A. Previous Research

1. The study was conducted by the student of IAIN Walisongo, Dewi Septianti (Student Number: 3105078), by the title, “Correlation Between Frequency of Listening to English Song and Pronunciation Performance of The Second Year Students of SMP N 36 Semarang in the Academic Year of 2009/2010. This study shows that frequency of students’ listening to English songs (X) has 23,27 category in interval 25-29 with frequency 30%. While students’ pronunciation performance (Y) has 2,6 category in interval 3 with frequency 46,7%. Frequency listening to English songs (X) has a positive correlation with Students’ pronunciation performance (Y). because the correlation coefficient is 0.904 with “high” category in interval 0.90-1.00.

2. This study was conducted by Emad M Al-Saidat from Al-Hussein bin Talal University Jordan, by the tittle “Phonological Analysis of English Phonotactics: A case study of Arab Learners of English”. This study aimed to analyze the English phonotactics in the English of Arab Learners of English to determine the types of pronunciation difficulties they encounter. The result of the study showed that some
English syllable structures pose pronunciation difficulties and it also showed some procedures to overcome the difficulties.

3. The effect of students listening hobby in English song toward their pronunciation Ability The eleventh Grade at SMA I Karang Tengah Demak in the Academic Year 2006/2007. It was conducted by Yuniarti (03420347), the students of English Education Department of Language and Art Education Faculty. This study focused to find out whether or not there is significant effect of the students hobby in listening to English song toward pronunciation ability or not. This study used regression analysis as the method and cluster random sampling as technique sampling.

The first previous research correlate the frequency of listening and pronunciation performance. And this study tried to find out the influence of students’ achievement of phonology toward their Pronunciation. It used regression analysis to find out the influence of these two variables.

This research also different from the second previous research because it was descriptive and used phonology as analysis to find out the students’ pronunciation difficulties whether this study used phonology as the subject which influence the students’ pronunciation.

The third previous research used regression analysis as the research method and it’s similar with this research, but it’s different in material. The variables of this previous research are
students’ listening hobby in English songs and pronunciation ability, whether the variables of this research are the students’ achievement of phonology and their pronunciation.

B. Literature Review

1. Definition of Phonology

Language is a mean of communication. Differences in sound systems have a phonological basis: they depend on variation in speech organ positions or breath control. Teachers must understand the physical aspects of sound production.

The information in the context of a general theory about speech sounds and how they are used in language is called Phonetics and Phonology. Phonology is the study of how speech sounds are used in English and other languages. Phonology is a branch of linguistics concerned with the systematic organization of sounds in languages.

The word *phonology* (as in *the phonology of English*) can also refer to the phonological system (sound system) of a given language. This is one of the fundamental systems which a language is considered to comprise, like its syntax and its vocabulary.

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Phonology is often distinguished from phonetics. While phonetics concerns the physical production, acoustic transmission and perception of the sounds of speech, phonology describes the way sounds function within a given language or across languages to encode meaning. In other words, phonetics belongs to descriptive linguistics, and phonology to theoretical linguistics.

2. The Coverage of English Phonology
   a. Phonetics and Phonology

   There are two sub-disciplines in linguistics which deal with sound, namely phonetics and phonology. Phonetics provides objective ways of describing and analyzing the range of sounds humans use in their languages. More specifically, articulatory phonetics identifies precisely which speech organs and muscles are involved in producing the different sounds of the world’s languages. Those sounds are then transmitted from the speaker to the hearer, and acoustic and auditory phonetics focus on the physics of speech as it travels through the air in the form of sound waves, and the effect those waves have on a hearer’s ears and brain. It follows that

phonetics has strong associations with anatomy, physiology, physics and neurology.\textsuperscript{14}

The study of the ways in which speech sounds form systems and patterns is Phonology, and Phonetic is the study of speech sounds which are known more technically as phones.\textsuperscript{15}

Studying Phonology concerns with Phonetics, the study of speech sounds as a actual physical sounds. The relationship between phonetics and phonology is a complex one, but we might initially approach phonology as narrowed-down phonetics.\textsuperscript{16}

Phonetic concerns with the actual physical sounds as it is spoken by human speech organs, while phonology concerns with rules of speech sound structure of language. Phonetics deals with “actual” physical sound and phonology deals with rules in a mental grammar as they relate to language sounds.

Phonetic is used in describing the sounds that we use in speaking. When we talk how phonemes function in language and the relationship among the different

\textsuperscript{14} April McMahon, \textit{An Introduction to English Phonology}, (Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press, 2002), p.3

\textsuperscript{15} Victoria Fromkin, Robert Rodman and friends, \textit{An Introduction to Language Seventh Edition}, p. 273

phonemes, we study the abstract side of the language sounds. We are studying the related but different subject that we call phonology.

Only by studying both the phonetics and the phonology of English is it possible to get the full understanding of the use of sounds in English speech.

b. Phonemes and Allophones

Every language has its own inventory of sounds that speakers of that language recognize as being linguistic sounds. These sounds are called Phonemes. A Phoneme can be defined as a psychologically real unit of linguistic sound.\(^{17}\)

A phoneme is the smallest unit of sound that makes a difference in meaning in a language. Allophones are variants of a phoneme, and in complementary distribution. Another definition, phonemes are abstract mental units and allophones are the actual pronunciations of those abstract units in different environments.\(^{18}\)

A class of speech sound which are identified by native speaker as same sound is called a phoneme. The members of these classes, which are actual phonetic


segment produced by a speaker, are called **Allophone** – thus an allophone is a phone that has been classified as belonging to same class, or phoneme. The first part of the term *allo-* means “other”, and second part, *phone*, means “sounds”.

Phonological rules apply to phonemes to produce variants of allophones. Another way to think of the concepts of phoneme and allophone is to think of the various allophones of a particular phoneme as all belonging to the same family. They have the same characteristics with their own unique features.

The phoneme /p/ has two allophones in English, one of which has an accompanying puff of air, and one of which does not. Likewise, the phoneme /k/ has two allophones in English, one of which is produced in the velar region, and one of which is produced slightly farther forward towards the palatal region.

The different phones that are the realizations of the same phoneme are called the allophones of that phoneme.

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To distinguish between a phoneme and its allophones, we can use slashes / / to enclose phonemes and continue to use square brackets [ ] for allophones or phones. For example [í] and [ĩ] are allophones of /i/.\textsuperscript{22}

c. The relationship between sounds

Another very related and very connected to phonological analysis is determining the relationship between sounds. If two sounds are separate phonemes in a given language, native speaker of that language will recognize them as being different; on the other hand, if two sounds are allophones of a single phoneme, native speaker will recognize them as being the same sound. There are kinds of relationship between sounds, as below:

1) Contrastive Sounds.

It means that a native speaker of the language in which the sounds are used recognizes them as being two distinct (different) sounds, and if this is a case, then the sound must be different phonemes in that language. The way to prove that two sounds are contrastive is to find a minimal pair of words with respect to the two sounds in question. **Minimal pairs** are pairs of words with *different meaning* that have

\textsuperscript{22}Victoria Fromkin, Robert Rodman and friends, *An Introduction to Language Seventh Edition*, p.285
exactly the same sounds in the same order except for a single difference in sounds. The examples are:


In the word cull and gull, there is a minimal pair with respect to [k] and [ɡ]. There is only one difference in the sounds of the words, and the difference in these two words is [k] vs. [ɡ]. Everything else is the same between the pairs, and exchanging [k] for [ɡ] creates a contrast in meaning. Notice that the only way to create a minimal pair with respect to two sounds is to put them in the exact same environment in terms of position within a word and surrounding sounds. When two sounds are in the exact same environment, we say that they are in overlapping distribution.23

2) Non-Contrastive Sounds.

The others are non-contrastive. This means that native speakers do not recognize them as being two distinct sounds; instead, they are perceived as being the same sound, even though they are, on the surface

level, different in some way. In this case, then the two sounds must be allophones of the same phoneme. Here is the example of the sounds [k] (“regular” /k/ and [Ĥ] (palatalized /k/):


There are no minimal pairs with respect to sounds [k] and [Ĥ]. In this words, they have two differences - both the initial consonant and the vowel. Because it is not possible to find any minimal pairs with respect to these sounds and it proves that the sounds are non-contrastive. And also we were unable to find them in the exact same environment, then we can conclude that they are in complementary distribution. This means that where one of the sounds is used (its environment), the other never is, and vice versa.

If we look instead at surrounding sounds, we will see that [Ĥ] always appears before front vowel – in this data, [i], [ɪ], [æ], [e], and [ɛ] – and never appears before central or back vowels. In sharp contrast, [k] never appears before front vowels, but always appears before central and back vowel – in this data [ʌ], [o], [a], [u], and [ʊ]. Because there is no overlap between their environments with respect to the following sounds, we determine that they are in complementary distribution based on the following sounds.²⁴

d. **Phonological rules**

The mapping between phonemic and phonetic elements is accomplished using phonological rules. A speaker’s knowledge of phonological rules allows him or her to “translate” phonemes into actual speech sounds.

Some phonological rules can be classified according to the kind of process that they involve. These processes are adjustments in the articulation of sounds. Four major kinds of processes, **assimilation, dissimilation, insertion** and **deletion**.

1) Assimilation

It cause a sound to become more like a neighboring sound with respect to some feature. The segment affected by the rule assimilates or takes on a feature from a nearby sound. Rules of assimilation are very common in language. Assimilation is the process of changing one phoneme into another phoneme as the result of putting morphemes together.

There are two examples of Assimilation, **Regressive Assimilation and Progressive Assimilation**. Regressive Assimilation occurs when

---

the change of one sound into another one is influenced by the following sound. Consider the following data:

\[
\begin{align*}
/im-/ & \rightarrow [im-] \\
/im-/ + ['porεbl] & \rightarrow [im'porεbl] \\
/im-/ + ['pæ:fekt] & \rightarrow [im'pæ:fekt] \\
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
/im-/ & \rightarrow [im-] \text{ (remains the same)} \\
/im-/ + /dæi'rekt/ & \rightarrow [indæi'rekt] \\
/im-/ + /dri'pendənt/ & \rightarrow [indr'pendənt] \\
/im-/ & \rightarrow [iŋ-] \\
/im-/ + /kəŋ'klu:siv/ & \rightarrow [iŋkəŋ'klu:siv] \\
/im-/ + /kəmpli:t/ & \rightarrow [iŋkəmpli:t] \\
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
/im-/ & \rightarrow [im-] \text{ (remains the same)} \\
/im-/ + /t'fektiv/ & \rightarrow [im'tfektiv] \\
/im-/ + /ænɪmət/ & \rightarrow [iŋænɪmət]\text{26} \\
\end{align*}
\]

Progressive Assimilation progressive assimilation occurs when the change of one sound into another one is influenced by a preceding sound.

It’s here  
\[
/ɪt/ + /ɪz/ /hiə/ \rightarrow [ɪtʃiə] \\
\]
That’s all  
\[
/ðæt/ + /ɪz/ /o:l/ \rightarrow [ðætso:l] \\
\]

\text{26 J.Sutomo, \textit{English Phonological Processes, A Study of Generative Phonology Theory}, p.5}
The word ‘is’ /ɪz/ is first reduced into /z/ in an unstressed syllable, then /z/ is assimilated into the voiceless fricative /s/ because it is influenced by the preceding sound /t/.

2) Dissimilation

It cause two neighboring sounds to become less alike with respect to some feature. These are much less common than assimilation rules. An example of dissimilation is **Fricative Dissimilation**: /θ/ changes to [t] following another fricative.

The word ‘fifth’ is phonemically /fifθ/ but is often pronounced [fift]; similarly /siksθ/ [sikst]. In these example the fricative /θ/ becomes less like an adjacent fricative consonant; it does so through a change in its manner of articulation feature, thereby becoming a stop.

Dissimilation of liquid consonants, it takes place when the suffix –*al* attached to some latin nouns to make adjectives.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person</th>
<th>Personal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Culture</td>
<td>Cultural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electric</td>
<td>Electrical</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

3) Insertion

Phonological rules of insertion cause a segment not present at the phonemic level to be added to the phonetic form of a word. Examples of this rule are **Voiceless Stop Insertion** and **Glottal Stop Insertion**.

**Voiceless Stop insertion** is between a nasal and a voiceless fricative, a voiceless stop with the same place of articulation as the nasal inserted. It may apply to the words *dance* /dæns/, *strength* /strɛŋθ/, and *hamster* /hæmstr/ causing them to pronounced as [dænts], [strɛŋθ], and [hæmpstr], respectively.

**Glottal Stop insertion** [?] is optionally inserted before a stressed word-initial vowel. And it can operate to realize the phonemic form of *that’s awful*! /ðæts ofl/ as [ðæts ?ofl], or *Ouch!* /awč/ as [?awč].

4) Deletion

Deletion rules eliminate a sound. Such rules apply more frequently to unstressed syllables and in casual speech. In English example: /h/ - Deletion: /h/ may be deleted in unstressed syllables. Unstressed vowel deletion: a vowel which precedes a liquid consonant in an unstressed syllable may be deleted.

The /h/ deletion rule would apply to a sentence such as *He handed her his hat* /hi hæn d ɔd hr ʰɪz hæt/ to yield [hi hæn d ɔd r iz hæt]; the unstressed
vowel deletion rule provides example such as police /pə'liːs/ [plis] and believe /bɪ'liːv/ [bliv].

3. Phonetic Transcription

There are two elements in English pronunciation, they are segmental and supra segmental features. The English segmental system includes vowels, consonant, consonant cluster, diphthongs and supra segmental system includes intonation, pitch, stress, length, and rhythm.

a. Segmental Features

The segmental features are vowel, consonant, cluster and diphthong.

1) Vowel

Vowels are articulated when a voiced airstream is shaped using the tongue and the lips to modify the overall shape of the mouth.

The symbol for vowels rarely correspond to English spelling because there are many more vowels sound in English than there are vowel letters:

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28 Department of Linguistics, Language Files: Material for an Introduction to Language, p. 96-97

a) Close vowels

The articulation of close vowels the tongue is somewhat high in the mouth. Moving from /i:/ through to /u:/, the attention should be paid for the different positions of the tongue; /i:/ which is described by Kelly as follow:\[^{30}\]

Phonetic symbols for vowels can be described in terms of four basic characteristic, the transcriptions are as follows:

The characteristics of this transcriptions [ i:] is that the front of the tongue is slightly behind and below the close front position.(The ‘close’ position is where the tongue is closest to the roof of the mouth.)Lips are spread. The example of it can be found in the example such as in peach, eat, see, read, money. In a sentence, feel the eel creeping over your feet /fi:l ə ɪ:l 'kriːpiŋ ˈɔʊvə(r) ʃʊt/.

The character of this transcription [ I ] describe the part of the tongue slightly nearer the centre is raised to just above the half-close position 9 not as high as in /i:/).The lips are spread loosely, and the tongue is more relaxed. The sides of the tongue may just touch the

upper molars. There are examples of this transcription such as in \textit{wishes hit },\textit{biggest}, \textit{mountain },\textit{busy }, \textit{womens}. \textit{Bill hit him with a thick stick} /bɪl hit hɪm wiθ ə ˈθɪk stɪk/.

The transcription of [ʊ] has characteristics that the part the tongue just behind the centre is raised, just above the half-close position. The lips are rounded, but a loosely so. The tongue is relatively relaxed. It can be found in the example such as in \textit{should,book },\textit{good },\textit{woman },\textit{push },\textit{pull}. The cook put the book on the bulwark, /ˈʊk kʊt ðə ˈbʊk ɒn ðə ˈbʌlwək/.

The Characteristics of this transcription, [u:], state that the back of the tongue is raised just below the close position. Lips are rounded. The tongue is tense, and there are example such as in \textit{boot, food },\textit{you, who, fruit, soup}. In a sentence, they lose their shoes near the canoe, /ˈðeɪ lʊz ðiː(ə)r ˈʃuːs nɪə(r) ðə kəˈnɔː/.

b) Mid vowels

In mid vowel, Kelly states that the tongue can be described neither high nor low in the mouth. Moving from /e/ through to /ɛ/ , we also
notice the different positions of the tongue. /e/ is a front vowel, and /ɔ/ is a back vowel.\(^{31}\)

This transcription [e] has characteristics that the front of the tongue is between the half-open and half-close positions. Lips are loosely spread and the tongue is tenser than for / I /, it can be found in the example such as in egg left, said head, instead, any.

The Characteristics of this transcription [ɔ] is that the center of the tongue is between the half close and half open positions. Lips are relaxed, and neutrally spread. It can be found in the example such as in paper, banana, hurt, the (before consonants). Several eagles were flying over the ocean, 'sevrəl 'iːɡləs wɔ(r) 'flai̯əʊvə(ə)r dəiː 'oufən/.

This transcription [ɔː] has characteristic that the centre of The Tongue is Between the half-Close and half – open position and lips are relaxed, and neutrally spread. The example of it can be found in the example such as in shirt, her, word, further, pearl, serve, and this transcription difficulties for: J

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\(^{31}\) Gerald Kelly, *How to teach Pronunciation*. p.32
The character of this transcription [Э] is where the back of the tongue is raised to between the half-open and half-close position and lips are loosely rounded. The examples of it can be found in the example such as in off, saw, talk, gone.

c) Diphthong

According to Ramelan that a diphthong is not following that two vowel symbols are equally syllabic. When the sequence of two vowel sounds is produced with two impulses of breath, it is not a diphthong but it is said to be dissyllabic, or just an ordinary sequence of two vowel sounds, example: tour (Uә: a diphthong), to an end (Uә: a sequence of vowels).  

Whereas, Kelly states that English is usually described as having eight diphthongs, and they can be usefully grouped in the following way and criteria.  

- Centering diphthongs ending in /ә/, /әә/: here, sheer, fear, dear.
- Closing diphthongs ending in /I/, /eI/: pain, main, late, raid.

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32 Ramelan, English Phonetics, p. 81
33 Gerald Kelly, How to teach Pronunciation, p.34.
• Closing diphthongs ending in /ʊ/, /ou/:
  
  code, rode, coke, coat.

2) Consonant

Consonants are formed by interrupting restricting or diverting the air flow in a variety of ways. Consonants are sound that interrupt of restrict the follow of air or the speech sounds which are produced with some kind of closure in the mouth, restricting the escape of air. Yet, Avery and Ehrlich state that it involves a narrowing in the mouth which in turn causes some obstruction of the air stream. These consonants can be distinguished along three main dimension:

1) Voicing

2) The manner of articulation

3) The place of articulation

The manner of articulation refers to the interaction between the various articulators and airstreams for example, with plosive sound sounds, the articulators act in such a way that the air is temporarily trapped, and then suddenly released.

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35Marianne Celce Murcia, Donna M. Brinton and friends, Teaching Pronunciation, p.42
The manners of articulation are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Plosive consonants</th>
<th>Affricative consonants</th>
<th>Fricative consonants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nasal consonants</td>
<td>Lateral consonants</td>
<td>Approximately consonants</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Simple consonant

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Letter</th>
<th>Sound</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>/bi:/</td>
<td>Beach, cabbage, cab</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>/si:/</td>
<td>Change, Choose</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d</td>
<td>/di:/</td>
<td>Do, oddity, cod</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f</td>
<td>/ef/</td>
<td>For, coffee, off</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g</td>
<td>/dʒi:/</td>
<td>Goose, Bag</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h</td>
<td>/eɪtʃ/</td>
<td>Hello, behind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>j</td>
<td>/dʒeɪ/</td>
<td>Judge, major</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k</td>
<td>/keɪ/</td>
<td>Kick, making</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>l</td>
<td>/el/</td>
<td>Leg, hello, poll</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m</td>
<td>/em/</td>
<td>Me, coming, plum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>/en/</td>
<td>No, any, plain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p</td>
<td>/pi:/</td>
<td>Place, Pick</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>q</td>
<td>/kju:/</td>
<td>Quick, Question</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>r</td>
<td>/aː(r)/</td>
<td>Run, carrot</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>s</td>
<td>/es/</td>
<td>Sit, missing, kiss</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t</td>
<td>/ti:/</td>
<td>Tub, butter, but</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>v</td>
<td>/vi:/</td>
<td>Very, having, brave</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>w</td>
<td>/dʌblju:/</td>
<td>We, towards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x</td>
<td>/eks/</td>
<td>X-ray, Xylo-phone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>y</td>
<td>/wai/</td>
<td>Yes, You, Year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>z</td>
<td>/zi:/</td>
<td>Zebra, lizard, maze</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Some of the above letter do have alternative sound, but they tend to be restricted to one or two words, like the /v/ sound of f in of. Notice also that
when the above letters are doubled (as in letter, cabbage, coffee etc.) the sound does not change.\textsuperscript{36}

There are many sounds in English, and the students of English should master it in order that they can pronounce the words correctly. Mastering it will be easily, if they are familiar with the ways of production and have much practicing of the production of those sounds.

b. \textbf{Supra Segmental Features}

Supra segmental which refer to such features or aspect: \textit{a stress, intonation}, and other features that always accompany the production of segmental. Phonemes, as we have seen, are units of sound which we can analyze. Supra segmental features, as the name implies, are features of speech which generally apply to groups of segments, or phonemes. The features which important in English are stress, intonation, and how sounds change in connected speech.\textsuperscript{37} However, the Supra segmental aspects of pronunciation have most effect on intelligibility for some speakers.

\textsuperscript{36}Peter Avery and Susan Ehrlich, \textit{Teaching American English Pronunciation}, p.147

\textsuperscript{37}Ramelan, \textit{English Phonetic.}, p.22.
1) Intonation

Intonation is not only central to conveying meaning in spoken English but is also in conveying the attitude of the speaker towards what is be said.\textsuperscript{38}

2) Stress

Stress are emphasis on a particular syllable or word\textsuperscript{39}. Errors in word stress are often a result of transfer from the learner’s first language. For example stress usually falls on the first syllable of a word. Stress can fall on the first, middle or last syllable of words, as is shown here:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ooo</th>
<th>oOo</th>
<th>ooO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SYLlabus</td>
<td>enGAGement</td>
<td>usheRETte</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUBstitute</td>
<td>baNAna</td>
<td>kangaROO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TECHnical</td>
<td>phoNEtic</td>
<td>underSTAND</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The words in the first group (Ooo) are all stressed on the first syllable, the words in the second group (oOo) are stressed on the second

\textsuperscript{38} Peter Avery and Susan Ehrlich, \textit{Teaching American English Pronunciation}, p.192

\textsuperscript{39} Peter Avery and Susan Ehrlich, \textit{Teaching American English Pronunciation}, p.240
syllable, and those in the third group (ooO) are stressed on the third syllable.  

3) Pitch

Each syllable is said with some degree of lowness or highness of tone which is called ‘pitch’. The pitch direction may be (1) rising, (2) falling, and (3) sustained, considered from the highest pitch in the sentence, which coincides with the strongest stress in the same sentence.

If the foreign language were exactly the same in its sound’s system and its grammatical system as the students’ own language as—which is, of course, impossible, there were be no learning problem at all, thus the difficulty encountered by he students in learning in a second language is caused by the different by elements found between his language and the target language. The degree of difficulty of learning is also determined by the degree of the difference between the two languages.

4. Definition of Pronunciation

Pronunciation is the way in which a language is spoken. Pronunciation is used to capture all aspects of how

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Peter Avery and Susan Ehrlich, p.67

we employ speech sounds for communicating.\textsuperscript{42} English spelling that is written is orthographic writing is only a poor reflection of pronunciation, although it must be admitted that there are many regulations between sounds written symbols. The English students can get a clearer understanding of distinctive sound that appears in English by using a special writing called phonetic transcriptions.

From definition above, we can conclude that Pronunciation refers to the productions of sound\textsuperscript{a} that we use to make meaning. It includes attention to particular a sound of language (segments) aspect of speech beyond the level individual such as, intonation, phrasings, stress, timing, rhythm (suprasegmental) and consonants and vowel and diphthong (segmental).

Students who learn a foreign language will find that he has to learn and recognize some sounds that are not used in his own language. Most of the English sounds are not difficult but a few of them occur only in small number of languages where most students therefore have to learn to make and to produce them. The international phonetics symbols for all of the English sounds are given bellow, with the specimen words and phrases for printing them. In most

\textsuperscript{42} Norbert Schmitt, \textit{An introduction to applied linguistic}, (New York: Oxford University Press, 2002), p.219
cases the world in the first in show the sound in initial and final position in monosyllables.\textsuperscript{43}

The goal of learning of pronunciation is not to make them sound like native speakers of English. A more realistic goal is to enable the learners to communicate with the others and it’s understandable.

Elements of the foreign language which are similar to those found in one’s native language will not offer any problem. Take for instance the Indonesian sound/m/ ‘mata’, which is much like English ‘mother’ an Indonesian student learning English or an English students learning Indonesia may easily his native sound/m/ in producing of equivalents sounds in the target language.

5. \textbf{Pronunciation Problems}

There are some problems in pronunciation:

a. Pronunciation problem in learning a foreign language, it will appear that each problem is different in nature, and accordingly, needs a different way of tackling by the student. One problem is concerned with the identification of the foreign sound. This means that he has to remember their acoustic qualities so that he will be able to directly identify them in an utterance. An Indonesian student, for instance, should be able to remember the acoustic quality of the English vowel /æ/

\textsuperscript{43} Philip Binham, \textit{How to Say It}, (Yogyakarta: kanisius, 1974), P.79
as found in the word *man* and to identify it in a connected speech so as to keep it distinct from a similar vowel as found in the word *men*.

b. Pronunciation problem in the production of the qualities of the foreign language ability in hearing and identifying the acoustic quality of the foreign sounds is prerequisite for the ability in producing them. Without having heard the quality of a given sound before, one cannot be expected to pronounce it.\(^{44}\)

c. Pronunciation problem in speech sound, we use our bodies to communicate with others. We may use our whole body to express something, such as facing for facing away from someone, or bowing or standing up to show respect. We may use parts of the body, as when we make gestures with our hands, or produce facial expressions. But the most subtle use we make of our bodies in producing sounds is with our organs of speech.

From those problems above, there are some suggestion to solve it:

a. The students have to identify the foreign sounds. They have to remember acoustic qualities of sound to know a distinction from a similar sounds. The ear

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\(^{44}\) Ramelan, *English Phonetics*, p 5-8
must be trained and drilled in hearing the sound until familiar.

b. Without having heard the quality of a sound, one cannot be expected to pronounce the words. The students have to learn to produce words by imitating the speaker after hearing the words.

c. There are many differences in phonetic features of sounds in English. The students have to solve this problem through more practice and imitation from another speaker.

Pronunciation problem on sounds in the body, sounds are fundamental to us. Event the unborn child picks up, and reacts to, sounds within and outside the womb, such as the mother’s heartbeat, music, or voices. A baby can hear (and indeed be heard) long before it can see properly. Our speech organs, however, are not primarily organs for producing sounds. They are, first and foremost, involved in such life supporting functions as breathing and eating. Thus, life and sounds are inextricably tied together.45

It’s clear that the students’ main problem in learning language is the differences between students’ language and target language, and also the differences in phonetic features of similar sounds, vowel or consonant sounds, etc. Through

imitation and much practice, the students will be succeed in
pronouncing the English sounds and solve those problems.

C. **Hypothesis**

Based on the statements above, the working hypothesis of
the research can be stated as a follow:
There is influence of students’ achievement of phonology toward
their pronunciation.