
Institution: Center for Applied Linguistics, Washington, D.C.
Language and Orientation Resource Center.

Sponsor Agency: Office of Refugee Resettlement (DHHS), Washington, D.C.

Publication Date: Sep 81
Grant: 98-P-10002-3-01
Note: 54p.

Language: English; Haitian Creole

EDRS Price: MF01/PC03 Plus Postage.
Descriptors: *English (Second Language); *Haitian Creole; *Haitians; *Interference (Language); *Lesson Plans; Morphology (Languages); *Phonology; Second Language Instruction; Syntax

Abstract:
Three types of information useful to English as a Second Language teachers of Haitian refugees are provided: (1) a discussion of the Haitian educational system and reasons for the high illiteracy rate; (2) an explanation of the language situation in Haiti where the official language is French, and the native language of most of the population is Haitian Creole; and (3) a sketch of the phonetic system and pronunciation problems for Haitians learning English. The last part of the book presents an analysis of the phonology, morphology, and syntax of Haitian Creole and 19 English pronunciation lessons with notes. (AMH)
Teaching English to Haitians

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September 1981
Introduction

The Center for Applied Linguistics has had three purposes in mind in the development of this Guide. First, the Center staff wants to provide information on the current Haitian educational system and the status of literacy as found among Haitian adults in Haiti. Next, the staff would like to give a brief overview of the language situation in Haiti, as well as an all-too-sketchy of Haitian-Creole -- in particular its pronunciation and some of its major syntactic features. Finally, the staff would like to provide teaching materials which deal with the particular pronunciation problems Haitian students might have in learning English. We feel that such information will be of use in making both the learning and teaching of English as a second language to Haitians more efficient and enjoyable.

Education and Literacy in Haiti

As is common throughout Latin-America, the Haitian educational system is modeled on the French system as this was developed during this century. The Haitian system uses Standard French as its medium of instruction. Since most Haitians speak Haitian-Creole as a first language, the language of the school is different from the language of the home. The Haitian educational system makes it mandatory that all children entering the system acquire French as quickly as possible. The traditional Haitian educational system has ignored Haitian-Creole until fairly recently. Some of the public schools, as well as some of the private ones, have started to teach literacy in Haitian-Creole. This is based on the sound notion that one can best learn to read in one's mother language first. Despite this belated recognition of the home language within the school curriculum, the use of a language foreign to the child entering the school system imposes a very heavy burden on the child. Such linguistic problems probably contribute to a rather high dropout rate among Haitian children.

The Haitian educational system is highly developed. The system has produced writers, poets, and scholars of international repute. However, as is common throughout much of Latin-America, the educational system is set up to serve the needs of an urban elite. Despite the many admirable qualities of the Haitian educational system, the sad truth is that it serves only a small fraction of all Haitians. The end result of this is mass illiteracy in Haiti. Around 20% of all adult Haitians are estimated to be literate. Most of the literate Haitians are concentrated in the urban areas of Haiti. The majority
of newly arrived Haitians in the United States are probably illiterate, since most of these Haitians come from rural areas. Keep in mind that for a Haitian to become literate in the past has meant that he has had to learn a second language (French). Difficult as it is to become literate in one's own language, the task of doing so in a second or foreign language complicates the task. Teaching nonliterate students to read English requires special consideration and the reader is advised to consult the LORC Guide to Teaching ESL to Nonliterate Adults.

Nonliterate Adults

The Haitian educational system begins with Kindergarten and continues through a thirteenth year in high school. French is the instructional language and mandatory competitive examinations are required at the 12th and 13th grades. Students must pass the 12th grade examination to proceed to the 13th grade. Successful performance on the 13th grade examination allows the student to attend college.

High school programs are designed on subject-tract lines, e.g., science curriculum, pre-literature curriculum, etc. Information is usually presented in a lecture format according to a prescribed schedule. Learning is primarily by rote and exact repetition; analysis or synthesis of information is not expected. Obedience to the teacher is required.

As school is not compulsory, many children from less affluent families work rather than attend school. The literacy rate in Haiti is very low and is one of the factors contributing to the economic disparity between Haitians.

Since most of the Haitian refugees that have come to the United States in recent years lack much formal education, ESL teachers will be faced with the task of instructing two basic groups of individuals:

1. Haitians not possessing any educational skills and only capable of signing their names and performing simple arithmetic computations (addition and subtraction);

2. Haitians having had four to six years of schooling and who may be able to write a basic sentence with all the necessary grammatical components in French]. However, ESL teachers should bear in mind that the majority of Haitians arriving in the United States of late will most likely be classified as nonliterate.

The Language Situation in Haiti

The official language of Haiti is French. This is the language that is used in the schools and colleges, the courts and for most functions of the
government. The most widely spoken language in Haiti is Haitian-Creole. Haitian-Creole is spoken as a first language by most Haitians and is generally used by most Haitians (including those who also speak French) in informal situations. French is acquired through formal instruction. Thus, if a Haitian has not had any formal education, it is probable that he will know little or no French. Indeed, the sign of an educated individual in Haiti is his/her ability to speak French. Haitian-Creole (HC) is generally not written, although there now exists an official orthography for it and such an orthography is being taught in some of the public and private schools. The language situation in Haiti has been described as 'diglossic'. This means that Haitian society employs two languages but assigns different functional roles to the two languages. This is not a unique situation. Many minority language communities in the United States are diglossic. For example, Navajo-speakers typically speak Navajo at home and at tribal meetings, but speak English in conjunction with business outside the tribal setting. To be a viable member of the Navajo tribe, you have to speak Navajo as well as English. In fact, many European countries were diglossic until fairly recently. Latin was used in the schools, churches and courts, while local vernaculars (essentially unwritten forms of local languages) were used for more informal purposes (such vernaculars as Spanish, French, Dutch, German, English, etc., in time became official languages on their own and displaced Latin). At one point, England was triglossic, since it used Latin in the churches and the universities, French in the courts (both law and royal) and English for more humble activities. The role of French is an important one in Haiti. The range of fluency in French ranges from Haitians who speak French as well as any Frenchman to individuals who have but a smattering of it. Given the prestige of French in Haiti, undoubtedly some Haitians might be inclined to claim a far greater degree of French fluency than might be warranted. That someone might want to claim a far greater amount of French than can be justified testifies to the great prestige accorded French in Haiti. French has had such great prestige in Haiti that it has just about overwhelmed Haitian-Creole. Indeed, Haitian-Creole is often regarded in rather negative terms. Part of this negative connotation comes from negative connotation attached to the terms 'pidgin' and 'creole'.

Oftentimes when people of different language backgrounds come together for purposes of trade, etc., a temporary form of communication arises to fulfill utilitarian needs. Usually this temporary form of communication is a special simplification of one language (called the base language), with generous contributions from other languages included. The term 'pidgin' arose in the Far East
in relation to a type of simplified English that came into being in the South China Sea area (the word 'pidgin' is the English word 'business' as pronounced in certain parts of the Far East). These temporary forms of communication are called pidgins. Some of the recorded pidgins in history have lasted a very long time. The most famous of all pidgins is called Lingua Franca, a pidgin based on Romance dialects that was used by sailors in the Mediterranean Sea area for almost 1000 years. Lingua Franca was known to be in use in the late 19th Century, but is no longer in use. A salient feature of a pidgin is that it is no one's native (or 'first') language. An additional feature of a pidgin is that it would appear to be a highly simplified form of some language.

A creole language appears to come into being whenever a pidgin becomes someone's first language. That is, if a baby is taught a pidgin, what the baby learns to speak as its first language is known as a creole language. At this point, we have little solid evidence, but there is considerable speculation as to what happens between the existence of a pidgin and the emergence of a creole language. What is certain is that all creole languages (there are many of these in existence) are natural languages [any language learned as a first language by a baby is defined as a natural language]. Whereas a pidgin is restricted in form and in usage, a creole language can serve all of the communicative needs of its speakers. Pidgins enjoy little prestige among the various forms of communication man has created; this is particularly so since a pidgin is not native to any one. Creole languages often seem to be regarded negatively, perhaps because of their indirect relation to pidgin languages.

Creole languages are often described as being 'based' on some other language. Thus we have Afrikaans, a Dutch-based Creole language; Neo-Melanesian, an English-based Creole language; Chamorro, often regarded as a Spanish-based Creole language; and, Haitian-Creole, a French-based Creole language. Keep in mind that linguists are not in general agreement as to the origins of the various Creole languages found around the world.

As for Haitian-Creole, some scholars seem to think that it arose out of a French-based pidgin. Other scholars feel that the origin of Haitian-Creole is really Sabir, a form of Lingua Franca spoken by Portuguese and French sailors in the 15th and 16th centuries. What is certain is that Haitian-Creole shares many structural, lexical and phonological similarities with certain Creole languages spoken in the West Indies (in particular, Martinique), as well as in the Indian Ocean area, particularly Mauritius and the Seychelles. Whatever the true origin of Haitian-Creole might be, it seems fairly certain that the history of this language antedates the settlement of Haiti by the French in 1697.
The issues involved in the history of this language make for rather interesting reading. You should keep in mind that Haitian-Creole is a different language from French. It is sad to report that many speakers of Haitian-Creole regard it as an inferior form of French. This makes as much sense as to regard French as an inferior form of Latin. Haitian-Creole may borrow words continually from Standard French, but this only shows that such borrowings are useful to the speakers of Haitian-Creole. Recall that Modern English has borrowed close to half its vocabulary from French, but few English-speakers would regard English as inferior to French.

The attitudes toward French and Haitian-Creole may be the sources of some possible classroom controversy in regard to the issue of learning to read Haitian-Creole. Some Haitians may see little value in doing so; other Haitians may see literacy in Haitian-Creole as valuable and necessary. It has generally been taken for granted that one can learn to read quicker by learning to read one's native language first. Thus, it would seem that teaching literacy in Haitian-Creole would logically precede teaching literacy in English. This is a viable approach in those cases where the instructor speaks sufficient Haitian-Creole and knows the orthographic system(s) used in Haiti. Teaching native-language literacy requires certain skills and materials. We will not address this particular problem here since we are assuming that most of our readers will speak little Haitian-Creole. Consequently, we further assume that teaching literacy in Haitian-Creole will not be something most of our readers will engage in. This is not to say that we oppose the teaching of native-language literacy. This issue cannot be addressed without taking into account local resources that would be impractical to consider in this Guide.

Regardless of whatever conclusions linguists might reach regarding the nature of the relationship between Haitian-Creole and French, what is of importance to us is to notice that most of the vocabulary in Haitian-Creole derives from French. Because of this and because English itself has borrowed so extensively from French, the Haitian who speaks only Haitian-Creole will have relatively few problems mastering English pronunciation. Indeed, many of the problems your Haitian students will have in learning to pronounce English will be about the same problems your French-speaking students might have learning English. We will discuss some of these problems below. Note that Haitian-Creole and English differ in major respects in the area of syntax. Some of the major differences will be described below.

At present no materials exist for the specific task of teaching English to
Haitian-Creole speakers. Given the limited commercial market for such materials, it is unlikely that such materials will be forthcoming soon. Most of the materials described in the LORC Bibliography of ESL Materials are relevant to your students' needs. Keep in mind that the target for your students is English. If the materials you select have been designed carefully, your students can be taught effectively regardless of your students' linguistic background. In fact, in most ESL programs, the students are usually of diverse language backgrounds yet all use the same materials for learning English as a second language.

**Literacy Problems**

As was discussed above, it will be quite probable that most of your students will be nonliterate. Unless you have the means available for teaching literacy in your students' first language (Haitian-Creole, in this case), you will have to teach literacy in English. Teaching literacy to native English-speakers differs in one significant way from teaching literacy in English to students who are in the process of learning English -- the native English-speakers obviously already speaks English. While this might seem like a rather naive observation to make, it is very easy for the ESL instructor to present the written form of words that the students may not have learned yet. Apart from the problem of when to introduce literacy lessons in the ESL situation, there is also the general problem of introducing the notion of written symbolization to your students. Pre-reading drills are very important to the adult student. Care must be given to the issue of the teaching of literacy to your students. Again, we urge you to consult the Guide to Teaching ESL to Nonliterate Adults for particulars.

**How to Teach English Pronunciation**

It may appear to you that there are many differences between English and Haitian-Creole pronunciation. There are, but the two languages are rather similar in many respects. In general, there are few sounds that occur in English that do not also occur in Haitian-Creole (examples of new sounds in English for Haitian-Creole speakers would be the th in thick, th in thy, the i in pin, the r in row, the a in hat, etc.). A major problem for the Haitian learner of English is the dynamic stress of English that reduces unstressed vowels to the neutral vowel 'schwa' (i.e., the final vowel of Rosa or Georgia). The stress position in English can vary depending on the type of word involved: télégràph, tèlégràphic, télégiraphy [the symbols ` and ` over the vowels indicate stress: ` means heaviest stress; ` means secondary stress].
As the stress is shifted, the vowel concerned may sound quite different (notice how the graph part of the three words listed above is pronounced). In Haitian-Creole, stress is generally on the final syllable. Further, vowels are pronounced about the same whether stressed or not stressed.

If you are a native English speaker with little or no knowledge of Haitian-Creole, you should not despair. You have several factors working in your favor when you teach English to Haitians.

The primary advantage that you have is that your students are apt to be highly motivated to learn English. Not only is the language necessary to them for day-to-day existence, but they are also pressured by the need to communicate, and communicating means speaking English -- at least outside the home. This motivation will keep your students going long after they -- and you -- have become exhausted on other grounds, and in rare cases may be sufficient for them to learn English without any formal training at all.

A second advantage is that the students have access to accurately-pronounced English. (We are not talking here of 'correct' in the grammar-book sense; we are saying that all native speakers of English pronounce English vowels and consonants correctly.) Every time Haitians turn on the radio or television at home, or buy cigarettes, or get on a bus, they are often bombarded with correct examples of the English language.

Another advantage you have, if you only speak English, is that you are by definition a native-speaker for your students to imitate. Whether you speak Florida English or New York City English or West Texas English, you are a native-speaker of English; if your students wind up speaking exactly like you do, they will sound like a native speaker, too -- which is the ultimate goal for any second-language learner.

One further advantage you have is that Haitian-Creole and English share a considerable body of vocabulary. Even if you don't speak one word of Haitian-Creole, you can often guess what the following Haitian-Creole words mean: krab, diaz, stik, rouj, klas, rat, mars (crab, jazz, stick, rouge, class, rat, March).

Even not being able to speak Haitian-Creole is a factor which can operate in your favor. You will find that very, very quickly -- within the first fifteen minutes of your first class with your students -- you can establish by gestures enough vocabulary (listen, repeat, all together, etc.) to carry you through until your students can understand more complicated instructions in English. On the other hand, your students have to use English with you -- they can't slip back into Haitian-Creole when the going gets rough -- and this serves as additional motivation for them to learn. With so many factors working to
your advantage, teaching pronunciation is by no means the formidable job it might appear to be.

The following chart summarizes in tabular form the major points of difference between the English and Haitian-Creole pronunciation that may result in problems for the Haitian learning English. Keep in mind that exposure to French varies widely. This may result in a considerable amount of phonological variation. This is to be expected. The chart simply predicts the most likely problems for a nonliterate, monolingual Haitian-Creole speaker. The possible influence from French is not taken into consideration. The pronunciation lessons are based on the pronunciation problems summarized on the chart. These pronunciation problems are not the only predictable difficulties in pronunciation, but they are the ones we think justify spending time teaching.
Inventory of Symbols

The symbols enclosed in square brackets represent phonetic sounds for the most part. We will give values for the symbols, but it should be kept in mind that the symbols are suggestive only (these are not strictly speaking phonetic or phonemic).

HAITIAN-CREOLE

[p]:  po 'skin'
     pa 'part'
[w]:  west 'west'
     wil 'oil'
[y]:  ñay 'give'
     ye 'yesterday'
[y]:  ri 'laugh'
     rote 'height'
[i]:  mari 'husband'
     li 'read'
[e]:  fre 'fresh'
[c]:  fe 'do, make'
[ê]:  mens 'thin'
[a]:  pat 'paw'
[o]:  janb 'leg'
{o]:  kôk 'rooster'
[o]:  fon 'deep'
[u]:  cho 'hot'

[t]:  tou 'also'
     tan 'time'
[1]:  lënn 'wool'
     lî 'read'

[ts]:  Aiti 'Haiti'
      soti 'go out'
[ð]:  diri 'rice'

[k]:  ke 'heart'
     kite 'leave'

[b]:  tab 'table'
     ban 'bench'

[d]:  douer 'doubt'
     adan 'in'

[dz]:  diri 'rice'

[g]:  gen 'have'
     gou 'taste'

[j]:  djôb 'job, work'
     djôl 'muzzle'

[ch]:  tonbe tchouboum 'fall with a crash'

[f]:  fe 'do, make'
     fi 'daughter'

[s]:  sêt 'seven'
     sitou 'especially'

[sh]:  chat 'cat'
      chan 'field'

[v]:  vèt 'green'
     van 'wind'

[z]:  zèl 'wing'
     poze 'put, rest'

[zh]:  jouromoun 'pumpkin'
      kaj 'cage'

[h]:  hach 'axe'
     hen 'hatred'

[m]:  men 'hand'
     moun 'person'

[n]:  no 'north'
     limonad 'lemonade'

[ŋ]:  gnam 'yam'
     begne 'bath'

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N.3. Linguists are not agreed in the phonological analysis of Haitian-Creole. Some linguists might recognize an additional vowel sound as in jwa 'jcy'; additional nasal vowels are recognized. Also, some linguists might not recognize the independent status of [h], [ch] and [j]. Since our purpose here is to describe Haitian-Creole in relation to the learning of English, no position need be taken by us in this rather important problem.
ENGLISH

[p] : pit
[t] : tin
[k] : king, cat, quiche
[b] : buy
[d] : do
[g] : go
[ch]: check
[j] : jam, general
[f] : fun, phlox
[s] : son
[sh]: share, sure
[v] : vine
[ð] : thy
[z] : zoo
[zh]: treasure, rouge
[h] : hit
[m] : more
[n] : no
[ng]: sing
[w] : wish
[y] : yes
[r] : red
[l] : law
[i]: ill
[i] : bit
[i]: beat
[e]: bet
[ey] : hay, make
[a] : cat
[ʌ] : cut
[ɪ]: Rosa, across
[u]: soot
[ʊ]: sue
[c]: saw, sought
[a]: hot

Aspiration is often indicated by a raised 'h' after the consonant: two [thuw].

Some speakers of English pronounce witch and which differently: [wich] and [hwich].
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English Sound</th>
<th>Position in word:</th>
<th>Why a problem:</th>
<th>Will be confused with:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>p 'pin'</td>
<td>before a stressed vowel</td>
<td>will be pronounced without aspiration</td>
<td>will sound like a b to an English speaker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t 'tin'</td>
<td>before a stressed vowel</td>
<td>will be pronounced without aspiration</td>
<td>will sound like a d to an English-speaker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'tin'</td>
<td>before a vowel like the ee in beet or i in tin</td>
<td>will be pronounced as ts</td>
<td>ts in word-initial position will sound like s to an English-speaker; in other situations ts will not be recognized as a t by English-speakers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'at last'</td>
<td>before a consonant</td>
<td>frequently pronounced as a glottal stop in English—a non-existing sound in HC</td>
<td>will be confused with k or may be absent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k 'kite'</td>
<td>before a stressed vowel</td>
<td>will be pronounced without aspiration</td>
<td>will sound like a g (as in gas) to an English-speaker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d 'deed'</td>
<td>before a vowel like the ee in deed or i in dim</td>
<td>will be pronounced as dz</td>
<td>dz at the beginning of a word will sound like z to an English-speaker; otherwise, dz will not be recognized as a d by an English-speaker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ch 'chill'</td>
<td>everywhere</td>
<td>may be pronounced like sh</td>
<td>ch and sh may be confused (this will probably be true only for some Haitians)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>j 'jeep'</td>
<td>everywhere</td>
<td>may be pronounced like zh (like the s in treasure)</td>
<td>j and zh may be confused; this will not be a major problem since this is typical of a French accent and readily understood</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ng 'sing'</td>
<td>at end of a word</td>
<td>may be pronounced as a sequence of nasal vowel and g (g as in bag)</td>
<td>some students may confuse ng with n; probably not a major problem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English Sound</td>
<td>Position in word:</td>
<td>Why a problem:</td>
<td>Will be confused with:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------</td>
<td>------------------</td>
<td>----------------</td>
<td>----------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'bill'</td>
<td>at end of a word</td>
<td>English 'l' may sound like a vowel to the HC-speaker</td>
<td>word-final 'l' may be interpreted as a vowel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'red'</td>
<td>before a vowel</td>
<td>Haitian-Creole [r] is a velar fricative before unrounded vowels</td>
<td>will sound like a 'g' (as in go to an English-speaker)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'row'</td>
<td>before a vowel</td>
<td>HC r is pronounced [w] before rounded vowels</td>
<td>will sound like a 'w' to an English-speaker; may be confused with 'w' by HC-speaker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'door'</td>
<td>at the end of words</td>
<td>does not occur at end of words</td>
<td>this represents not only a new sound, but also a new sound at the end of a word; may be absent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'thick'</td>
<td>everywhere</td>
<td>the sound [θ] does not occur in Haitian-Creole</td>
<td>may be pronounced as [s], although [t] is also possible; will be confused with 's' and, for some speakers, 't'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'ship'</td>
<td>everywhere</td>
<td>may not be distinguished from ch in HC</td>
<td>may be confused with 'ch' (as in chore); this is a relatively minor problem, and not a problem for many HC-speakers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'woe'</td>
<td>before rounded vowels</td>
<td>may not be distinguished from 'r' in HC</td>
<td>apt to be confused with 'r' since 'r' may be pronounced as [w] before a rounded vowel (e.g. [o], [u], etc.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>all final clusters</td>
<td>final</td>
<td>consonantal clusters in final position are rare in Haitian-Creole</td>
<td>final clusters are apt to be simplified by 'dropping' one of the consonants; this is not a major problem, unless the sound that gets dropped is the sign of plurality, or a verb suffix--that is, the sound being dropped is one that is meaningful for morphological purposes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English Sound</td>
<td>Position in word:</td>
<td>Why a problem:</td>
<td>Will be confused with:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------</td>
<td>-----------------</td>
<td>----------------</td>
<td>-----------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[i] 'pin'</td>
<td>all</td>
<td>this sound does not occur in Haitian-Creole; nearest sound is HC [i]</td>
<td>ee as in meet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[a] 'pan'</td>
<td>all</td>
<td>this sound does not occur in Haitian-Creole; nearest sounds are HC [e] or [a]</td>
<td>e as in pen; sometimes o as in Tom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[ʌ] 'cut'</td>
<td>all</td>
<td>this sound does not occur in Haitian-Creole; nearest sound is probably [a]</td>
<td>will probably be confused with English [a] as in hot</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[u] 'put'</td>
<td>all</td>
<td>this sound does not occur in Haitian-Creole; nearest is HC [u]</td>
<td>oo as in moon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[ə] (weak vowel)</td>
<td>all</td>
<td>unstressed vowels are weakened</td>
<td>with English [a]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**MINOR PROBLEMS:** This represents pronunciation problems that can be addressed only if time permits.

| th 'thy'      | all             | this sound does not occur in HC | z as in zoo |
| thr- 'three'  | word-initial    | this cluster does not occur in HC | tr- as in tree |
| thr- 'thru'   | before a rounded vowel | HC r is pronounced as [w] before a rounded vowel; [t] can be expected as a substitute for [θ] | tw- |
| Cr- 'true'    | consonant - r - rounded vowel | since HC r is pronounced as [w] before a rounded vowel, clusters with r before a rounded vowel can be expected to be a problem | tw-, kw-, pw-, bw-, fw-, dw-, gw- |

**English stress**

| all non syllable final contexts | HC stress is on the last syllable; English stress can be on any syllable and it can occur in various degrees | last syllable will be stressed |
English Pronunciation Lessons for Haitian-Creole Speakers

The following pronunciation lessons deal with the particular problems that Haitian-Creole speakers are likely to have in learning to pronounce English. These lessons will provide you with words and sentences which you can use to teach Haitian-Creole speakers to distinguish between sounds they are likely to have trouble with, and also to produce the problem sounds so they can be understood by English-speakers. The lessons for the most part consist of minimal pairs, minimal sentences, practice sentences, and notes.

Minimal pairs are pairs of words which differ in only one sound, like vat-bat, meet-mitt, wing-ring, and so on. Keep in mind that we are talking about sounds, not spelling: coast and ghost are a minimal pair, despite the fact that their spelling differs in more than one way. (Their phonetic representations [kowst] and [gowst] indicate more clearly that they are minimal pairs.) Minimal pairs are used in pronunciation work to focus students' attention on the fact that a change from one sound to another results in the production of words with different meanings. On being shown that sick and thick are different words, for example, your Haitian-Creole speaking student's attention is focused on the fact that in English the difference between [θ] and [s] is important.

Minimal sentences are just like minimal pairs, except that the words are put into sentences, e.g., That's a wing; That's a ring. The difference between minimal sentences should be just that difference you are focusing on. In the sample given above, the minimal difference is that between r and w.

The practice sentences given in the lesson have been selected to provide your students with multiple occurrences of the sounds in the lesson. We have tried to keep the sentences simple, and in basic tenses, so that they can be used in beginning ESL situations. You will undoubtedly want to make up practice sentences of your own, using sentence structures and vocabulary your students already have. The practice sentences will be to your Haitian-Creole speaking student's what tongue-twisters are to English-speakers, and should be approached in a light-hearted fashion. Be patient! It takes a while to learn to perceive the differences in a second language. Your students will learn soon enough. Remember, even newborn babies take about two years before they begin to speak English.

The Notes to the Teacher explain why the sounds in the lesson are problems for the Haitian-Creole speaker, and give suggestions and strategies for dealing with them. In general, we take the approach that consistent use of a sound that English-speakers will understand appropriately is as good, for purposes of communication, as perfect reproduction of the sound English-speakers use. We sug-
gest that you not waste time trying to teach your students to say English
r with the tip of the tongue curled back instead of allowing them to pronounce
the r in some other way that is consistent. Such a pronunciation will probably
be understood by English-speakers. The native English-speaker can readily fig-
ure out what sound is meant, provided the substitute is made consistently.

The minimal pairs and sentences, and practice sentences, are to be used
first to teach your students to hear the difference between the sounds in ques-
tion, and then to pronounce them so they can be understood by English-speakers.
After each lesson is taught, spot-correction will help to establish the under-
standable pronunciation as an unconscious habit.

To show you better how to use the lessons, we will work through Lesson One
in detail in the following pages.

Teaching the Lessons

Haitian-Creole speakers will have problems with sounds which occur in
English but not in Haitian-Creole, or which pattern differently in Haitian-
Creole and English. These problem sounds can be tackled one by one, first
teaching the students to distinguish aurally the sounds they are likely to con-
fuse; then teaching them to pronounce the problem sounds so they can be under-
stood; and finally, helping them to control the understandable pronunciation
consistently.

For example, the first lesson deals with the sounds w and r. As the notes
to the teacher explain, before a rounded vowel, there is no contrast in Haitian-
Creole between w and r. In addition to this problem, the sound r in Haitian-
Creole is produced differently from English r. In particular, Haitian-Creole r
is generally a type of velar fricative (that is, the back of the tongue is
causing friction by constricting the air passing near the velum); English r is
produced by curling the tip of the tongue back toward the hard palate. Of
course, before a rounded vowel, Haitian-Creole r does not occur: w occurs
instead.

Perception

1. The first step in teaching r and w is to get your student to hear the dif-
ference between r and w in word-initial positions, and to realize that the dif-
ference in sound is what makes words different. This can be done in a number of
ways. One way is to make up a set of pictures which show, say a wing and a
ring, etc. Hold the picture of the wing and say wing; then hold up the picture
of the ring and say ring.

2. Once you have established that the meaning of words change along with an
alternation between r and w (in English), you should teach the students to hear
the difference between r and w. (YOU ARE NOT GETTING THEM TO PRONOUNCE THE
PAIRS YET.) One way of doing this is to list the minimal pairs on the black-
board, e.g.:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>red</td>
<td>wed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rue</td>
<td>woo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rake</td>
<td>wake</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Then, pointing the red/wed row, say one or the other of the two words, and ask
your students to tell you if what you've said is a '1' or '2' word. If your
students are nonliterate, then you should not write the words on the blackboard
but rely on pictures if possible (picture 1 vs picture 2, for example).

Another technique for teaching students to distinguish problem sounds is to
say pairs of words, and ask the student to tell whether the words are "same" or
"different". Say, for example, 'rake - rake'; the students should respond to
the words as "same"; and if you say 'rake - wake', the response should be
"different". Carry on at random, until the students respond instantly and cor-
rectly.

3. When the students easily distinguish the problem sound in words, go
through the procedure with the minimal sentences. This step is quite important,
as outside of class the problem sounds will be buried in sentences or phrases.

Production

1. When your students clearly hear the difference between r and w, you can
go on to teach them how to pronounce the r. Most ESL teachers simply ask the
students to repeat the words in the minimal pairs one at a time, first with the
students repeating in chorus, then individually (assuming you have several stu-
dents). What the student does with the difficult sounds, essentially, is to try
random pronunciations until he hits on one that sounds good to his teacher.
When your students can manage the pronunciation of the problem sounds, you can
reverse the activities mentioned above. The students should repeat words for
you to judge as same or different, etc. Keep in mind that you are teaching
pronunciation, not vocabulary (at least during the pronunciation lessons).
What is important about teaching the contrast between wed and red is the con-
trast itself; these specific vocabulary items need not be learned by the student
at the same time he is learning to make the contrasts. Some of the items in the
lessons are not particularly useful vocabulary items -- they are simply vehicles
to teach a sound contrast.

2. When your students are comfortable with the sounds in question, you can go
on to drill the minimal sentences. We have listed some of the sentences in phrases, to remind you to start with smaller elements and build up to the whole sentence. Start with phrases from the end of the sentence, and work forward; this will keep your intonation more natural sounding, e.g.:

Teacher: ring
Student: ring
Teacher: broken ring
Student: broken ring
Teacher: a broken ring
Student: a broken ring
Teacher: He found a broken ring.
Student: He found a broken ring.

If you have more than one student, you might want to begin all repetition exercises being repeated first by an individual student (in this way, the other students can profit from any corrections you might make), then having the entire group repeat.

3. The next step is the practice sentence, which, as we mentioned before, should be approached light-heartedly, like tongue-twisters. (Skip any sentence that requires too much explanation of meaning and vocabulary, and make up sentences of your own to supplement the ones we have given.) Drill the sentences the same way as the minimal sentences.

4. As a final step, you should go over any vocabulary you have covered which has r or w in it (this refers to vocabulary that you presented outside the pronunciation lessons). Have your students pronounce each item several times.

Reminding

After you have taught the lesson on w and r, and you are sure that your students can both hear and produce the two sounds, you can correct your students' errors on w and r when these come up in the class. Even when your students pronounce r distinctively from w, they may forget to make the contrast as they concentrate on other aspects of English; once they have been through the pronunciation lessons on w and r, a quick reminder will help them reestablish the correct pronunciation.

General Hints

Don't try to correct all the errors your students are apt to make. Making errors is part of the way a second-language learner goes about learning a second language. Keep in mind the proverb, "One learns by making mistakes." However, do try and correct the particular point you are trying to teach. If you are trying to teach the pronunciation of th as in thick contrasted with s, then try
to avoid correcting the omission of a final consonant in a cluster as for exam-
thinks/sinks. Correct what is at issue; don't get side-tracked. Over-correc-
tion will frustrate your students; and ultim

As you are teaching pronunciation, you should try at all times to keep your
own pronunciation natural, and speak at the same pace you normally do. Slowing
down your pronunciation, or pronouncing syllables more distinctly than you or-
dinally do, hinders rather than helps your students; they have to deal with
normally-spoken English outside the classroom. If your students comment that
"We understand everything in class, but have trouble outside," you should consider
carefully whether they are hearing normally-paced and pronounced English
from you.

The Sounds of Haitian-Creole

Both Haitian-Creole (HC) and English derive a considerable portion of their
respective vocabularies from French. As a consequence of this diachronic fact,
the sound systems of English and HC share many similarities. What this means in
practical terms is that your Haitian students will have far fewer problems learn-
ing to pronounce English than would other students learning English. This is
particularly true for the consonantal system where the major difficulties center
on the 'th' sounds as in thigh and thy, the 'r' sound, and certain consonantal
clusters. For reasons discussed below, the English vowel system will present
some serious problems for the Haitian-Creole speaker learning English.

The major sound types for both English and Haitian-Creole are given below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CONSONANTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Haitian-Creole: p t [ch] k</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b d [j] g</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f s sh h</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>v z zh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m n ñ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>w y r</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>l</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VOWELS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Haitian-Creole: i u i iy i u uw</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e o e ey ø ow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>æ ø æ ɔ ã a o</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Consonant Sounds

English and Haitian-Creole have a somewhat similar consonantal system.
But, we must keep in mind that the two systems are distinct. Each system has
its own set of rules. When a speaker of one language transfers some of the rules appropriate to his first language into the second language, what occurs is called 'bilingual interference.' Bilingual interference can be subtle and simply regarded as a 'foreign accent' (compare the French spoken by Maurice Chevalier), or it can be substantial, in which case it may interfere with communication and be a source of problems. What will be discussed below will be the salient characteristics of HC consonants that may be the source of serious problems in comprehension and communication when these are the sources of bilingual interference in the English production by Haitian-Creole speakers.

HC has three voiceless stops which are fairly similar to English. However, there are two characteristics that may prove the source of problems for the English-learner: HC [p], [t] and [k] are not aspirated, while English [p], [t], and [k] are aspirated under certain conditions. This means that the English sounds are accompanied by a tiny puff of air. You can feel this puff of air if you compare pin and spin. English [p], [t], and [k] are aspirated before stressed vowels, and sometimes at the end of words (especially if enunciation is being emphasized). The lack of aspiration in English makes such words as pea, tea and key sound as if they were be, dee, and ghee. You will have to teach your students to aspirate English [p], [t], and [k]. A different kind of difference between HC [t] and English [t] can be a source of problems. HC [t] is changed into a 'ts' sound (like the 'ts' in mists) whenever this sound type occurs before the vowel [i] or the sequence [wi]. What this means in practical terms is that English words such as English tea and twin are apt to be pronounced as "tsee" and "tswin". This will require some practice, especially in initial position since [ts] in word-initial position will sound like [s] to most English speakers: if team, tea, and twist are pronounced as [tr]eam, [ts]ea and [ts]wist, they will sound like 'seam', 'sea' and 'Swiss' to many English-speakers. While this is an important enough problem that requires attention, there are other pronunciation problems that ought to have priority. The substitution of [ts] for an initial t- in English (given certain circumstances) will be the sign of a 'foreign accent' (in about the same way many Eastern Europeans substitute [v] for [w] in such words as wall, winter, and Hawaii).

HC has the voiced stops [b], [d] and [g] which are fairly similar to English [b], [d], and [g]. The only possible problem arises with HC [d] which is pronounced as [dz] before the vowels [i] and [wi]. Hence, one might expect English deep, dwindle, and Sunday to be pronounced as if they were [dz]eep, [dz]windle, and Sun[dzi]. Initial [dz] is apt to be taken as [z] by an English speaker so that the English words dear, and deem if pronounced as [dz]ear and [dz]eem will sound to English-speakers as 'zeear' and 'zeem'. As with [t], [d]
pronounced as [dz] is an important problem but it ought not to have the highest priority. As bilingual interference, it will be taken as a sign of a foreign accent.

HC has a series of fricatives that are fairly similar to those found in English with two notable exceptions. Although HC has [f], [s], [sh], [v], [z], and [zh], it lacks English [θ] and [ð]. Your Haitian-Creole speakers will probably substitute [s] and [z] for English [θ] and [ð]: thick being pronounced as 'sick', they as 'zay'. This is due to the fact that [s] and [z] are the closest sounds in HC to English [θ] and [ð]. Some speakers might substitute [t] and [d] for English [θ] and [ð]. In either case, the substitution results in bilingual interference. You will have to practice pronouncing English [θ] and [ð].

HC [h] is highly restricted. It is reported only for a few words. Thus, it is quite likely that many of your students will lack such a sound in their form of Haitian-Creole. Consequently, English [h] may represent a new sound for many of them. You will have to teach this new sound since it is rather important in English. Keep in mind that the letter H in English sometimes does not represent a sound (as in honor, hour). English has a fairly complicated rule that deleted [h] (makes it disappear, as it were). For example, consider the difference between prohibit, and prohibition; he's here vs. is he here? In the first case, [h] occurs before a stressed vowel; if the following vowel is unstressed, then [h] does not occur. The same kind of thing is going on with the word he. In the statement form, there is a certain amount of stress on he, but in the question form, the form he receives less stress and the [h] is deleted (except in extremely deliberate pronunciation, as on the telephone when it is noisy). Thus, your Haitian students may face the need for learning a new sound; they will also get used to the idea that [h] can be deleted. Don't worry about the deletion rule for English [h] -- it's complicated enough for linguists who do not all agree on the exact formulation of the rule. Just keep in mind that when you are teaching your students to listen for an [h] sound that there really is an [h] sound in your pronunciation. Don't bother to teach your students to delete the [h] sound -- there are other problems to worry about first.

The English nasal sounds [m] and [n] should not present any problems to your students. The nasal [ng] will probably be a problem since this sound is not present in the Haitian-Creole spoken by all Haitians. Some of your students may pronounce a word like long as if it contained a nasal vowel followed by [g]. This will result in a 'foreign accent' and will probably be understood as [ng] by most English-speakers. While the pronunciation of English [ng] should be taught, it need not have the highest priority in your classroom. It should also
point out that some of your students may substitute a nasal vowel for vowel-sequences in English. This represents a more serious problem since the English-speaker is apt to misunderstand this sound sequence (given that English does not make distinctive use of nasal vowels). In this case, you should give priority to an acceptable pronunciation for English [ŋ]. It will make it easier for your student to be understood. Also, such students will have to learn to comprehend the difference between the three nasals in English: [m], [n], [ŋ].

English [w], [y] and [l] ought not to be much of a problem for your students since similar sounds exist in Haitian-Creole. English [l] might prove a bit of a problem since English speakers have two distinct pronunciations for this sound-type: a 'bright' [l] which occurs before vowels as in late, Billy; a 'dark' [i] which occurs after vowels as in bell and little. HC [l] is similar to the 'bright' [l] of English late. What might cause a serious problem, besides the fact that 'dark' [i] represents a new sound for your students, is that many Americans substitute a [o] for dark [i]s. To most of your students, should you happen to pronounce your 'l's that way, this sounds like their vowel [o]. What all of this means is that you should be aware of the two pronunciations for the sound-group l in English, and that many Americans have a dark 'l' that is rather vowel-like. Confusion will arise if you should insist that both 'l' sounds are alike but which sound very different to your students. In other words, as with the English [h] sound, native-speakers of English are not always aware of differences that are quite apparent to speakers of other languages.

English [r] will probably be one of the more difficult sounds to master in English for your Haitian students. Haitian-Creole [y] represents a very different set of sounds from English. In general, HC [y] is pronounced as a velar fricative (similar to Spanish [y] in 'hago') -- a sound that does not occur in American English. Before a rounded vowel or [w], [y] comes a [w]: rou ['wɔ] 'wheel' HC [y] does not occur at the end of words. Further, before a consonant, it is realized as a centering glide, not unlike the centering glide that many Eastern American English dialects have for [r] before a consonant. HC port 'door' is pronounced as [pɔr], which is fairly similar to the pronunciation of English port in many Eastern dialects. All of this seems to imply that (1) your students will have to learn how to pronounce American English [r] in word-initial position (this would have to have high priority); (2) your students will also have to learn how to pronounce English [r] in word-final position; (3) the pronunciation of [r] before consonants will not be a particular problem for most of your students. At some point your students should learn to pronounce [r] the way you do in all word-positions. The most important positions will be word-initial and word-final, at least during the early part of your
students' introduction to English.

Haitian-Creole consonants occur in most of the positions that similar English consonants occur. Initial clusters will not constitute a major problem for your students, however final consonantal clusters will be a problem since words in Haitian-Creole rarely end in more than one consonant. This will require practice.

Vowel Sounds

English vowels will represent a major challenge to your students due to the simple fact that English has a more complex vowel system than Haitian-Creole. Depending on linguistic analysis, Haitian-Creole can be seen as having as few as five oral vowels (plus three nasal vowels). English has been analyzed as having as many as 14 vowel-types. However, not all English vowels represent the same degree of difficulty. Indeed, some of the vowels in English will be readily mastered since they are rather similar to vowels in Haitian-Creole.

English has two vowels, [i] (as in hit) and [iy] (as in heat) which will sound about the same to your Haitian students. This is due to the fact that these two English vowels are produced in about the same area as HC [i]). Thus, pairs like bit/beat will most likely represent major problems to your students.

English [a] represents a new vowel sound to your students. This vowel will sound similar to HC [ε] and [a]. This means that your students will initially interpret a word such as back as [bæk] or [bak]. In either case, such a pronunciation will not be readily understood. The mastery of English will require practice.

English [u] and [uw] will be a problem since the HC vowel [u] is fairly close to both of these English vowels. Your students will not hear the difference between soot and suit at first. They will tend to pronounce both words with the same vowel. This distinction, while important, should be given lower priority in comparison to other vowel distinctions.

In general, the English vowels [a], [e], [ɔ] and [ow] will probably not represent a major problem for your students. The vowel [ʌ] as in cut represents a new sound for your students and will have to be taught.

Haitian-Creole stress tends to be on the final syllable (similar to French stress). English stress can occur on just about any vowel and can shift from one vowel to another. For example, the difference between the noun export and the verb export has to do with the placement of the stress (on the first syllable in the noun, and on the final syllable, in the verb). This kind of difference is never made in Haitian-Creole. Consequently, stress is something
that may have to be taught specifically.

In conjunction with stress, English typically pronounces unstressed vowels with the so-called neutral vowel (schwa). This neutral vowel is typical of languages with dynamic stress systems (such as found in Portuguese, Russian, etc.). In static stress systems (such as found in Haitian-Creole, French, Spanish, etc.), unstressed vowels retain the same value as when stressed. Hence, your students will have to learn to pronounce unstressed vowels (represented by the symbol [ə] on the English vowel chart) with the neutral vowel. Keep in mind that the best kind of English to teach your students is that kind that is most natural. Do not pronounce each syllable so distinctively that you do not reduce all unstressed vowels to the neutral vowel. Your students will have to learn to comprehend spoken English -- neutral vowels and all.

In some of the lessons, we have indicated that you should probably not insist on perfection in your students' production of a particular sound. Your overall goal should be to make their pronunciation easily understandable by native English-speakers, and to see to it that they understand normally spoken English. Some sounds -- notably the th sound in thy -- are not worth the time it takes to teach perfect pronunciation; if your students can hear English th correctly, and consistently produce something that is an understandable substitute for th, there is probably no need to spend the necessary time getting them to produce th perfectly.

Keep in mind that teaching pronunciation is not the same thing as teaching spelling. Students should not be expected to learn the spellings of words until they have learned what the words mean. The purpose of a pronunciation lesson is to teach a sound contrast of some type. The words used in such lessons are not meant to be learned as vocabulary items. If you look at Lesson One, you will quickly discover that it contains such items as rend, woed, rue, etc. These are not particularly useful items to learn per se. There is disagreement among ESL specialists on the advisability of asking students to repeat words and sentences if the students do not know their meanings. Some people feel that using language in such a manner is unnatural -- we usually don't use language without meaning. However, an adult learning a second language is engaging in an unusual activity. The task of learning language is accomplished in early childhood, not adulthood. Thus, the learning of a second language in adulthood is tinged with artificiality. Learning to make sound contrasts by using words whose meaning is not to be learned is simply one more artificial activity that we must contend with if we want to learn a second language as quickly as possible -- certainly the Haitian entrant does
not have 4 to 6 years to learn English in as 'natural' a way as possible. In fact, you will probably find that your students will be relieved not to have to bother with meanings when they are trying to focus on pronunciation. Likewise, they should not have to bother with meanings when they are learning spelling -- they should have learned the meanings prior to being introduced to the spelling.

One final point. Although your pronunciation of English is an appropriate model for your students to follow, they are apt to run into people who speak a different form of English from yours. There are significant differences between individuals who speak the same geographic dialect. Your students will have to be exposed to other forms of spoken English than just yours. This exposure, however, should be controlled in order to serve as a learning experience. Ways that this might be done include:

- tape-record a commercial off the radio (you might want to teach the vocabulary contained therein);
- tape-record an item in the evening news;
- have a friend tape one of your lessons;
- invite a friend in to read a passage containing familiar language to your students; invite several friends who might have distinct differences in their speech from yours;
- teach your students a popular song, then bring in a recording of the song and have your students' compare your pronunciation with the singer's;
- record part of a newspaper article and compare your pronunciation to the pronunciation of a friend who will have recorded the same selection.

The object of all these activities is simply to allow exposure to different forms of spoken English. This will help bridge the gap between the classroom and the 'outside world'.
Haitian-Creole Orthography

While it is true that Haitian-Creole is not often written, it does not follow that the language lacks an orthography. Several orthographies have been proposed and recently one was selected by the Haitian government for use in schools in Haiti. This orthography is described in Aprann Li Krevol by Iv Dejan. What follows is a brief sketch of what can be regarded as the official orthography for Haitian-Creole.

The written form of Haitian-Creole is highly consistent. There is a regular correspondence between sound and letter -- much more so than for Spanish or Italian. The letters are based on the Roman alphabet and writing conventions adapted from the French are followed (the written system goes form left-to-right, etc.).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LETTER</th>
<th>PHONETIC VALUE</th>
<th>HAITIAN-CREOLE WORD</th>
<th>HAITIAN-CREOLE WORD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>IN ORTHOGRAPHIC FORM</td>
<td>IN PHONETIC TRANSCRIPTION</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>[a]</td>
<td>ak 'with'</td>
<td>[ak]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>[b]</td>
<td>tab 'table'</td>
<td>[tab]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CH</td>
<td>[sh]</td>
<td>chat 'cat'</td>
<td>[shat]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>[d] or [dz]</td>
<td>dlo 'water'</td>
<td>[dlo]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>[e]</td>
<td>jwe 'play'</td>
<td>[zhwe]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>È (è)</td>
<td>[e]</td>
<td>fè 'do, make'</td>
<td>[fe]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>[f]</td>
<td>fi 'daughter'</td>
<td>[fi]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>[g]</td>
<td>gen 'have'</td>
<td>[gâ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>[i]</td>
<td>wit 'eight'</td>
<td>[wit]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J</td>
<td>[zh]</td>
<td>jam 'never'</td>
<td>[zhâm]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K</td>
<td>[k]</td>
<td>kò 'house'</td>
<td>[kây]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L</td>
<td>[l]</td>
<td>lènn 'wool'</td>
<td>[lênn]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>[m]</td>
<td>moun 'someone'</td>
<td>[mûn]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>[n]</td>
<td>nò 'north'</td>
<td>[nô]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O</td>
<td>[o]</td>
<td>zèl 'wing'</td>
<td>[zêl]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ò (ò)</td>
<td>[o]</td>
<td>kòk 'rooster'</td>
<td>[kôk]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P</td>
<td>[p]</td>
<td>pè 'father'</td>
<td>[pê]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R</td>
<td>[y] or [w]</td>
<td>mari 'husband'</td>
<td>[mâyî]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>[s]</td>
<td>rou 'wheel'</td>
<td>[wu]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T</td>
<td>[t] or [ts]</td>
<td>dus 'sweet'</td>
<td>[dûs]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>tab 'table'</td>
<td>[tab]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U (ou)</td>
<td>[u]</td>
<td>Ayiti 'Haiti'</td>
<td>[ayîtsî]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>[w]</td>
<td>dute 'doubt'</td>
<td>[dûtê]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W</td>
<td>[j]</td>
<td>vwa 'voice'</td>
<td>[vwa]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Y</td>
<td>[y]</td>
<td>fwi 'fruit'</td>
<td>[fwi]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Z</td>
<td>[z]</td>
<td>yè 'yesterday'</td>
<td>[yè]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes

1. H only occurs in combination with C (CH), C only occurs in combination with H; U only occurs in combination with O to form the vowel OU [u].
2. Nasalization is indicated by a sequence of VOWEL + N: bon: [bɔ̃], fren: [frɛ̃], tan: [tã]. If a word ends in [n] and not a nasal vowel, then the orthographic requires doubling of the n: venn: [ven]; genn: [gen] vs. gen: [gẽ]. The official orthographic system is not entirely consistent when it comes to the representation of /n/.

3. DJ is used for [j]: djøb [job]; TCh is used for [ch]. It is not clear how [n] is to be represented in this orthographic system.
Some Syntactic and Morphological Considerations

Haitian-Creole and English share many syntactic characteristics. However, there are some striking differences that may have pedagogical consequences. For those readers interested in Haitian-Creole grammar, it is advised that they consult Basic Course in Haitian Creole, by Albert Valdman (1970). What follows is a sketch of some of the more salient differences between English and Haitian-Creole morphology/syntax.

1. The definite article in Haitian-Creole is placed after the noun and has various forms:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Haitian-Creole</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bèf-la</td>
<td>'the cow'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lang-nan</td>
<td>'the language'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sè-a</td>
<td>'the sister'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>chen-an</td>
<td>'the dog'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bèf-yo</td>
<td>'the cows'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lang-yo</td>
<td>'the languages'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sè-yo</td>
<td>'the sisters'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-chen-yo</td>
<td>'the dogs'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Apart from the occurrence of the definite article after the noun, note that the noun does not have a plural form per se. Plurality, in the above examples, is indicated by postposing the plural form of the definite article. It can be expected that some of your Haitian-Creole speakers will encounter problems with the position of the definite article in English, and will also encounter problems with the plural marking in English, since English marks plurality independently of the definite article. In general, plurality is not indicated in the same situations in Haitian-Creole as in English. Special care should be taken in introducing the plural suffix in English in order to avoid its being identified as a form of the definite article in English. Plural marking in English should prove one of the more difficult items that your students will encounter in learning English.

2. The indefinite article in Haitian-Creole is youn in the singular and zero (that is, no mark is used) in the plural and is placed before the noun:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Haitian-Creole</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Li gen youn sak.</td>
<td>'He has a bag.'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Li gen sak.</td>
<td>'He has bags.'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Li pa gen sak.</td>
<td>'He doesn't have any bags.'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As noted above, the noun in Haitian-Creole is invariant and no special plural forms occurs. Note that youn before a noun corresponds to English 'a(n)'; zero (no form) before a noun corresponds to English 'some', 'any' or zero:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Haitian-Creole</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Li gen sak.</td>
<td>'He has bags' or 'He has some bags.'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Li pa gen sak.</td>
<td>'He doesn't have any bags.'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In general, the indefinite article in English will not be a serious problem, but the marking of the noun in the plural form will be a particular problem, resulting in such forms as '*He has bag' or '*He doesn't have (any) bag.' English 'some and 'any' will also be problems for the English-learner since
Haitian-Creole does not have any particles or forms corresponding to these forms of the indefinite article.

3. The demonstrative adjectives this/these and that/those are serious problems for the learner of English. Haitian-Creole has the following forms:

- bêf-sa-a 'this (that) cow'
- bêf-sa-yo 'these (those) cows'

Notice that the suffix -sa is attached to the noun, and the definite article occurs after the -sa suffix. Together, -sa and -a (the form of the definite article that occurs after a vowel) correspond to English this and that. Apart from the fact that in Haitian-Creole the demonstrative adjective is formed by suffixation while in English a special form is placed before the noun, the distinction between this/that is not obligatory in Haitian-Creole (as is the case in Standard French). This means that your students will most likely have problems in learning to use this/that and these/those correctly in English.

4. Subject, object and possessive pronouns in English will be a particular problem for your students for two main reasons: (a) the pronoun is invariant in Haitian-Creole, and (b) no gender distinction is made in Haitian-Creole. For example, yo corresponds to English they/them/their. The position of the pronoun in the sentence indicates the grammatical function it has. In English, the position and form determine the grammatical function:

- Yo vini jodi-a. 'They came today.'
- Nou wè-yo. 'We see them.'
- lèt-yo 'their letter'

Yo before a verb indicates a subject ('they'), after a verb an object ('them') and after a noun a possessor ('their'). The various forms of the pronouns in English will be a source of problems for your students. Since gender distinction does not occur in Haitian-Creole, the following English forms will all correspond to li in Haitian-Creole: he/him/his, she/her/hers, it/it/its. The distinction made in English between he/she/it will be a problem, as well as the various forms these take in English.

5. The equivalents in Haitian-Creole of English sentences containing the verb BE followed by either an adjectival phrase or an adverbial phrase lack forms corresponding to English BE. For example:

- Mouen las. 'I (am) tired.'
- Yo an mache. 'They (are) at the market.'

This will result in the following types of errors in English:

- *I tired.'
- *They at the market.'
6. In sentences where English has BE followed by a noun phrase, Haitian-Creole uses the particle se: Li se youn chofè. 'He is a driver.' The structures are similar enough so that in general such structures in English will not pose a serious problem with one important exception. Where English has it as a subject pronoun in such structures, Haitian-Creole has zero:

Se youn machin. 'It's a machine.'

In such cases, one can expect the following error to occur: '*Is a machine.'

7. Haitian-Creole verbs are invariant in form. Tense is indicated by the presence of a particle that is placed before the verb. The three particles are: ap (used to indicate continuative action), te (used to indicate past tense [past perfective]) and a (used to indicate futurity). These particles can occur in various combinations. Present tense is generally indicated by the lack of any particle before the verb. Hence, the following combinations can occur as stylistics variants):

- zero - verb: mouen manje 'I ate, eat, usually eat'
- ap - verb: mouen ap manje 'I am eating'
- te - verb: mouen te manje 'I have eaten'
- a - verb: mouen a manje 'I will eat'
- te - ap - verb: mouen te ap manje 'I used to eat'
- te - a - verb: mouen t'a manje 'I would eat'

Some additional forms not listed above also occur. In general, most English tenses can be rendered in Haitian-Creole via the use of particles that are placed before the verb. Since English uses both suffixation and auxiliary verbs, the learner of English will encounter some difficulties in learning the English verb system. This is particularly true where English has irregular verb morphonology (e.g., sing-sang-sung, cut-cit-cut, see-saw-seen, etc.).

8. Negation in Haitian-Creole is expressed by placing the negative particle pa before tense particles (if any) and the verb [the predicate]:

Mouen pa tas. 'I am not tired'
Yo pa nan mache. 'They are not at the market.'
Yo pa te malad. 'They weren't ill.'

Negation in English is rather complex. With auxiliary verbs (verbs such as BE, HAVE, and modals such as CAN, MAY, etc.), the negative particle n't (not) occurs after: I am not here; I can't go; I haven't gone yet. With other verbs, the negative particle is placed before the verb, attached to the tense carrier DO:

I arrived yesterday. I didn't arrive yesterday.

The forms of negation in English will require special attention given the complexity involved.
9. Questions in Haitian-Creole can be formed either by intonation (the voice rises at the end of the sentence), or by placing an interrogative particle at the beginning of the sentence:

Èske yo nan mache? Are they at the market?

Negative yes-no questions are formed by placing apa at the beginning of sentence:

Apa yo nan mache? Aren't they at the market?

Information questions (wh-questions) are formed by placing the interrogative particle ki at the front of the sentence followed by the noun being questioned:

Ki moun te nan mache? Who ('what person') was at the market?

English has a rather complex system of information question formation. What is important for us to notice is that in English the relative order of the items in the declarative form of the sentence may be changed around when the information question is formed: You bought something at the market. What did you buy at the market? You were home last night. Where were you last night?

Word order remains invariant in Haitian-Creole. Your students will probably find the different word-ordering changes in English a particular problem.

10. The direct object in Haitian-Creole follows the verb in Haitian-Creole, as in English. The indirect object in Haitian-Creole precedes the direct object:

Li montre timoun-yo liv-la. 'He showed the book to the children.'

Notice that in English, where pronouns are involved, the indirect object can either occur before the direct object, or after the direct object if marked by a preposition such as to:

He showed them the book. He showed the book to them.

In Haitian-Creole, the order has to be indirect-direct:

Li montre yo liv-la. He showed them the book.

The two ways of indicating an indirect object in English will be a source of problems for your English-learner.
Lesson One

[r] and [w]

red
rue
rake
rate
ripe
rose
rude
row
ray
Rick
run
rend
room
ring

wed
woo
wake
wait
wipe
woes
woed
woe
way
wick
cue
wend
womb
wing

ring
broken ring
He found a broken ring.

rued his fortune
The man rued his fortune.

The red book is part of the set.
He will wed the girl he wooed.
Rick wiped the tables.
Rake the garden!
Wake up, it's time to go to school!
Rick was very rude.
There is a worm in the wood.

Notes

1. Haitian-Creole [r] is pronounced quite differently from English [r].
Haitian-Creole [r] before a vowel is produced at the back of the mouth or like a [w] (especially before a rounded vowel like [o] and [u]). English [r] (before a vowel) is generally made by curling back the tip of the tongue. You might want to show how this is done by drawing a picture of the tongue-tip being curled back.

2. English [r] has a certain amount of rounding, but English always distinguishes between [r] and [w]. In word-initial position, your students may not be able to distinguish between English [r] and [w]. You will have your students learn to first near the difference between [r] and [w] in English.
Lesson Two

[r] in word-final position and before a consonant

bar

bored
tar

port
bear

worse
wear

worn
beer

cart
rear

arch
boar

arc
war

mark
roar

harm
rare

horn
wear

carp
better

cork
later

barb
sadder

board
rarer

bird
soar

hurt
doar

sort

Listen to the roar of the boar.
Bert was bored with the party.
Mark feared war.
Martha likes her steak rare.
Beer is served at a bar.
Norman hurt the small bird.
Carl stood on a ladder.
Mister Farley wrote on the blackboard.

Notes

1. Haitian-Creole words do not end in [r], thus English words ending with [r] will present a new sound in a new environment for your students. Many English-speakers do not pronounce [r] at the end of words, for example in car, bore, etc. Teach your students to pronounce word-final 'r' according to the way you pronounce such words as bear, war, etc.

2. Many Haitian-Creole speakers have a centering glide instead of [r] in such Haitian-Creole words port 'door'. For such speakers, learning how to pronounce English [r] before consonants is a relatively low priority problem since the sound substitution such speakers tend to make sounds like a similar sound in many English dialects. However, some Haitian-Creole speakers may lack any 'r' sound before consonants. In such a case, you will have to teach your students to pronounce the 'r' sound before consonants in such words as board, cart, etc., according to your own pronunciation.
**Lesson Three**

[θ] and [s]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>[θ] as in thank</th>
<th>[s] as in sank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>thick</td>
<td>sick</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thin</td>
<td>sin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thought</td>
<td>sought</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bath</td>
<td>bass</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>math</td>
<td>mass</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>myth</td>
<td>miss</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thor</td>
<td>sore</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>theme</td>
<td>seem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>think</td>
<td>sink</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thing</td>
<td>sing</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

he thinks  
When he is busy, he thinks.

math  
for math
He was late for math.

Thank you for the myth.
The theme was very silly.
He seems to be sinking.
He seems to be thinking.
I thought he sought the truth.
I thought he sought the truce.
There was a bass in the bathtub.
Thor was sore at all the sins.

**Notes**

1. The sound [θ] is absent in Haitian-Creole. Your students will tend to substitute the sound [s] for English [θ]. You should try to correct this type of bilingual interference fairly soon. Demonstrate to your students that the [θ] sound is made by placing the tip of the tongue between the teeth. Some of your students may substitute [t] for the English [θ]. In this case, you should carry out Lesson Four for such students.

2. Many of your students will substitute [t] for [θ] in such words as three, etc. Lesson Four contains drills for this problem.
Lesson Four

[θ] , [s] and [t]

[θ] as in thank

thighs
thank
thick
myth
bath
kith
path
math

[s] as in sank

sighs
sank
sick
miss
bass
kiss
pass
mass

[t] as in tank

ties
tank
tick
mitt
bat
kit
pat
mat

tree
trash
tread
trill
trów

mouth
a big mouth
What a big mouth!

theme.
a good theme
It's a good theme.

It's unthinkable.

The path was open.
The pass was open.
Where's the booth?
Where's the boot?
He thought all day.
He sought all day.

I thought Tom's birthday was last week.
Ruth is too thin.
Sid was singing in the bathtub.
Sam wants some rice.
Sam wrote three themes.
Thank you for the bat and mitt.
Beth planted three trees.

Notes

1. Notice that the [θ] sound in thigh is not the same sound as th in thy.

2. [θ] does not occur in Haitian-Creole. Most speakers will substitute [s] for [θ]; some may substitute [t].
Lesson Five

[θ] as in then
[z] as in zen

ey
their
the
them
this
that
these
those
father
mother
brother
lathe
bathe
seethe

bathe
lathe

They’re my brother.
Those were the days.
This is my father.
The zoo is very far away.
We talked about the weather.
Their red roses are quite pretty.
This zone is for parking.

Notes

1. English [θ] and [z] do not contrast in many words. The sound [θ] does not occur in Haitian-Creole. Your students will most likely substitute [z] for English [θ]. Given that [θ] and [z] do not contrast often in English, the substitute of [z] for [θ] should not be seen as a high priority problem. It does constitute bilingual interference and you should teach your students to pronounce [θ] at some point.

2. English [θ] is pronounced in the same place as English [θ]: with the tip of the tongue between the teeth. The difference between [θ] and [θ] is that [θ] is voiceless, while [θ] is voiced (that is, the vocal cords do not vibrate during the production of [θ] but do for the production of [θ]).
Lesson Six
Find [m], [n] and [ng]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>[m]</th>
<th>[n]</th>
<th>[ng]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ham</td>
<td>clan</td>
<td>hang</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clam</td>
<td>clan</td>
<td>clang</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tan</td>
<td>tan</td>
<td>king</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kim</td>
<td>kin</td>
<td>long</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>them</td>
<td>then</td>
<td>thing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ram</td>
<td>thin</td>
<td>thing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rum</td>
<td>ran</td>
<td>rang</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sum</td>
<td>run</td>
<td>rung</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dim</td>
<td>sun</td>
<td>sung</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>swum</td>
<td>din</td>
<td>ding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>swim</td>
<td>dun</td>
<td>swung</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dumb</td>
<td>Jan</td>
<td>swing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>jam</td>
<td>ton</td>
<td>tongue</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

clam
the clam
The clam was noisy.

Kim
our Kim
Our Kim came home

Notes

1. Haitian-Creole has [m] and [n] in both word-initial and word-final positions. English [ng] will represent a new sound for many of your students since such a sound does not occur in all Haitian-Creole dialects. Not only will some of your students have to learn to pronounce a new sound, but they will have to learn to contrast it with both [m] and [n] in English. This is a rather important distinction to learn and should rate high on your list of priorities.

2. There is a rather complex set of rules that create nasalized vowels in Haitian-Creole whenever a nasal such as [m] or [n] occur at the end of a syllable. These rules, if carried over into English, will cause nasalized vowels to occur in words such as ground, sitting (in both vowels), etc. These should be a relatively low-level problem and little or no time should be spent on correcting such 'intrusive' nasalization.

3. In some descriptions of Haitian-Creole, one sees a sound symbolized as [ŋ]. This is not the same sound as in Spanish señor, but rather represents a nasalized [y] sound. Since such a sound does not occur in English, it will not be a source of problems for the English-learner.
Lesson Seven

[e] and [ə]

[e] as in set

pen
bed
said
left
letter
guess
men
ten
beg
wreck
met
kept
mess
led
lend
bend

[ə] as in sat

pan
bad
sad
laughed
latter
gas
man
tan
bag
rack
mat
capped
mass
lad
land
band

pen.
the pen
The pen is dirty.

men
the men
Call the men!

left
They left.

Send the letter to that man.
They laughed and I left.

He wants some gas. I guess.
Say something glad, not sad.

This is a bad bed.
Pan said she was sad.

The pen is dirty.
The pan is dirty.

man
the man
Call the man!

laughed
They laughed

He said he was sad.
The sad cat looked very fat.
Betty said she was glad.
The Man kept the bag.
Ken can do it.
The bank lends money for land.

Notes

1. Haitian-Creole has a vowel rather similar to English [e]. There is no vowel similar to English [ə] in Haitian Creole; in fact, [ə] is produced midway between Haitian-Creole [e] and [a]. This means that sometimes the English vowel [ə] sounds similar to English [e], at other times it might sound similar to English [ə] to your students. This will be a difficult contrast for many of your students to master, but it is an important one to do so.

2. Some English-speakers pronounce [ə] as a type of diphthong (compare the pronunciation of bad by a native New Yorker living in the Bronx or Brooklyn). In such a case, the vowel [ə] will not be a particular problem in identification for your students, although the production of such a vowel will still be a bit of a problem. However you might pronounce English [ə], be sure you teach that pronunciation to your students.
Lesson Eight

[a] and [a]

[a] as in hot

hot
rot
pop
top
con
Don
John
sod
sop
mob
mop
mod

Don
That's Don.
mop
a new mop
There's a new mop here.

[a] as in hat

hat
rat
pap
tap
can
Dan
Jan
sad
sap
Mab
map
mad

Dan
That's Dan.
map
a new map
There's a new map here.

John told Jan to wear a hat.
Ron ran home
It's too hot to wear a hat.
Tap the top of the window.
The cat chased the rat.
Sam likes hot popcorn.
Dan was mad because a rat ate his hat.
There was a mad mob in front of the bank.
Jan sobbed when she found her cat eating a mop.

Notes

1. The English vowel [a] is produced midway between Haitian-Creole [ɛ] and [a]. Because of this, your students will sometimes identify English [a] as either similar to Haitian-Creole [ɛ] or [a]. The distinctions between English [ɛ], [a] and [a] are important and should be taught rather early.

2. As noted before, some American pronounce [a] as a diphthong. If you pronounce [a] as a diphthong, you should teach your students your pronunciation.
Lesson Nine

[u:] and [u]

[u:] as in pool

pool
fool
suit
cooed
Luke
wooed

du] as in pull

pull
full
soot
could
look
wood

Yes, she cooed.
Would you care to? Yes, I would.
She stewed it for an hour.
He got pulled into the pool.
The white suit has some soot.

1. A. What’s Sue doing?
   B. She’s looking for her boots.

2. A. Would you put on this suit?
   B. I would, if I could.

3. A. Should I clean the pool?
   B. The sooner you do it, the better

4. A. What does Luke look like in his new suit?
   B. He looks like a fool.

Notes

1. [u] as in pull does not occur in Haitian-Creole. Your students will confuse it with the vowel in pool or even the vowel in pup. In general, the vowel will sound like Haitian-Creole [u] to your students. Your students will find it difficult at first to distinguish English [u] from English [uw].

2. This is one of those pronunciation problems that should be attended to after other contrasts have been mastered. Do not spend a lot of time on this distinction. The [u] - [uw] distinction in English has a relatively low functional load---that is, not too many words can be contrasted with just this vocalic difference.
Lesson Ten

[ə], [e], and [a]

[ə] as in band

add
band
axe
can
rack
sad
laughed
bag
mass
bat
ran

Dan

rack
a rack

They found a rack in the lab.

[e] as in bend

Ed
bend
ex
Ken
wreck
said
left
beg
mess
bet
wren
den

wreck
a wreck

They found a wreck in the lab.

[a] as in bond

odd
bond
ox
con
rock
sod
loft
bog
moss
bot
Ron
Don

rock
a rock
The found a rock in the lab.

He avoided a wreck.
He made a big racket.
She was very bland.
Step over here.
He was embarrassed to bag.
The mouse was in the bag.
Dan ran into Ron's den.

Notes

1. A. Where's the black cat?
   B. It's under Ed's cot in the den.

2. A. Did you pack your floppy black hat?
   B. No, you can't pack a hat in a knapsack.

3. A. Stan dropped the can of pop.
   B. Ken, get me the mop in the lab.

4. A. Did Ed think it was odd to add the numbers?
   B. No, but he laughed when he left the loft.

1. Your students should not have any problems identifying and pronouncing [e] and [ə] since such sounds occur in Haitian-Creole (or at least sufficiently similar to sounds in Haitian-Creole).

2. The main problem your students will have is in distinguishing between [ə], [e], and [a]. The sound [ə] does not occur in Haitian-Creole. This is an important distinction that your students will have to learn and is worth spending time on teaching it.
Lesson Eleven

[i] and [iy]

[i] as in bit

bit
mitt
rid
tin
live
strict
lid
bin
dim
gin
hip
Tim
bid

sheep
a big sheep
It's a big sheep.

[iy] as in beat

beat
meat
read
teen
leave
streaked
lead
bean
deeen
Gene
heap
team
bead

ship
A big ship
It's a big ship.

lid
the lid
We took the lid.

lead
the lead
We took the lead.

He's sleeping. He's slipping.
Can you feel it? Can you fill it?
He's leaving. He's living.
Jim bit the dog. Jim beat the dog.

Is this drill difficult? No, it's easy.
How many figs did you eat?
He's eating peaches.
I need a dish for the meat.
Can you reach it?
Gene does not like to drink gin.
Tim joined the team.
There are two pounds of beans in the bin.
Jim bid twenty dollars for the glass beads.

Notes

1. The vowel [i] as in bit does not occur in Haitian-Creole. This English vowel will sound like the Haitian-Creole vowel [i] (which sound like English [iy] to English-speakers). Consequently, you can expect your students to have difficulty in distinguishing and producing the English vowels [i] and [iy]. This distinction is rather important in English and the time teaching the difference between [i] and [iy] is worth the time. Plan on returning to this exercise several times.
Lesson Twelve
[iy], [i] and [e]

[iy] as in beet

beat
peak
scene
leafed
reach
neat
feel
meet
cheat
teen
peen
ream
reek

[i] as in bit

bit
pick
sin
lift
rich
knit
fill
matt
chit
tin
pin
rim
Rick

[e] as in bet

bet
peck
send
left
wretch
net
fell
met
Chet
tan
pan
rem
wreck

beat
beat it.
He beat it.

bit
bit it.
He bit it.

sin
sin

What a sin!

left
left it.
We left it.

We fed the sheep.
Don't slip on the deck of the ship.

Notes

1. As noted in earlier lessons, English [i] and [iy] will be a serious problem for many of your students. Compounding the problem for many of your students will be the English vowel [e]. Haitian-Creole has a vowel [e] that is fairly close to English [i] and [ey]; English [e], on the other hand is close to Haitian-Creole [e]. What all of these vowel similarities mean is that some of your students may have problems distinguishing among English [i], [iy] and [e]. If your students do not have problems with these particular contrasts, you can skip this lesson.
Lesson Thirteen

[a] as in cot and [ʌ] as in cut

[a]  
cot
cod
cop
cob
Don
dock
sop
Ron
wan
por
bot
rob

[ʌ]  
cut
cud
cup
cub
done
duck
sup
run
won
putt
but
rub

the dock
near the dock
The boat was near the dock.

rob
to rob
to rob the gold
The king wants to rob the gold.

Don has done his homework.
Ron likes to run.
He cut the cot with a knife.
The cub ate the cob.
He used a pot to putt in.
John likes to eat cod for supper.

Notes

1. The vowel [ʌ] does not occur in oral form in Haitian-Creole (there is a nasalized form of /a/ that is similar to English [ʌ] in terms of height and fronting, but the English vowel is generally not nasalized). It will tend to be confused with English [a]. Your students will have to learn to both distinguish [a] and [ʌ] as well as to produce [ʌ] consistently.
Lesson Fourteen

[\^] and [ow]

[\^]
cut  [ow]  coat
but  boat
mutt  moat
bun  bone
rust  roast
dust  phone
cup  cope
rub  robe
mud  mode
nut  note
rut  wrote
puck  poke
ton  tone
dumb  dome
come  comb

nut  note
the nut  the note
the nut on the table  the note on the table
He left the nut on the table.  He left the note on the table.

bun  bone
a bun  a bone
found a bun  found a bone
The dog found a bun.  The dog found a bone.

He thought he had found rust on the roast.
The teacher said that the dome was dumb.
The boy liked to have fun with the phone.
The kid threw the mutt into the moat.
She cut her coat with a nail.
He wrote me saying he was in a rut.

Note

1. Some of your students may tend to identify the English vowel [\^] with the vowel [ow]. The English vowel [\^] is close to both Haitian-Creole [o] and [a]. This is a distinction that your students will have to master and the time spent learning it is well-worth it.
Lesson Fifteen
[t] before [i] or [iy]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>tea</th>
<th>teed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tin</td>
<td>team</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tick</td>
<td>teen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>teak</td>
<td>tear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tease</td>
<td>tinker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tip</td>
<td>tingle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>till</td>
<td>city</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tim</td>
<td>meaty</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Tim likes sugar in his tea.
They cheered the city's team.
The clock was ticking.
The tip of the iceberg is high.
He is a teenager.

Notes

1. Haitian-Creole /t/ is pronounced like [ts] before the vowel [i]: Aviti [ayitsi] This rule will carry over into English and will cause teen to be pronounced [tsiyn]. If English-speakers could distinguish between word-initial [ts] and [s], this would not be too much of a problem, except that word-initial [ts] sounds like [s] to most English-speakers. Hence, teen pronounced as [tsiyn] will be interpreted by English-speakers as scene [siyn]. While the source for the problem in English is easy to see, it will be rather difficult for your students to master the pronunciation of English [t] before [i] and [iy] at first. You will return to this several times.

2. This lesson is not focussing on a sound contrast in English. It focusses on a single type of potential sound problem. You might try getting your students to hear the difference between initial [ts] and [s] if you 'imitate' their error in pronouncing English [t] before [i] and [iy]. If you can get your students to distinguish between your usual pronunciation and the imitated one, they will be on their way to correcting the problem. However, you had better be sure that you can produce a word-initial [ts] and that you do make a difference between [ts] and [s] when pronouncing and imitation the pronunciation of teak.
Lesson Sixteen

[ð], [d], and [z]

[ð] as in that
then
breathe
soothe
bathe
they
their

[d] as in day
den
breed
sued
bayed
day
dare

[z] as in zoo
Zen
breeze
Sue's
bays
Zayre

breed
breed quickly
Rabbits breed quickly.
breathe
breathe quickly
Rabbits breathe quickly.

D's are bad marks.
The baby is teething.

These are bad marks.
The baby is teasing.

Bill's a little under the weather.
David and Louise loathe used clothes.
They like those things.
They don't dare go there.
The cool breeze was soothing.
The lion dozed in his den.

Notes

1. English [ð] is a new sound for your students. The nearest sounds in Haitian-Creole to English [ð] are [z] and [d]. Most of your students will tend to substitute [z] for English [ð]; some, however, may substitute [d].

2. The sound [ð] occurs in few words in English, but most of these words are of extremely high frequency (for example, the words the, there, they, them, thus, etc.). Consequently, this sound is a relatively important one to learn, but of rather low priority since this sound occurs in few words, and most of these words are contextually identifiable even if not pronounced correctly.
Lesson Seventeen

Final Consonant Clusters with [s]

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[ps]</td>
<td>[ts]</td>
<td>[ks]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cup/cups</td>
<td>cat/cats</td>
<td>walk/walks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>type/types</td>
<td>fit/fits</td>
<td>tick/ticks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>top/tops</td>
<td>boot/boots</td>
<td>sack/sacks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wipe/wipes</td>
<td>wait/waits</td>
<td>book/books</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[fs]</td>
<td>[θs]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cuff/cuffs</td>
<td>path/paths</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cough/coughs</td>
<td>myth/myths</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>laugh/laughs</td>
<td>death/deaths</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>roof/roofs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

He washed the cup.
She hit the baby.
It's Walt.

He washed the cups.
She hits the baby.
It's Walt's., etc.

Notes

1. In this lesson and the following one, we present the consonant clusters that come up with the English plurals (cup/cups), possessives (cat/cat's), present tense forms (wait/waits) and contractions (that/that's). These word-final clusters tend to be a problem for Haitian-Creole speaking learners of English since Haitian-Creole has few word-final clusters of any kind.

2. You might wish to treat the pronunciation of these consonant clusters at the same time you teach the plural forms, etc. Keep in mind that English has three pronunciations for the plural suffix -s: [s] as in cats, [z] as in dogs, and [iz] as in boxes. In presenting the plural suffix, first teach words that take the form [s] for the plural suffix, then the words that take [z], finally, teach those words that take [iz]:
   - [-s]: bat, cat, pop, pip, tip, cake, cup, rack, etc.;
   - [-z]: cad, lab, rib, rig, rag, lid, lug, car, etc.;
   - [-iz]: box, church, dish, match, judge, cage, sage, etc.

3. Don't go by the spelling of the plural suffix. Note how -es is pronounced in the following words: mates cases churches caves

   [s]    [iz]    [iz]    [z]
### Lesson Eighteen

**Final Consonant Clusters with [z]**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>[bz]</th>
<th>[dz]</th>
<th>[gz]</th>
<th>[vs]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>cab/cabs</td>
<td>bed/beds</td>
<td>bag/bags</td>
<td>love/loves</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mob/mobs</td>
<td>kid/kids</td>
<td>dig/digs</td>
<td>give/gives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gab/gabs</td>
<td>need/needs</td>
<td>egg/eggs</td>
<td>save/saves</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bib/bibs</td>
<td>read/reads</td>
<td>Greg/Greg's</td>
<td>olive/olives</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>[z]</th>
<th>[mz]</th>
<th>[nz]</th>
<th>[ngs]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bathe/bathes</td>
<td>swim/swims</td>
<td>son/sons</td>
<td>king/kings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>breathe/breathes</td>
<td>lime/limes</td>
<td>pan/pan's</td>
<td>wing/wings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clothe/clothes</td>
<td>come/comes</td>
<td>Anne/Anne's</td>
<td>gang/gangs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lathe/lathes</td>
<td>jam/jams</td>
<td>run/runs</td>
<td>song/songs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>[rz]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>car/cars</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>chair/chairs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sister/sisters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tear/tears</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The bar closed early.
He sold the chair.
It's Anne.

The bars closed early.
He sold the chairs.
It's Anne's, etc.

### Note

1. Haitian-Creole has very few word-final consonant clusters. Hence, the clusters ending with [z] may represent a problem for many of your students. Many of your students may attempt to simplify the cluster, especially by deleting the consonant that occurs before the final [z]. These clusters are important to learn and should be practiced several times with your students.
Lesson Nineteen

Final Consonant Clusters with [d]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>[bd]</th>
<th>[gd]</th>
<th>[jd]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>rob/robbed</td>
<td>beg/begged</td>
<td>damage/damaged</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bribe/bribed</td>
<td>sag/sagged</td>
<td>rage/raged</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sob/sobbed</td>
<td>mug/mugged</td>
<td>age/aged</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rub/rubbed</td>
<td>nag/nagged</td>
<td>rummage/rummaged</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>[vd]</th>
<th>[d]</th>
<th>[zd]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>live/lived</td>
<td>smooth/smoothed</td>
<td>use/used</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>save/saved</td>
<td>breathe/breathed</td>
<td>close/closed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>heave/heaved</td>
<td>teethe/teethed</td>
<td>raise/raised</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>slave/slaved</td>
<td>soothe/soothed</td>
<td>refuse/refused</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>[md]</th>
<th>[nd]</th>
<th>[ngd]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>seem/seemed</td>
<td>listen/listened</td>
<td>bang/banged</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>name/named</td>
<td>dine/dined</td>
<td>hang/hanged</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>climb/climbed</td>
<td>open/opened</td>
<td>wing/winged</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bomb/bombed</td>
<td>sing/signed</td>
<td>long/longed</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

They listen to the records.  
We raise our children.  
They sign the paper.  
They listened to the records.  
We raised our children.  
They signed the paper.  etc.

Notes

1. As mentioned earlier, word-final clusters do not occur readily in Haitian-Creole. Consequently, the word-final clusters created by adding the past tense suffix to the verb will present a problem to your students.

2. Many of your students will attempt to simplify the word-final clusters by deleting the final [d]. It will take time to master these clusters. Be patient.