word for elevator?
  - Uuhm, no.
- What do you call pants?
- Underwear.
- What about trousers?
- Trousers, it’s not underwear, and it’s not… it’s what you wear up your underwear.
- So, pants as underwear and trousers as the pants that I refer.
- What’s another word for sweater?
- Aah, pullover.
- Do you know another name for Christmas?
- No, I don’t. Santa Claus.
- What is another name for vacation?
- Holidays.
- When do people go on holidays?
- When they are off work… when they go mostly abroad, I’d say.
- Is there a specific or special time, like summer or spring, when people go on holidays?
- Usually, it’s in July or August.
- That’s the same here in Ecuador. Thank you very much for your cooperation.

**Interview 4**

**Interviewer:** what do you call a cookie in your country?

**Interviewee 4:** it’s a… a cookie.. it’s soft usually. It’s a sweet dough that is baked. We eat cookies with milk, usually; cookies have different ingredients like chocolate chips or raisins.

- Can you give me a synonym for candy?
- Sweets, but we always use candy. Candy. Candy is everything. There’s no other word, it can be hard, it can be soft, sweet, sour. Anything small made with sugar.
- What comes to your mind if I say French fries?
- Err. Long fried potatoes; soft and fried.
- Ok. Are they hot? Or…?
- Yes, they’re hot. Always hot.
- Yeah. What do you call chips in your country?
- Chips are in a bag. They’re round fried potatoes in my country; not hot.
- Ok, not hot.
- No! We eat chips as a snack or with sandwiches.
- What do you call an evening meal?
- Dinner. Some people say supper, but, only, not in the cities, only in the rural areas.
- Ah, only in the rural areas?
- Yeah
- That’s interesting!. What’s another name for apartment?
- Condominium. But a condominium is more expensive, and you own it. Apartment, you can own or rent, but an apartment we say apartment.
- Ok. What do you call a restroom?
- Most commonly, we say bathroom, but we can say bathroom, restroom or washroom.
- What about toilet?
- Not. Nobody says.. only foreigners say “I’m going to the toilet”. Toilet is the thing, you don’t go to the toilet, you go to the room.
- What do you consider a lobby?
- Ah, waiting area, in front of offices.
- Do you know a synonym for parking lot?
- No. only parking lot. If it’s a building with multiple levels, it’s a parking garage, but if it’s only one, it’s a parking lot.
- Can you describe what an elevator is?
- A small room with doors and buttons that brings you upstairs and downstairs.
- Do you have another name for elevator?
- Aah, no... no, just elevator.
- What do you call pants?
- Pants.. we can wear different kinds of pants but it’s always pants.
- Always pants?
- Yeah
- Dress pants can be slacks but it’s not common.
- Ok. What is another word for sweater?
- It depends on the type. Sweater is kneatred or a cardigan. This is a cardigan with bottoms, or zipper that opens. A sweat is cotton with no hood. If it has a hood, then, it’s a hoody. It’s a, it’s slang but it’s very common. Hoody, if it has a hood, it’s hoody.
- That’s very interesting!
- Yeah...
- Hum, do you know another name for Christmas?
- No, just Christmas.
- Just Christmas.
- And on Christmas, people get together with their family, they eat a big meal, and in the morning, they open presents.
- That’s good. What’s another name for vacation?
- Only vacation. We don’t say holiday or anything, only vacation. And for us, it’s very short because we don’t have much time for vacation. In the United States, most people have two weeks, ten-days vacation every year, ten days. So, I say vacation is three days to one month anywhere in between; a vacation can be three days. Ah, it’s when you take a break from work or school but you go back.
- Yeah, ok. Thank you very much for your cooperation Abby, and nice to meet you.
- You, too. Thank you.

Interview 5

Interviewer: What do you call a cookie in your country?

Interviewee 5: A cookie is like a biscuit with chocolate and chocolate chip.
- Can you give me a synomym for candy?
- Candy, we also call candy, a sweet, a sweet.
- What comes to your mind if I say French fries
- Oh, French fries that I know is a piece of fried potatoes which are hot.
- Oh, that’s good. And what do you call chips in your country?
- Chips are also potatoes but it’s slices, or fried potatoes with thin slices. They’re usually cold.
- And, they come packed?
- Yeah,
- Yeah, they are packed. What is another name for chewing gum?
- A gum; it’s a gum.
- Gum? Ok. What do you name the time after lunch?
- So, the time after lunch is the afternoon.
- The afternoon
- Hmm, the afternoon is between; after midday and before 6:00, 6:30, 7:00.
- Ok.
- What do you call an American?
- How do I call an American?
- Yeah
- An American
- Just an American?.. ok
- What do you call an evening meal?
- So, an evening meal is also a dinner.
- When do you have dinner?
- Around 7:30, 8:00.
- Yeah
- ....
- What is another name for apartment?
- An apartment is also known as a flat.
- A flat! Ok. Can you describe this?
- A flat is a part in a building where we can live.
- What do you call a restroom?
- A restroom is also known as toilet or bathroom.
- Toilet or bathroom..
- mmm
- What do you consider a lobby?
- A lobby is the main room in the restaurant or coffee, coffee place.
- Ok. Do you know a synonym for a parking lot?
- Just a parking place... yeah or a parking.
- Parking?
- Yeah..
- Ok.. Can you describe what an elevator is?
- An elevator is a.. is like a machine to go up and down in a building..
- Do you have another word for elevator?
- I don’t think so..
- Can you describe what the word drugs mean in your country?
- Drugs, drugs is something to get high.
- Does it have another meaning for medicine or something?
- It can also be like a medicine, like a drugstore is a place where you can buy medicines.
- Ok. Let’s continue. what do you call pants?
- Pants are also trousers.
- Trousers! Yeah. what is another word for sweater?
- A jumper
- When do you wear a sweater?
- When you are cold I guess; when the weather is not that good.
- Ok. Do you know another name for Christmas?
- It’s also Crissie, Christmas. yeah…
- Thank you. That’s interesting. What’s another name for vacation?
- Vacation is also known as a free time or holiday.
- When do you generally go on vacation?
- When you have holiday or when you have a free time at work.
- Yeah. In your country, for example, which are the holidays season?
- It’s more on July, August. this is when all the kids get a free time from school and most of the parents take a free time too, they travel.
- Ok. That’s similar in my country, too..
- So, that’s it, thank you very much for your cooperation.
- No worries.