A Comparative Study of Strategy to Improve Problematic English Pronunciation Produced by Thai and Indonesian Young Learners

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Research title: A Comparative Study of Strategy to Improve Problematic English Pronunciation Produced by Thai and Indonesian Young Learners **Researchers**: Asst.Prof.Dr. Sutat Nakjan, Dr. Fauzi Syamsuar, Watchara Yenprem, Makawan Nakjan, and Pisan Pankaew **Academic field**: English Linguistics **Year**: 2018

Abstract

English pronunciation problems always interfere EFL learners when they speak to communicate English. Mispronunciation can lead to misunderstanding. This comparative study investigated the problems in English pronunciation experienced by young EFL learners whose first language are Thai and Bahasa Indonesian. The purposes of the study were to; 1) identify problems of English pronunciation produced by young learners in Thailand and Indonesia based on the linguistics principle, 2) compare the pronunciation problems produced by EFL Thai and Indonesian young learners, 3) determine strategies to improve the English pronunciation problems, and 4) create guideline and material that can be used as a medium for improving the English pronunciation problems. The subjects of the quantitative study were 100 university students purposively selected equally from both countries to answer the questionnaire and 40 of them provided oral English recorded files for analysis. The instruments used for collecting the data were voice recordings and a structured questionnaire. The data were analyzed quantitatively with statistics for percentage, means, standard deviation, t-test and F-test.

The research results revealed that:

1. Thai and Indonesian students had the pronunciation problems with; firstly, the same consonant sounds they do not have in their mother languages, basically the final fricative sounds, especially /ð/, /θ/, /v/, /f/, /s/, /ʃ/ and /tʃ/. They all tended to have problems with pronouncing consonant blends (clusters).

2. From the comparison analysis, the different problems were that the Indonesians pronounce strong initial sounds of /p/, /t/, and trill /r/ while Thais usually dropped the final sounds. English vowels are considered a minor problem for them. All of them had the problems in fluency of pronunciation in all suprasegmental features like syllable stress, word stress, intonation, and rhythm.

3. The learners of English pronunciation in Thailand and Indonesia used similar strategies in learning and developing their pronunciation ability; dominantly learning with off-line and online media, learning from songs and movies, and having regular class at school even though the EFL learners in both countries had significant difference in practice.

4. Appropriate strategy for English pronunciation improvement is centered around firstly pronunciation of consonant and vowel sounds that do not exist in their L1s, having a sound model in English classroom instruction, using innovative tools and having sufficient practice. All of the EFL learners in both countries were really needed to improve their supra-segmental features like stress, intonation and rhythm, which then leads to their fluency in English speaking skills. Fun offline and online media are a powerful tools, especially the free-access knowledge and information available on the Internet.

It is concluded that the English pronunciation problems are associated with the first language interference but it is lessened today as English accent variation is acceptable when a communication is successful. Instructors of English should be aware of using appropriate and desirable strategies and practice to develop or improve their students' pronunciation skills.

Keywords: English pronunciation, problematic sounds, Thai and Indonesia EFL comparative study

Preface

Pronunciation is an issue that teachers and educators of English have paid attention to, especially in the countries where the mother tongues are other than English. English pronunciation problems have been studied on how to make the ESL/EFL learners pronounce English words, as well as speaking to communicate, effectively without errors or mistakes. Empirical studies are essential to improving our understanding of the relationship between influential factors and pronunciation learning and development, which will be useful for teaching. However, the study of pronunciation has been marginalized within the field of applied linguistics. As English is the ASEAN language that the ten countries use as the medium of communication while each country has their own first language (L1) even though Singapore, the Philippines and Malaysia are having English as the official language they use every day. Obviously, many countries in the community still face several problem areas and misconceptions about English pronunciation learning and instruction. Researching a comparative study between Thai and Indonesian students will offer to teachers and students in terms of helping them to set learning goals, identifying appropriate pedagogical priorities for the classroom, and determining the most effective approaches to teaching. A better understanding of the similarity and difference of learning English pronunciation in different countries will contribute to collaboration and exchange for success in ASEAN educational development when it comes to promote its integration and unified strength towards the competitive globalized world.

Phetchaburi Rajabhat University (PBRU), Thailand, and Univeritas Ibn Khaldun Bogor (UIKA), Indonesia, realize that having instructors to conduct a research in English learning and instruction could be a good start hopefully.

Assistant Professor Dr.Sutat Nakjan

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Assistant Professor Dr.Sutat Nakjan

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UNIT 1

INTRODUCTION

Background

ASEAN in its journey to date and as the member countries progress, solidarity and unity among the people will be strengthened. Language and culture, mobility and population movement, and media communications are very important and cannot be avoided among them. Officially English is placed as the ASEAN language, but the majority of people do not speak English well enough for effective communication among the community. Most people speak and understand Indonesian and Malay. Therefore, the issue of languages cannot be ignored. This will be a new problem for ASEAN nation members and become a new challenge for ASEAN leaders to determine one language that can be used as an ASEAN language other than English. (Mindanao Times, June 29, 2017). However, the second ASEAN language is yet to come but English in ASEAN community should be improved among all people for effective communication and development.

At the ASEAN Summit in November 2007, the ASEAN Charter was introduced. The Article 34 'Working Language of the ASEAN' reads: 'The working language of ASEAN shall be English'. This is the only mention of working or official languages in the entire charter. To become legally binding, all ten member states must ratify the Charter before the next ASEAN Summit, to be held in December 2008 and to date, Brunei, Laos, Malaysia and Singapore have done so. There is no indication that any of ASEAN country provides a particularly interesting site for the study of English as a lingua franca because the member states fall into distinct categories. Brunei, Malaysia, the Philippines and Singapore can be classified as 'outer circle' countries, where, because of their colonial past, English continues to play a major role and where it is possible to talk about the Brunei, Filipino, Malaysian and Singaporean varieties of English. Yet, the history of English in these countries since their independence has been anything but similar. For example, Malaysia's National Language Act of 1967 mandated the gradual shift from English to Malay as the medium of instruction in all government schools and universities. As this act was passed in the same year that Malaysia became a founding member state of ASEAN, this makes it all the more surprising that English was tacitly accepted as the sole working language. Malaysia's policy has since shifted back to the use of English so that it is now used as the medium of instruction for mathematics and science subjects in schools (Kirkpatrick, 2008; pp.27-31).

Only Thailand, formerly known as Siam, in the ASEAN community is recognized as non-colonized country that any foreign language --English, French or Dutch – never influenced the people's Thai native language while English is taught in schools only. English is the second language of the educated urban elite and is also the first foreign language taught in schools, but with limited success. In Thailand, the only country within ASEAN that has never been colonized, English is also the first second language (Dardjowidjojo, 2000). For Indonesia, the country has sought to use a local language, Bahasa Melayu (Malay), to act as a national lingua franca after freedom from first the Dutch and then the Japanese. In this, it has been remarkably successful, so that the great majority of Indonesians are now able to communicate through what is called Bahasa Indonesia. English is the second language of the educated urban elite and is also the first foreign language taught in schools, but with limited success. In Thailand, the only country within ASEAN that has never been colonized, English is also the first second language. More recently, the countries that made up the French colony of Indo-China, namely Cambodia, Laos and Vietnam have become member states. These countries have witnessed an urgent shift from French to English, but levels of English even among the elite – particularly in Laos and Cambodia – remain comparatively low. English in these countries is therefore at different stages of development (Bolton, 2002). This means that English is used as a lingua franca by people ranging from those who speak a local variety of English such as Malaysian to those whose proficiency in English remains relatively low. It is perhaps helpful to see lingua franca more as a *functional* term rather than a *linguistic* one.

Generally speaking, English language learners' native languages, more or less, influence their English pronunciations. These non-native types of English special pronunciations make different, special versions of English. For example; those who learn English as a foreign (EFL) or second language (ESL) will speak like Thai English, Indonesian English Chinese English, Filipino English, Indian English, Singapore English (even though everyone recognizes English as the native language in this country), Lao English, etc. This makes communication difficult internationally. However, different accents of English are spoken, it doesn't matter very much as far as those people speak their English fluently in a normal speech. If anyone lives in a country where there is no traditional or native use of English and there is no people who speaks it for general communication purposes, the English pronunciation they are going to speak may reflect the distinction between their native language and English. Furthermore, English pronunciation that can be understood in one's home country may not be the case in another. Although English is not the media for communication in Thailand, sometimes Thai people use borrowed English words, but pronounced in Thai ways, for example, Thais say "band" without /d/, "shirt" without /t/, "bus" without /s/ or "much" without

/ʃ/, and “luck” without /k/. The pronunciation problem would then affect understanding when they speak to the English native speakers in the standard way, or the Thai ordinary persons on the street will not understand real English. Recently, as language teaching has moved to communicative competence in the Thai basic education level (grade 1-12), more English language educators and teachers have shown their close attention to communicative conversation and pronunciation instruction (Gilbert, 1984; Celce-Murcia, 1987; Morley, 1994;). Scarcella and Oxford (1994) stated that "pronunciation should be taught in all second language classes through a variety of activities. But it seems the attention is not as close as it should be in Thailand. Many of Thai students have a lot of pronunciation problems. Similarly, Indonesians and other nationalities in ASEAN have their English pronunciation problems. This is very interesting issue a linguist and educator might wonder whether there is a good way to improve it for our ASEAN community’s sake.

In the ASEAN context described above, it is clear that the English used by speakers is likely to be characterized by variation and variety. This gives rise to two related questions. First, ‘How do people who speak different varieties of English and people whose level of English may be low communicate with each other using English as a lingua franca? Second, ‘Notwithstanding the different varieties being used, are there any shared or distinctive linguistic features in the Englishes used by these people?’ In addition, in the wake of ASEAN regional development and cooperation among the countries in economic corridor. English language has an important standing in global communication, hence both oral and written English skills are essential around the world. However, to many, learning English to be fluent in speaking seems to be a very challenging task. Since the aim of English education is not only to develop knowledge of grammar and written skills but also to teach oral English skills, this problem needs to be studied in order to remedy the situation. The problems experienced in studying English as a foreign or second language have been studied somewhat, but the problems that Thai and Indonesian learners, in particular, experience in speaking English should be studied more. In this study, the problems would be analyzed in comparative method according to the theories and the factors affecting them were categorized linguistics classification.

Through various observation and experiences at Thai and Indonesian school and universities, as well as discussion with English teachers, we have noticed that our students learning English in classroom had tendency to mispronounce certain English sounds that do not have a solid Thai or Indonesian equivalent. Errors in English pronunciation might be caused by many factors, but somehow these errors can be improved with many ways. However, there should be some studies to find out about these factors and strategies for future use.

Statement of the problem

Phetchaburi Rajabhat University has sought educational cooperation among tertiary-level institutions in ASEAN community in order to develop a closer relationship for the regional unity, which would shed the light on its intercultural development and prosperity. Under the AEC commitment, Thai government deployed a policy for educational institutions to motivate all parties to be ready for entering the new era of international partnership in the region. Phetchaburi Rajabhat University (PBRU), Thailand, has signed an MOU with Univeritas Ibn Khaldun Bogor (UIKA), Indonesia, having the purpose of working and sharing their academic information and practices. Educational visits, instructional exchange, and academic sharing have been undergone successfully. In addition, there is an interest proposed by the instructors in English division to conduct a research to increase closer cooperation in academic area, which was the starting point in this useful comparative study under a topic of English learning and instruction in both countries. Hopefully, the findings would benefit for our students enrolling in the two institutions. In trying to find out what and how Thais and Indonesian learners of English might experience difficulties in speaking English, it is essential to think about speech and phonology in relation to second language learning. Beside the phonological principles, the second language acquisition is an important field in this study. Theory from speech production will be used to describe the speech process, articulations and sound production and also other areas of linguistics, which would help to explain the factors that contribute to difficulties in speaking English, and then the factors that might cause difficulties in speech production for the learners of English. The instruction and learning strategy will also be discussed in this study more closely including individual factors, instruction and input, social factors, and accent in speaking. Some possible materials will be created as a medium for solving and improving the English pronunciation problems for the learners in two countries, which might be generalized for learners of English in another countries in the ASEAN community as well.

Research questions

1. What are the problems of English pronunciation encountering Thai and Indonesian young learners comparatively in terms of linguistics?
2. Which strategy can be used to improve the English pronunciation problems produced by both Thai and Indonesian young learners of English?
3. Which guideline and material can be used as a medium for improving the English pronunciation based on the problems found in this study?

Purposes of study

1. To identify problems of English pronunciation produced by young learners in Thailand and Indonesia based on the linguistics principle.

2. To compare the English pronunciation problems produced by Thai and Indonesian young learners who learn English as a foreign language.

3. To determine strategies to improve the English pronunciation problems produced by Thai and Indonesian young learners of English.

4. To create guideline that can be used for improving the English pronunciation problems based on this comparative data analysis study.

Limitations

1. **Population and sample**

1.1 *Population*: This study targeted at learners of English who were studying English as a foreign language in their undergraduate programs at Phetchaburi Rajabhat University in Thailand and Universitas Ibn Khaldun Bogor in Indonesia, who were enrolling in the academic year 2014-2015.

1.2 *The sample*: The researchers from both universities selected their students purposively from each university, regardless the majors the students were taking. Twenty students from each university were randomly selected to the sample participants who provided the data for the analysis.

2. **Variables of the study**

2.1 *Independent variables:*

2.1.1 Nationality (Thai and Indonesian).

2.1.2 Period of time in learning English in school.

2.2 *Dependent variables:*

2.2.1 English sounds that are problems for Thai and/or Indonesian young learners who are learning English as a foreign language.

2.2.2 Strategy used for improving the English pronunciation problems by Thai and Indonesian young learners of English.

3. **Content**

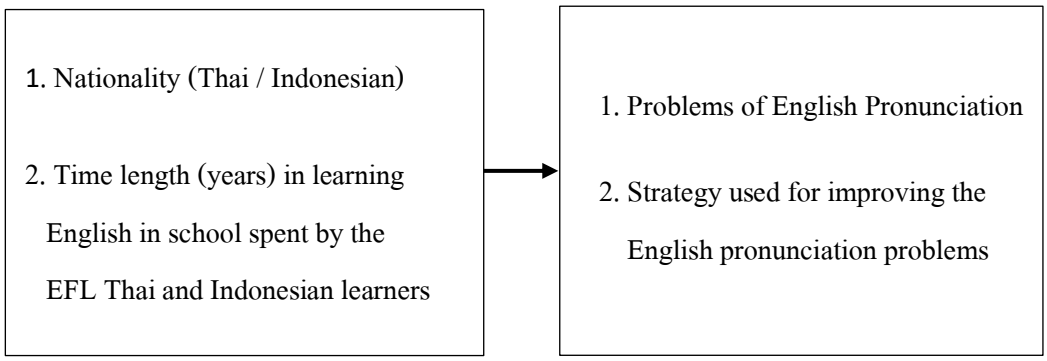
3.1 This comparative study was based on the international linguistic principles IPA phonetics transcription associated with English phonology, basically in both segmental and suprasegmental knowledge.

3.2 Strategy or methods used for improving and developing English pronunciation for the students who learn English as a foreign language (EFL) in relation to language instruction and English speaking skill practice; such as media, teaching process, and feedback, etc.

4. **Time and duration**

This research was conducted in year 2014 – 2015 under the cooperation of the researchers from the two universities (Phetchaburi Rajabhat University, Thailand, and Universitas Ibn Khaldun Bogor, Indonesia.

Study framework



Terms and definitions

Comparison study refers to a study of English pronunciation problems produced by Thai and Indonesian young learners who were learning English as a second or foreign language (ESL/EFL) at a university in their own countries. The caparison is concerned with difference and similarity in errors of English sounds said by individuals based on IPA linguistics knowledge and the strategies they used to improve their pronunciation errors, regardless to their communicative purposes. The study would then identify the commonality and describe the problems.

Young learners refer to the students who were enrolling and in an undergraduate major and studying English course(s) in Phetchaburi Rajabhat University (PBRU) for those who are Thai and in Universitas Ibn Khaldun Bogor (UIKA) for those who are Indonesian. They were studying in the academic year of 2014-2015.

Nationality refers to the personality of the research participants they belong to either Thai or Indonesian, which is considered different in the country of birth possessing difference in terms of language, ethnic, cultural context, and social values.

Period of time in learning in school refers to number of years that Thai and Indonesian learners who learn English as a foreign language in schools in their own country, regardless with means of educational system and process that they are exposed to.

Pronunciation problems refer to errors, mistakes, mispronounced, or omissions, of English pronunciation of words said or produced by the Thai and Indonesian young learners classified in individual sound analyzed and transcribed into the IPA phonetic symbols. Analysis of the problem sounds are focused on segments: consonant sounds (e.g. plosives, fricative and affricates), vowel sounds (e.g. pure short vowels, pure long vowels and diphthongs), and suprasegmentals (e.g. stress, intonation, prosody and nasalization).

Strategy refers to methods and ways that are used to learn, improve and develop pronunciation of English sounds by the young learners, which are problems for them. A strategy may comprise of one or more activities and/or practices, which may be taught, guided by a teacher, or learned by individual learners. It can be a process with simple or complex steps that make the pronunciation relatively right.

First language refers to the first language (L1), or 'mother tongue,' spoken by the native students; Thai is the first language of Thai students while Bahasa Indonesia is the first language of Indonesian students. Thai and Indonesian languages are totally different. Only English can be a medium language used in comprehensible communication between them, especially in the verbal breakthrough.

Foreign language refers to English language that Thai and Indonesian students are studying, which basically it is the language native to British and American people, which is considered as the acceptable standard. Its variations or dialects in accent and sound are not taken into account in this research.

Guideline refers to recommendations drawn from the research findings, knowledge and process, and put into the material created by the researcher for further use in order to improve the learners of English in Thailand and Indonesian.

Materials refers to a handbook that has pictures, graphics, text, symbols, guideline, and other formats essential to learning and practice for improving English pronunciation applicable to the students to develop and improve their English pronunciation problems.

Contribution of the study

1. Academic contribution

1.1 The research findings would give the information about English pronunciation problems and strategies concerned with Thai and Indonesian young learners learning English as a foreign language, which is useful for lesson planning in teaching to improve their English pronunciation.

1.2 The instructional material developed as a medium for classroom implementation in English pronunciation practice would guide teachers of English in both countries for a better instruction for their students. It can also guide them for improvement of teaching practice.

1.3 There would produce a better idea for improving learning and instruction of English in ASEAN countries in which English is considered a foreign language.

2. Research contribution

2.1 Further investigation based on this research findings would probably be associated with different productive strategies for improving English pronunciation of learners of EFL in ASEAN countries.

2.2 The problems in English pronunciation for non-English native speakers would be reduced when a new approach in today advanced technological context will be introduced in the future based upon the contribution of this research.

2.3 There should be an in-depth investigation for individual learners in terms of speech repair in order to shade light on better understanding of English pronunciation problems in our changing world.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter contains the literature review related to the study. The review will cover different topics concerning linguistic study and phonology that is involved development of pronunciation of English, knowledge, practice, strategies in pronunciation improvement, and research findings in this field.

1. English pronunciation and features
2. Phonetics and the IPA transcriptions
3. Phonological articulation of speech sounds
4. English pronunciation problems of EFL learners
5. Strategies in English pronunciation development
6. Research findings associated with the study

1. English pronunciation and features

Boyanova (2002-2017) provides that the term ‘accents’ is used to refer to differences in pronunciations. Pronunciation can vary with cultures, regions and speakers, but there are two major standard varieties in English pronunciation: British English and American English. Within British English and American English there are also a variety of accents. Some of them have received more attention than others from phoneticians and phonologists. These are Received Pronunciation (RP) and General American (GA). Received Pronunciation is a form of pronunciation of the English language, sometimes defined as the *"educated spoken English of southeastern England"*. RP is close to BBC English (the kind spoken by British newscasters) and it is represented in the pronunciation schemes of most British dictionaries. RP is rather a social accent than regional, associated with the educated upper classes (and/or people who have attended public schools) in Britain.

English pronunciation is also divided into two main accent groups, the rhotic and the non-rhotic, depending on when the phoneme /r/ is pronounced. Rhotic speakers pronounce written "r" in all positions. They will pronounce the "r" in ‘stork’, whereas non-rhotic speakers won't, making no distinction between ‘stork’ and ‘stalk. Non-rhotic speakers pronounce "r" only if it is followed by a vowel; such as ‘right, rain, room, Robert’ and ‘far away.’ Non-rhotic accents are British Received Pronunciation and

some other types of British English, Australian, New Zealand and South African English. American English is rhotic (the "r" is always pronounced), with the notable exception of the Boston area and New York City. Rhotic accents can be found also in most of Canada.

The English Alphabet

The English alphabet has 26 letters. Each letter has a lower and upper case form. The letters A, E, I, O, U are vowels. They can be used to represent speech sounds symbolized in phonetic transcription in IPA style below.

A	a	[ei]	N	n	[en]
B	b	[biː]	O	o	[ou]
C	c	[siː]	P	p	[piː]
D	d	[diː]	Q	q	[kjuː]
E	e	[iː]	R	r	[aː]
F	f	[ef]	S	s	[es]
G	g	[dʒiː]	T	t	[tiː]
H	h	[eitʃ]	U	u	[juː]
I	i	[ai]	V	v	[viː]
J	j	[dʒei]	W	w	[dʌbljuː]
K	k	[kei]	X	x	[eks]
L	l	[el]	Y	y	[wai]
M	m	[em]	Z	z	[zed] or (American [ziː])

The sounds of English and their representation

In English, there is no one-to-one relation between the system of writing and the system of pronunciation. The alphabet which we use to write English has 26 letters but in (Standard British) English there are approximately 44 speech sounds. The number of speech sounds in English varies from dialect to dialect, and any actual tally depends greatly on the interpretation of the researcher doing the counting. To represent the basic sound of spoken languages linguists use a set of phonetic symbols called the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA). The chart below contains all of the IPA symbols used to represent the sounds of the English language. This is the standard set of phonemic symbols for English (RP and similar accents).

i:	I	ʊ	u:	ɪə	eɪ	
ɛ	ə	ɜ:	ɔ	ʊə	ɔɪ	əʊ
æ	ʌ	ɑ:	ɒ	eə	ai	aʊ

p	b	t	d	ʧ	ʤ	k	g
f	v	θ	ð	s	z	ʃ	ʒ
m	n	ŋ	h	l	r	w	j

Note that the colon /**:** / represents longer duration in pronunciation and is found in long vowels; such as / **i:** /, / a**:** /, / u**:** /, /ɜ:/, and /ɑ:/. The IPA symbols can be elaborated for better recognition and easy to remember using names below.

[ɪ] - small capital letter 'I'

[ɛ] - 'epsilon' -- a Greek letter

[ʊ] - sometimes called 'upsilon'

[æ] - 'ash'; digraph a-e (usually just "digraph")

[ɑ] - script A

[ɔ] - open O

[ʌ] - 'caret'

[ŋ] - 'eng' (right-tail n)

[ð] - 'eth'

[θ] - 'theta'

[ə] - 'schwa'

The International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) is an alphabetic system of phonetic notation based primarily on the Latin alphabet. It was devised by the International Phonetic Association in the late 19th century as a standardized representation of the sounds of spoken language. it is used by lexicographers, foreign language students and teachers, linguists, speech-language pathologists, singers, actors, constructed language creators and translators. The IPA is designed to represent only the qualities of speech that are parts of oral language: phones, phonemes, intonation and the separation of words and syllables. IPA symbols are composed of one or more elements of two basic types, letters and diacritics. For example, the sound of the English letter '*t*' may be transcribed in IPA with a single letter, [t], or with a letter plus diacritics, [t^h], depending on how precise one wishes to be. Often, slashes are used to signal broad or phonemic transcription; thus, /t/ is less specific than, and could refer to, either [t^h] or [t], depending on the context and language. As of the most recent change in 2005, there are 107 letters, 52 diacritics and four prosodic marks in the IPA. In short, the IPA phonological symbol is widely used in explain articulation of English speech sound. Not only ones must recognize them, they are also required to remember the sound that each individual symbol represents.

2. Phonetic symbols and the IPA transcriptions

Phonetics and phonology

'Phonetic**s'** (from the Greek word *phone = sound/voice*) is a fundamental branch of Linguistics and itself has three different aspects: *Articulatory Phonetics* - describes how vowels and consonants are produced or "articulated" in various parts of the mouth and throat; *Acoustic Phonetics* - a study of how speech sounds are transmitted: when sound travels through the air from the speaker's mouth to the hearer's ear it does so in the form of vibrations in the air; *Auditory Phonetics* - a study of how speech sounds are perceived: looks at the way in which the hearer's brain decodes the sound waves back into the vowels and consonants originally intended by the speaker.

The actual sound produced, such as a simple vowel or consonant sound is called 'phon**e**.' Closely associated with Phonetics is another branch of Linguistics known as 'Phonology.' Phonology deals with the way speech sounds behave in particular languages or in languages generally. This focuses on the way languages use differences between sounds in order to convey differences of meaning between words. All theories of phonology hold that spoken language can be broken down into a string of sound units (phonemes). A phoneme is the smallest 'distinctive unit sound' of a language. It distinguishes one word from another in a given language. This means changing a phoneme in a word, produces another word, that has a different meaning. In the pair of words (minimal pairs) 'cat' and 'bat', the distinguishing sounds /c/ and /b/ are both phonemes. The phoneme is an abstract term (a speech sound as it exists in the mind of the speaker) and it is specific to a particular language.

A phoneme may have several 'allophones,' related sounds that are distinct but do not change the meaning of a word when they are interchanged. The sounds corresponding to the letter "t" in the English words 'tea' and 'trip' are not in fact quite the same. The position of the tongue is slightly different, which causes a difference in sound detectable by an instrument such as a speech spectrograph. Thus the [t] in 'tea' and the [t] in 'trip' are allophones of the phoneme /t/. Phonology is the link between Phonetics and the rest of Linguistics. Only by studying both the phonetics and the phonology of English is it possible to acquire a full understanding of the use of sounds in English speech.

IPA symbols are composed of one or more elements of two basic types, letters and diacritics. For example, the sound of the English letter '*t*' may be transcribed in IPA with a single letter, [t], or with a letter plus diacritics, [t͡ʰ], depending on how precise one wishes to be. Often, slashes are used to signal broad or phonemic transcription; thus, /t/ is less specific than, and could refer to, either [t͡ʰ] or [t], depending on the context and language.

This is the standard set of phonemic symbols for English.

Consonants		Vowels	
p	*pen, copy, happen*	ɪ	*kit, bid, hymn, minute*
b	*back, baby, job*	e	*dress, bed, head, many*
t	*tea, tight, button*	æ	*trap, bad*
d	*day, ladder, odd*	ɒ	*lot, odd, wash*
k	*key, clock, school*	ʌ	*strut, mud, love, blood*
g	*get, giggle, ghost*	ʊ	*foot, good, put*
tʃ	*church, match, nature*	iː	*fleece, sea, machine*
dʒ	*judge, age, soldier*	eɪ	*face, day, break*
f	*fat, coffee, rough, photo*	aɪ	*price, high, try*
v	*view, heavy, move*	ɔɪ	*choice, boy*
θ	*thing, author, path*	uː	*goose, two, blue, group*
ð	*this, other, smooth*	əʊ	*goat, show, no*
s	*soon, cease, sister*	aʊ	*mouth, now*
z	*zero, music, roses, buzz*	ɪə	*near, here, weary*
ʃ	*ship, sure, nat<u>i</u>onal*	eə	*square. fair, various*
ʒ	*plea<u>s</u>ure, vi<u>s</u>ion*	ɑː	*start, father*
h	*hot, whole, ahead*	ɔː	*thought, law, north, war*
m	*more, hammer, sum*	ʊə	*poor, jury, cure*
n	*nice, know, funny, sun*	ɜː	*nurse, stir, learn, refer*
ŋ	*ring, anger, thanks, sung*	ə	*<u>a</u>bout, comm<u>o</u>n, stand<u>ar</u>d*
l	*light, valley, feel*	i	*happ<u>y</u>, radi<u>a</u>te. glor<u>i</u>ous*
r	*right, wrong, sorry, arrange*	u	*thank y<u>ou</u>, infl<u>u</u>ence, sit<u>u</u>ation*
j	*yet, use, beauty, few*		
w	*wet, one, when, queen*	n̩	*sudd<u>en</u>ly, cott<u>on</u>*
ʔ	*(glottal stop) depar<u>t</u>ment, foo<u>t</u>ball*	l̩	*middl<u>e</u>, met<u>al</u>*
		ˈ	*(stress mark)*

Source credit: http://www.phon.ucl.ac.uk/home/wells/phoneticsymbolsforenglish.htm

Below is the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) symbols that are revised to 2015. They are currently used as academic language study, such as a reference in the Encyclopedia Britannica available online on https://www.britannica.com (2017).

The International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA –revised to 2015)

Consonants (Pulmonic)

	Bilabial	Labiodental	Dental	Alveolar	Postalveolar	Retroflex	Palatal	Velar	Uvular	Pharyngeal	Glottal
Plosive	p b			t d		ʈ ɖ	c ɟ	k g	q ɢ		ʔ
Nasal	m	ɱ		n		ɳ	ɲ	ŋ	ɴ		
Trill	ʙ			r					ʀ		
Tap or Flap		ⱱ		ɾ		ɽ					
Fricative	ɸ β	f v	θ ð	s z	ʃ ʒ	ʂ ʐ	ç ʝ	x ɣ	χ ʁ	ħ ʕ	h ɦ
Lateral fricative				ɬ ɮ							
Approximant		ʋ		ɹ		ɻ	j	ɰ			
Lateral approximant				l		ɭ	ʎ	ʟ			

Symbols to the right in a cell are voiced, to the left are voiceless. Shaded areas denote articulations judged impossible.

Consonants (Non-pulmonic)

Clicks	Voiced implosives	Ejectives
ʘ Bilabial	ɓ Bilabial	ʼ Examples:
ǀ Dental	ɗ Dental/alveolar	pʼ Bilabial
ǃ (Post)alveolar	ʄ Palatal	tʼ Dental/alveolar
ǂ Palatoalveolar	ɠ Velar	kʼ Velar
ǁ Alveolar lateral	ʛ Uvular	sʼ Alveolar fricative

OTHER SYMBOLS

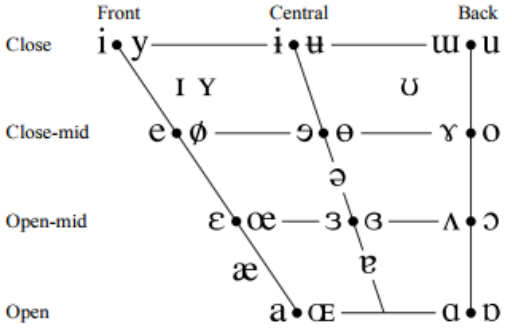
- ʍ Voiceless labial-velar fricative
- w Voiced labial-velar approximant
- ɥ Voiced labial-palatal approximant
- ʜ Voiceless epiglottal fricative
- ʢ Voiced epiglottal fricative
- ʡ Epiglottal plosive
- ɕ ʑ Alveolo-palatal fricatives
- ɺ Voiced alveolar lateral flap
- ɧ Simultaneous ʃ and x

Affricates and double articulations can be represented by two symbols joined by a tie bar if necessary. t͡s k͡p

DIACRITICS Some diacritics may be placed above a symbol with a descender, e.g. ŋ̊

◌̥	Voiceless	n̥ d̥	◌̤	Breathy voiced	b̤ a̤	◌̪	Dental	t̪ d̪
◌̬	Voiced	s̬ t̬	◌̰	Creaky voiced	b̰ a̰	◌̺	Apical	t̺ d̺
◌ʰ	Aspirated	tʰ dʰ	◌̼	Linguolabial	t̼ d̼	◌̻	Laminal	t̻ d̻
◌̹	More rounded	ɔ̹	◌ʷ	Labialized	tʷ dʷ	◌̃	Nasalized	ẽ
◌̜	Less rounded	ɔ̜	◌ʲ	Palatalized	tʲ dʲ	◌ⁿ	Nasal release	dⁿ
◌̟	Advanced	u̟	◌ˠ	Velarized	tˠ dˠ	◌ˡ	Lateral release	dˡ
◌̠	Retracted	e̠	◌ˤ	Pharyngealized	tˤ dˤ	◌̚	No audible release	d̚
◌̈	Centralized	ë	~	Velarized or pharyngealized	ɫ			
◌̽	Mid-centralized	e̽	◌̝	Raised	e̝ (ɪ̝ = voiced alveolar fricative)			
◌̩	Syllabic	n̩	◌̞	Lowered	e̞ (β̞ = voiced bilabial approximant)			
◌̯	Non-syllabic	e̯	◌̘	Advanced Tongue Root	e̘			
◌˞	Rhoticity	ɚ a˞	◌̙	Retracted Tongue Root	e̙			

Vowels



Where symbols appear in pairs, the one to the right represents a rounded vowel.

SUPRASEGMENTALS

- ˈ Primary stress ˌfoʊnəˈtɪʃən
- ˌ Secondary stress
- ː Long eː
- ˑ Half-long eˑ
- ˘ Extra-short ĕ
- | Minor (foot) group
- ‖ Major (intonation) group
- . Syllable break ɹi.ækt
- ‿ Linking (absence of a break)

TONES AND WORD ACCENTS

LEVEL			CONTOUR		
e̋ or ˥	Extra high		ě or ˧˥	Rising	
é ˦	High		ê ˥˧	Falling	
ē ˧	Mid		e᷄ ˦˥	High rising	
è ˨	Low		e᷅ ˩˧	Low rising	
ȅ ˩	Extra low		e᷈ ˩˦˧	Rising-falling	
↓	Downstep		↗	Global rise	
↑	Upstep		↘	Global fall	

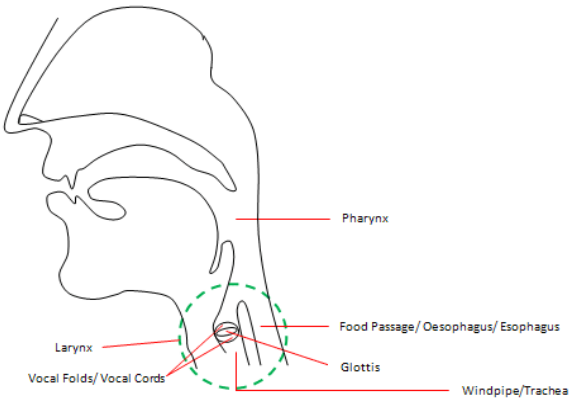
3. Phonology and articulation of speech sounds

The organs of speech

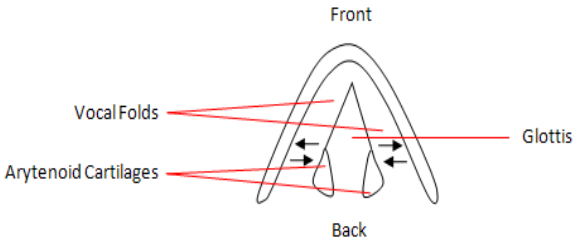
Referring to Tanvir Shameem (December, 2010) the various organs which are involved in the production of speech sounds are called *speech organs* (also known as *vocal organs*). The study of speech organs helps to determine the role of each organ in the production of speech sounds. They include the *lungs*, the *vocal folds*, and most importantly the *articulators*.

1. *The Lungs*. The airflow is by far the most vital requirement for producing speech sound, since all speech sounds are made with some movement of air. The lungs provide the energy source for the airflow. The lungs are the spongy respiratory organs situated inside the rib cage. They expand and contract as we breathe in and out air. The amount of air accumulated inside our lungs controls the pressure of the airflow.

2. *The Larynx & the Vocal Folds*. The larynx is colloquially known as the *voice box*. It is a box-like small structure situated in the front of the throat where there is a protuberance. For this reason the larynx is popularly called the *Adam's apple*. This casing is formed of cartilages and muscles. It protects as well as houses the *trachea* (also known as *windpipe*, *oesophagus*, *esophagus*) and the *vocal folds* (formerly they were called *vocal cords*). The vocal folds are like a pair of lips placed horizontally from front to back. They are joined in the front but can be separated at the back. The opening between them is called *glottis*. The glottis is considered to be in open state when the folds are apart, and when the folds are pressed together the glottis is considered to be in close state.



Vocal folds



The inside of the larynx (Shameem, 2010)

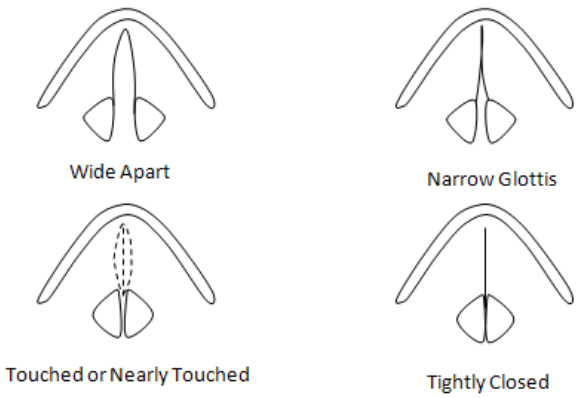
The opening of the vocal folds takes different positions.

1. Wide Apart: When the folds are wide apart they do not vibrate. The sounds produced in such position are called *breathed* or *voiceless sounds*. For example: /p/, /f/, /θ/, /s/.

2. Narrow Glottis: If the air is passed through the glottis when it is narrowed then there is an audible friction. Such sounds are also *voiceless* since the vocal folds do not vibrate. For example, in English /h/ is a *voiceless glottal fricative* sound.

3. Tightly Closed: The vocal folds can be firmly pressed together so that the air cannot pass between them. Such a position produces a glottal stop /ʔ/ (also known as *glottal catch*, *glottal plosive*).

4. Touched or Nearly Touched: The major role of the vocal folds is that of a vibrator in the production of speech. The folds vibrate when these two are touching each other or nearly touching. The pressure of the air coming from the lungs makes them vibrate. This vibration of the folds produces a musical note called voice. And sounds produced in such manner are called *voiced sounds*. In English all the *vowel sounds* and the *consonants* /v/, /z/, /m/, /n/ are voiced.

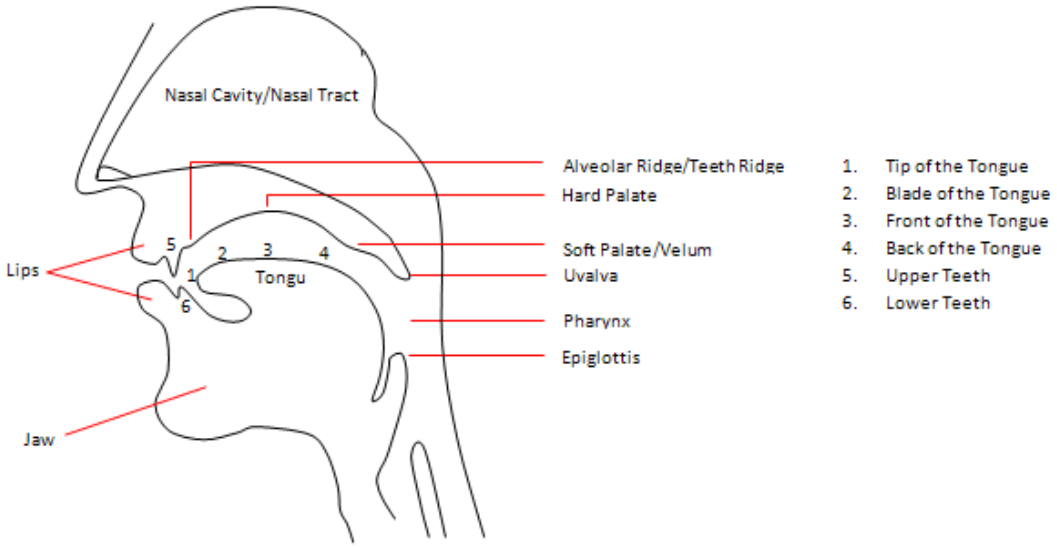


Different stages of glottal stops (Shameem, 2010)

Thus it is clear that the main function of the vocal folds is to convert the air delivered by the lungs into audible sound. The opening and closing process of the vocal folds manipulates the airflow to control the pitch and the tone of speech sounds. As a result, we have different qualities of sounds.

The Articulators

Articulators transform the sound into intelligible speech. They can be either *active* or *passive*. They include the pharynx, the teeth, the alveolar ridge behind them, the hard palate, the softer velum behind it, the lips, the tongue, and the nose and its cavity. Traditionally the articulators are studied with the help of a sliced human head figure like the following:



The Articulators (Shameem, 2010)

1. *The Pharynx*. The pharynx lies between the mouth and the food passage, that is, just above the larynx. It is just about 7cm long in the case of women and 8cm long in the case of men.

2. *The Roof of the Mouth.* The roof of the mouth is considered as a major speech organ. It is divided into three parts:

2.1 *The Alveolar Ridge/Teeth Ridge*. The alveolar ridge is situated immediately after the upper front teeth. The sounds which are produced touching this convex part are called *alveolar sounds*. Some alveolar sounds in English include: /t/d/.

2.2 *The Hard Palate*. The hard palate is the concave part of the roof of the mouth. It is situated on the middle part of the roof.

2.3 *The Velum or Soft Palate*. The lower part of the roof of the mouth is called soft palate. It could be lowered or raised. When it is lowered, the air stream from the lungs has access to the nasal cavity. When it is raised the passage to the nasal cavity is blocked. The sounds which are produced touching this area with the back of the tongue are called *velar sounds*. For example: /k/g/.

3. *The Lips*. The lips also play an important role in the matter of articulation. They can be pressed together or brought into contact with the teeth. The *consonant sound***s** which are articulated by touching two lips each other are called *bilabial sounds*. For example, /p/ and /b/ are bilabial sounds in English. Whereas, the sounds which are produced with lip to teeth contact are called *labiodental* sounds. In English there are two labiodental sounds: /f/ and /v/.

Another important thing about the lips is that they can take different shapes and positions. Therefore, *lip-rounding* is considered as a major criterion for describing *vowel sounds*. The lips may have the following positions:

3.1 *Rounded*. When we pronounce a vowel, our lips can be rounded, a position where the corners of the lips are brought towards each other and the lips are pushed forwards. And the resulting vowel from this position is a ***rounded*** one. For example, /ə/ /ʊ/.

3.2 *Spread*. The lips can be spread. In this position the lips are moved away from each other (i.e. when we smile). The vowel that we articulate from this position is an *unrounded* one. For example, in English /i: /is a long vowel with slightly spread lips.

3.3 *Neutral*. Again, the lips can be neutral, a position where the lips are not noticeably rounded or spread. And the articulated vowel from this position is referred to as **unrounded vowel**. For example, in English /ɑ: / is a long vowel with neutral lips.

Vowel Lip Postures: Adapted from Jeremy Harmer by Shameem (2010)

4. *The Teeth*: The teeth are also very much helpful in producing various speech sounds. The sounds which are made with the tongue touching the teeth are called *dental sounds*. Some examples of dental sounds in English include: /θ/ and /ð/.

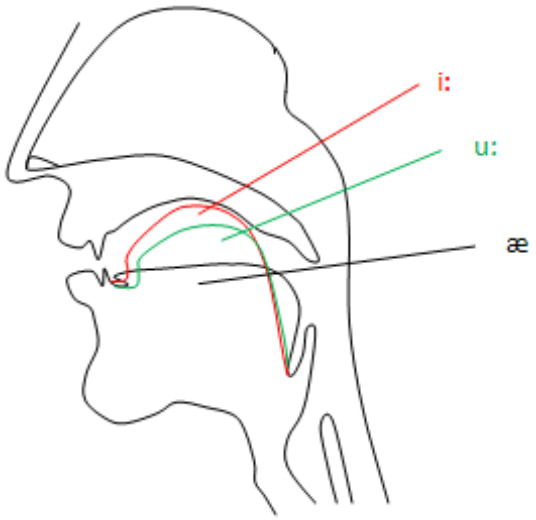
5. *The Tongue***:** The tongue is divided into four parts:

1) The tip. It is the extreme end of the tongue.
2) The blade. It lies opposite to the alveolar ridge.
3) The front. It lies opposite to the hard palate.
4) The back. It lies opposite to the soft palate or velum.

The tongue is responsible for the production of many speech sounds, since it can move very fast to different places and is also capable of assuming different shapes. The shape and the position of the tongue are especially crucial for the production of *vowel sounds*. Thus when we describe the vowel sounds in the context of the function of the tongue, we generally consider the following criteria:

1) Tongue Height: It is concerned with the vertical distance between the upper surface of the tongue and the hard palate. From this perspective the vowels can be described as *close* and *open*. For instance, because of the different distance between the surface of the tongue and the roof of the mouth, the vowel /i: /has to be described as a relatively *close* vowel, whereas /æ / has to be described as a relatively *open* vowel.

2) Tongue *Frontness* / *Backness*: It is concerned with the part of tongue between the front and the back, which is raised high. From this point of view the vowel sounds can be classified as *front vowels* and *back vowels*. By changing the shape of the tongue we can produce vowels in which a different part of the tongue is the highest point. That means, a vowel having the back of the tongue as the highest point is a back vowel, whereas the one having the front of the tongue as the highest point is called a front vowel. For example: during the articulation of the vowel / u: / the back of the tongue is raised high, so it's a **back** vowel. On the other hand, during the articulation of the vowel / æ / the front of the tongue is raise high, therefore, it's a **front** vowel.



Position of the Tongue (Shameem, 2010)

6. *The Jaws*: Some phoneticians consider the jaws as articulators, since we move the lower jaw a lot at the time of speaking. But it should be noted that the jaws are not articulators in the same way as the others. The main reason is that they are incapable of making contact with other articulators by themselves.

7. *The Nose and the Nasal Cavity:* The nose and its cavity may also be considered as speech organs. The sounds which are produced with the nose are called *nasal sounds*. Some nasal sounds in English include: /m/, /n/, /ŋ/.

Classifying the vowel sounds. The classification of vowels is based on four major aspects:

1. *Tongue height*. According to the vertical position of the tongue (high vowels, also referred to as close; low vowels, also referred to as open; intermediate - close-mid and open-mid).

2. *Frontness and backness*. According to the horizontal position of the highest part of the tongue.

3. *Lip rounding*. Whether the lips are rounded (O-shape) or spread (no rounding) when the sound is being made.

4. *Tenseness of the articulators*. Refers to the amount of muscular tension around the mouth when creating vowel sounds. Tense and lax are used to describe muscular tension.

	Front vowels (tongue body is pushed forward)	Central vowels (tongue body is neutral)	Back vowels (tongue body is pulled back)
High/close vowels (tongue body is raised)	/i:/ see /ɪ/ sit		/u:/ boot /ʊ/ book
Mid vowels (tongue body is intermediate)	/e/ bait* /ɛ/ bet	/ə/ sofa** /ɜ:/ bird	/o/ boat* /ɔ/ bought***
Low/open vowels (tongue body is lowered)	/æ/ bat	/ʌ/ under**	/a:/ father, /ɒ/ sock(BrE)

* In some American accents (Californian English), vowel sounds in words such as b**a**it, g**a**te, p**a**ne and b**oa**t, c**oa**t, n**o**te are not consider diphthongs. American phonologists often class them as tense monophthongs (/e/ and /o/).

** /ə/ is used in unstressed syllables, while /**ʌ**/ is in stressed syllables. The vowel /**ʌ**/ used to be a back vowel, and the symbol was chosen for this reason. This is no longer a back vowel, but a central one.

*** A considerable amount of Americans don't have the deep /**ɔ**:/ in their vocabulary, they pronounce b**ou**ght, b**a**ll, l**aw** with the deep /a:/ sound.

According to the position of the lips:

1). English front and central vowels are always unrounded.

2). English back vowels /u:/, /ʊ/, /o/, /ɔ:/ are rounded (/ɑ:/ vowel is unrounded).

Vowel Tenseness:

1). Tense vowels (produced with a great amount of muscular tension): /i:/, /ɔ:/, /u:/, /ɜ:/, /ɑ:/. Tense vowels are variable in length, and often longer than lax vowels.

2). Lax vowels (produced with very little muscular tension): /ɪ/, /ɛ/, /æ/, /ʊ/, /ɒ/, /ʌ/, /ə/. Lax vowels are always short.

Classifying the Consonants Sounds based on *Manner* and Place of *Articulation*

According to the manner of articulation (how breath is used) the consonants are: stops, also known as plosives, fricatives, affricates, nasals, laterals, and approximants. Nasals, laterals and approximants are always voiced; stops, fricatives and affricates can be voiced or unvoiced.

Stops /Plosives/	During production of these sounds, the airflow from the lungs is completely blocked at some point, then released. In English, they are /p/, /b/, /t/, /d/, /k/, and /g/.
Fricatives	The flow of air is constricted, but not totally stopped or blocked. In English, these include /f/, /v/, /θ/, /ð/, /s/, /z/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/, and /h/.
Affricates	These sounds begin like stops, with a complete blockage of air/closure of the vocal tract, and end with a restricted flow of air like fricatives. English has two affricates - the /tʃ/ sounds of "church" and the /dʒ/ of "judge".
Nasals	Nasals are sounds made with air passing through the nose. In English, these are /m/, /n/, and /ŋ/.
Laterals	Lateral consonants allow the air to escape at the sides of the tongue. In English there is only one such sound - /l/
Approximants	In the production of an approximant, one articulator is close to another, but the vocal tract is not narrowed to such an extent that a turbulent airstream is produced. In English, these are /j/, /w/ and /r/. Approximants /j/ and /w/ are also referred to as semi-vowels.

According to the place of articulation (where in the mouth or throat the sound is produced) the consonants are:

Bilabial: with both lips	/p/, /b/, /m/
Labiodental: between lower lip and upper teeth	/f/, /v/
Dental/Interdental: between the teeth	/θ/, /ð/
Alveolar: the ridge behind the upper front teeth	/t/, /d/, /s/, /z/, /n/, /l/, /r/
Alveo-palatal (or post-alveolar): it is the area between the alveolar ridge and the hard palate	/ʃ/, /ʒ/, /tʃ/, / dʒ /

Palatal: hard palate, or 'roof' of the mouth'	/j/
Velar: the soft palate or velum	/k/, /g/, /ŋ/
Glottal (laryngeal): space between the vocal cords	/h/

English Consonants: Spellings and manner of articulation

1. ***Stop consonants***: We (start or finishing point) stop the air completely.

/p/ wrap, p**ay, pu**ppy	**/b/ gra**b, b**at,** B**obby**	**/t/** t**alk**ed, **ten**t
/t/ t**alk**ed, **ten**t	**/g/ be**g, g**et, bi**gg**er,** gh**ost, colle**ague	**/k/ li**ck, c**oat,** k**ill, te**ch**nology, fo**lk**s, a**cq**uire, li**quo**r**

2. ***Fricatives***: We let the air leak through a narrow passage.

/f/ **lau**gh, ph**one,** f**at, stu**ff	/v/ **li**ve, v**isit, o**f, **Ste**ph**en**	**/s/ ki**ss, s**ick, ri**ce, c**ycle,** sc**ience, lis**te**n, bo**x
/z/ **lo**se, z**ero, bu**zz, **ha**s, **scissors,** x**ylophone**	/ʃ/ **ca**sh, sh**ip, spe**ci**al, sta**tion, **ten**sion, **ma**ch**ine, o**ce**an,** **con**sc**ience,** s**ure, i**ssue	/ʒ/ **lei**su**re, gara**ge, **deci**sion, a**zure**
/θ/ th**in, bo**th, **ether**	/ð/ **ba**the, th**ere**	/h/ h**ot,** wh**o**

3. ***Affricatives***: We block the air and then abruptly release it.

/ʤ/ **mana**ge, j**am, bri**dge, **sugge**st, **sol**di**er**	/ʧ/ **rea**ch, ch**ocolate, wa**tch, **fu**tu**re, que**sti**on, righ**teou**s**	/ks/ **tex**t, **fa**x, **ne**x**t, ha**cks, **jo**kes

4. ***Nasal***: We push air out from our nose.

/m/ **drea**m, m**eet, su**mm**er,** cli**mb**, cal**m**, autu**mn**	/n/ **liste**n, n**ut, su**nn**y,** kn**ow,** gn**at,** pn**eumonia**	/ŋ/ **si**ng, **so**ng

5. ***Liquid*** (Approximant). We position the tongue in a manner that obstructs the airflow but without causing a friction (as in the case of /s/ or /f/, hence the term fricative) resulting in a consonant with a vowel-like quality.

/r/ r**un, ca**re**, ca**r**ry,** wr**ong,** rh**ythm** /l/ **se**ll, l**and**

6. ***Glide*** (Approximant)**.** We begin a sound from a vowel position and end it in a consonant's.

/w/ **w**ould, **wh**ite, q**u**ick, ch**o**ir /j/ or /ju/ Y**ear-q**ueue**, b**eau**tiful, f**ew**, v**iew**,** u**se, c**ue**, f**eu**d**

7. ***Tapped*** "**T"** and "**D**". We quickly tap the tongue tip against the gum.

/ɾ/ **City, letter, ladder, interested in**

8. ***Glottal Stop***. We block the air from the glottis.

/ʔ/ T**in, city, today, trust, time,** t**attoo**

A consonant classification chart shows where the different consonant sounds are created in the mouth and throat area. This is important especially when trying to help children or adults learn to speak properly if they have speech problems. For the non-linguist, this chart can be difficult to read and understand. The purpose of the chart is to show where in the mouth different consonant sounds derive and how much air is needed to create the sounds. For this reason, the chart often has the location of the sound (place) across the top and the way the sound is produced (manner) down the side. To elaborate more understanding, tabling and picture graphic presentation will make it clear for those learners who are practicing to improve their English pronunciation. They are shown as following:

Consonant Classification Chart

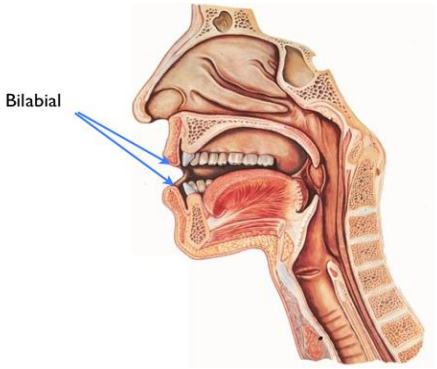
Classification of English Consonant Phonemes							
Manner of Articulation	**Place of Articulation**						
	Bilabial	**Labio-dental**	**Dental**	**Alveolar**	**Palatal**	**Velar**	**Glottal**
Stop Voiceless Voiced	p b			t d		k g	ʔ
Fricative Voiceless Voiced		f v	ɵ ð	s z	ʃ ʒ		h
Affricate Voiceless Voiced					ʧ ʤ		

Nasal Voiced	m			N		ŋ	
Liquid Voiced				l	r (ɹ)		
Glide Voiced	w				j	w	

Place of Articulation

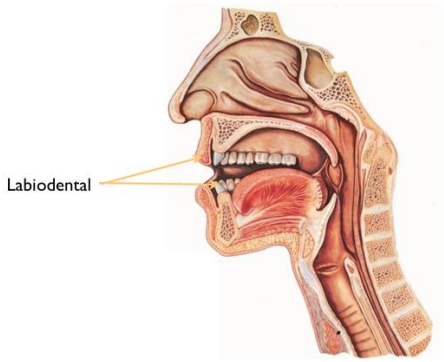
Bilabial. Uses both lips to create the sound such as the beginning sounds in *pin*, *bust*, *well* and the ending sound in *seem*. Bilabial consonants occur when speaker blocks/constricts airflow out of the mouth by bringing your lips together. English contains the following three bilabial consonants shown in the picture.

/p/ as in ***p****urse* and *ra****p****,* /b/ as in ***b****ack* and *ca****b****,* /m/ as in ***m****ad* and *cla****m***



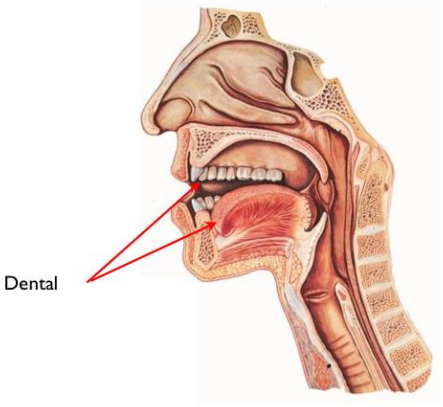
Labio-dental. Uses the lower lip and upper teeth; examples include *fin* and *van*. Consonants occur when you block/constrict airflow by curling your lower lip back and raising it to touch your upper row of teeth. English contains the following two labio-dental sounds, shown in the picture.

/f/ as in ***f****ro* and *calf* and /v/ as in ***v****ine* and *ha****v****e*



Dental. Creates sound between the teeth such as *the* and *thin*. Dental consonants occur when you block/constrict airflow by placing your slimy tongue against your upper teeth. English contains the following two labio-dental sounds shown in the picture.

/θ/ as is ***th****ick* and *ba****th***, /ð/ as in ***th****e* and *ra****th****er*

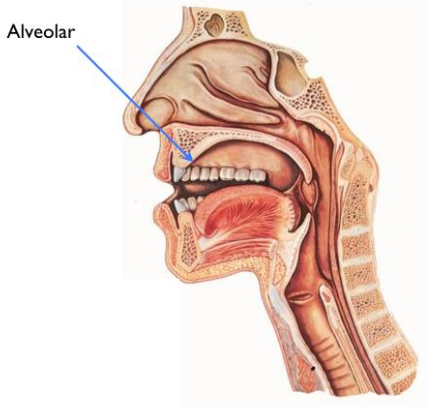


Alveolar. Is a sound created with the tongue and the ridge behind the upper teeth; examples include the beginning sounds of *tin*, *dust*, *sin*, *zoo*, and *late* and the /n/ in *scene*. The alveolar ridge is where your teeth meet your gums. *Alveolar* consonants are created when raising the tongue to the alveolar ridge to block or constrict airflow. The English alveolar consonants are as follows:

/n/ as in *"**n**o"* and *"ma**n**"* /s/ as in *"**s**uit"* and *"bu**s**"*

/t/ as in *"**t**ab"* and *"ra**t**"* /d/ as in *"**d**ip"* and *"ba**d**"*

/z/ as in *"**z**it"* and *"ja**zz**"* /l/ as in *"**l**uck"* and *"fu**ll**y"*



Palatal (including ***Post-Alveolar***). Uses the tongue and the hard palate to create the following sounds: *shin*, *treasure*, *cheep*, *jeep*, *rate* and *yell*. The roof of your mouth is the *hard palate*. You may know it as "the place that burns like hell when I eat pizza that is too hot." You create Palatal consonants when you raise the tongue to this point and constrict airflow. English has only one palatal consonant like /j/ as in *"**y**es"* and *"ba**y**ou."* When the speaker retracts, the tongue back just a bit from the alveolar ridge, the sounds change enough to be recognized as distinct consonants. So post-alveolar consonants are those that occur when the tongue blocks or constricts airflow at the point just beyond the alveolar ridge.

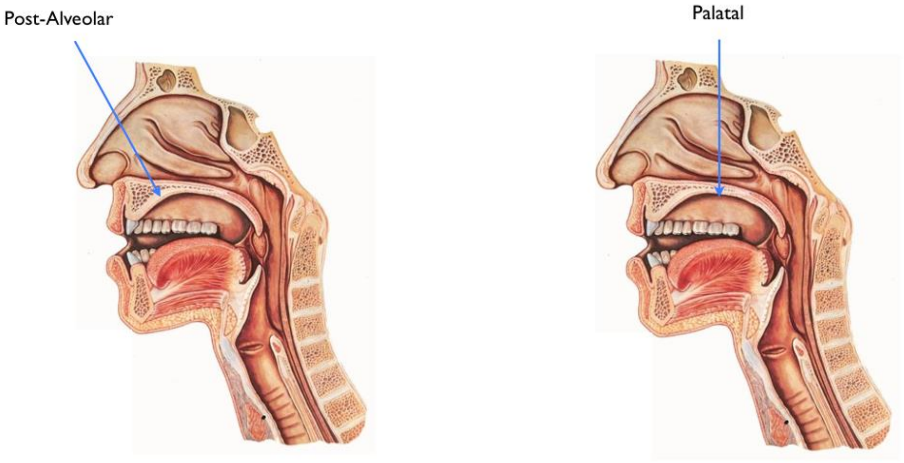
The post-alveolar English consonants are as follows, also see the picture:

/ʃ/ as in *"**sh**ot"* or *"bra**sh**"*

/ʧ/ as in *"**ch**ick"* or *"ma**tch**"*

/ʒ/ as in "*vi**s**ion"* or *"mea**s**ure"*

/ʤ/ as in *"**j**am"* or *"ba**dge**"*



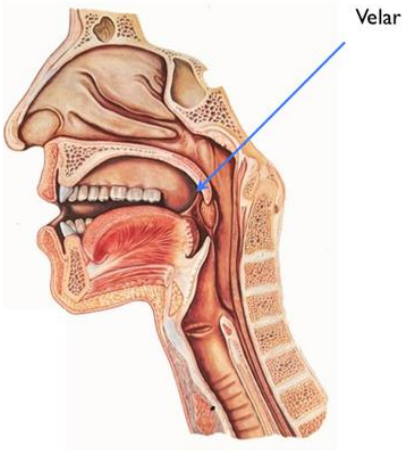
Velar. Makes the sound using the soft palate in the back of the mouth; sounds include *kin*, *gust*, and the *-ng* in *sing***.** Behind your hard palate you have the *velum* or *soft palate.* Unlike the bony hard palate in front of it, this consists of soft, mucous tissue. Speaker makes *Velar Consonants* when they raise the back of your tongue to the velum to block or restrict airflow. English has the following velar consonants:

/ŋ/ as in *"goi**n**g"* and *"**un**cle"*

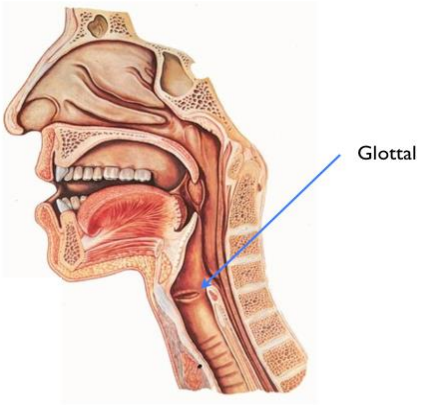
/g/ as in *"**g**ood"* and *"bu**g**"*

/k/ as in *"**k**ite"* and *"ba**ck**"*

/w/ as in *"**w**et"* and *"ho**w**ard"*



Glottal. It is a sound made in the throat between the vocal cords such as in the word *hit*. The glottis is actually two vocal folds (i.e. vocal cords). It acts as a sort of bottle cap to the windpipe. Inhale and then hold the breath for a few seconds while keeping the mouth open. What speakers are actually doing to keep the air from expelling out of their lungs by closing their glottis.

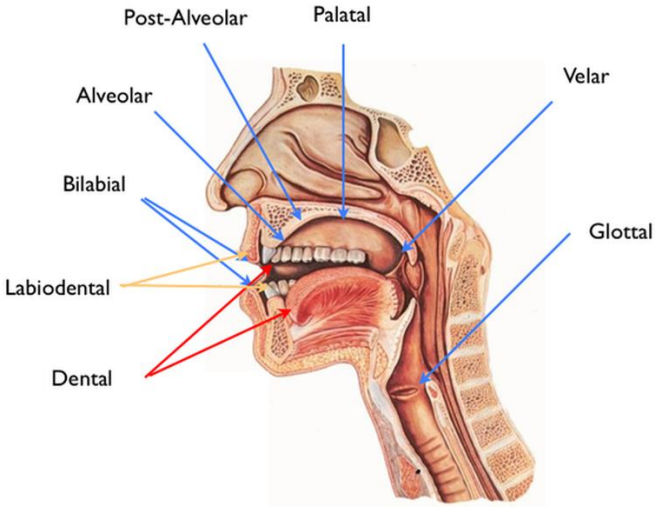


Glottal consonants are not actually consonants, they just play consonant roles in the language. In English, the following things happen at the glottis:

1. /h/ as in "**h**i" and "Ba**h**amas." Say these words and notice how you're not actually constricting or blocking airflow for this /h/ sound. You're just exhaling a little bit harder than you would for a normal vowel sound in *transition* to the following vowel sound.

2. /?/ – This is actually the culprit behind many of the "silent syllables" we discussed in the first lesson. For example, in the phrase "wha(t) time is it?" the /t/ in "what" is dropped and the vowel sound before it is closed at the glottis.

The place of articulation is not the only feature that determines the sound of a consonant. There is also *manner of articulation* and *phonation*. Here is the full chart again for reviewing.



Manner of Articulation

The manner of articulation means how the sound is made using the different places of articulation, tongue placement, whether the sound is voiced or unvoiced and the amount of air needed.

***Stops*.** Air coming from the lungs is stopped at some point during the formation of the sound. Some of these sounds are unvoiced, such as pin, tin, and kin; some of these are voiced, such as *bust*, *dust* and *gust*.

***Fricatives*.** Restricted air flow causes friction but the air flow isn't completely stopped. Unvoiced examples include fin, thin, sin, shin, and hit; voiced examples include van, zoo, the, and treasure**.**

***Affricates*.** Are combinations of stops and fricatives. *Cheap* is an example of an unvoiced affricate and *jeep* is an example of a voiced**.**

Nasals. As expected, the air is stopped from going through the mouth and is redirected into the nose. Voiced examples include *seem*, *seen*, *scene*, and *sing*.

Liquids. Almost no air is stopped; voiced exampled included *late* and *rate*.

Glides. Sometimes referred to as "semi-vowels," the air passes through the articulators to create vowel like sounds but the letters are known as consonants. Examples include *well* and *yell*.

The schwa sound /ə/

The schwa sound is the smallest and least important sound in the English language yet the most common of all sounds. Generally, the schwa sound is never stressed (There are some exceptions when it is) otherwise, it will affect the rhythm of the students' speech dramatically. If you, as a learner, understand the schwa sound and how to use it, it will improve your English rhythm and intonation drastically and make it sound more native-like. Many vowels are shortened and transformed into *schwa* sounds to help English speakers spend more time on the sounds that are more important to the central idea of the sentence. Thus the schwa sound is mostly found in functional words or grammar words such as pronouns, auxiliaries, verb [be], conjunctions, and articles. In a sentence like: "*I would have been DEAD if he didn't HELP me*." the words in capital letters are content words, which means they are crucial for learners of English to understand the content of the sentence. These words are fully stressed ([didn't] is also stressed but receives weaker stress than [help]). So in order to produce it with proper rhythm and at natural speed, it can be changed from */aɪ wʊd hæv bɪn ded ɪf hi dɪdᵊnt help mi/* to */aɪ wədəv bən ded əfi dɪdᵊnt help mi/.*

The *schwa* sound can be found in the beginning of a word as in [**a**bout], in the middle as in [el**e**phant], and in the end as in [id**ea**]. Although it would almost be impossible for English learners to find the schwa sound in every word, there are some guidelines on how to find them as follows:

In function words: ***articles, pronouns, modals, conjunctions, and prepositions***

a-an-the	**a** chair – **a**n apple – th**e** table
am-are-is-was	**A**m I? – How **are** you? – Who **i**s he? - I w**a**s singing.

and-but	Chicken **a**nd chips. – It's hard b**u**t I like it.
than-or	I like it more th**a**n you do. – Coffee **or** tea.
that-to	I told you th**a**t he was good. – I'd like t**o** see you.
can-could	I c**a**n do it. – I c**ou**l**d** do it.
will-would	W**i**ll it rain? – W**ou**l**d** you mind?
your-his-her-their	I like y**our** shirt/h**i**s hair/h**er** pen/th**eir** sons?
him-her-it-them	I hate **i**m. – I love **er**. – I love it. – One of **em**.
In-on-of	It's **i**n the closet. – It's **o**n the table. – Get out **o** here.
for-with	I'm looking f**or** a room – Come w**i**th me
you	What are y**ou** doing?
have-has-had	I h**a**ve a question. – He h**a**s a problem. – She h**a**d a pet.
should	Sh**ou**ld I go
As-if	**A**s soon **a**s possible. – I'll go **i**f you do.

In prefixes and suffixes

in	**I**nfluence – **i**nappropriate
suc	S**u**cceed – s**u**ccinct (verbs)
to	T**o**gether – t**o**wards – t**o**day – t**o**morrow
ad	**A**dvance – **a**dversary – **a**dapt
be	B**e**come – b**e**fore – b**e**long - b**e**tray
ible	Terr**i**ble – horr**i**ble – poss**i**ble – incred**i**ble
able	Understand**a**ble – avail**a**ble – ador**a**ble – lov**a**ble
ish	Hell**i**sh – snobb**i**sh – sheep**i**sh – Engl**i**sh
ment	Mom**e**nt – entertainm**e**nt – governm**e**nt
ous	Preci**ou**s – gener**ou**s – vici**ou**s
tion	Solut**i**on – repetit**i**on – adopt**i**on
ant	Import**a**nt – arrog**a**nt – dorm**a**nt – milit**a**nt – pleas**a**nt

Actually, accurate reproduction of both consonants and vowels is crucial for improving fluency and intelligibility. Investing a little more time on practicing vowels could be more effective to improve the speaking and listening skills of the students. The more you teach pronunciation, the more you realize that the English vowels and pitch (intonation) are indeed inherently connected. You cannot teach one without

the other. You might be able to teach word and sentence stress (the English rhythm) without going too strict about the vowels. And to some extent, you might be able to teach them in isolation, but when it comes to practicing vowels, you will find it inevitable to teach pitch.

1. Vowel trait 1: *Height.* How high or low is the tongue inside the mouth when producing a vowel? Is it all the way in the bottom as in the case of /a/ or /ɑ:/? or is it somewhere in the middle as in the case of the schwa sound or /ʌ/? or is it perhaps all the way up close to the palate (roof of the mouth) where vowels such as /i:/ and /u:/ are made.

2. Vowel trait 2: *Backness.* It occurs when tongue is making a forward or backward movement and when producing the vowel. And it can be put far to the back or front, which it is really moving. It is how it puts all the way back where /ɔ:/ is, or all the way to the front where /i:/ is. When combining height and backness, we can determine how it is like "it is back-low or front-high," for example.

3. Vowel trait 3: *Roundness.* When lips rounded or not rounded and if they are rounded, they have the square rounded shape such as /ɑ:/ and /ɔ:/ (open rounded) or tight circle rounded shape such as /u:/ or /oʊ/ (close rounded).

4. Vowel trait 4: *Tenseness.* When saying this kind of vowel, muscles tense (making effort) as in the case of /i:/, /u:/, /ɔ:/, /ɑ:/ or lax (not making too much effort) as in the case of the *schwa* sound, /ʌ/, /ɪ/ etc. at the time they're producing the vowel.

5. Vowel trait 5: *Length.* The vowel short such as *schwa* sound, /ʌ/, /ɪ/ or long such as /i:/, /u:/, /ɔ:/, /ɑ:/, note that there is separate category known as diphthongs (diphthongs are special vowels that contain 1 vowel + consonant /j/ or /w/. Check out the picture below. Notice how long vowels are usually tense and short vowels are lax but of course there are exceptions but let us just keep it simple for now.

4. Pronunciation problems for EFL learners

Non-native English speakers often use the pronunciation and communication style of their native language when speaking in English, resulting in accented speech. There are 5 common problem areas that can interfere with intelligibility when speaking in English. Accent modification training can be a great help in addressing these problem areas. Error in these areas can make it difficult to be understood by native English speakers. The degree of the problem will vary depending on one's native language, awareness of English pronunciation rules, and personal differences in language learning ability (Wordpress, 2011).

1. Intonation**.** Intonation refers to the paralinguistic vocal features such as: pitch, loudness, resonance, quality and flexibility. Speakers vary these to show intent and emotion.

2. Stress**.** Stress is extremely important in English and carries a great deal of information. There is stress on both word and sentence levels. Stress can show contrast, if the information is old or new, the focus of the message and other information about the speaker's intent.

3. Thought Groups. This is how speakers' group words into phrases to make their ideas clear. Thought groups put information in understandable chunks to help lead the listener through the speaker's message.

4. Linking**.** Linking is how we transition from word to word. It is based on the last sound of the first word and the first sound of the next word. Without linking, speech sounds choppy and disconnected.

5. Vowels /Consonants**.** English is not a phonetic language, so it is often hard to know how to pronounce a word by its spelling. Pronunciation in English is based on sounds, not spelling. Some sounds in English (*th* for example) don't exist in other languages.

In South East Asia, different communities are covered and influenced by many cultures and different languages. This includes India, Pakistan, Bangladesh, Nepal, Sri Lanka and others. While each are unique, they also share common threads. The people often share common English pronunciation errors.

1. They don't have *aspirated* consonants (pronounced with a puff of air) in their native language, and so they don't add it in English. They must add a puff of air to English aspirated consonants, such as in words that start with *p, t, ch, and k*.

2. The people pronounce *retroflex* on most consonants. This means that they curl up and back the tip of the tongue when they should not. Retroflexed consonants is a strong marker of a ASEAN accent.

3. The people have *tense* and *closed* pronunciation. This, combined with retroflexed consonants, puts much of their pronunciation in the front of the mouth. They must open their mouths and loosen and relax the jaw muscles. In English, the jaw, lips, and tongue are all very flexible and active.

4. They use one sound for *v* and *w*. In English, these are 2 distinct sounds. The */v/* is made with the top teeth touching the lower teeth. Letter 'w' /w/ is a rounded sound, with speaker's lips in a circle and pushed out slightly.

5. They use *intonation* where they should use *stress*. This means that the voice is raised in pitch (goes up) when it should be showing emphasis. This adds to the sing-song sound of speakers from South East Asian languages.

Features Involved in English Pronunciation

Pronunciation refers to the production of speech sounds that people use to make meaning. It focuses on attention to the particular sounds of a language, or *segments* aspects of speech while the features

beyond the level of the individual sound; such as intonation, phrasing, stress, timing, rhythm are known as *suprasegmental* aspects. *Suprasegment* explains how the voice is projected, or voice quality, and as a broadest definition it pays attention to gestures and expressions that are closely related to the way people speak a language (Yates, 2002). Besides, *segmental* features have a broad definition in pronunciation that includes both segmental and suprasegmental features. However, it is important to remember that they all work together when a person is speaking. According to Yates (2002) they are therefore usually best learned as an integral part of spoken language. Segmental aspects of the sound system include individua1 vowels and consonants (Seferoglu (2005). Segmental features relate to sounds at the micro level. They include specific sounds within words (for example, [l] as in *lamp*, [r] as in *ramp*, [æ] as in *hat*). The sounds of consonants, vowels or their combinations are called phonemes. Phonemes are sounds that, when pronounced incorrectly, can change the meaning of the word (Burns, 2003). Because segmental phonology is relatively easier to explain and teach than suprasegmental features (Coniam, 2002), some studies focus on studying segmental phonology in preference to suprasegmental features.

Common pronunciation problems

There are thirty-eight most common pronunciation problems projected in general around the globe, which speakers of English might produce. They can be shown in two categories of consonants and vowels illustrated with words and graphic meaning as below:

1. Common pronunciation problems in ***consonants*** : paring sounds

/r/	**r**ice	/l/	**l**ice
/ʃ/	**sh**eet	/s/	**s**eat
/dʒ/	**j**elly	/tʃ/	**c**ello
/b/	**b**each	/p/	**p**each
/b/	**B**ali	/v/	**v**olley
/v/	**v**et	/w/	**w**et
/ð/	la**th**er	/t̬/	la**dd**er
/z/	bay**s**	/ð/	ba**the**
/t/	**t**ummy	/d/	**d**ummy
/θ/	mou**th**	/s/	mou**se**
/θ/	**th**irst	/f/	**f**irst
/f/	**f**an	/p/	**p**an

/z/	**z**ip	/s/	**s**ip
/k/	bu**ck**	/g/	bu**g**
/d/	ri**de**	/t/	righ**t**
/l/	**l**ight	/n/	**n**ight
/h/	**h**air	/ʔ/	**ai**r
/ʃ/	wa**sh**	/tʃ/	wa**tch**
/j/	**y**ell	/dʒ/	**g**el
/j/	**y**ear	/ʔ/	**ea**r
/l/	co**l**or	/t̚/	cu**tt**er
/n/	law**n**	/ŋ/	lo**ng**
/n/	ca**n**	/m/	ca**m**
/ʒ/	A**si**an	/dʒ/	a**g**ing

2. Common pronunciation problems: ***vowels***

/iː/	b**ea**ch	/ɪ/	b**i**tch
/ɝ/	w**or**k	/ɑː/	w**al**k
/ɝ/	b**ir**d	/ɔː/	b**o**red
/ʌ/	b**u**tt	/e/	b**e**t
/uː/	f**oo**d	/ʊ/	f**oo**t
/oʊ/	c**oa**t	/ɔː/	c**ou**rt
/æ/	b**a**g	/e/	b**e**g
/æ/	c**al**f	/ʌ/	c**ou**gh
/e/	h**e**ll	/ɪ/	h**i**ll
/eɪ/	b**ai**t	/e/	b**e**t
/aɪ/	t**i**le	/eɪ/	t**ai**l
/ə˞/	high**er**	/a/	hi**ya**

Thai Pronunciation problems in English

1. Error type 1: /r/. This consonant doesn't exist in Thai, so it's usually either replaced with a sound similar to /l/ in English when it's the initial sound of the word and substituted for /ɹ/ or omitted

altogether after other consonants such as /p/, /t/,/b/, /d/, /f/, /k/, /g/, /θ/, or rarely /ʃ/. Finally, /r/ is usually omitted in the middle or at the end of a word when it succeeds a vowel. Example of words are:

1.1 /r/ (beginning); **r**ight, **r**ace, **r**eally, **r**ed, **r**ide, **r**ope, **r**anch, **r**ay, **r**ed, **r**ush, **r**abbit, etc.

1.2 /r/ (after consonants); **pr**oblem, **tr**affic, **br**other, **dr**ive, **fr**og, **cr**awl, **gr**eat, **pr**ice, **tr**y, **thr**ee, **gr**een, **gr**ass, **cr**oss, **dr**ess, etc.

1.3 /r/ (end); ca**r**; ba**r**, sta**r**, met**er**; pref**er**; bea**r**; fea**r,** fa**r**m, ma**r**, mo**r**e, ca**r**e, to**r**e, etc.

2. Error type 2: /l/. This consonant has an equivalent in but it can only be found at the beginning of a word. After consonants /p/, /b/, /f/, /k/, /g/, /or /s/, the /l/ can either be replaced by /r/ or /ɹ/ or completely deleted. When Thai learners pronounce a word containing /l/ in the middle, they move their lips forward generating a consonant /w/, sometimes followed with /r/ or /ɹ/ while others produce nothing. When /l/ happens to be the last consonant of a word, it's usually inaudible either because it's been deleted or replaced by /w/. Example of words are:

2.1 /l/ (beginning); **l**ight, **l**ace, **l**ead, **l**augh, **l**earn, etc.

2.2 /l/ (after consonants); **pl**ease, **bl**ue, **fl**y, **cl**ose, **gl**ue, **sl**ow, etc.

2.3 /l/ (middle); fau**l**t, ro**ll**ing, fa**ll**ing, swo**ll**en, rea**ll**y, etc.

2.4 /l/ (end); reca**ll**, fa**ll**, ro**ll**, availab**le**, identica**l,** etc.

3. Error type 3: Consonants Cluster. Thai learners have trouble producing any pair or group of consecutive consonants known as consonant clusters such as /ks/, /gz/, /ts/, /st/, /dz/, /str/, /pl/, /kr/, and /bz/. Consequently, some consonants in these clusters can either be substituted or omitted. Needless to say, consonant clusters can be found at the beginning, middle or end of a word. Thai learners' problem pronunciation in this type are those in such words as ro**cks**, ba**gs**, sea**ts**, **st**eak, roa**ds**, **st**rike, **pl**ural, **cr**ow, and **sl**a**bs**.

4. Error type 4: Confusion with stops, fricatives and affricates. Stops or plosives are consonants for which we abruptly and utterly block the airflow such as /k/, /g/, /t/, /d/, /p/, and /b/. Thai learners, in particular, struggle with ending the words with such consonants. As a result, the stop consonants are either omitted or replaced by a fricative, for example, /t/ and /d/ could be replaced by /s/, /z/ or even /θ/ or /ð/, while /p/ could be substituted for an equivalent to /f/ and /b/ for /d/. Bear in mind that just as fricatives can replace stops, the latter can replace the former. Perhaps the most difficult manner of articulation is the affricates such as /dʒ/ and /tʃ/ especially in the middle and at the end of the word.

4.1 Words ending with stops; ca**ke**, be**g**, cu**te**, bir**d**, scoo**p**, reha**b**, etc.

4.2 Words ending with fricatives; ca**se**, ri**se**, enou**gh**, di**ve**, chan**ge**, mon**th**, wri**the**, ru**sh,** etc.

4.3 Words ending with affricates; ca**tch**, mana**ge**, coa**ch**, enga**ge,** etc.

5. Error type 5: Voicing & De-voicing. Thai learners, like many others, have no grasp of the concept of voicing and de-voicing the English consonants, so /v/ is turned into /f/, /g/ to /k/, /d/ to /t/, /z/ to /s/ and /b/ to /p/. In some cases, the opposite is also true, where for example /t/ becomes /d/ and /θ/ becomes /ð/. This essentially depends on the vowels preceding or succeeding the consonants. The examples are:

5.1 Words with /v/; **v**ideo, lo**v**er, cra**ve**

5.2 Words with /g/; **g**o, **g**ive, ba**g**, bi**g**, blo**g**, ru**gg**ed, ra**g**e, etc.

5.3 Words with /d/; **d**oor; vi**d**eo, ru**de**, rea**d**, **d**ea**d**, goo**d**, go**d**, etc.

5.4 Words with /z/; **z**ero, i**s**n't, boo**ze**, ma**z**e, **z**oo, etc.

5.5 Words with /b/; **b**all, **b**ed, trou**b**le, glo**be**, cri**b**, etc.

5.6 Words with /ð/; **th**e, wea**th**er, wi**th**, **th**ey, **th**en, **th**ough, **th**ought, ba**th**, etc.

5.7 Words with /f/; **f**ine, **f**ee, li**f**e, lo**f**t, lau**gh**ter, enou**gh**, etc.

5.8 Words with /k/; **k**ill, **k**ey, coo**k**, re**c**tangular, ba**ck**, clo**ck**, ma**k**e, etc.

5.9 Words with /t/; **t**our; a**tt**ain; roo**t**, **t**ip, la**t**e, fi**t**, ba**t**, etc.

5.10 Words with /s/; **s**ign, mi**s**ter, voi**ce**, **s**ea**s**on**s**, **s**ummer, bo**ss**, etc.

5.11 Words with /p/; **p**ole, **p**lay, **p**i**p**e, leo**p**ard, ro**pe**, lea**p**, etc.

5.12 Words with /θ/; **th**igh, e**th**er, ear**th**, **th**ey, ba**th**e, etc.

6. Error type 6: /tʃ/ & /ʃ/. Although we have already touched on the source of this problem in TYPE 4, it's worth re-visiting and highlighting it as a separate error. Thai learners can use /tʃ/ & /ʃ/ interchangeably. For example, they can pronounce the word [wash] as [watch] but the word [cheese] as [she's]. It's normally difficult for Thai learners to begin a word with /tʃ/.

6.1 Words beginning with /tʃ/, **ch**ild, **ch**ow, **ch**est, **ch**eck, **ch**ill, **ch**op, etc.

6.2 Words with /ʃ/ in the middle; ca**sh**ew, ru**sh**ing, fa**ci**al, ten**si**on, etc.

6.3 Words ending with /ʃ/; wa**sh**, ru**sh**, ma**sh**, cra**sh**, har**sh**, fi**sh**, etc.

7. Error type 7: /n/. Thai learners are able to begin and end a word with /n/ but certainly seem to have trouble pronouncing it in the middle of a word and when it succeeds diphthongs such as /aʊ/ /oʊ/ /ɔɪ / /eɪ /and /aɪ /. What Thai learners do normally is nasalize these diphthongs instead placing the tongue to against the ridge and blowing air through the nose. Please note that when learners pronounce the /n/ at the beginning of the word, they sometimes place the tip of their tongue between their teeth, which is also incorrect. The examples are:

7.1 /n/ (beginning); not, **n**ine, **n**ovice, **n**ickel, **n**est, **n**ever, etc.

7.2 /n/ (after diphthongs); arou**n**d, loa**n**, poi**n**t, trai**n**, fi**n**e, etc.

7.3 /n/ (end); perso**n**, statio**n**, melo**n**, fu**n**, Hele**n**, war**n,** etc.

8. Error type 8: nasalized vowels. Teachers need to bear in mind that Thai learners produce most of the vowels nasally even when there's no /n/, /m/, or /ŋ/ in the word. This is due to the nature of the Thai language that is mostly nasal. What this means for example is that even when the learners pronounce /i:/, it'll come out nasal, so will the rest of the vowels.

9. Error type 9: /w/ & /v/. When followed by /e/, /ɔ:/, /oʊ/, and /ɝ/ in particular, Thai learners are not able to produce the English consonant /v/ accurately as it's very difficult for them to move their lower lip up independently to touch the upper teeth while holding the upper lip utterly still. By the same token though, they are not able to produce the English /w/ properly either when it's followed by /i/ or /ɪ / as they involuntarily change it to /v/.

9.1 /v/ followed by vowels /e/ /ɔ:/ /oʊ/ /ɝ/; very, volt, v**o**te, v**er**b, etc.

9.2 /w/ followed by vowels /i/ & /ɪ/; wh**ea**t, w**e**, w**i**ll, w**i**t, etc.

10. Error type 10: /eɪ/ & /aɪ/. When /eɪ/ or /aɪ/ appear in the end of the word, Thai learners are able to produce them but nasally; however, when they're situated between two consonants, the /eɪ/ becomes /e/ and /aɪ/ becomes /a/. The first thing that a teacher should do to assist Thai learners in producing these diphthongs properly is to de-nasalize them during correction through focusing on using the diaphragm.

10.1 Words with /eɪ/ between consonants; tr**ai**n, b**ai**t, w**ai**t, f**a**te, r**ai**se, etc.

10.2 Words with /aɪ/ between consonants; tr**i**ed, w**i**fe, s**i**de, m**i**ne, f**i**le, etc.

11. Error type 11: /oʊ/. As with most Asian learners, Thai learners have great difficulty pronouncing diphthongs such as /oʊ/ as it ends with /w/. Although Thai learners move their lips forward to produce /ɔ:/, they fail to round their lips tight enough for consonant /w/ that follows; such as, **/o**ʊ/; g**o**, wr**o**te, b**oa**t, s**ew**, d**o**pe, c**oa**t, thr**o**ne, etc.

12. Error type 12: /ɝ/. Thai learners replace this vowel with a Thai phoneme that has no equivalent in English. It may sound fairly close to the British /3/ to many teachers but the fact is that there is even a difference in breathing the sound and utilizing the vocal chords. Thai tongue is positioned somewhere between /3/ and /e/ and the lips do not make any forward movement. Remember that vowel /ɝ/ comprises consonant /r/ which Thai learners are not normally able to pronounce. For examples, /ɝ/ is in pronounced in f**ir**st, s**er**vice, b**ir**d, c**ur**l, h**ear**d, w**or**k, m**er**lin, and g**ir**l, etc.

13. Error type 13: /θ/ & /ð/. The lingua-dental consonants are notoriously difficult for all English learners including Thai students as they require the tip of the tongue be placed between the teeth without

biting and for the air to come out through a very narrow passage essentially between the tongue and upper teeth. Thai learners substitute /ð/ for /d/ or even /t/ when de-voiced and /θ/ for /t/. Some examples are **/θ/** in **th**in, wra**th**, mo**th**, **th**igh, Ru**th**, tru**th** and **/ð/** in wea**th**er, loa**the**, **th**en, wri**the**, scy**the**, ra**th**er etc.

Therefore, proper English pronunciation can be a big problem for some ESL learners and more difficult for some students than for others. A student's native language determines, for the most part, the degree of difficulty and the types of difficulties students will have. In English instructors' experience, ESL students whose native language is other than English; such as Thai, Chinese, Japanese, or Indonesian have a much harder time than those whose native language is from European continent; such as German, Swedish, Spanish, Portuguese or French. But despite the differences between countries, there are certain mistakes that are the most common among ESL students all over the world. Here, not only what they are, but also how to help the students overcome them.

1. Pronouncing the "th" sound. The "th" is one of the hardest consonant sounds to pronounce. It can be pronounced in three different ways: as a "d" (/ð/) as in *this*, *that*, *these*, *those*, *they* or *them*; as the voiceless /θ/ in *three*, *thing*, *thought*; or as a /t/ as in *Thai* or *Thames*. The pronunciation of the /θ/ is especially difficult for some - students often say *tree* instead of *three*. To fix it, it is recommended to go over the difference between the three types of pronunciation. Don't forget to mention that the third one is the least common. As for the difficulty in pronouncing the /θ/, show students how to place their tongues between their teeth and force air out to make the right sound.

2. Pronouncing the Schwa. The schwa ([ə]) is a sound that is typical in unstressed syllables, for instance in long words lik**e** *mem(o)ry***,** *choc(o)late* or shorter ones like *th(e)* or *t(o)***.** The usual mistake is for students to pronounce the word syllable by syllable: *me-mo-ry*. A suggested strategy to fix this is to introduce the schwa to students and give them plenty of examples. The students should be reminded the fact that English is a stressed, not a syllabic language, and that unstressed syllables or words in English often have this sound.

3. Confusing the "l" and the "r" sounds. The "r" and "l" sounds are the stereotypical mistake Japanese or many other nationality students make. For example, they say *lice* instead of *rice*. But it is also a difficulty that occurs in other Asian and ASEAN languages. A strategy to fix this pronunciation problem usually lies in the position of the tongue. To eliminate the confusion, first teachers should focus on practicing one sound – the "r" –, then the "l", and use minimal-pair words to practice students' pronunciation. In both cases, teachers can show them and contrast the position of the tongue and teeth.

4. Pronouncing the short "i" vowel sound. The short "i" or [i] as pronounced in words like *live*, *sit*, *fit*, *hit* usually poses a problem as students may be inclined to pronounce them as *leave*, *seat*, *feet*, or *heat*. IN order to improve this problem, teachers should give their students plenty of practice with these confusing word pairs: such as *live-leave*; *sit-seat*; *fit-feet*, *hit-heat*, and so on. Also, teachers should practice listening and checking sound differentiation, and then ask them if they can hear the difference. Next, repeat each set and have the students repeat. Teachers must be sure to either write the words on the board so they can see the difference in spelling or show them word cards. The more practice teachers give them, the better they'll pronounce these words.

5. Confusing the "w" and the "v" sounds. This is a typical pronunciation problem in some European nations. Some students have a hard time pronouncing the "w" sound. *Water* is pronounced as *vater*; *west* is pronounced as *vest*, and so on while some ASEAN countries might have problem only with "v" sound, which they pronounce "w" instead like *"van"* as *"wan."* If the students have a hard time pronouncing the "w" the teachers must show them how to round their mouths into an "o" and then unround them to produce the right sound, like this. For the students who have the problem with "v" sound, they should be shown how to position of the lower lip and the upper teeth when saying the sound.

6. Pronouncing the magic "e" sound. Some students may have a hard time noticing the difference between words like *not* and *note* or *bit* and *bite*. They may be tempted to split them into syllables: *no-te* and *bi-te*. There is a way to fix this. Once again, this is a problem that can be fixed by practicing word pairs. Help the students notice that *note* is different from *not* in that it has the extra "e" but it is still not pronounced, or it is silent. The effect of the magic "e" is that it changes the pronunciation of the word.

7. Pronouncing silent consonants. This is one of the problems teachers of English have encountered the most with native Spanish speakers. They sometimes tend to pronounce consonants that are silent, like the "d" in *Wednesday* or the "g" in *foreign*. Fixing this problem is as easy as writing down the word on the board and crossing the silent letter out. It is very important to not only verbally correct the pronunciation and have the students repeat, but also write the words down for them to see as many times as possible.

As mentioned earlier, some of these mistakes are made more often by some students than others depending on their country, language of origin. Once the students are identified the mistakes that they make often, it is vital for teachers to address them and help them work to improve their pronunciation. Basically, teachers should write it down, model the pronunciation and have the students repeat. Work with word pairs is effective. Soon enough the students will be making fewer mistakes. There are probably lots of other typical mistakes which can be added.

Factors contributing to Thai students' pronunciation

Attapol Khamhkien (2010) stated from his literature review for his study that some researchers believe all learners have the same capacity to learn a second or foreign language because they have learned their first language, a number of EFL teachers have difficulties in improving the students' pronunciation problems. As a result, in the past, several researchers had put great efforts over factors affecting students' pronunciation (. In this regard, the previous studies had substantiated that crucial factors appeared to have an influence on teaching and learning pronunciation. They are as below.

1. *Native language*. According to Avery and Ehrlich (1987), learners of a language have different ways to speak the target language. The way they speak the target language is sometimes slightly different and sometimes highly different than the native speakers' do. Kenworthy (1987) also stated that the native language is the most influential factor in accounting for students' pronunciation especially foreign accents. That is, if the students are familiar with the sound system of their native language, they will be able to effectively diagnose their own difficulties. Kenworthy suggested that many first and second language carryovers can be overcome through a focused awareness and effort on the learners' part. In this sense, as asserted by Senel (2006), it should be noteworthy that interference or negative transfer from L1 language is likely to cause errors in *aspiration, intonation, rhythm*, and *melody* in English. This problem can occur when the rules for combining the sounds in forms of syllables are different in two languages.

2. *Age*. Age plays a vital role in learning or improving pronunciation abilities. As can be seen, if learners can pronounce a second language with a native-like accent, they must have probably started to learn it during their childhood since these learners start their second language learning process in target language speaking people environment (Senel, 2006). An intriguing research study conducted by Brown (1992) investigating the age factor on learning pronunciation using a traditional listen-and-repeat exercise indicated that minimal pairs in the context of the sentences, conversation and role playing, adult learners were probably able to learn second language phonology as well as children did. A recent study which has stirred the interest in the age factor affecting English pronunciation abilities is Collier's study (2003). The study revealed that the older students were faster and more efficient that younger ones in the early states of language learning. In this regard, older students and adolescents developed their second language skills continuously, but adults would diminish after the first year. However, the study did not propose any evidence for a simple and straightforward link between age and ability in pronunciation of a new language.

3. *Experience in studying English*. Lacking of opportunity to practice English pronunciation is another prominent problem. Several studies compared the pronunciation accuracy of people living in

English-speaking countries and those who did not, revealing the difficulty with pronunciation of learners who did not live in an English speaking country in mastering English pronunciation. For instance, Siriwisut (1994) and Serttikul (2005) indicated that language experience had an effect on pronunciation ability. In their studies, language experience meant the opportunities to use English language in daily lives. The studies suggested that students with poor pronunciation, who were regarded as less experienced, had more language transfer problem than those with good pronunciation. Their findings were witnessed by Haymes (2000) and Senel (2006) pointing out that learners living in an English-speaking country or community where English is he second language would have many opportunities to listen to and to use the target language. Also, the success in learning and teaching English depended on students' ability and exposure. Teaching a conversation or a dialogue was, therefore, not enough to help students improve speaking skills. Likewise, Brown (1992) stated that the students could pronounce well if they spent time on pronunciation with full attention and interest. In short, students could simply improve the development of pronunciation competence if they were motivated and had a strong will to expose to the target language.

4. *Phonetic ability*. According to Brown (1992), phonetic ability is sometimes called phonetic coding ability. It is a common view that some people have a better listening skill for a foreign language than others. Therefore, they are able to discriminate between the two sounds more accurately than the others and ale to imitate sounds better. Although students may have had exposure to a foreign language as children and attuned to phonetic discrimination, some studies (e.g., Kanoksilapatham, 1992) have suggested that some elements of learning are a matter of awareness of the different sounds. Also, learners' pronunciation ability can be improved by putting efforts and concentration on those sounds.

5. *Attitude and identity*. Another interesting factor influencing on acquiring and improving pronunciation of the target language is one's attitude towards speakers of the target language and the extent to which the language ego identified with those speakers. As pointed out by Brown (1992), students with a positive attitude towards the people who spoke the target language were likely to learn pronunciation more successfully. They were not afraid of the second identity that may have been emerging within them. Moreover, a similar caution was sounded by Celce-Murcia et al. (2000) who noted that attitude towards the target language, culture, personal identity issues, and motivation for learning could all support or impede pronunciation skills development. Apart from these factors, as astutely asserted by Senel (2006), in general, shy or introvert students would not prefer to participate in classroom activities, leading to the lack of any opportunities to make practices and to make full use of phonological activities.

6. *Motivation and concern for good pronunciation*. The learners' motivation can be seen the strongest factor contributing to the success or failure of learning a second or foreign language. That is, it is

a driving force encouraging a learner to pursue a course of action, initiating the learning, and finally sustaining the learning process (Dörnyei, 2001). Basically, if the learners' motivation is high, then they will be willing to improve their abilities by themselves. On the other hand, if they do not see the value or pay attention to their pronunciation, they may not be motivated to do well.

The previous research studies mentioned above confirm the roles of native language, age, experience in studying English, phonetic ability, attitude and identity, and motivation and concern for good pronunciation in studying a language as important factors affecting learners' pronunciation. However, there exists a rigorous on-going debate between scholars and researchers from different context of language learning and teaching, propounding various versions of implications and cautions in teaching pronunciation. This calls for more studies focusing more specifically on a specific context to support the main tenets of progressive language pedagogy.

English sounds for Indonesian speakers and problems

According to the analysis of Philomath (2011), English has different sounds from Indonesian. English has been taught to Indonesian speakers as a second language in a traditional manner; starting with grammar and writing, reading, listening and speaking. But often, if not always, listening and speaking are never taught in school. The result is most of Indonesian speakers have to put more concentration in listening to English sounds, and struggle to say what they mean. Almost always they who can talk and listen easily in English learn it outside school. This phenomenon occurs around the globe, where English is not spoken in their countries. Generally, non-English native speakers are difficult to find a partner to practice their English speaking; no matter whether the partners are native speakers or not. The objective is only to speak English more fluently. But what comes next after a conversation has been made is a wonder. When it is time to speak to native speakers in a real life situation, most of them always have a hard time making their point get across and following what the native speakers say. One of the reasons why it is difficult to have a conversation at natural speed with native speakers is because the differences of the sounds in English and Indonesian. Even though many languages use the same Roman alphabets (A-Z), the pronunciation for these alphabets differs in each language. When the alphabets are combined together into a word, the actual sounds of vowels and consonants are much more than the total number of the alphabets. Some English vowels and consonants sounds do not exist in Indonesian. It is also true for other languages as well. This new sounds are difficult to listen by non-native English speakers.

To make English learning easier, Linguists have made a series of phonetic symbols to define each English sound, and to explain how a word should be pronounced, which IPA (International Phonetic

Alphabet) symbols are mostly used. By learning these symbols, not only can English students recognize the English sounds and produce the sounds, they can also look up the words they want to learn to a good dictionary which shows IPA symbols. These symbols and the sounds can be learned by taking a pronunciation class or by attentively and repeatedly listening to the sounds from audio lessons. But without proper analysis of English sounds and student's native language sounds, learning English sounds can be redundant. It happens because the pronunciation lessons might be made for various non-native English speakers (not only for Indonesian speakers, or Thais). The difficulty of pronouncing English sounds are not always the same for different native language speakers. For example, while Japanese people have a difficulty pronouncing /**r**/ sound, Indonesian people do not have any difficulty at all because this sound exists in Indonesian but it may be different from English natives for some manners. Following is a comparison of English sound together with its IPA symbol the sound existing in Indonesian words (American English pronunciation). Although words are pronounced differently in British English and American English, both pronunciations can be explained using IPA symbols.

Bahasa Indonesia is still the official language of Indonesia and as spoken today is in fact a standardized dialect of Malay. It has been a dynamic language, full of Arabic, Dutch, Chinese and Sanskrit vocabulary and characterized by its absorption of loan words. Though there is a standardized version of the language, Indonesian varies from region to region. Local languages greatly influence spoken Indonesian, as do local trends and culture and the presence of other ethnic groups (Ivana Amerl, 2006). These features influence learning English like other native languages in South-east Asian countries. Generally, the problems are:

Consonants

IPA Symbols	English keywords	Indonesian keywords	Potential problems
/b/	**b**ut data**b**ase we**b**	**b**ulan sa**b**un ba**b**	There is a high possibility that English words which end with /**b**/ might be mispronounced as /**p**/. The reason is the sound of /**b**/ at the end of words in Indonesian does not exist.
/d/	**d**o e**d**ucation o**dd**	**d**arah mu**d**a abja**d**	The end of words with /**t**/ and /**d**/ are difficult to differentiate for Indonesians because the /**d**/ sound does not exist in Indonesian. Indonesian speakers usually replace final /**d**/ sound with /**t**/ sound.

			This is also one of the reasons why past-tense verbs which include /**t**/ and /**d**/ sounds are extremely difficult for Indonesians.
/tʃ/	**ch**air na**t**ure tea**ch**	**ch**airil	Almost there is no word exist with /tʃ/ sound in Indonesian. The Indonesian keyword on the left is a person name, which often pronounced as **c**. Although this sound does not exist, Indonesian speakers will not have difficulty to pronounce this sound.
/g/	**g**o de**g**ree be**g**	**g**ajah ba**g**us gude**g**	Although Indonesian has many words with **g** in the beginning, middle and end of the words, the final /**g**/ sound is not common. Some speakers even replace the final /**g**/ sound with final /**k**/ sound.
/v/	**v**est ra**v**age o**f**	-	/**v**/ sound does not exist in Indonesian. Instead, /**v**/ is pronounced as /**f**/. It seems not difficult to differentiate and pronounce these two sounds. But it is challenging to pronounce /**v**/ with /**f**/.
/θ/	**th**ing tee**th**	-	There are two sounds related to **th**. Voiceless /θ/ and voiced /**ð**/. Since these two sounds do not exist in Indonesian, it is extremely difficult to pronounce **th**.
/ð/	**th**is, brea**the**, fa**th**er	-	The voiced **th**, /**ð**/. Indonesian speakers tend to replace /**ð**/ with /**d**/ and it is more difficult than /θ/. /θ/ and /**ð**/ sounds are also the most challenging sounds to master because the tongue has to move to the position where Indonesians never have.
/z/	**z**oo ro**s**e	**z**akat	**Z** is an alphabet rarely used in Indonesian. Although it is not difficult to pronounce **z** at the beginning of the words, it may be challenging to pronounce it at the final **z**.
/ʃ/	**sh**ip lea**sh**	**s**yukur	Although final /ʃ/ does not exist in Indonesian, Indonesians can be relieved that they can produce this sound quite easily.
/ʒ/	plea**s**ure		It is relatively easy to produce this sound even though Indonesian does not have this sound.

Consonant sounds of English that are not considered a problem for Indonesian speakers

IPA Symbols	English keywords	Indonesian keywords
/p/	**p**en, s**p**in, si**p**	**p**ulpen, pul**p**en, manta**p**
/t/	**t**wo, s**t**ing, be**t**	**t**anah**,** sa**t**u**,** gendu**t**
/dʒ/	**g**in**,** ca**j**un**,** ed**g**e	**j**in, ma**j**u
/k/	**c**at, s**k**in**,** ba**ck**	**k**uda**,** bang**k**u**,** ra**k**
/f/	**f**ool, ma**f**ia**,** enou**gh**	**f**antasi, la**v**a**,** maa**f**
/s/	**s**ee, ba**s**i**s**, pa**ss**	**S**aya, ra**s**a, ema**s**
/x/	lo**ch**	-
/h/	**h**am	**h**amburger**,** beta**h**
/m/	**m**an**,** ha**m**	**m**ari**,** keta**m**
/n/	**n**o, ti**n**	**n**ama**,** bos**an**
/ŋ/	ma**ng**o**,** si**ng**	ma**ng**ga, asi**ng**
/l/	**l**eft, do**ll**ar, be**ll**	**l**ari, da**l**ih, be**l**
/r/	**r**un**,** ve**r**y**,** **r**oa**r**	**r**usa, ba**r**ak, baka**r**
/w/	**w**e, **qu**een	**w**adah
/j/	**y**es	**Y**a

Short vowels

IPA Symbols	English keywords	Indonesian keywords	Potential problems
ɪ	s**i**p	-	/ɪ/ sound often confused with /**i**/ by Indonesian speakers because it does not exist in Indonesian. The difference between /ɪ/ and /i/ and how to produce /ɪ/, the /ɪ/ sound, falls between Indonesian alphabets **i** and **e**.
e	b**e**g	b**e**la	None.
æ	c**a**t, b**a**g	-	This sound is often mispronounced by Indonesians. /**æ/** sound often is replaced with /**a:/** or /**e/** because it is never used in Indonesian. The short explanation for Indonesians is that the /**æ/** sound falls between Indonesian alphabets **a** and **e**.

ɒ	d**o**g (BrE)	mand**o**r	None.
ʌ	c**u**t		Although this sound can be easily produce, but it is often confused with **/a:/**.
ʊ	p**u**t	-	**/Ʊ/** sound does not exist in Indonesian and almost always replaced with /**u:/** sound. The easy explanation for /**Ʊ**/ sound is this sound falls between Indonesian alphabets **u** and **o**.
ə	**a**bout	**e**mas	None.
i	happ**y**	sap**i**	None.
u	act**u**ally	b**u**k**u**	None.

Long vowels

IPA Symbols	English keywords	Indonesian keywords	Potential problems
iː	sh**ee**p	lag**i**	None.
ɑː	f**a**ther	m**a**kan	None.
ɒ	song	-	None
ɔː	f**ou**r	b**o**r	None.
uː	b**oo**t	b**u**k**u**	None.
ɜː	b**i**rd	b**er**main	None. The same sound as /ə/+/**r**/

Diphthongs

IPA Symbols	English keywords	Indonesian keywords	Potential problems
eɪ	m**a**ke	-	None, after mastering the long and short vowels.
aɪ	l**ie**	-	None, after mastering the long and short vowels.
ɔɪ	b**oy**	-	None, after mastering the long and short vowels.
oʊ	N**o**te	-	None, after mastering the long and short vowels.
aʊ	n**o**w	-	None, after mastering the long and short vowels.
ɪə	r**ea**l	-	None, after mastering the long and short vowels.
ʊə	act**ua**l	-	None, after mastering the long and short vowels.

There are some recommendations for using strategy to improve English pronunciation for Indonesian speakers; firstly, they should use the IPA symbols as a guild and then use dictionaries which include these symbols, online dictionaries include voiced guide, too. These symbols can even show where the stress has to be put in each word. Stress is another component of English sounds which does not exist in Indonesian. Almost each word in English has a syllable stressed (pronounced louder, longer, or with higher tone). Furthermore, speakers can record their own voice and compare it with the video guide. Using online teachers' service is also available, which even choosing the teacher's accent. Practicing pronunciation is also classified as accent reduction training. For those who want to master English pronunciation, be prepared to work hard and spend much time for this. It can take time. It is the same as learning to play piano where training fingers and hand muscle to be strong is required, likewise learning this requires training tongue (tongue contains muscle too) to move to different positions it has never been in other languages. English pronunciation improves significantly when practice is trained often.

English has been used globally by non-native speakers as an international language. As a result, the pedagogy of English teaching has also moved towards a higher emphasis on intelligibility rather than native likeness (Pickering, 2006; Munro and Derwing, 2011). Aiming for nativeness was an unrealistic burden for both teacher and learner (Levis, 2005: p. 310). The intelligibility in English as a lingua franca, Pickering (2006) terms as a "revolutionary change" when non-native varieties are acknowledged as models instead of the native varieties of English (p. 1) and in a more recent article, Munro and Derwing (2011) observed that compared to native-like pronunciation, an aspect "most critical for successful communication in an L2 is intelligibility. In Malaysia, teaching pronunciation for the purpose of achieving native-like qualities is not emphasized. It is not uncommon to find that English teachers struggle in the English language classes to make their students understand them. Hence, in most language classrooms, attention is paid foremost to the intelligibility and the ability of students to express themselves in a way that is intelligible to their classmates and the class teacher rather than how much they resemble native speakers. As a result, in the Malaysian setting, striving for intelligibility is the main objective rather than aiming for accuracy (to sound like a native speaker). The Standards-based English Language Primary School Curriculum in Malaysia, for instance, states that for speaking and listening skills the objective is that at the end of the children's primary education (Year 6), they should be able to communicate with peers and adults confidently and appropriately in formal and informal situations. The standards document, which acts as a guide for English language teachers in Malaysian public schools, does not explicitly instruct teachers to aim for pupils achieving native-like pronunciation.

Jenkins (2000) conducted a research on English as an international language and found evidence that phonological problems often are reasons for unsuccessful communications in not only international contexts but also in intra-national ones. English Language Teaching (ELT) professionals should stress that speaking is distinctive from pronunciation and they are not interchangeably used. This point is affirmed by Fraser (2000) who stated that being able to speak English includes a number of sub-skills (vocabulary, grammar, and pragmatics) and pronunciation is the most important. With good pronunciation, a speaker is intelligible despite other errors; with poor pronunciation, a speaker can be very difficult to understand, despite accuracy in other areas. This effectively means that the speaker would be unintelligible if he/she has poor pronunciation despite having excellent knowledge in grammar and vocabulary of the language. Gilakjani (2011) stated that among the reasons ESL students have difficulties learning pronunciation are that they are not interested, not exposed to target language often, and that teachers do not highlight the importance of pronunciation nor have the right tools to help their students learn proper pronunciation. In order to draw attention to the importance of pronunciation, it is important that English language instructors use the right methods and utilize the right tools to bring attention to pronunciation practices in the language classroom. Some proponents believe that difficulties in learning English pronunciation arise due to the differences between the target language and the mother tongue of the language learners. This field of research dwells into studying how the target language deviates from the mother tongue in order to predict the difficulties that language learners may face. In Malaysia, the national language – Malay language - is used as the main medium of instruction in national schools. English is taught as a compulsory second language subject in all Malaysian schools. From a contrastive analysis point of view, although English shares the same alphabet system as Malay, the pronunciation of these alphabets and phonemes are different. For example, in Malay, the letter 'a' is pronounced as /ʌ/. However, in English 'a' may be pronounced as /ʌ/, /ɑː/, /e/, /ə/, /eɪ/ or even /æ/. It is therefore, anticipated that students are likely to be confused and make pronunciation errors when learning to pronounce English sounds and words. On the positive side, insights from contrastive analysis will be able to not only explain the possible reasons behind pronunciation errors of Malaysian students, but will also allow language instructors to make use of this realization to inform them in their classroom pedagogy. Knowing which sounds are likely to be difficult for the students, language instructors will then be able to decide on how much time and which sounds should they focus on when teaching English pronunciation in the Malaysian classroom. The results of the pronunciation problem analysis could later be used in the design of a pronunciation teaching module specifically for the Malaysian. To be truly effective, classroom pedagogy and teaching decisions should be guided by the needs of the students. Language instructors should identify what are students' weaknesses and how to tackle them. Once

the students' needs were identified, a suitable teaching module can then be designed and customized especially to help them practice English sounds and improve their English pronunciation.

Malaysian students have the pronunciation errors and problems in pronouncing fricatives (/v/, /θ/, /ð/, /z/), plosives (/t/, /d/, /g/), affricates (/dʒ/), silent consonant (/w/), diphthongs (/eɪ/, /aɪ/, /əʊ/), pure short (/ɪ/, /e/, /æ/, /ɒ/, /ʊ/, /ə/) and long vowels (/iː/, /ɑː/, /ɔː/, /uː/). Table 1 presents the number of errors made in the reading aloud test. The results supported Yong et al. (2012) research data where Malaysian undergraduates had problems in replacements of vowels, /dʒ/, /θ/, /ð/, /v/, and omission of sounds.

Type of Pronunciation Errors	Phonetic Symbols	Words
Fricative	/v/	tra**v**el
	/θ/	nor**th**
	/ð/	**th**en, o**th**er, **th**ey, **th**at
	/z/	wa**s**
Plosive consonants	/d/	fol**d**, aroun**d**
	/t/	attempt
	/g/	stron**g**er, lon**g**
Affricate consonant	/dʒ/	ca**g**e, obli**g**ed
Silent consonant	/w/	**w**rap
Pure short vowels	/ɪ/	w**i**nd
	/e/	confess
	/æ/	wr**a**p
	/ɒ/	w**a**s
	/ʊ/	sh**ou**ld, c**ou**ld, l**oo**k
	/ə/	w**e**re, s**u**ccess, **a**gree, **a**s, **obliged**
Pure long vowels	/iː/	succ**ee**ded
	/ɑː/	h**ar**d
	/ɔː/	w**ar**m
	/uː/	bl**ew**, disp**u**ting
Diphthong	/eɪ/	t**a**k**e**, m**a**king, c**a**m**e**, g**a**v**e**
	/aɪ/	obl**i**ged
	/əʊ/	cl**o**ck, cl**o**sely

However, Shak, Chang and Stephen (2016) had found from their study that pronunciation errors produced by Malaysian university students may affect intelligibility, or actual meaning of the words they speak. Consequently, the mispronunciation of the English words could make a lead to a non-recognizable word, which is the reason for unsuccessful communications (Jenkins, 2000). The most noticeable errors of English pronunciation made by Malaysians are identified into 12 sounds as follow.

No.	Word Pronounced Wrong	Correct Sound	Incorrect Sounds Made
1	fold	/d/	/t/
2	then	/ð/	/d/
3	travel	/v/	/b/
4	north	/θ/	/t/
5	stronger	/g/	/dʒ/
6	which	/ʧ/	/ʃ/
7	who	/h/	/w/
8	other	/ð/	/d/
9	wrap	/r/	/w/
10	cloak	/əʊ/	/ɒ/
11	wind	/ɪ/	/aɪ/
12	were	/ə/	/eə/

5. Strategies to learn perfect English pronunciation

Problem-solving strategy for learning

A problem is an opportunity to make things better, in a situation where the way something is now does not match personal goal for the way it should be. During a process of problem solving the actual now-situation will be converted into thei 1r desired goal-situation. The *pronunciation problems* will be decreased while increasing *pronunciation skills* by using a "3-step strategy for learning." The strategy will give learners of English a "big picture" overview, to serve as a logical *advance organizer* that will help to learn more easily when a person reads the expanded description, which will help him/her understand the learning strategy more thoroughly and use it more effectively.

Step 1. *Define the goal-sounds.* Observe the sounds of native speakers by listening carefully, so each learner can develop a clear-and-accurate memory for each sound when it is pronounced properly. These are the goal-sounds the learners will try to imitate.

Step 2. *Experiment and observe-evaluate-adjust.* Choose a sound each one wants to improve. In an effort to produce the goal-sound for this sound, try a variety of *speaking strategies* by adjusting the *sound factors* (the positioning by the mouth, lips, tongue, vocal chords, etc.). Individual persons can get technique principles, to guide the invention of strategies, from a teacher, friend, web-page, or video. Use a strategy while speaking, and *observe* sound being pronounced, and the actions in using the strategy. Then evaluate the sound-results by comparing the sound and the goal-sound (asking "how closely do they match"); also *evaluate* the strategy-application by comparing personal actions and the goal-actions (did you use the speaking strategy in the way each person wanted). Then interpret the results – if tour sound and the goal-sound did not match, any mismatch could be caused by an ineffective Strategy, or the ineffective application of the strategy, so try to determine the cause – and *make adjustments* (in the strategy or strategy-application) that one think might be useful in producing the goal-sound, and do another experiment to continue the cycle of Adjust-Observe-Evaluate-Adjust. Learner's objective is to determine the *speaking strategy* (the combination of sound factors) that lets them produce the best sound, which is the individual goal-sound. Practice in private so each person can relax and freely experiment with a variety of ways to speak. After a while, shift to other sounds so it can be improved overall pronunciation.

Step 3. *Transfer your sound quality into conversation.* After learners learn how to pronounce sounds properly in Step 2, practice using these sounds in speaking situations that become more complex and realistic. Begin with *isolated sounds* and *words,* then move on to *words in combination,* in phrases or sentences. And move from speaking *externally generated ideas* (by reading what you see, or repeating what you hear) to speaking *internally generated ideas* (that come from your own thinking). At each stage, *focus on quality* so you will *develop good habits of proper pronunciation.* The goal is to consistently say each word properly, when it is combined with other words in sentences during conversations. One also should develop other conversational skills: say each sound clearly, speak slowly (but not too slow) and loudly (but not too loud), listen carefully, and more. Get external feedback: for steps 1 to -3, try to find conversation partners who are native speakers, and are willing to help you learn. Ask for feedback that is honest (so it's accurate and therefore is useful) in telling you what they hear and suggesting ways to improve your speaking, for pronunciation and in other ways.

Alexghali (2011) posits that when learning English, what learner see is not always what they hear. In these recent years, the world is always becoming more and more connected and so more and more people are learning new languages. English is one of the world's most popular and in-demand languages. However, English is not as easy as one would think because of its odd pronunciation rules. Unlike Spanish, for example, in which words are read and pronounced exactly as they are written while many words in English are spoken differently than their written forms. Some words sound completely different from one another even though they are spelled similarly. For example, the words *tough* ("tuff") and *though* ("thoh") differ by only one letter, but sound completely different. Like every other language, English is filled of exceptions and oddities, even in pronunciation, and these tricky parts seem like a problem. But, it is a necessary and an interesting aspect of learning. The reasons for practicing pronunciation are numerous and significant. Firstly, improving pronunciation helps with reading, writing and communication. Secondly, a better understanding of pronunciation leads to less confusion, especially during conversations. And most importantly, it is a sign of progress and it makes speakers feel more comfortable and confident with communicating in English.

There are ten simple and useful strategies to master English pronunciation. Mastering English pronunciation may be the goal, but that does not mean that there is only one way to reach it. As with everything else in life, everybody has their own way to accomplish their goals. No matter one needs and wants, these strategies will get him/her there.

1. Learn to listen to know what to sound like. The pronunciation of English can vary dramatically from one region to the next because English uses many diverse sounds. For example, the United Kingdom may be relatively small in size, but it is rich with different accents that carry their own personalities, depending on where each person goes and how long he/she is going to be there. The first step to take is to understand how the locals sound. Practice sounding like they do. This will help speakers fit in and fully understand what they are saying. In another word, speaks in the accent individuals want to speak, then keep listening to the pronunciation guide to that accent, like British or American.

2. Focus on words that are giving trouble and break them down. Sometimes speakers counter a long and confusing mass of letters or even forget to say some words differently. Whenever one does not know how to pronounce a weird word, pay close attention to that word's features; including its spelling, syllables and meaning. It is suggested to take that long and complicated word and break it apart into pieces. Then slowly put it back together. For example: one of the most commonly mispronounced words in the English language is February. People keep pronouncing it as *Feb-yu-airy*. When looking closely, the speaker will notice the *r* in the middle, and breaking it down reveals that it is actually pronounced *Feb-ru-*

airy. Americans do not ever pronounce *r* in Feb*r*uary. Regional pronunciations may not necessarily be *proper* English pronunciations. Even so, using this method will help everyone understand how many words are actually supposed to be pronounced. Keep in mind, however, that words in English are not always spoken as they are spelled, so practice these words slowly and keep a dictionary nearby just in case. If one still has difficulty, breaking words up in parts will help.

3. Read out loud and record the pronounced sound. The best way to make progress in any challenge is to keep track of pronunciation improvements. For practicing English pronunciation, the best way to do this is to record oneself reading and speaking loudly and clearly, giving oneself a great reference for progress. Once the sound of is recorded, he/she will make greater strides than each would otherwise and then really much improved.

4. Listen closely to the music of words. Everything in life follows some form of organization. Life has a strong rhythm. Otherwise, everything would random and unorganized. Just as we memorize and understand songs and other pieces of music by listening closely to the lyrics and other features, we can also master difficult words by listening carefully to their rhythm and the way certain syllables sound. Words change with emotions, and listening to how words are spoken will also tell you more than just their meaning.

The intonation, or tone of words, affects their meaning. Depending on which part of a word is stressed, and where it is placed in a sentence, it can either be a noun or a verb. Understanding this could even make a word's pronunciation clearer. For example, the word ***re****fuse* and *ref****use***, which are pronounced differently with stresses. If it is heard as *REH-fyuz*, then it is about *garbage* (noun), but if it is heard as *reh-FYUZ*, then it means saying "no" or declining something (verb). The key here is to listen carefully to how words are used. Break them down when practicing them until saying comfortably enough to use them in conversation.

5. Learn by using online media that model English pronunciation. When it comes to learning languages, the internet is the best friend. It contains an extremely wide variety of resources to help learners master the English language. YouTube is a great place to start. Also, there are many websites offer an excellent selection of real-world videos, audio recordings and podcasts to help on English learning journey. And it is not just about watching videos passively, it is about actively learning and practicing the English language.

The active learning tools are probably the best part. Click any subtitled word for an on-screen definition and an audio clip demonstrating native pronunciation. Then anyone can study and reinforce new language lessons with the multimedia flashcards and vocabulary lists that are custom-made from the

vocabulary and grammar you encounter while watching your chosen videos. There's also a number of websites and social networking groups dedicated to helping people become fluent in English and other languages.

6. Communication is key. So, always practice with someone. The best way to speak English like a native is to actually speak with someone. Whenever learning in a class or taking a walk in the park, make sure that you are only speaking English. If there is not any native speaker living nearby, it is not a problem for practicing pronunciation. There are lots of great forums and other websites that allow language learners to connect and teach each other. Google Plus is a great example of this social media in which people from all over the world come together in a global classroom as both students and teachers. This makes it a comfortable and fun environment to improve your pronunciation, and also to make new friends from across the world.

7. Watch the news. While everyone may not love to watch the news all the time, he/she can use it as a great tool for mastering English pronunciation. Newscasters tend to speak slowly and clearly to deliver their messages. If subtitles are available, this makes things even better. Watching the news helps to put English words in their usual contexts and allows learners to hear what they sound like in real life. Furthermore, news shows use lots of pictures and videos to help make their messages stronger, which will make things easy to understand for you. A good website to use would be the BBC (British English) or CNN (American English).

8. Flexible and knowledgeable about reading text and word pronunciation variety. English is known for having words that look way different than the way they're spoken. What one read may not be what he/she hears, then learning how to say some words in English may become a challenging puzzle, like *though* and *through*. Therefore, one should be aware of English words that will confuse the learners and do not let the native language influences learning English as well.

9. Use dictionaries as a guide, talking dictionaries are superb. When things get more difficult, dictionaries are always there to help. It's always good to keep one handy, especially if those who have a smartphone. Many online dictionary apps is a great example that includes a simple but very effective pronunciation guide for every word. While these are helpful and will tell the learners what they need to know, studying the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) will tell them exactly how to pronounce words. This is going to be challenging. But, once anyone masters the IPA, no English word will be too difficult.

10. Slow is smooth, smooth is fast. It's easy to get excited and start speaking quickly once everyone learns how a word is pronounced, but the best thing to do is to be patient and keep practicing that word slowly until they can say it perfectly. Friends and teachers understand this learning English speaking,

so there is not anything to worry about sounding funny or speaking too slowly. Learning a language is all about the journey and not just the end, so take time and enjoy learning English pronunciation. Success will be the happiness.

Similarly, Yuliyageikhman (2017) in his English Language and Culture Blog proposes a method for improving English pronunciation. He explains that learners of English usually encounter difficulty in pronunciation, which can be one of the hardest part of learning English. Because English has some sounds that native language might not, the learner will have to learn how to make completely new sounds. Not only consonant sounds of English are different to say, but also is its vowel sound that is really tricky. For example, '*way*,' '*weigh*,' and '*whey*' are all pronounced that same while '*comb*,' '*bomb*,' and '*tomb*' are totally different vowel sounds. Before learning to speak, learners need to learn how to listen. Some sounds can be hard to tell; such as *sleep* and *slip*, *chin* or *shin*. There are eight steps for improving English pronunciation.

Step 1: Learn to listen. Learning lessons on minimal pairs can help learners to hear each word in a complete sentence, maybe with authentic English in video clip lessons available online. Generally, before people learn to speak they need to learn how to listen and the pronunciation practice is really helpful. There are many guides to learn provided in the internet that comes with an in-context definition, image, audio and example sentences, so leaners have enough support to make native English accessible to them. The more the learners get at hearing words, the better they will become at pronouncing them.

Step 2: Notice how mouth and lips move. The way how to move mouth affects how speakers pronounce a word. The first step is to correct the mouth shape by paying attention and notice, using a mirror to check that mouth and lips are making the correct shape. Another way is to watch other people and notice the shape their mouth and lips make when they talk. Try following along with the favorite TV show or movie, repeat the faces and sounds that the actors are making. There are guides and picture online that will help learners learn how to move the mouth and lips, such as three-dimension animations and pictures that show the mouth should look when saying a certain sound.

Step 3: Pay attention to the tongue. The main different between *rice* and *lice* is in the speaker's tongue. When they speak, they move their tongue to make sounds. They probably do not even notice that since they do it without thinking. To improve English pronunciation, it is a good idea to check what the tongue is doing. Some difficult sounds for non-native speakers to make are the letters "L" and "R," and the sound "TH." Pronouncing them correctly is all in the tongue. The following picture show the positions of the longue when speaking [l] and [r] sound. To make the "L" sound, the tongue should touch the back of front teeth and the top of the mouth, just behind teeth. Say it a few times and feel where the tongue is in the

mouth. Make sure it touches the top of the mouth. To make the "R" sound, the tongue should not touch the top of the mouth. Pull the tongue back to the middle of the mouth, near where it naturally rests. When saying the sound, lips should be a little rounded. Try saying the word "right" a few times and feel air blowing between the tongue and the top of the mouth and should also feel that lips get a little rounder when making the sound. For the "TH" sound, this may seem strange if speakers do not have a similar sound in ttheir native language. To make this sound, put your tongue between the top and bottom teeth. The tongue should stick out a little between the teeth, and as pushing air out of the mouth, let some air escape between the tongue and teeth, that is what makes the sound. Repeat practicing it a few times and make sure to push the tongue tip between the upper and lower teeth. If anyone cannot figure out what to do with the tongue to make the right sound, try asking someone. Ask them to say a word with that sound, then tell where they put their tongue. They probably never thought about it before.

The tip of the tongue touches the gum ridge (behind the teeth).

The tongue pulls back in the mouth without touching the top.

Source credit: http://skeptikai.com/wp-content/uploads/2012/09/How-to-pronounce-L-and-R.jpeg

Step 4: Break words down into sounds of syllable. Words are made up of syllables, or parts. The word "syllable," for example, has three syllables: *syl-la-ble*. Turning words into parts can make them easier to pronounce. To check how many syllables a word has, place a hand flat just under the chin, then say the word slowly. Each time the chin touches the hand, a syllable is being made.

Step 5: Add stress to sounds and words. English is a stressed language. That means some words and sounds are more important than others. People can hear this when someone says a word out loud. For example, the word "*introduce*" is pronounced with a stress at the end, so it sounds like this: "*in-tro-DUCE*." Sometimes where a speaker puts the stress in a word can change the word's meaning. For example, the word "present" can be said "*PREsent*" when people are talking about a noun that means either "right this moment"

or "a gift." If it is said "*preSENT*," it is a verb that means "to give or show." There are rules for where the stress goes in each word. First, most two-syllable nouns are stressed on the first syllable, and most two-syllable verbs are stressed on the second syllable. That's just like the word "present." Another example is the noun "*ADDress*" is the place where people live, and the verb "*addRESS*" is to speak to someone.

If syllable sounds are too complicated, memorizing all the rules is not needed. The best way to learn is by listening and practicing**.** Remember that most native English speakers do not know the rules either, they just say what "sounds right." With enough practice, one can get what sounds right too. Sentences have stresses too; some words are more important, and are said with more clarity and strength than the rest of the sentence. For example, "*I ate some toast with butter in the morning*." is the sentence that should have sounded like this (the bold words are the stressed ones): "I **ate** some **toast** with **butter** in the **morning**." Notice how you slow down every time when saying an important word (with bold), and quickly pass over the less important ones. Keep practicing by reading out loud, having conversations and listening well to where others place stress when they speak.

Step 6**:** Use pronunciation podcasts and videos**.** There are some excellent video and audio guides on English pronunciations that the learners can use to improve. Some English language videos that show how to make different sounds in English are available to access online easily for English speaking and pronouncing English in everyday conversations. For example, Podcasts has over 200 audio files that help with everything from pronunciation to stress and pitch (how to raise and lower voice while speaking). There are many more to choose from online.

Step 7**:** Record yourself. One way to tell if all English speaking practice is working is to record yourself with a camera. Use a camera and not just a sound recorder because it's important to ***see*** how mouth and lips move, not only hear it. Most computers and mobile devices have built-in video recorders. Your phone or mobile device also has a video capturing app, usually as part of the camera app. Compare your recording to someone else saying the same words or sounds. Find a video of your favorite part from a movie, or clips. Choose one or two sentences and record yourself trying to match the stress, tone and pronunciation of the video. Then compare the two and see what you did differently, and try again. Ask a friend or watch a video to check. If the pronunciation does not sound the same, ask yourself some questions: Are you moving your mouth the right way? Is your tongue in the right place? Are you stressing the right part of the word?

Step 8**:** Practice with a buddy. As always said, "Practice makes perfect!" It is easier to practice with a friend or someone to practice pronunciation with, either in person or through online communities and social applications. Practicing with a buddy (friend) will give speakers a chance to try everything they

learned, and learn new things from each other and it is fun, too. Pronunciation is as important to learning English as vocabulary and grammar.

An example of online business corporates offering English learners who are seeking to improve their pronunciation with some packages of workshops and trainings given that they will empower people to speak their best English. They are changing the way people communicate with each other, business clients, customers and the world. The packages intend to attract an executive preparing for an important meeting, a manager getting ready for a presentation, a supervisor wanting to speak with confidence, or an employee wishing to get that promotion. Pronunciation Workshop (Gruber, 2017) has a program that's right for those prospected trainees. The provider announces that they can partner with any learner to achieve the results he/she wants in the most efficient and cost effective way possible. They also provide enthusiastic, energetic, and engaging American accent training and English pronunciation help. Therefore, Pronunciation Workshop has the right course, the right people and at the right time, and choose the right training for individual learners. It does not matter if he/she just learned English, want to speak it better or want to speak it perfectly. Each person will benefit from their English pronunciation and American accent program regardless of the current English skill level (beginner, intermediate, or advanced) with training of fun, fascinating, full of energy, and lastly the learners will get fast results with affordable programs. Followings are some packages the corporate are offering online accessible on pronunciationworkshop.com.

Trainings, workshops, and other offers by Pronunciation Workshop®	Video Training	Live Training	Combo Training
The complete pronunciation workshop course plus bonus session with no monthly fees.	✓	-	✓
Speak with perfect North American phrasing, intonation, stress, rhythm and rate by mastering the Music of English.	✓	-	✓
Discover Paul's 10 keys towards improvement and completely transform the way you sound.	✓	-	✓
The 20th anniversary edition of the pronunciation workshop complete training manual.	✓	-	✓

Trainings, workshops, and other offers by Pronunciation Workshop®	Video Training	Live Training	Combo Training
Private face-to-face world-class instruction with a certified pronunciation workshop speech language pathologist.	-	✓	✓
Uncover major pronunciation problems down to the smallest accent issues, and learn to easily correct them.	-	✓	✓
Receive your Individual Training Transcript to boost progress in reaching your goals successfully.	-	✓	✓

The success stories testimonies from this corporate have been showing that every single person shown throughout the entire website is that of an actual pronunciation workshop client are real people who are happy and willing to share their amazing results with others.

Not only English individual sounds must be pronounced properly, but also another important features of sound are needed to say correctly. Pesce (2017) recommended that bad pronunciation is a problem for ESL students. It negatively affects comprehension and so, negatively impacts on communication. The problem is compounded by the fact that good pronunciation is often a mystery to ESL students because some words with a similar spelling sound the same but others are completely different. Some words are pronounced exactly the same in their native language but others are not. The students need to know that English pronunciation impacts on communication. There are even things a teacher needs to explain to the students about English pronunciation.

1. *Realistic expectations.* The goal of pronunciation practice is to pronounce correctly, not sound like a native English speaker. Only children who are exposed to a second language for extended periods of time are able to eliminate their foreign accent because their brains are still flexible enough to do so. There is such a thing as ***accent reduction***, but a foreign accent in an adult will never be completely eliminated. Furthermore, an accent is a part of who you are, a part of a student's cultural heritage. Students should accept this and strive to improve pronunciation instead.

2. *Stressed and syllabic.* It is tremendously useful for students to understand that English, unlike other languages, is a stressed language. This means that in a sentence some words are stressed more than others. In syllabic languages, like Spanish for example, it makes more sense to focus on pronouncing each word,

syllable by syllable. But if we were to do this in English we'd sound like robots. Try saying, "Your book is on the table" by pronouncing each word – doesn't sound like fluent, human speech, does it? It is vital for students to understand that making the effort to pronounce every single word does not lead to good pronunciation. How many times has a student asked you how to pronounce an article like *the* or *a*? They need to understand that articles and other non-stressed words are not clearly pronounced but rather "swallowed". This is why two separate words like is or on are not pronounced separately in the above example, but combined to sound like one "*ison*."

3. *Linking sounds.* Related to the previous point, and the fact that pronouncing each word separately is a bad idea, is that quite often two sounds are *linked to sound* like one word (sometimes even more than two words are linked). This is often the case with the verb is when it's followed by an article or preposition that starts with a vowel (an, a, on, at). "*He's an architect*" sounds like "*He – za – narchitect*". This happens when a word ending with a consonant is followed by a word starting with a vowel. Something similar happens when we ask, "*What did you do?*" (sounds like *wha diju do?*) In this case, the two sounds are combined to form a new mixed sound.

4. *Silent letters.* Just like there are words in a sentence that are not clearly pronounced or stressed, a single word may have consonants that are not pronounced, either. ESL students are often unaware of this. Words they often mispronounce are those that end in a "b", like *bomb*, *dumb*, or *comb*. Others have trouble with the silent "g" in *foreign*, *sign* or *champagne*. Be sure to clarify in which cases letters are silent.

5. *Sounds that disappear.* There are words that have consonant sounds that are not exactly silent, but simply disappear. This is the case with the "d" in *and* (often pronounced *an*) and the "t" in *it* or *but*. In "*I went there last night*" we wouldn't pronounce the final "t" in *went*, *last* or *night*.

6. *Spelling and pronunciation*. Students must understand that quite often the spelling of a word is no indication of how it should be pronounced (and by the same token the pronunciation of a word is no indication of how it is spelled). The "th" for example sounds like a "d" in *then* or *than*, but completely different in *thing*, *three* or *thousand*. Students must learn to distinguish between letters and sounds, i.e., same letters may have different sounds depending on the letters that follow it or precede it.

7. *Understanding the Schwa.* The *schwa* sound is one of those little mysteries that ESL students often hear about but never truly grasp. The schwa, whose phonemic symbol looks like an upside down "e" ([ə]), is an unstressed, weak sound that occurs in many English words. In the phrase "*a story about a girl*" the three "a"s are schwa sounds. The same happens with the "e" in *the* or the "o" in *to*. ESL students who master the schwa are well on their way to improved pronunciation.

These seven topics are crucial things for speakers who want to communicate in English because speaking is not only focus on right pronunciation of phonemes but also strings of words in phrases and sentences when a person is saying to deliver his/her ideas in a certain context.

Strategies for teaching phonemics overcoming the pronunciation barrier

Some students cannot repeat the difference in pronunciation between "*live*" and "*leave*." For ESL students, particularly for adult learners, pronunciation is a big hurdle to overcome. This become especially discouraging for them. When they discover that though pronunciation can be improved greatly, they will never lose their foreign accent completely. English phonemes also prove to be particularly tricky as there is often no connection between the sound and the way it is spelled. There are some tips to help the students overcome pronunciation barrier (Pesce, 2017).

1. *One phoneme at a time.* While "*improving pronunciation*" as a goal might seem unattainable, helping your students improve their pronunciation one phoneme at a time is much more doable. Instead of taking up most of class time practicing pronunciation, practice a different phoneme very often.

2. *Practice the schwa.* The *schwa* sound [ə] is the neutral vowel sound that typically occurs in unstressed syllables, for example in words like *choc(o)late*, *sep(a)rate*, *cam(e)ra*, *elab(o)rate*, etc. There are languages that pronounce these syllables differently and students might be tempted to pronounce them as they do in their native tongue. The students should be aware of the *schwa* sound and learn to identify it as it will be tremendously useful in improving their pronunciation.

3. *Same spelling different sounds.* Students should learn that the same consonant combination may have different sounds, for example the *ch* in *chicken* and *character*. The sound [k] in *character*, in fact, may be spelled with *a, k, ck, c, ch,* or *que*. The *th* combination is another example: it is pronounced [ð] in *this*, *that*, *these*, *those*; but it is pronounced [θ] in *thin*, *thank*, *think*, *theory*, for example. The *gh* combination is yet another example, as it pronounced as a *g* (*ghost*) or *f* (*rough*). Practice each of these combinations and others one at a time.

4. *Same sound, different spellings.* Students need to identify different ways to spell the same sound. Examples of these are the *ai* sound in *mine*, *buy*, *pie*, *rye*. Homophones are the perfect example of this: *buy* and *by*; *pair* and *pear*; *cell* and *sell*, and so on. There are lots of games and activities can be used in a class with homophones.

5. *Explain the magic -E rule.* Students should also know how the addition of an ***-e*** at the end of a word changes its pronunciation: *bit* - *bite*, *dim* - *dime*, *pin* - *pine*. Comparing to: *cut – cute*, *hug* - *huge*, etc.

6. *Pair them up.* Students will remember some contrasts much more easily if they are presented with words in pairs: *live - leave*; *three – tree*; *slip – sleep*; and so on. These pairs include words that students often mispronounce, quite simply because in some cases they won't even hear the difference, much less be able to reproduce it. The more the students practice, the better the chances for improvement. Practice a few pairs at a time and repeat till all students can hear the difference and reproduce it and make the lesson fun.

7. *Use visuals.* It is hard for students to simply imagine the difference in spelling, not to mention remember all the different phonetic symbols; teachers should try to use visual aids like consonants flashcards or IPA flashcards. Use them for introduction and practice, and make sure students become familiar with the symbols.

8. *Play games.* The teachers should not forget to play games with the students**.** English pronunciation is very hard and very frustrating for lots of ESL students. Games will certainly lighten up a difficult lesson. Some great options are *Bingo* or other creative ones.

9. *Teach students to use the dictionary.* The best tool in this pronunciation is a dictionary application with sound (online tools or mobile phone), so that the students can hear the pronunciation with a simple click. These tools help students become more independent and more responsible for improving their pronunciation.

As a general recommendation, the students need to listen to as much as they can in English, whether it is movies, TV shows or songs. They should also try to identify the different phonemes in different words they hear. They should use the right tools and they will make great strides towards improving their pronunciation.

6. Related research and findings

Wildan Habibi (2016) studied English pronunciation problems encountered by Indonesian advanced students. In her thesis in partial fulfillment of the degree of Sarjana Satra (S.S.) in English Language and Letters Department, Faculty of Humanities at Maulana Malik Ibrahim State Islamic University of Malang, she examined the segmental pronunciation problems encountered by the advanced student at the university. The segmental pronunciation in this study refers to the way consonant and vowel sounds are produced regarding the phonetic aspects and the advanced students represented by the English Language majored students, who had been seriously studying English, chosen as the research subjects. This study employed descriptive inquiry aiming at describing how segmental English sounds were incorrectly pronounced by the research subjects. The description of the problematic sounds was analyzed based on the

theories of phonetics proposed by George Yule, Peter Roach and Daniel Jones which embracing voicing, manner of articulation and place of articulation for English consonant production and the tongue part and position, sound length and mouth forming for English vowel production.

The study revealed that the English advanced students encountered a number of English pronunciation problems, consisting of consonants and vowels including pure vowels and diphthongs. The problems with consonant sounds were the substitution of the sounds [v], [ð], [θ], [tʃ], [ʒ], [ʃ], [z] and the deletion of the sound [k], [g], [t] and [s]. The problem with pure vowel sounds were the substitution of the sounds [ɪ]. [iː], [ɛ], [ʊ], [ʌ], [ɜː], [ɒ], [ɔː], and [ɔ]. The insertion problem occurred with the sounds [ɔ] between two consonant sounds. The problem with diphthongs were the mono-pdhthongization of the sound [aɪ], [aʊ], [eɪ], [ɪə], [əʊ], and the replacement of the sounds [eɪ] and [ɪə] with other diphthongs. It is suggested that the pronunciation problems are related to factors that drive them.

Fauzi Syamsuar (2016) studied the phonological adaptation in Indonesian lexical items copied from English. The copied lexical items (CLI-s) were used in Indonesian academic writings, such as dissertations defended by doctorate-program students of a reputable university in Jakarta. The PR of the CLI-s were the utterances of academicians in the university where the dissertations were defended. The adaptations, i.e. the PR differences between the CLI-s and their English equivalents, were in forms of sound fission, sound additions, sound fusions, sound deletions, replacements, sound laxings, lenitions, fortitions, assimilations, dissimilations, metatheses, and the realization of prosody as a segmental sound. Phonotactic rules governed the adaptations. Phonotactic probabilities (PP) in syllabic structures (SS) were found to be related to orthographic redundancies (OR) in the CLI-s. The relations between the PP and the OR were found to be related to the rules of grapheme-phoneme correspondences (GPC) in CLI constructions.

CLI-s were found to be in three forms of *copied words*, *loan bl*ends, and *copied phrases*. Assimilations in CLI-s showed *productivity of lax vowels* and *realization of consonants* in prefixes being homorganic with the initial consonants occurring in the initial syllable of the base forms of loan blends. Consonant replacements showed the dominance of fortis consonants in CLI-s. Dissimilations in CLI-s happened along with (1) *sound fissions and additions*, (2) *sound fusions and deletions*, and (3) *sound replacements*. The three points last-mentioned normally caused differences between SS of CLI-s and their English equivalents. Monophthongizations happened in sound fusions and sound deletions. In contrast, diphthongizations happened in sound fissions and sound additions. Differences were found between diphthong types in CLI-s and the ones in their English equivalents. GPC in CLI-s were found to be more

consistent than CPC their English equivalents. The adaptations in the PR of CLI-s showed certain patterns. Meanwhile, analogies and irregularities also happened in the PR of CLI-s.

This study has an extent to which the English pronunciation produced by Indonesian is different from the English speaking natives in terms of the Indonesian mother tongue has made the forms of sound fission, additions, fusions, deletions, replacements, laxings, lenitions, fortitions, assimilations, dissimilations, metatheses, and the realization of prosody as a segmental sound relatively. Understanding the causes of English problematic pronunciation would make it easier and more effective to train the Indonesians who are learning English.

Shak, Lee, and Stephen (2016) studied pronunciation problems in a case study on English pronunciation errors of low proficient students at the Centre for the Promotion of Knowledge and Language Learning at University of Malaysia Sabah. Due to pronunciation plays a vital part in employability. graduates are often unfairly judged when they fail to convince others of their capabilities because they have poor pronunciation and not having the language to express themselves well. In order to present confidently to impress potential employers or enhance mobility, it is important to improve students' pronunciation, especially those with low oral proficiency level. The primary step to counter this matter is finding out students' problems in their pronunciation. The aim of this study was to identify the specific sounds that were commonly mispronounced by low oral proficiency Malaysian students. This study employed the qualitative methodology where data came in the form of reading-aloud voice recordings. Based on the thematic analysis conducted, the sounds that were commonly mispronounced by the students were *vowels* (pure short vowels, pure long vowels and diphthongs), *consonants* (plosives, fricatives and affricates), *silent letters*, and the final sound of '*-ed*' form. From the findings, this study recommends the use of the commonly mispronounced sounds as the content in producing an instructional pronunciation video for helping low oral proficiency students of the 21st century to address their pronunciation problems.

Thirawat Tanthanis (2012) had conducted a study entitled "English Pronunciation Problems of Third Year Interdisciplinary Studies Students of Thammasat University." The purposes of his study were to determine English pronunciation problems and to analyze what the cause of the problems were. The study was done with fifty junior students enrolling in the second semester of 2011 at the College of Interdisciplinary Studies, Thammasat University (Lampang Campus), and taking the course of English for Communication. An English pronunciation test and an evaluation form of English pronunciation were used

for data collection. The data were analyzed by three experts in Phonetics and quantitative analysis using a computerized statistics programme. The study found that the students encountered the English pronunciation problems of: the initial consonant sounds of /θ/,/ð/, /v/, /r/, /z/, /ʃ /, /ʒ/, /ʧ/; the final consonant sounds of /ʒ/, /ʤ/, /ʃ /, /θ/, /ð/, /z/, /ʧ/, /g/, /l/ in a mixed levels of mean scores ranging from higher to lower respectively. Also, the students encountered the problems on the pronunciation of English vowels, including /ə/, /ɒ/, /ɑ/, /ɒɪ/, /ʊə/. The study had found that these English pronunciation problems were caused by the first language interference and the simplification process of producing English speaking sounds that Thais do not have in their mother language (L1).

Foote, Holtby, and Derwing (2010) surveyed the teaching of pronunciation in adult ESL programs in Canada. This study re-examined the state of the teaching of pronunciation in ESL classes across Canada. The purpose of the survey was two folds: to gain a snapshot of current practices and to compare this with the picture of 10 years ago. The researchers conducted the study based on the current work on Breitkreutz, Derwing, and Rossiter's (2001) survey asking teachers about resources, approaches, and beliefs about teaching pronunciation. They were also asked for background information about the instructors' formal education and teaching experience. For the most part, instruction in pronunciation in Canada had not changed substantially in the last decade. More training opportunities were available, although those were still not enough according to many of their respondents. The number of pronunciation courses offered in English-as-a-second-language (ESL) programs had also increased. Teachers' beliefs about pronunciation instruction remained largely the same, with a similar focus on *suprasegmentals* and *segmentals*. However, we did find a slight difference in how teachers approached these two aspects of pronunciation. Ten years ago, teachers reported emphasizing both aspects in class, whereas at the present there seemed to be a slightly greater focus on *segmentals*. Finally, the researchers offer several recommendations for TESL programs, ESL programs, and ESL instructors. Interestingly, this findings revealed that six of the eight languages native to the students learning English in Canada were listed as the countries from Asian, which also could reflect the large number of Asian students in Canadian ESL classes, having English pronunciation problems and difficulty in communication. They could be listed as below.

Most Troublesome Languages Interfering in English Pronunciation

Language	Number of Mentions
Chinese (Mandarin and Cantonese)	98
Vietnamese	61
Spanish	28
Korean	27
"Asian"	23
Japanese	12
Arabic	10
Thai	10

Most Serious Pronunciation Problems Experienced by Students in Stand-Alone Classes

Pronunciation Problem	Number of Mentions
Intonation	22
Word/syllable endings	21
Word/syllable stress	19
Vowels	18
Specific consonants (e.g., p, b)	18
Sentence stress/phrasing	14
Rhythm	13
Stress (type not specified)	11

Significant summary indicated that the respondents recognized the importance of pronunciation for their learners. Almost all (92%) indicated that some learners in their institutions would benefit from a stand-alone pronunciation class. Pronunciation instruction was seen as important for learners at all levels, with 83% of respondents agreeing that it was important for beginners, 91% agreeing that it was important for intermediate learners, and 86% agreeing that it was important for advanced learners. As well as being important at varying levels of proficiency, 82% believed that pronunciation instruction was important for people in certain occupations. When asked to indicate which professions most required pronunciation instruction, the top answers were medical or healthcare related (e.g., nursing) and jobs that demanded communication with the public and/or use of the telephone. It is recommended that the teachers provide

explicit feedback to students on both *segmental* and *suprasegmental* problems and focus on the problems that have the highest effect before moving on to other features.

Graeme Couper (2006) from Auckland University of Technology had studied the short and long-term effects of pronunciation instruction. The study aimed to provide to support earlier findings of Couper (2003) that pronunciation teaching did work. In the earlier study, a systematic explicit pronunciation syllabus was incorporated into the teaching program of a full-time ESOL class. It was found to be both popular and successful, but there was insufficient empirical evidence to make claims about exactly what had worked and why. So, there has been surprisingly little exploration of the effectiveness of pronunciation teaching by researchers. This classroom-based study made an initial step towards addressing that gap by determining the immediate effect of instruction on specific forms in second language (L2) pronunciation and the extent to which gains were retained over time and integrated into phonological competence. The subjects were New Zealand (NZ) immigrants, largely of Asian origin, attending a high-intermediate level English class. The study focused on *epenthesis* (the addition of an extra sound, usually a *schwa*, after a consonant) and *absence* (the inappropriate dropping of a consonant sound). The instruction was explicit and involved a series of short input and practice sessions interspersed amongst the regular teaching over a period of two weeks. Dramatic gains were achieved: the average error rate dropped from 19.9% to 5.5% in the immediate post-test, and rose slightly to 7.5 % in the delayed post-test. A more general test conducted at the same time as the delayed posttest showed the error rate had halved, indicating that these gains had been largely integrated into learners' phonological competence. By way of comparison, similar groups of students, who did not receive the instruction, achieved no gains in this area of pronunciation during the course of one semester. This suggests that appropriately focused instruction can lead to changes in learners' phonological interlanguage even where this may appear to have fossilized. The researcher posits that the teaching and learning of pronunciation inevitably exerted a significant influence on how the classes were conducted. These beliefs could be summarized as follows:

1. Many learners are not aware of their pronunciation problems. Making these clear to learners is a very important first step to solving them.

2. Many learners cannot hear the difference between their pronunciation and that of the target language. They need to learn to hear the language more like the way native speakers do. This requires a great deal of repetitive practice to help learners establish precisely where those phonological boundaries are. It also involves learners recording themselves and playing back this recording so they can compare their voices with the model.

3. Explanations can be helpful, but they are not always effective, as it is often very difficult to get learners to focus on the right thing. In other words, teachers must recognize that learners' phonological concepts will be different from those of the native speaker, and that it is therefore critical that teachers make sure their students understand the metalanguage they are using.

4. Sometimes getting learners to discover patterns or rules can be helpful. In this case there are some useful rules, such as the pronunciation of plural or third person 's' and regular past tenses.

5. Learners need a lot of practice and feedback to improve. Thus, one can infer that effective pronunciation teaching involves:

5.1 Making learners aware that there is a difference between what they say and what native speakers say.

5.2 Helping learners to hear the difference and practice it.

5.3 Finding the right metalanguage.

5.4 Helping learners to discover useful patterns and rules.

5.5 Giving feedback and providing opportunities for further practice.

Luu Trong Tuan (2010) from National University of Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam, had studied teaching English discrete sounds through minimal pairs in the light that minimal pairs bear great benefits in pronunciation teaching and learning which have long been of fruitful use. However, the full use of these pairs had not yet been made in the setting of Hung Vuong University. Her study sought to examine possible problems facing English non-majored students at Hung Vuong University in recognizing and producing English discrete sounds as well as in what way and to what extent do minimal pairs facilitate the teaching and learning of English discrete sounds. The data were collected both quantitatively and qualitatively from various sources: questionnaires for and interviews with both the teacher and student subjects, tests of students' sound recognitions, regular real-time observations, audio recordings of students' sound productions, and spectrogram-based analyses of these recordings. The findings revealed that virtually all of the student subjects faced the six pronunciation problems: omitting the word-final consonant, adding the word-final /s/ to English words not ending in /s/, adding the schwa /6/ in the middle of a consonant cluster, mispronouncing strange sounds to Vietnamese people, e.g. /t/ and /d/, failing to differentiate between long and short vowels, and failing to differentiate between voiced and voiceless consonants. Both the student and the teacher subjects also show high appreciation of the pedagogical effectiveness of minimal pairs when employed either as a teaching or learning tool within the extent to which English discrete sounds are concerned.

Attapol Khamhkien (2010) studied Thai learners' English pronunciation competence focusing on the lesson learned from word stress assignment. Based on the idea of English being a lingua franca in various domains of communication; such as international business, academic conferences, diplomacy, science and technology. As a result, the demands for English skills in all aspects are crucial in response to the importance of English and the impact of globalization. Despite the constant efforts in developing English education in Thailand, a number of studies have shown that the achievement of Thai learners was unsatisfactory. Given the role of English as an international language which is used in almost domain of communication, amongst several factors hindering the success of English language learning, English pronunciation of the Thai learners should be focused. This study was conducted to examine Thai learners' knowledge with regard to word stress assignment and determine possible factors affecting the Thai learners' pronunciation competence. To achieve the two objectives, 90 Thai learners of English were selected as the participants to provide the data. The data were gathered with a test consisting of two parts: personal information profile, and 40 selected words, systematically taken from two textbooks. It was employed to identify these participants' pronunciation competence. The results showed that most of the participants' English pronunciation was somewhat limited. Gender was identified to be the most significant factor contributing to the participants' test scores, while faculty and years of studying English were not. In light of the results suggested by the three variables, pedagogical suggestions were offered to help improve teaching and learning English pronunciation in general, and in focusing on the importance of teaching word stress in particular.

Cao Thanh Nguyen. (2011) Challenges of Learning English in Australia towards Students Coming from Selected Southeast Asian Countries: Vietnam, Thailand and Indonesia. In his paper, he reported about the exploration challenges that the students from selected South East Asian countries (Vietnam, Thailand and Indonesia) had been facing while they were coming to study English in Australia, especially the time before entering into Australian university courses. These students must have contended not only with different styles of teaching and learning, but also with the challenge of adapting to a new culture. The study was conducted at one of the largest language institutions in Melbourne (affiliated with a major university), and the results collected drawing on the English learning experiences of nine students (three Vietnamese, three Thai and three Indonesian) and two language teachers. Semi-structured interviews were adopted as the primary data collection method, and this allowed the major problems that these students experience while studying English for university entry to be identified. The findings of this paper include reasons why Vietnamese, Thai and Indonesian students find it difficult to study in Australia, and possible solutions for

overcoming these difficulties and improving the English proficiency of students from these countries. The findings related to English pronunciation problems are as follow:

1. *English learning experiences in the countries of origin were insufficient and inefficient*. All students acknowledged that English lectures in their countries focused a lot on grammar, and other skills were not adequately taught. They reported that from primary school to high school, or even at university, teachers often taught them grammar and vocabulary which was taken from textbooks. In Indonesia, teachers far too often taught grammar and students were also directed to learn grammar to pass exams. Most of the tests or exams were mainly on grammar and reading. Thai teachers taught writing only a sentence, corrected and gave feedback in terms of grammatical evaluating such as the right order of subject, object or use of different tenses. They all recognized that, at that time, they were learning English theoretically and not pragmatically. Others skills like speaking, pronunciation, listening or writing were also taught but not efficiently. In Vietnam, normally there was only about an hour per week for practicing speaking in his high school. In the lesson, all students repeated together following the teacher's model. Likewise, almost all English teachers in those countries were not English native people, so their pronunciation might not be good. As a result, teachers might try to avoid teaching speaking skill to students. Moreover, when they learnt to write in English, Thai teachers only taught them how to write by sentences with teachers rarely instructing them how to write in long paragraphs or how to express their own opinions in their writing.

2. *Different linguistic structures.* All teachers and students agreed that there were no strict rules for pronunciation in their own native Thai, Vietnamese and Indonesian languages. In those languages, when speaking, people do not need to be aware of pronunciation. When students spoke their mother languages, they did not need to care about stressing the word, word ending, or consonant classes. Thus, they were unfamiliar with their tongue movement, and it was very hard to change that habit for English words. According to the participants' responses, different linguistic trait was one of the reasons leading to difficulties for ASEAN students when learning English, especially towards pronunciation.

3. *Challenges of learning English in Australia*. According to all participants, the common problems of Vietnamese, Thai and Indonesian students were pronunciation, speaking and plagiarism in writing. Both teachers stated that these cohorts of students have problems when they pronounce English words, especially with consonant classes and word ending like s, sh, t, d, x, g or j.

Budsaba Kanoksilapatham (2013) from Silpakorn University, Thailand, conducted a study to investigate Thai university students' voices heard in aspired pronunciation model. The study was inspired by the content that ASEAN decided to use English language as the working language of the region. Therefore, to comply with this decision, it was essential that Thai students be prepared to be competent in the English, particularly for international communication, through a modification of the present teaching and learning paradigms. When it comes to English pronunciation, little is known to date about Thai university students' aspiration with regards to their pronunciation models. In order to shed some light into the issue, one questionnaire survey was conducted to examine the Thai university students' attitudes about their *English pronunciation* to the question of conforming to native speaker norms or to the ideologies of WEs, EIL, or ELF which focus on intelligibility. The analysis of 387 responses from the first and second year students studying in a public university demonstrated that the students hold more favorable attitudes towards the model of native speakers, and that their views tend to differ from the expectations of teachers and academics. It is therefore of utmost importance for educators to take these views into consideration when making decisions related to national educational plans for English instruction.

Sattra Sahatsathatsana (2017) studied the pronunciation problems of Thai students learning English phonetics with a case study at Kalasin University. The purposes of the study were to investigate the students' opinion on problems in phonetics learning and to find out factors causing the problems in the phonetics learning. The study was conducted with 12 undergraduates taking English for International Communication course. Six of them were purposively selected for an interview. A questionnaire was also used for data collection. The results from the analysis reflected that some sounds of English, especially [θ], [ð] and [ʒ], caused a serious problem in learning phonetics at the segmental level. Linking was also reported a serious problem in learning the *suprasegmental* level. Besides, phonetic ability was found to be the factor that mostly caused problems in phonetics learning. Collectively, there were some factors causing problems in learning phonetics: phonetic ability, native language (L1), difference between English and Thai sound system, prior knowledge of English pronunciation, instruction practice, and motivation.

Budsaba Kanoksilapatham (2013) had conducted a study to investigate Thai elementary school teachers' English pronunciation and effects of teacher variables in case of ASEAN preparation. Based on the premise that English is a pivotal means of communication. Studies had revealed that successful communication lies heavily on the accurate placement of stress in word pronunciation. With the advent of the ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) in 2015, English has been selected as the working language for ASEAN. In this regard, English teachers, particularly Thai elementary school teachers, were recognized as

one of the crucial driving forces propelling English language teaching that would drive Thai children to compete in new world outside their own country. The objective of the study was to describe Thai elementary school teachers' English pronunciation competence. The participants of the study were 147 elementary school teachers. An instrument was constructed for data collection; consisting of two parts: the first part elicited Thai teachers' personal information in seven variables and the second part was a stress identification test, consisting of a set of 50 multisyllabic words. The test scores were analyzed to describe their pronunciation competence, whereas the test scores in conjunction with the personal information were quantitatively analyzed with ANOVAs, or sample t-tests, to identify the extent to which each variable contributed to the test scores produced by the teachers. The results showed that Thai teachers had difficulty in identifying the *stressed syllable*s. In addition, among the seven variables explored, only the field of study/major (English, or non-English) the teachers had taken in their undergraduate study from the university, was found to be the only factor significantly impacting the test scores. The findings are crucial for devising appropriate schemes for professional development of English teachers in Thailand in order to effectively prepare English for their Thai students toward the international and ASEAN communication. This study emphasized the role of pronunciation, or precisely, the prosodic features in enhancing successful communication. However, the study was limited to the successful and effective pronunciation that lies in accurate *stress placement* only. Other pronunciation elements, including accurate production of consonant sounds, vowel sounds, and intonation were also integral. Also, the study focused heavily on actual performance in speaking, or precise in the use of prosodic features, so it was quite elucidating.

Hamzah, Ahmad, and Yusuf (2017) had conducted a study of comparing the pronunciation among Chinese learners of English from Malaysia and China in the case of voiceless dental fricatives /θ/ and alveolar liquids /r/. The key motivation was to explore the extent to which these two groups of English learners behaved differently in terms of the selected sounds, given the differences in their nationalities, language exposure and social backgrounds. Two segmental sounds in English were chosen for comparison: voiceless dental fricatives /θ/ and alveolar liquids /r/; these sounds were known to be problematic for both groups of learners. Production data were gathered from 10 Chinese learners each from Malaysia and China. They were all undergraduate students at Universiti Utara Malaysia. Two types of reading materials were used to elicit the data: (1) discreet items (i.e., an English wordlist each for /θ/ and /r/) and (2) connected speech (i.e., an English poem each for /θ/ and /r/). The data were auditorily analyzed by three evaluators using a Likert-scale evaluation form. The findings show that the Chinese learners from Malaysia were able to produce the /θ/ tokens more successfully as compared to those from China, particularly in the connected

texts. Those who failed to produce the target sound substituted it with /t/ (for the learners from Malaysia) and /s/ or /z/ (for the learners from China). As for the /r/ tokens, it was found that both groups of learners could produce the target sound correctly across both reading materials; only a few of them substituted /r/ with /l/. The study highlights the importance of understanding the difficulties faced by specific groups of learners when mastering English pronunciation for different purposes. It also calls for further experimental research in language instructions that can effectively cater the needs of English language learners with diverse backgrounds.

Paakki (2013), from University of Eastern Finland, had conducted a comparative study of Finnish and Japanese adult learners of English speaking difficulties and perceptions of accents. Based on the concept of English education that is crucial for not only to develop knowledge of grammar and written skills, but also to teach oral English skills. Therefore, this problem needs to be studied in order to remedy the situation. The aim of this study was to discover if adult learners of English experience problems in speaking English, and if so, what types of problems and why. In addition, especially in Finland, the interest in English language media has become stronger, hence it was an additional aim to learn if this has created pressure for English studies and for what type of accent the learner should have. The problems experienced in studying English as a foreign or second language have been studied somewhat, but the problems that Finnish and Japanese learners, in particular, experience in speaking English should be studied more. In this study, these problems were analyzed according to second language acquisition theory, and the factors affecting them were categorized in line with Moyer's (2004) classification. The data consists of interviews of Finnish and Japanese adult learners of English. The interviews were conducted with qualitative a methodology, and the questions touched upon previous and current English studies, problems experienced in speaking English, and attitudes towards English accents. In the analysis mainly qualitative methods were used, but quantitative methods were also used in the presentation of data. Both Finns and Japanese saw *speaking English as difficult*. Reasons for this were, for example, their previous education that had been too grammar oriented and theoretical, a late onset of learning, a fear of errors, a lack of practice and experience, and social pressure. Overall, the factors that create problems were instruction and input related, social and neurological. *Accent* was also an affecting factor: the standard models of English had a strong standing in the attitudes of the informants, and the Finnish and Japanese accents of English were different. The learners with a higher education had stricter attitudes towards English accents. But, Finns were more aware of English accents and wanted to speak in a British accent more often while Japanese had considerable difficulty with listening comprehension, which also affected speech. The reasons involved lack of overall study of foreign languages and the current education system. Recognizing the problems benefits both the students and the teachers and

more practical and functional communication skills should be emphasized in English education in order to attain better active *oral skills*. In addition, accents should be discussed more in the classroom in order to make the attitudes more lenient.

In summary, the related research findings shade the light on English pronunciation problems for the learners of other languages providing that the problems are caused by their ability in producing English sounds which are affected by some factors, especially influence of their mother tongue and linguistic knowledge, as well as learning and teaching practice in different context and situations. However, there are many strategies teachers can use or apply to improve their students' pronunciation in the classrooms. The important emphasis on English pronunciations must be focused around practicing learners with segmental and suprasegmental features related to the phonetics of English. Practice in a variety of methods; strategies and tips together with modelling, giving feedback, correction, and providing knowledge concerned with the English education to learners will excel them to success.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter contains the methodology of this comparative study of strategy to improve problematic English pronunciation produced by Thai and Indonesian young learners, which applied the quantitative method of investigation aiming to shade light on a solution for improving the problems. The details of study were described for this research conduct as following:

1. Population and sample
2. Variables of the study
3. Instruments used in the study
4. Data collection
5. Data analysis

Each investigation procedure is elaborated below to clarify the research conduct and make understanding of its validity and reliability concerns.

1. Population and sample

1.1 **Population**

This study targeted at learners of English who were studying English as a foreign language in their undergraduate programs at Phetchaburi Rajabhat University in Thailand and Universitas Ibn Khaldun Bogor in Indonesia, who were enrolling in the academic year 2014-2015.

1.2 **Sample**

The researchers from both universities selected their students learning English as a foreign language purposively from each university, regardless with majors the students were taking. Twenty students from each university were selected to provide the data for the analysis.

2. Variables

2.1 **Independent variables**

2.1.1 Nationality (Thai and Indonesian).

2.1.2 Period of time in learning English in school.

2.2 **Dependent variables**

2.2.1 English sounds that are problems for Thai and/or Indonesian young learners who are learning English as a foreign language.

2.2.2 Strategy used for improving the English pronunciation problems by Thai and Indonesian young learners of English. Twenty strategies were used as a guide for responding provided by the target participants.

2.2.3 Materials created as a practical medium for improving the English pronunciation problems for Thai and Indonesian young learners of English. The content and arrangement, including design, were determined after the pronunciation problems have been identified and the literature review regarded to methods appropriate and plausible to efficient solution for the target learners.

3. Instruments

There are three types of instrument used for data collection in this study; a reading text for examining English pronunciation problems, a questionnaire to determining strategy used for improving English pronunciation problems, and a set of materials constructed as a guide for improving the problems of English pronunciation found in the study.

3.1 The reading text used identifying English pronunciation problems produced by Thai and Indonesian participants. The text was selected on a random practice. Then, it was tested for its viability in generating pronunciation problems for further analysis. The researchers from both countries agreed with the quality of the text

3.2 A rating scale questionnaire was constructed by the researchers based on the knowledge concerning with learning of English pronunciation and its instructional practice generally known in schools, media, and another means available to access. The questionnaire comprises of five categories including .

3.2.1 Formal classroom learning and instruction at school

3.2.2 Informal tutoring and learning outside classroom and school

3.2.3 Intentionally practice English pronunciation by using certain activities

3.2.4 Unintentionally exposure to English in surrounding situations

3.2.5 Using media to assist English learning and improvement of pronunciation

The rating scale in this questionnaire comprises 6 levels represented by individual numbers as:

5 referred to “always”

4 referred to “usually”

3 referred to “often”

2 referred to “sometimes”

1 referred to “seldom”

0 referred to “never”

The validity and reliability was qualitatively reviewed, acknowledged and evaluated by the researchers from both countries. The IOC measure done by five researchers was 0.90.

3.3 The materials created as a medium for assisting learning and instruction, or guideline, pronunciation as well as a solution for solving the problem sounds produced by the learners covered the solution to improve the problem sounds found from the analysis in this study together with the knowledge synthesized from the literature review. The materials consist of important applications as below.

1) Minimal pairs presented in different motivated drill and practice

2) Guideline that contains linguistic information and illustrations

3) Recommendations for improving English pronunciation with

4) Applications and media available online and social-media applications

4. Data collection

There were three phases conducted for collecting the data in this study. In each phase, the data collection was undergone in a different procedure.

4.1 ***Phase 1***: The identification of English pronunciation problems produced by young learners of English in both countries –Thailand and Indonesia. The participants selected for the study were asked to read the given one-page text to read orally and recorded it as an audio file using the application on their mobile phones. Then, they were asked to send their individual audio files to the researchers to analyze.

The analysis was done by the researchers from both countries. The individual audio files was replayed by the researcher who listened to the pronunciation and identified the problem sounds they had produced, marked the sounds in the analytical sheets individually. Then, calculation of the frequency of occurrence in problematic sounds was done statistically in percentage, which determined the level of problem each single sound would be placed. The text selected for the participants to read orally and record the voice into a digital file is as following.

The English Language

The story of English language is a story of change. Old English is very different from old English. Today old English is a university subject. If we do not study it, we can't understand it because while some of the words are the same, many of the old words are longer used.

The story of the English language began sometime after the year A.D.400 when many groups of people came to England from North-west Europe. They were called Anglo-Saxon and Jutes and their languages helped to make up old English. In old English, the ends of words were very important because they carried many meanings, such as past and present time. In modern English most of these endings are gone. This is one of the biggest different between old and modern English.

All languages change over time and it is often influenced by some of sight events. For example, when the church became important, old English became a written language. Before this, only few people could read and write. Latin, the old language of Italy was used in the church and because of this many Latin words entered the English language. For example, the word *school* came from Latin language at the time most schools were a part of the church. In the year 1066, French attacked England and for 200 years French became the language used by English kings and queens and the rich people of the country. Everybody else continued to use English. However, slowly English became important again and many schools began to use English instead of French. Over this time many French words came into the English language. Often there were two words for one thing, a French word and an English word.

In modern English, *ask* and *demand* have almost the same meaning, but *ask* comes from old English and *demand* comes from French. English has many words like these. The English language from 1066 to about 1500 is called the Middle English. Sometime after 1500 we have the beginning of modern English. At that time, the school system developed and more people went to school. English ships sailed all over the world and words from the new countries become part of the English language. While Latin was still used in the church, English words become more widely used. Writers, like William Shakespeare, used the language in a beautiful and new way.

Around 100 and 150 many books were written about the English language. The writers of these books thought people were speaking English badly so they tried to show people how to use the language correctly. They thought that Latin was the best language to use as the model and they wanted English to become more like Latin. At the same time, correct spelling was beginning to be important too. Because of these books, the spoken language becomes different from the written language. While people wrote they were very careful about the rules but when they spoke they just said what they wanted to say. However, like another change happened and written English started to become like spoken language again. Sentences are shorter and people use easier words.

The English language and old languages are always changing. When a language does not change, it dies.

4.2 ***Phase 2***: The digital files recorded by all of the participants in phase 1 were reviewed, listened to and analyzed one by one to identify the mistakes in pronunciation each individual participant had made. The analysis of pronunciation problems undertaken by applying an analysis form developed by the researchers, which the single sounds of mistake or error would be noted down in the form for each participant's reading. The analysis employed two researchers who are specialized in linguistics and one English native speaker.

The phonetics symbols used for marking the notable sounds were based upon the IPA symbols of 2015 revise version (http://www.britanica.com, 2017 as reviewed in unit 2, page 13-14). The analytical guide is as the example below.

	Bilabial		Labio-dental		Inter-dental		Alveolar		Palato-alveolar		Velar		Glottal	
Stop	p	b					t	d			k	g		
Fricative			f	v	θ	ð	s	z	ʃ	ʒ			h	
Affricate									ʧ	ʤ				
Nasal		m						n				ŋ		
Lateral								l						
Approximant		w						r		j				

Shaded = voiced Unshaded = voiceless

Example words

p	pat	[pæt]	θ	thick	[θɪk]	ʤ	judge	[ʤəʤ]
b	bat	[bæt]	ð	the	[ðə]	m	mat	[mæt]
t	pat	[pæt]	s	sat	[sæt]	n	gnat	[næt]
d	pad	[pæd]	z	zip	[zɪp]	ŋ	sing	[sɪŋ]
k	cat	[kæt]	ʃ	wash	[waʃ]	l	last	[læst]
g	get	[gɛt]	ʒ	garage	[gəraʒ]	r	rat	[ræt]
f	fat	[fæt]	h	hat	[hæt]	w	what	[wət]
v	vat	[væt]	ʧ	match	[mæʧ]	j	yet	[jɛt]

(also ʔ, as in 'uh-oh' [ʔəʔo]; the symbol is called a 'glottal stop')

IPA symbols for English vowels

	Front	Mid	Back	**Diphthongs**
High	i b<u>ee</u>t [bit]		u b<u>oo</u>t [but]	eɪ p<u>ay</u> [peɪ]
Mid-high	ɪ b<u>i</u>t [bɪt]		ʊ b<u>oo</u>k [bʊk]	aɪ p<u>ie</u> [paɪ]
Mid	e b<u>ai</u>t [bet]	ə b<u>u</u>t [bət]	o b<u>oa</u>t [bot]	ɔɪ p<u>oi</u>nt [pɔɪnt]
Mid-low	ɛ b<u>e</u>t [bɛt]		ɔ b<u>ough</u>t [bɔt]	ou P<u>o</u> [pou]
Low	æ b<u>a</u>t [bæt]		a f<u>a</u>ther [faðər]	aʊ p<u>ow</u> [paʊ]

Unshaded = unrounded Shaded = rounded

The analysis was done in a form developed to determine the occurrence of the sound errors or mistakes; such as initial (onset), ending, and clusters consonant, as well as vowels. After each reviewer had finished the problem sound identification, all the data forms were then put together for the statistical summation.

4.3 ***Phase 3***: The guidelines are created based on the identified problem sounds pronounced by the participants in this study, which employed strategies for basic practice in improving those English pronunciation problems. Also, the constructed questionnaire about how the participants used to improve their English pronunciation was asked. The data from this questionnaire would be analyzed statistically for means and standard deviations for the conclusion for further recommendations of English learning and instructional practice.

5. Data analysis

5.1 In this study the data collection was conducted in different phases but the analysis was done statistically for percentage in phase 2 and the calculation for mean and standard deviation were employed. The comparison of pronunciation problems between Thai and Indonesian EFL young learners was based on the range of difference in number of percentage. In phase 2

81.00 – 100.00 percent of range = very high / totally different

66.00 – 80.00 percent of range = significant / very different

51.00 – 65.00 percent of range = high / different

36.00 – 50.00 percent of range = average / medium

21.00 – 35.00 percent of range = small

01.00 – 20.00 percent of range = little

5.2 The statistical analysis for mean and standard deviation in phase 3 was interpreted under the criteria of the mean range below.

4.01 – 5.00	range of means =	highest level
3.01 – 4.00	range of means =	high level
2.01 – 3.00	range of means =	average level
1.01 – 2.00	range of means =	low level
0.00 – 1.00	range of means =	lowest level

CHAPTER 4

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

This chapter contains the analysis and results of the study to answer the research questions, as well as the purposes of the study referring to those in unit 1. The purposes to be answered are four folds:

1. Identifying the English pronunciation problems made by young learners of EFL in Thailand and Indonesia based on the linguistics principles.

2. Comparing the English pronunciation problems produced by Thai and Indonesian young learners who learn English as a foreign language.

3. Determining the strategies employed by the learners to improve the English pronunciation problems had made by the Thai and Indonesian young learners.

4. Creating guidelines that can be used for improving the English pronunciation problems based on the analysis and findings from the study.

The analysis of the data collected form the participants can be presented in tabular forms with the interpretation, which would make the findings clear and comprehensible.

Table 1 English key words used for analysis of vowel pronunciation problems in this study

	Front			Mid			Back			**Diphthongs**		
High	i	we	[wi]				u	books	[buks]	eɪ	way	[weɪ]
Mid-high	ɪ	it	[ɪt]				ʊ	two	[tʊ]	aɪ	like	[laɪk]
Mid	e	many	[meni]	ə	but	[bət]	o	over	[ovə˞]	ɔɪ	point	[pɔɪnt]
Mid-low	ɛ	help	[hɛlp]				ɔ	bought	[bɔt]	ou	show	[tʃou]
Low	æ	have	[hæv]				a	part	[paˈt]	aʊ	about	[əbaʊt]

Table 1 shows that all vowel sounds of English to be analyzed are covered with words in the text used for the analysis of English pronunciation problems. They could be classified as single vowels –short and long – and diphthongs. Each sound is found in different words of the text, such as those shown in the table as an example.

Table 2 English key words used for analysis of consonant pronunciation problems in this study

Place of articulation		sound	Initial single	Initial blend	Final single	Final blend
Bilabial	*voiced*	/p/	**p**eople **p**art	**pr**esent	u**p** shi**p**	he**lps**
	voiceless	/b/	**b**egan	-	su**b**ject	-
	voiceless	/m/	**m**any	-	fro**m**	beco**mes**
	voiceless	/w/	**w**ay **w**ent	**wr**ite **wr**itten	ne**w** fe**w**	-
Labiodental	*voiced*	/f/	**f**ew	**Fr**ench	i**f** li**f**e	li**ft**
	voiceless	/v/	**v**ery o**v**er	-	ha**ve**	howe**v**er
Dental	*voiced*	/θ/	**th**ing **th**ink	-	wi**th**	-
(inter)	*voiceless*	/ð/	**th**is	**thr**ough	ano**th**er	-
Alveolar	*voiceless*	/t/	**t**ime	**tr**y coun**tr**y	tha**t**	we**nt**
	voiced	/d/	**d**emand	wor**d**	rea**d**	dema**nd**
	voiced	/s/	**s**o **s**ame	**st**art **sl**owly	wa**s** ha**s**	a**sk** mo**st**
	voiced	/z/	**z**oo la**z**y	-	u**se** the**se**	quee**ns**
	voiced	/n/	**n**ew	-	bega**n**	we**nt**
	voiced	/l/	**l**ike **L**atin	in**fl**uenced	sti**ll** a**ll**	**el**se wor**ld**
	voiced	/r/	**r**ich	**fr**om	aft**er** ca**rr**ied	wo**rd**
Alveo-	*voiceless*	/ʃ/	**ch**urch	-	su**ch** ri**ch**	-
Palatal	*voiceless*	/tʃ/	**sh**ort **sh**ow	-	Engli**sh**	-
or post-	*voiced*	/ʒ/	vi**s**ion	-	-	-
alveolar	*voiced*	/dʒ/	**J**utes **j**ust	-	chan**ge**	langua**ges**
	voiced	/j/	**u**se **y**ear	-	-	-
Velar	*voiceless*	/k/	**c**ame spo**k**en	**sch**ool	boo**k**	a**sk**, boo**k**s
	voiced	/g/	a**g**ain **g**ive	An**gl**o **gr**oup	ba**g**	-
	voiced	/ŋ/	-	-	la**ng**uage	meani**ng**s
Glottal	*voiceless*	/h/	**h**elp	-	-	-
(laryngeal)						

Table 2 above shows that this study had used the comprehensible text that covered significant sound of English consonants that can be presented in the IPA phonemic symbols, which were arranged in the articulation system including the positions of sound occurred in different places of words –initial, middle, and final endings. However, the individual sounds (phonemes) of English may be presented in different characters of letters –single, cluster, digraph, and other spelling. Therefore, to pronounce English sounds correctly might involve the knowledge of letter-sound correspondences as well.

Table 3 Percentage of vowel pronunciation problems produced by the *Thai* EFL participants

		Front	Mid	Back		**Diphthongs**	
High	/i/	01.50	-	/u/	04.33	/eɪ/	11.24
Mid-high	/ɪ/	05.12	-	/ʊ/	05.25	/aɪ/	07.30
Mid	/e/	23.33	47.36	/o/	18.95	/ɔɪ/	19.14
Mid-low	/ɛ/	15.45	-	/ɔ/	25.30	/ou/	10.35
Low	/æ/	09.10	-	/a/	45.85	/aʊ/	36.78

Table 4 Percentage of vowel pronunciation problems produced by the *Indonesian* EFL participants

		Front	Mid	Back		**Diphthongs**	
High	/i/	02.45	-	/u/	08.78	/eɪ/	08.56
Mid-high	/ɪ/	04.37	-	/ʊ/	07.52	/aɪ/	12.45
Mid	/e/	15.24	33.45	/o/	14.56	/ɔɪ/	15.44
Mid-low	/ɛ/	14.74	-	/ɔ/	25.30	/ou/	21.27
Low	/æ/	05.25	-	/a/	23.44	/aʊ/	28.34

From table 3-4, the percentage of vowel pronunciation problems made by the Thai and Indonesian participants was low in all sounds of vowels; short, long, and diphthongs and in all articulation positions of high, mid-high, mid, mid-low, and low. However, the EFL learners from both countries were likely to pronounce short vowels with longer sound, reluctant to pronounce the words they were not familiar with; Vowels that are spelled with letter 'r' (-ar, -er, -ir, -or, -ur) were actually miss-pronounced without 'r' as in *more, important, church, year, were, over,* and *part.* Furthermore, they were likely to pronounce every word and syllables with very clear sound without realization of suprasegmental features of English language, which resulted in undesirable fluency in reading and speaking.

Table 5 Percentage of consonant pronunciation problems produced by the Thai EFL learners

Place of articulation		sound	Initial single	Initial blend	Final single	Final blend
Bilabial	*voiced*	/p/	12.00	00.00	24.63	76.25
	voiceless	/b/	01.41	-	00.00	-
	voiceless	/m/	00.00	-	21.78	15.45
	voiceless	/w/	00.00	34.25	01.85	-
Labiodental	*voiced*	/f/	00.00	11.20	44.36	54.22
	voiceless	/v/	86.71	-	83.87	77.98
Dental	*voiced*	/θ/	87.53	-	71.46	-
(inter)	*voiceless*	/ð/	88.98	75.44	74.53	-
Alveolar	*voiceless*	/t/	21.86	18.41	45.68	34.23
	voiced	/d/	00.00	9.54	37.74	41.67
	voiced	/s/	00.00	00.00	79.50	75.29
	voiced	/z/	32.66	-	81.50	74.24
	voiced	/n/	00.00	-	12.54	21.20
	voiced	/l/	00.00	01.20	78.63	81.26
	voiced	/r/	54.21	37.85	64.22	65.38
Alveo-	*voiceless*	/ʃ/	00.00	-	84.65	-
Palatal	*voiceless*	/tʃ/	25.11	-	81.44	-
or post-	*voiced*	/ʒ/	74.35	-	-	-
alveolar	*voiced*	/dʒ/	01.50	-	91.25	88.52
	voiced	/j/	00.00	-	-	-
Velar	*voiceless*	/k/	05.20	00.00	31.45	45.21
	voiced	/g/	00.00	00.00	46.25	-
	voiced	/ŋ/	-	-	00.00	00.00
Glottal	*voiceless*	/h/	00.00	-	-	-
(laryngeal)						

The table 5 above shows that the Thai participants of young EFL learners had problems of English pronunciation with the *bilabial* /p/ at the ending of words at a high percent (76.25), labiodental voiceless /v/ consonant sound at both positions of beginning (86.71) and ending (83.87) –ending blends (77.98) of words, the dental voiced /θ/ (87.53) at the beginning and ending sound (71.46), the voiceless /ð/ both at the beginning (88.98), initial blend (75.44) and ending (74.53), alveolar voiced /s/ at the end of a word (79.50) and ending blends (75.29), alveolar voiced /z/ at the end of a word (81.50) and ending blends (74.24), alveolar voiced /l/ at the end of a word (78.63) and ending blends (81.21), alveolar voiced /r/ at the end of a word (64.22) and ending blends (65.38), alveo-palatal voiced /ʃ/ at the end of a word (84.65), voiceless /tʃ/ at the end of a word (81.44), voiced /ʒ/ (74.35) at the beginning sound of a word, voiced ending /dʒ/ (91.25) and ending blend (88.52) of a word. Observably, most English final sounds of words were pronounced lightly or unpronounced, either a single sound or blends; such as *langua**g**e* and *langua**ge**s*.

Table 6 The analysis of consonant pronunciation problems produced by the **Indonesian** EFL learners

Place of articulation		sound	Initial single	Initial blend	Final single	Final blend
Bilabial	*voiced*	/p/	84.00	80.21	61.48	65.42
	voiceless	/b/	02.33	-	10.50	-
	voiceless	/m/	00.00	-	21.78	11.75
	voiceless	/w/	00.00	27.74	10.37	-
Labiodental	*voiced*	/f/	00.00	04.25	37. 64	53.41
	voiceless	/v/	74.45	-	76.87	74.54
Dental	*voiced*	/θ/	72.89	-	70.23	-
(inter)	*voiceless*	/ð/	75.43	71.53	74.10	-
Alveolar	*voiceless*	/t/	85.32	10.54	38.47	33.18
	voiced	/d/	00.00	5.77	19.62	36.12
	voiced	/s/	00.00	00.00	64.27	73.44
	voiced	/z/	42.66	-	77.50	72.53
	voiced	/n/	00.00	-	10.11	14.51
	voiced	/l/	00.00	03.47	64.11	61.87
		/r/	71.34	44.57	71.46	54.42

Table 6 (continued)

Place of articulation		sound	Initial single	Initial blend	Final single	Final blend
Alveo-	*voiceless*	/ʃ/	00.00	-	78.14	-
Palatal	*voiceless*	/tʃ/	18.74	-	76.91	-
or post-	*voiced*	/ʒ/	24. 72	-	-	-
	voiced	/dʒ/	03.17	-	76.25	73.12
alveolar	*voiced*	/j/	00.00	-	-	-
Velar	*voiceless*	/k/	03.60	00.00	18.55	22.73
	voiced	/g/	00.00	00.00	45.84	-
	voiced	/ŋ/	-	-	00.00	00.00
Glottal	*voiceless*	/h/	00.00	-	-	-
(laryngeal)						

The table 6 above shows that the **Indonesian** participants of young EFL learners had problems of English pronunciation with the *bilabial* /p/ at the beginning of words at a high percent (84.00) and with blended sound (80.21) which the pronouncing of strong /p^h/ sound, labiodental voiceless /v/ consonant sound at both positions of beginning (74.45) and ending (76.87) –ending blends (74.54) of words, the dental voiced /θ/ at the beginning (72.89), ending sound (70.23), the voiceless /ð/ both at the beginning (75.43), initial blend (71.53) and ending (74.10), alveolar voiced /s/ at the end of a word (64.27) and ending blends (73.44), alveolar voiced /z/ at the end of a word (77.50) and ending blends (72.53), alveolar voiced /l/ at the end of a word (64.11) and ending blends (61.87), alveolar voiced /r/ at the beginning with roll (71.34) and at end of a word (71.46) and ending blends (54.42), alveo-palatal voiced /ʃ/ at the end of a word (78.14), voiceless /tʃ/ at the end of a word (76.91), voiced ending /dʒ/ (76.25) and ending blend (73.21) of a word.

Observably, most English final sounds of words were pronounced by the Indonesian EFL young learners with soft sound or unpronounced when they appear at the end of words, either a single sound or blend sounds; such as *langua**ge*** and *langua**ges***, *li**ve*** or ***lived***. Also, the obvious pronunciation of strong /t^h/, strong /p^h/, and roll /r/ were found among the Indonesian EFL students.

Table 7 Comparison of consonant pronunciation problems between **Indonesian** and Thai EFL learners**:** Reported in percentage of problems

Place of articulation		sound	Initial single		Initial blend		Final single		Final blend	
			Indo.	*Thai*	*Indo.*	*Thai*	*Indo.*	*Thai*	*Indo.*	*Thai*
Bilabial	*voiced*	/p/	84.00	12.00	80.21	00.00	61.48	24.63	65.42	76.25
	voiceless	/b/	02.33	01.41	-	-	10.50	00.00	-	-
	voiceless	/m/	00.00	00.00	-	-	21.78	21.78	11.75	15.45
	voiceless	/w/	00.00	00.00	27.74	34.25	10.37	01.85	-	-
Labiodental	*voiced*	/f/	00.00	00.00	04.25	11.20	37. 64	44.36	53.41	54.22
	voiceless	/v/	74.45	86.71	-	-	76.87	83.87	74.54	77.98
Dental	*voiced*	/θ/	72.89	87.53	-	-	70.23	71.46	-	-
(inter)	*voiceless*	/ð/	75.43	71.53	-	-	74.10	74.53	-	-
Alveolar	*voiceless*	/t/	85.32	18.41	10.54	18.41	38.47	45.68	33.18	34.23
	voiced	/d/	00.00	00.00	5.77	9.54	19.62	37.74	36.12	41.67
	voiced	/s/	00.00	00.00	00.00	00.00	64.27	79.50	73.44	75.29
	voiced	/z/	42.66	32.66	-	-	77.50	81.50	72.53	74.24
	voiced	/n/	00.00	00.00	-	-	10.11	12.54	14.51	21.20
	voiced	/l/	00.00	00.00	03.47	01.20	64.11	78.63	61.87	81.26
	voiced	/r/	71.34	54.21	44.57	37.85	71.46	64.22	54.42	65.38
Alveo-	*voiceless*	/ʃ/	00.00	00.00	-	-	78.14	84.65	-	-
Palatal	*voiceless*	/tʃ/	18.74	25.11	-	-	76.91	81.44	-	-
or post-	*voiced*	/ʒ/	24. 72	74.35	-	-	-	-	-	-
	voiced	/dʒ/	03.17	01.50	-	-	76.25	91.25	73.12	88.52
alveolar	*voiced*	/j/	00.00	00.00	-	-	-	-	-	-
Velar	*voiceless*	/k/	03.60	05.20	00.00	00.00	18.55	31.45	22.73	45.21
	voiced	/g/	00.00	00.00	00.00	00.00	45.84	46.25	-	-
	voiced	/ŋ/	-	-	-	-	00.00	00.00	00.00	00.00
Glottal	*voiceless*	/h/	00.00	00.00	-	-	-	-	-	-

The table 7 above shows the comparison of English pronunciation problems between the Indonesian and Thai participants of young EFL learners. Both of them had problems of English pronunciation with the *bilabial* /p/ at the beginning of words at a high percent (84.00) and with blended sound (80.21) which the pronouncing of strong /p^h/ sound while Thais did not have much of this problem except that of the ending blend (76.25). Both Indonesians and Thai had similar problems (even though Thais had a little bit more) with the labiodental voiceless /v/ sound at both positions of beginning (Indos.=74.45, Thais=86.71) and ending (Indos.=76.87, Thas=83.87) and ending blends (Indos.=74.54, Thais=77.89) of words. Also, both of them had similar problem with pronouncing the dental voiced /θ/ at the beginning (Indos.=72.89, Thais=87.53) and ending sound (Indos.=70.23, Thais=71.46), the voiceless /ð/ both at the beginning (Indos.=75.43, Thais=88.98), initial blend (Indos.=71.53, Thais=75.44) and ending (Indos.=74.10, Thais=74.53), alveolar voiced /s/ at the end of a word (Indos.=64.27, Thais=79.50) and ending blends (Indos.=73.44, Thais=75.29), alveolar voiced /z/ at the end of a word (Indos.=77.50, Thais=81.50) and ending blends (Indos.=72.53, Thais=74.24), alveolar voiced /l/ at the end of a word (Indos.=64.11, Thais=78.63) and ending blends (Indos.=61.87, Thais=81.21). However, there were a different problem found with the alveolar voiced /r/, only Indonesians at the beginning with roll (71.34) while they had the same problem of /r/ at end of a word (Indos.=71.46, Thais=64.22) and ending blends (Indos.=54.42, Thais=65.38). They both had the same problem with alveo-palatal voiced /ʃ/ at the end of a word (Indos.=78.14, Thai=84.65), voiceless /tʃ/ at the end of a word (Indos=76.91, Thais=81.44), voiced ending /dʒ/ (Indos.=76.25, Thais=91.25) and ending blend (Indos.=73.21, Thais=88.52).

Table 8 Observational analysis of problems of pronunciation based on the suprasegmental features

Suprasegmental features	Thai		Indonesian		t	Sig.
	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	$\bar{X}$	S.D.		
1. Stress	2.98	1.20	2.54	1.25	1.053	.295
2. Intonation	3.21	1.45	3.11	1.43	1.562	.564
3. Connected speech	3.64	1.28	3.50	1.74	0.921	.077
4. Assimilation	4.24	1.54	4.35	1.06	0.036	.772
5. Elision	4.51	1.11	4.45	1.65	0.901	.459
6. Linking	4.02	1.45	3.98	1.23	1.692	.981
7. Intrusion	2.33	1.89	2.64	1.63	2.453	.021*
8. Rhythm and punctuation	3.52	1.02	3.44	1.32	0.987	.438

Table 8 (continued)

Suprasegmental features	Thai		Indonesian		t	Sig.
	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	$\bar{X}$	S.D.		
9. English native-like accent	3.21	0.98	3.06	1.45	1.061	.294
10. Fluency	4.32	1.23	4.01	1.57	1.894	.084
Total	3.64	1.35	3.51	1.46	1.566	.432

* Statistical significant at .05 level

From table 8, the pronunciation problems of suprasegmental sounds between Thai and Indonesian EFL learners were found the be similar in stress, intonation, connected speech, assimilation, elision, linking, rhythm and punctuation, accent and fluency (there was no significant difference in statistics), but only the intrusion is found the be significantly different –Indonesian EFL learners produced more intrusion than Thai EFL learners. Mostly the students in both countries have problems with assimilation, elision, linking, and then fluency.

Table 9 Participant background providing information of the strategies used to develop English pronunciation of all combined Thai and Indonesian EFL learners

Participants		Gender		Period of learning English (years)			
Thai	Indonesia	Male	Female	1-6	7-10	11-15	16 - Up
50.00	50.00	27.80	72.20	9.70	29.20	12.30	48.70

In table 9, the participants were both Thais and Indonesians equally drawn, but in terms of gender they were 27.80 percent of male and 72.20 percent of female. When classified with the time period they had learned English from schools, there were 9.70 percent of the participants who had learned English as a foreign language, 29.20 percent of 7-10 years, 12.30 percent of 11-15 years, and 48.70 percent of 16 years and up –the most number of the participants in this study.

Table 10 Participant background providing information of the strategies used to develop English pronunciation of all combined Thai and Indonesian EFL learners as a whole

Strategy used for developing English pronunciation	Use	average		Unused	Use
	%	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	%	level
1. Formal classes in school					
1.1 Learning with their native (L1) teachers	98.00	3.65	1.04	2.00	high
1.2 Learning with the English native teachers	81.41	2.42	1.59	18.60	low
1.3 Having tutoring sessions with their L1 teachers	89.40	2.70	1.46	11.60	medium
1.4 Having tutoring sessions with the English teachers	74.50	1.97	1.46	25.50	low
2. Daily routine activity					
2.1 Doing chaos with parents and relatives	92.00	2.32	1.29	8.00	low
2.2 Doing activities in community and fairs	96.50	2.73	1.38	3.50	medium
2.3 Hang-out with friends	94.50	2.72	1.20	5.50	medium
3. Occasional activity					
3.1 Doing part-time jobs	77.00	1.94	1.43	23.00	low
3.2 Traveling to overseas places	70.00	1.79	1.50	30.00	low
3.3 Attending camps, workshops and meetings	88.00	2.07	1.33	12.00	low
4. Offline learning from media					
4.1 Watching movies in English	99.50	3.78	1.07	0.50	high
4.2 Listen to/sing English songs	99.50	4.19	0.97	0.50	high
4.3 Watching TV programs and ads	98.00	3.17	1.29	2.00	medium
5. Online learning from media					
5.1 Playing computer and online games	97.50	2.91	1.24	2.50	medium
5.2 Communication in social media apps	97.50	2.77	1.38	2.50	medium
5.3 Online lessons provided in websites	99.50	3.02	1.40	0.50	medium
5.4 Online video clips like YouTube, etc.	98.00	3.22	1.48	2.00	medium
6. Self-directed study					
6.1 Studying textbook and other books	97.50	3.19	1.09	2.50	medium
6.2 Using traditional or talking dictionary	99.50	3.31	1.25	0.50	medium
6.3 Self directive practice without any pressure	96.00	2.90	1.27	4.00	medium

The table 10 shows that when the strategies of learning and improving English pronunciation were classified into 6 groups, the analysis as a whole with the participants of both countries together indicated that they developed the English pronunciation in their classrooms with the L1 English teachers at a high

level while learning with the English native teachers at a low level. They learned the pronunciation from the off-line media at a high level, followed by online media, self-directed study, and daily routine activity. They learned the English pronunciation from occasional activity at the least level respectively. Obviously, they learned and developed the English pronunciation mostly from songs ($\bar{X}$=4.19, S.D.=0.97), watching movies ($\bar{X}$=3.78, S.D.=1.07), classroom teaching ($\bar{X}$=3.65, S.D.=1.04) using a dictionary ($\bar{X}$=3.31, S.D.=1.25), and from online video clips like YouTube ($\bar{X}$=3.22, S.D.=1.48) respectively.

Table 11 Participant background providing information of the strategies used to develop English pronunciation of EFL **Thai learners**

Strategy used for developing English pronunciation	Use	average		Unused	**Use**
	%	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	%	**level**
1. Formal classes in school					
1.1 Learning with their native (L1) teachers	98.00	3.62	1.06	2.00	high
1.2 Learning with the English native teachers	94.90	2.89	1.19	5.10	medium
1.3 Having tutoring sessions with their L1 teachers	89.90	2.55	1.33	10.10	medium
1.4 Having tutoring sessions with the English teachers	87.00	2.20	1.27	13.00	low
2. Daily routine activity					
2.1 Doing chaos with parents and relatives	88.00	2.39	1.34	12.00	low
2.2 Doing activities in community and fairs	97.50	2.80	1.26	2.50	medium
2.3 Hang-out with friends	94.00	2.81	1.18	6.00	medium
3. Occasional activity					
3.1 Doing part-time jobs	77.00	1.94	1.43	23.00	low
3.2 Traveling to overseas places	75.00	2.03	1.53	25.00	low
3.3 Attending camps, workshops and meetings	87.00	2.39	1.34	13.00	low
4. Offline learning from media					
4.1 Watching movies in English	99.00	3.65	1.28	1.00	high
4.2 Listen to/sing English songs	99.00	4.02	0.99	1.00	high
4.3 Watching TV programs and ads	99.00	3.47	1.11	1.00	high
5. Online learning from media					
5.1 Playing computer and online games	99.00	3.15	1.28	1.00	medium
5.2 Communication in social media apps	97.00	3.08	1.24	3.00	medium
5.3 Online lessons provided in websites	100.00	3.56	1.09	0.00	high
5.4 Online video clips like YouTube, etc.	100.00	3.98	0.92	0.00	high

Table 11 (continued)

Strategy used for developing English pronunciation	Use	average		Unused	**Use**
	%	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	%	**level**
6. Self-directed study					
6.1 Studying textbook and other books	96.00	3.12	1.07	4.00	medium
6.2 Using traditional or talking dictionary	99.50	3.41	1.15	0.50	medium
6.3 Self directive practice without any pressure	94.90	2.86	1.31	5.10	medium

The table 11 above shows that Thai EFL learners used the strategies of developing their English pronunciation classified into 6 groups as; learning in their classrooms with the L1 English teachers in classroom teaching at a high level ($\bar{X}$=3.62, S.D.=1.06) while learning with the English native teachers at a low level. They learned the pronunciation from the off-line media at a high level, mostly from songs ($\bar{X}$=4.02, S.D.=0.99), watching movies ($\bar{X}$=3.65, S.D.=1.28), watching TVs ($\bar{X}$=3.47, S.D.=1.11), using a dictionary ($\bar{X}$=3.41, S.D.=1.25), followed by online media such as YouTube video clips ($\bar{X}$=3.98, S.D.=0.92) and online lessons available on websites ($\bar{X}$=3.56, S.D.=1.09). Also, dictionaries and textbooks were still accounted for helping them improve English pronunciation. But, Thai students learned the English pronunciation from occasional activity at the least level respectively.

Table 12 Participant background providing information of the strategies used to develop English pronunciation of EFL **Indonesian** learners

Strategy used for developing English pronunciation	Use	average		Unused	**Use**
	%	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	%	**level**
1. Formal classes in school					
1.1 Learning with their native (L1) teachers	98.00	3.67	1.02	2.00	high
1.2 Learning with the English native teachers	68.00	1.95	1.79	32.00	low
1.3 Having tutoring sessions with their L1 teachers	89.00	2.86	1.57	11.00	medium
1.4 Having tutoring sessions with the English teachers	62.00	1.74	1.59	38.00	low
2. Daily routine activity					
2.1 Doing chaos with parents and relatives	96.00	2.26	1.22	4.00	low
2.2 Doing activities in community and fairs	95.00	2.22	1.45	5.00	low
2.3 Hang-out with friends	95.00	2.63	1.22	5.00	medium

Table 12 *(continued)*

Strategy used for developing English pronunciation	Use	average		Unused	**Use**
	%	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	%	**level**
3. Occasional activity					
3.1 Doing part-time jobs	67.00	1.95	1.40	33.00	low
3.2 Traveling to overseas places	65.00	1.53	1.43	35.00	low
3.3 Attending camps, workshops and meetings	79.00	1.36	1.16	21.00	very low
4. Offline learning from media					
4.1 Watching movies in English	100.00	3.91	1.01	0.00	high
4.2 Listen to/sing English songs	100.00	4.35	0.93	0.00	high
4.3 Watching TV programs and ads	97.00	2.87	1.39	3.00	medium
5. Online learning from media					
5.1 Playing computer and online games	96.00	2.38	1.38	4.00	low
5.2 Communication in social media apps	98.00	2.74	1.22	2.00	medium
5.3 Online lessons provided in websites	99.00	2.48	1.09	1.00	low
5.4 Online video clips like YouTube, etc.	96.00	2.46	1.54	4.00	low
6. Self-directed study					
6.1 Studying textbook and other books	99.00	3.26	1.11	1.00	medium
6.2 Using traditional or talking dictionary	98.00	3.41	1.15	2.00	medium
6.3 Self directive practice without any pressure	97.00	2.95	1.23	3.00	medium

From table 12, it shows that **Indonesian** EFL learners used the strategies of developing their English pronunciation classified into 6 groups as; learning in their classrooms with the L1 English teachers in classroom teaching at a high level ($\bar{X}$=3.67, S.D.=1.02) –similar to the Thai leaners--while learning with the English native teachers was at a low level. They learned the pronunciation from the off-line media at a high level, mostly from songs ($\bar{X}$=4.35, S.D.=0.93) and watching movies ($\bar{X}$=3.91, S.D.=1.01), and using a dictionary ($\bar{X}$=3.41, S.D.=1.15). The Indonesian EFL learners did not rely on using online media much, basically at a low level, as well as learning from occasional activity respectively. Interestingly, the Indonesian EFL learners attended occasional activity like camps, workshops and meetings at a very low level.

Table 13 Comparative analysis of strategies used to develop English pronunciation between Thai and Indonesian EFL learners, whole range of details classified into 6 categories

Strategy used for developing English pronunciation	Thai		Indonesian		t	Sig.
	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	$\bar{X}$	S.D.		
1. Formal classes in school						
1.1 Learning with their native teachers (L1)	3.62	1.06	3.67	1.02	0.340	.734
1.2 Learning with English native teachers	2.89	1.19	1.95	1.79	4.360	.000*
1.3 Having tutoring sessions with their L1 teachers	2.55	1.34	2.186	1.57	1.522	.130
1.4 Having tutoring sessions with English teachers	2.20	1.27	1.74	1.59	2.257	.025*
2. Daily routine activity						
2.1 Doing chaos with parents and relatives	2.39	1.34	2.26	1.24	0.713	.477
2.2 Doing activities in community and fairs	2.25	1.23	2.12	1.21	0.764	.683
2.3 Hang-out with friends	2.81	1.18	2.63	1.22	1.061	.290
3. Occasional activity						
3.1 Doing part-time jobs	2.29	1.38	1.59	1.40	**3.560**	**.000***
3.2 Traveling to overseas places	2.03	1.53	1.55	1.43	**2.288**	**.023***
3.3 Attending camps, workshops and meetings	2.77	1.09	1.36	1.16	**8.860**	**.000***
4. Offline learning from media						
4.1 Watching movies in English	3.65	1.07	3.91	1.06	1.748	.082
4.2 Listen to/sing English songs	4.02	0.99	4.35	0.93	**2.443**	**.015***
4.3 Watching TV programs and ads	3.47	1.11	2.87	1.39	**3.379**	**.001***
5. Online learning from media						
5.1 Playing computer and online games	3.15	1.82	2.38	1.38	**4.053**	**.000***
5.2 Communication in social media apps	3.08	1.24	2.74	1.22	1.953	.052
5.3 Online lessons provided in websites	3.56	1.95	2.48	1.47	**5.901**	**.000***
5.4 Online video clips like YouTube, etc.	3.98	0.92	2.46	1.54	**2.443**	**.015***
6. Self-directed study						
6.1 Studying textbook and other books	3.12	1.07	3.26	1.11	0.911	.363
6.2 Using traditional or talking dictionary	3.60	1.06	3.02	1.36	**3.338**	**.001***
6.3 Self directive practice without any pressure	2.86	1.31	2.95	1.23	0.508	.612

* Statistical significance at .05 level

Table 13 shows that Thai and Indonesian EFL learners used some strategies to improve and develop their English pronunciation ability differently at a statistical significant at .05 level. Firstly, Thai students had learned with English native teachers in a regular and tutoring classes than Indonesian students.

Secondly, Thai students had learned about English pronunciation in different occasional activities outside the classroom more than the Indonesians in all three sub categories of doing part-time jobs, travelling around, and attending camps and workshops. Thirdly, for offline learning the Indonesian students learned English pronunciation from songs more than Thais, but Thais learned from TV programs more than the Indonesians. Fourthly, Thai learned about English pronunciation from online media; such as game, video clips, and websites more than Indonesians. Lastly, Thai learners used a dictionary, especially talking one, more than Indonesians as a reference for their improving of English pronunciation.

Table 14 Comparative analysis of strategies used to develop English pronunciation of both Thai and Indonesian EFL learners based on difference of gender (male and female)

Strategy used for developing English pronunciation	Male		Female		t	Sig.
	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	$\bar{X}$	S.D.		
1. Formal classes in school						
1.1 Learning with their native teachers (L1)	3.31	1.15	3.76	0.96	**2.769**	**.006***
1.2 Learning with English native teachers	2.62	1.51	2.33	1.62	1.136	.258
1.3 Having tutoring sessions with their L1 teachers	2.87	1.35	2.63	1.51	1.056	.292
1.4 Having tutoring sessions with English teachers	2.09	1.49	1.92	1.45	0.753	.452
2. Daily routine activity						
2.1 Doing chaos with parents and relatives	2.33	1.11	2.32	1.36	0.027	.978
2.2 Doing activities in community and fairs	2.35	1.20	2.22	1.45	0.774	.638
2.3 Hang-out with friends	2.82	1.35	2.68	1.15	0.731	.466
3. Occasional activity						
3.1 Doing part-time jobs	1.89	1.41	1.97	1.45	0.325	.746
3.2 Traveling to overseas places	1.96	1.43	1.73	1.54	0.989	.324
3.3 Attending camps, workshops and meetings	1.84	1.18	2.15	1.38	1.506	.134
4. Offline learning from media						
4.1 Watching movies in English	4.05	0.91	3.68	1.11	**2.244**	**.026***
4.2 Listen to/sing English songs	4.35	0.84	4.12	101	1.476	.142
4.3 Watching TV programs and ads	2.96	1.28	3.24	1.29	1.340	.182
5. Online learning from media						
5.1 Playing computer and online games	2.49	1.37	2.87	1.38	1.744	.083
5.2 Communication in social media apps	2.52	1.24	3.07	1.21	**2.837**	**.005***
5.3 Online lessons provided in websites	2.67	1.95	3.14	1.34	**2.116**	**.036***
5.4 Online video clips like YouTube, etc.	2.84	1.49	3.36	1.46	**2.263**	**.025***

Table 14 (continued)

Strategy used for developing English pronunciation	Male		Female		t	Sig.
	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	$\bar{X}$	S.D.		
6. Self-directed study						
6.1 Studying textbook and other books	3.09	1.05	3.22	1.01	0.767	.444
6.2 Using traditional or talking dictionary	3.07	1.20	3.39	1.26	1.634	.104
6.3 Self directive practice without any pressure	2.49	1.28	3.08	1.22	**3.020**	**.003***

Based on the gender difference, table 14 shows that Thai and Indonesian EFL male and female learners as a whole used different strategies to improve and develop their English pronunciation ability in some ways at a statistical significant at .05 level. Firstly, female students had learned with their L1 English teachers in a regular classroom at school more than male students significantly. Male students developed the English pronunciation with movies more than female students significantly. Obviously, female students had learned about English pronunciation using online media more than the male ones in all three sub categories of such as social applications, video clips, and lessons on websites significantly. Female students learned English pronunciation with self-directive practice more than the male also.

Table 15 Comparative analysis of strategies used to develop English pronunciation of both Thai and Indonesian EFL learners based on difference of the three periods of learning English

Strategies	Source of Variance	SS	df	MS	F	Sig.
1. Formal classes in school						
1.1 Learning with their native teachers (L1)	Between groups	5.161	3	1.720	1.609	.189
	Within groups	204.254	191	1.069		
1.2 Learning with English native teachers	Between groups	27.336	3	9.112	3.771	.012*
	Within groups	459.103	191	2.416		
1.3 Having tutoring sessions with their L1 teachers	Between groups	2.440	3	.813	.374	.772
	Within groups	413.379	191	2.176		
1.4 Having tutoring sessions with English teachers	Between groups	10.777	3	3.592	1.707	.167
	Within groups	401.972	191	2.105		

Table 15 (continued)

Strategies	Source of Variance	SS	df	MS	F	Sig.
2. Daily routine activity						
2.1 Doing chaos with parents and relatives	Between groups	2.651	3	.884	.529	.663
	Within groups	319.267	191	1.672		
2.2 Doing activities in community and fairs	Between groups	3.544	3	1.181	.776	.508
	Within groups	289.136	191	1.522		
2.3 Hang-out with friends	Between groups	.900	3	.300	.208	.891
	Within groups	275.695	191	1.443		
3. Occasional activity						
3.1 Doing part-time jobs	Between groups	27.053	3	9.018	4.592	.004*
	Within groups	375.081	191	1.964		
3.2 Traveling to overseas places	Between groups	3.753	3	1.251	.545	.652
	Within groups	438.042	191	2.293		
3.3 Attending camps, workshops and meetings	Between groups	60.181	3	20.060	13.664	.000*
	Within groups	280.404	191	1.468		
4. Offline learning from media						
4.1 Watching movies in English	Between groups	6.026	3	2.009	1.755	.157
	Within groups	217.443	191	1.144		
4.2 Listen to/sing English songs	Between groups	4.215	3	1.405	1.498	.216
	Within groups	179.139	191	.938		
4.3 Watching TV programs and ads	Between groups	9.693	3	3.231	1.955	.122
	Within groups	315.691	191	1.653		
5. Online learning from media						
5.1 Playing computer and online games	Between groups	31.284	3	10.428	5.806	.001*
	Within groups	341.278	191	1.796		
5.2 Communication in social media apps	Between groups	3.544	3	1.181	.776	.508
	Within groups	289.136	191	1.522		
5.3 Online lessons provided in websites	Between groups	38.938	3	12.979	7.205	.000*
	Within groups	344.057	191	1.801		
5.4 Online video clips like YouTube, etc.	Between groups	63.100	3	21.033	10.956	.000*
	Within groups	366.695	191	1.920		

Table 15 *(continued)*

Strategies	Source of Variance	SS	df	MS	F	Sig.
6. Self-directed study						
6.1 Studying textbook and other books	Between groups	4.896	3	1.632	1.389	.248
	Within groups	224.458	191	1.175		
6.2 Using traditional or talking dictionary	Between groups	46.223	3	15.408	9.199	.000*
	Within groups	319.911	191	1.675		
6.3 Self directive practice without any pressure	Between groups	5.665	3	1.888	1.238	.297
	Within groups	289.845	191	1.526		

From the table 15 above, at the alpha 0.05 the result from Sheffé test shows the comparative analysis of strategies used to develop English pronunciation of both Thai and Indonesian EFL learners based on difference of the three periods of learning English (1-6 years, 7-10 years, and 11-16 years) that difference in the periods of learning English affected the use of strategies in improving the English pronunciation in eight certain ways; namely, 1) learning with English native teachers in the classrooms at schools, 2) doing part-time jobs, 3) attending camps, workshops and meetings occasionally, 4) playing computer and online games, 5) using online lessons provided in websites, 6) online video clips like YouTube, and 7) using traditional or talking dictionary.

Table 16 Pair-group comparison analysis based on the periods of learning English with English native teachers in the classrooms at schools

Period of learning English	1-6 years	7-10 years	11-16 years
16 years and up	.507	.180	037*
1 - 6 years		1.000	.829
7 - 10 years			.677

Note: * 0.05 significant level

From table 16, the period of learning English pronunciation with English native teachers in the classrooms at schools yielded the significant difference at 0.05 level with the EFL learners who had learned English for 11-16 years and those who had leaned it for 16 years and up.

Table 17 Pair-group comparison analysis based on the periods of learning English from attending camps, workshops and meetings occasionally

Period of learning English	1-6 years	7-10 years	11-16 years
16 years and up	.000*	.385	019*
1 - 6 years		.385	.378
7 - 10 years			.992

Note: * 0.05 significant level

From table 17, the period of learning English pronunciation from attending camps, workshops and meetings occasionally yielded the significant difference at 0.05 level with the EFL learners who had learned English for 1-6 years and those who had leaned it for 16 years and up, those who had learned English for 11-16 years and as well as those 16 years and up.

Table 18 Pair-group comparison analysis based on the periods of learning English from working such as selling thing, serving food, and travelling

Period of learning English	1-6 years	7-10 years	11-16 years
16 years and up	.004*	.665	.744
1 - 6 years		.068	.194
7 - 10 years			.998

Note: * 0.05 significant level

From table 18, the period of learning English pronunciation from working such as selling thing, serving food, and travelling yielded the significant difference at 0.05 level with the EFL learners who had learned English for 1-6 years and those who had learned it for more than 16 years.

Table 19 Pair-group comparison analysis based on the periods of learning English from online video clips like YouTube

Period of learning English	1-6 years	7-10 years	11-16 years
16 years and up	.000*	.001*	.393
1 - 6 years		.223	.060
7 - 10 years			.713

Note: * 0.05 significant level

From table 19, the period of learning English pronunciation from online video clips available, such as YouTube, yielded the significant difference at 0.05 level with the EFL learners who had learned English for 1-6 years, 7-16 years and those who had learned it for more than 16 years and up.

Table 20 Pair-group comparison analysis based on the periods of learning English from online lessons available on websites

Period of learning English	1-6 years	7-10 years	11-16 years
16 years and up	.001*	.616	.045*
1 - 6 years		.027*	.376
7 - 10 years			.376

Note: * 0.05 significant level

From table 20, the period of learning English pronunciation from online lessons available on websites, yielded the significant difference at 0.05 level with the EFL learners who had learned English for 1-6 years and those who had learned it for more than 16 years and up, the learners who had learned English for 11-16 years and those who had learned it for more than 16 years and up, and the learners who had learned English for 1-6 years and those who had learned it for more than 7-10 years.

Table 21 Pair-group comparison analysis based on the periods of learning English from playing online computer games, off-line or online ones

Period of learning English	1-6 years	7-10 years	11-16 years
16 years and up	.830	.005*	.824
1 - 6 years		.570	.538
7 - 10 years			.010*

Note: * 0.05 significant level

From table 21, the period of learning English pronunciation from playing computer games online or offline, yielded the significant difference at 0.05 level with the EFL learners who had learned English for 7-10 years and those who had learned it for more than 16 years and up, and the learners who had learned English for 7-10 years and those who had learned it for more than 11-16 years.

Table 22 Pair-group comparison analysis based on the periods of learning English from using a traditional dictionary

Period of learning English	1-6 years	7-10 years	11-16 years
16 years and up	.000*	.004*	.824
1 - 6 years		.570	.538
7 - 10 years			1.000

Note: * 0.05 significant level

From table 22, the period of learning English pronunciation from using a traditional dictionary, yielded the significant difference at 0.05 level with the EFL learners who had learned English for 1-6 years and those who had learned it for more than 16 years and up, and the learners who had learned English for 1-6 years and those who had learned it for more than 7-10 years.

Table 23 Pair-group comparison analysis based on the periods of learning English from using an electronic talking dictionary

Period of learning English	1-6 years	7-10 years	11-16 years
16 years and up	.001*	.933	.274
1 - 6 years		.004*	.314
7 - 10 years			.439

Note: * 0.05 significant level

From table 23, the period of learning English pronunciation from using an electronic talking dictionary, yielded the significant difference at 0.05 level with the EFL learners who had learned English for 1-6 years and those who had learned it for more than 16 years and up, and the learners who had learned English for 1-6 years and those who had learned it for more than 7-10 years respectively.

Table 24 Summary of the strategies used to develop English pronunciation between Thai and Indonesian EFL learners into 6 main categories

Strategy used for developing English pronunciation	Thai			Indonesian		
	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	level	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	level
1. Offline learning from media: watching movies, TV programs and songs	3.72	1.06	high	3.80	1.30	high
2. Online learning from media: lessons, games, social media, video clips	3.47	1.46	high	2.52	1.39	little
3. Self-directed study: books**,** dictionary, practice	3.18	1.17	moderate	3.10	1.24	moderate
4. Formal classes in school and tutoring classes	2.85	1.22	moderate	2.41	1.50	little
5. Daily routine activity: home, friends, public chaos	2.48	1.31	little	2.32	1.23	little
6. Occasional activity: part-time job, travel, camp, or workshop	2.35	1.32	little	1.51	1.35	rare

Table 24 shows that Thai and Indonesian learners of English as a foreign language as the whole used the six categories of strategy for developing and improving their English pronunciation problems similarly; ranging from the highest means as using the offline learning media like watching movies, TV program and songs in English available for them in everyday life. Thai students used a lot more online media reference than the Indonesians to assist learning English pronunciation. Both nationalities relied on self-directed study using books and dictionaries at the same level regularly at a moderate level whereas their normal school classes and tutoring sessions could help them a little. Daily routine chaos at home or public and relatives and friends, as well as occasional activities, had the least effect on their English pronunciation quality. The findings from this data analysis implies that tools and media provided via technology available for them play tremendous role for the students' learning today in the 21st century.

Guideline for improving skills in English pronunciation

Based on the data analysis and findings above, the appropriate guideline for improving skills in English pronunciation of Thai and Indonesian EFL learners or students are as follows:

1. Teachers and schools should take into account the offline learning practice for the first priority to provide their EFL students as an edutainment learning center; especially the theatres for movie watching, television that show English programs, and place for listening and singing songs. To some extent, assignments of learning English, especially pronunciation, from offline media should be a central focus the teacher of English must be emphasized and taken into every lessons.

2. Online learning from media; such as ready-to-use lessons, games, social media communication, and video clips is also very crucial for learning and improving English skills for the students even though it needs more effort in installation of the internet connection that costs more for schools or universities. However, it seems unavoidable. A mobile phone or smartphone every student has is now useful and powerful tool for learning all sort of things, so it must be used wisely by the teachers of English as well.

3. Using books, dictionary and other handbooks is still important, but it requires self-directed study that individual students should consider it as additional useful tool to excel their English skill development and pronunciation improvement.

4. The regular practice of learning English in classroom and tutoring session may not be as enjoyable as using innovative tools for learning by the learners themselves. Therefore, teachers should be wise to manage their English pronunciation class as an instruction that makes understanding and clarification in general, not a heavy-loaded practice. In addition, occasional activities can contribute for building motivation and encouragement. A more variety of activities a teacher can make, a more learning improvement and success a student can make. It reveals that individual learning tools that can be used anywhere and anytime play more important role in learning nowadays.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

Summary

This chapter contains the summary of research conduct process, the data analysis and findings from the study, discussion related to certain issues that answer the research questions. This comparative study investigated the problems in English pronunciation experienced by young EFL learners whose first language are Thai and Bahasa Indonesian with the purposes to:

1. Identifying the English pronunciation problems made by young learners of EFL in Thailand and Indonesia based on the linguistics principles.

2. Comparing the English pronunciation problems produced by Thai and Indonesian young learners who learn English as a foreign language.

3. Determining the strategies employed by the learners to improve the English pronunciation problems had made by the Thai and Indonesian young learners.

4. Creating guideline and material that can be used as a medium for improving the English pronunciation problems based on the analysis and findings from the study.

The problematic sounds and the factors that cause these problems were examined. Then, useful strategy that help the students was explored for improving their pronunciation. The subjects of the study were twenty university students from each country. These participants were purposively selected from the Phetchaburi Rajabhat University in Thailand and Unversitas Ibn Khaldun Bogor in Indonesia, which both hold collaborative MOU of academic development in ASEAN community. Also, participants of who inform about strategy used for English pronunciation improvement and development were randomly drawn from both universities. The instruments used for collecting the data were voice recordings, observation, and a structured questionnaire. The data analysis revealed the findings as following.

1. The comparison of English pronunciation problems between the Indonesian and Thai participants of young EFL learners found that both of them had problems of English pronunciation with the *bilabial* /p/ at the beginning of words at a high percent and with blended sound which the pronouncing of strong /p^h/ sound while Thais did not have much of this problem except that of the ending blend. Both Indonesians and Thai had similar problems (even though Thais had a little bit more) with the labiodental voiceless /v/ sound at both positions of beginning and ending and ending blends of words. Also, both of

them had similar problem with pronouncing the dental voiced /θ/ at the beginning and ending sound, the voiceless /ð/ both at the beginning and initial blend and ending, alveolar voiced /s/ at the end of a word and ending blends, alveolar voiced /z/ at the end of a word and ending blends, alveolar voiced /l/ at the end of a word and ending blends. However, there were a different problem found with the alveolar voiced /r/, only Indonesians at the beginning with roll while they had the same problem of /r/ at end of a word and ending blends. They both had the same problem with alveo-palatal voiced /ʃ/ at the end of a word, voiceless /tʃ/ at the end of a word, voiced ending /dʒ/ and ending blend.

2. The problems in pronunciation of English vowels were found to be at a low percentage for the EFL learners from both countries. The percentage of vowel pronunciation problems made by the Thai and Indonesian participants was low in all sounds of vowels; short, long, and diphthongs and in all articulation positions of high, mid-high, mid, mid-low, and low. However, the EFL learners from both countries were likely to pronounce short vowels with longer sound, reluctant to pronounce the words they were not familiar with; Vowels that are spelled with letter 'r' (-ar, -er, -ir, -or, -ur) were actually miss-pronounced without 'r' as in *more, important, church, year, were, over,* and *part.* Furthermore, they were likely to pronounce every word and syllables with very clear sound without realization of suprasegmental features of English language, which resulted in undesirable fluency in reading and speaking.

3. In the suprasegmental features, both Thai and Indonesian EFL learners encountered the same pronunciation problems concerning the abilities classified in ten features as the whole. There was only intrusion feature that Thai learners had more trouble than Indonesians significantly. Based on the mean scores, the learners of English in both countries faced the challenges of elision the most ($\bar{X}$=4.51, S.D.=1.11), followed by assimilation ($\bar{X}$=4.24, S.D.=1.54), linking ($\bar{X}$=4.02, S.D.=1.45), connected speech ($\bar{X}$=3.64, S.D.=1.28), and rhythm and punctuation respectively ($\bar{X}$=3.52, S.D.=1.02). These problems are said to be the cause of fluency ($\bar{X}$=4.32, S.D.=1. 32) that is the goal of speaking skills.

In short, the findings of the study revealed that Thai and Indonesian students had the pronunciation problems with: firstly, the same consonant sounds they do not have in their mother languages, basically the final fricative sounds, especially /ð/, /θ/, /v/, /f/, /s/, /ʃ/ and /tʃ/. The different problems are that the Indonesians pronounce strong initial sounds of /p/, /t/, and trill /r/ while Thais usually dropped the final sounds. English vowels are considered a minor problem for them, but they really need to improve their supra-segmental features like stress, intonation and rhythm and fluency. Appropriate strategy for improvement is centered on the English sound model, use of innovative tools and sufficient practice. It is concluded that the English pronunciation problems are associated with the first language interference but it is lessened today as English accent variation is acceptable when a communication is successful.

4. Guideline for improving skills in English pronunciation. Based on the data analysis and findings above, the appropriate guideline for improving skills in English pronunciation of Thai and Indonesian EFL learners or students are as follows:

4.1 Teachers and schools should take into account the offline learning practice for the first priority to provide their EFL students as an edutainment learning center; especially the theatres for movie watching, television that show English programs, and place for listening and singing songs. To some extent, assignments of learning English, especially pronunciation, from offline media should be a central focus the teacher of English must be emphasized and taken into every lessons.

4.2 Online learning from media; such as ready-to-use lessons, games, social media communication, and video clips is also very crucial for learning and improving English skills for the students even though it needs more effort in installation of the internet connection that costs more for schools or universities. However, it seems unavoidable. A mobile phone or smartphone every student has is now useful and powerful tool for learning all sort of things, so it must be used wisely by the teachers of English as well.

4.3 Using books, dictionary and other handbooks is still important, but it requires self-directed study that individual students should consider it as additional useful tool to excel their English skill development and pronunciation improvement.

4.4 The regular practice of learning English in classroom and tutoring session may not be as enjoyable as using innovative tools for learning by the learners themselves. Therefore, teachers should be wise to manage their English pronunciation class as an instruction that makes understanding and clarification in general, not a heavy-loaded practice. In addition, occasional activities can contribute for building motivation and encouragement. A more variety of activities a teacher can make, a more learning improvement and success a student can make. It reveals that individual learning tools that can be used anywhere and anytime play more important role in learning nowadays.

The summary of findings provided the overall answer responding to the four research objectives thoroughly, which shade the light on some useful implications. The EFL learners from Thailand and Indonesia had had the similar problems in pronouncing English both segmental consonant sounds and suprasegmental features. There were a few significant different problem in some consonants. They also used the same strategies in learning and developing their pronunciation ability but they are still in need of improving their English pronunciation more.

Discussion

Basically the English pronunciation problems made by both Thai and Indonesian students involved segmental voice production influenced by the unfamiliar articulation practice, which can be summed up as sound substitution. Generally, the target sounds are substituted with the similar sounds of their mother language. Most of the pronunciation problems are associated with consonant sounds. Pronunciation of English vowel sounds are not as serious as the consonant sounds. To solve the problems, practicing pronunciation of the problem sounds by practicing the right places and correct manners of articulations (Ladefoged, 2006) to be mastered. The findings indicate English pronunciation errors made by the majority of Indonesian university students are largely limited to final stops and sibilants, and initial and final affricates and interdentals (Mathew, 1997). It also points to some influence by universal developmental processes, which affect second language pronunciation as they do first language acquisition. The differences in error data can possibly be explained as due to transfer processes. Besides, suprasegmental features are characterized by the fact that they must be described in relation to other items in the same utterance; such as stress, pitch, length, rhythm, tone, and intonation, which do convey information about the speaker's age, sex, emotional state, and attitude toward the topic they say (Ladefoged, 2006: Fasold and Connor-Linton, 2006). These features determine the accent of English.

Nature of pronunciation errors

Pronunciation errors have multiple origins, but the first language interference or transfer is no doubt one of the causes (Krashen, 1982). Indonesia has over 200 local languages but they now speak more Bahasa Indonesian, a form of Malay lingua franca (Mathew, 1997). The Indonesians have made errors of certain English phonemes: voiced final stops were mostly devoiced; voiceless final stops were mostly unreleased, which could be accounted for as both transfer and a developmental process. For the final sibilant /z/, it was elision or devoicing predominated, /ʒ/ was substituting with the alveolar sibilant /z/ and /ʃ/ was largely replaced by the alveolar /s/. His explanations of these results involved transfer and developmental factors, spelling interference, strategies of learning and of communication. In sum, differences in English pronunciation errors could possibly be explained as due to transfer processes for the Indonesian EFL learners, which is similar to the Thai learners (Thirawat Tanthanis, 2012; Wei, 2008). So in an English class, not only practicing pronouncing correct consonant and vowel sounds but also suprasegmental features the teacher needs to cover, otherwise the students might say things that are misunderstood or the communication might be ineffective. Apart from pronunciation training for English teachers and traditional instruction, a variety of activities (Scarcella & Oxford, 1994) and tools and innovation, offline and online media, should be used to develop students' pronunciation inside and outside the regular English classroom based on the

learners' needs (Morley, 1998). Lambacher (1999) suggested that a programmed computer assisted instruction (CAI) could be an effective tool for individual pronunciation improvement as it provides prompted feedback.

Herman (2016) conducted research in order to find out the most difficult position in pronouncing the English labiodental sounds for Indonesian students. It is found that there are some articulators difficult to pronounce for the students to pronounce labiodental sounds, which can be in the initial, medial, and final position. The finding shows that the most difficult position in pronouncing the English labiodental sounds is /v/ at the final position of words --/v/ is actually substituted with the voiceless labiodental fricative /f/. According to Australian English Institute (March 9, 2010), posited that the Indonesian language has its own particular sounds and patterns for pronunciation which may act as a barrier to the pronunciation of English. This results in the "Indonesian English accent". Indonesian speakers tend to have some common difficulties when producing spoken English. There are several sounds in English that are different to the native language and can be difficult to pronounce. The rolling of the letter 'r' is another common issue, but not one which causes any kind of strain for the listener. To make the "r" sound correctly, the tongue must be in the correct position that is curled upwards and pointed towards the roof of the mouth. While these are some of the common difficulties experienced by Indonesian speakers, each individual will have unique areas of difficulty depending on their background and experience. Many Indonesians also have trouble pronouncing consonant clusters (3 or more consonants together is a word), as these clusters do not occur in Bahasa Indonesia. In a study of "Pronunciation training, Language Learning Strategies and Speaking Confidence" conducted by Patchara Varasarin (2007) English pronunciation sounds for Thai leaners are: /v/, /θ/, /ð/, /z/, /ʃ/, /ʧ/, /j/, /g/. However, in general, pronunciation is not a huge problem for Indonesians, especially when compared to learners from Asian countries with tonal languages such as Thai and Vietnamese.

'Stress' is one of the pronunciation problem for Indonesian learners because: 1) the word stress patterns between English and Indonesian are quite different –English is more complex, 2) the learners think English is difficult and they do not want to study it more, and 3) the learners are not much exposed to English speaking community to acquire native-like competence. Stress is described in relation to both words and sentences. Word-stress is usually applied to single words and it is held that there are some general guidelines about where that stress will fall depending on the way the word is structured. Most people in Indonesia only learn English when they are as school students. At schools, English is a compulsory subject that need to be taken by every student. The main purpose of teaching English at schools in Indonesia is to guide and prepare students to be able to pass their national exams (no speaking exam) at the end of their

schools. Similarly, the Thai EFL learners encounter this problematic situation as well. Suggestion for solving this problem involves raising awareness of word stress patterns. Choral and individual drilling in natural manner and more exaggerating activities should be used in classroom, such as jazz chanting, singing, and other performing that are fun. Similar to the study of Wanyan Karang Yana (2017) that the result indicates that the student's encounter English pronunciation problems is due to the interference of their mother language as Bahasa (L1) is a syllable-timed language meanwhile English is a stress-timed one, which therefore causes significant interference in their stress placement. It is also concluded that the length of exposure of English use in their previous institution can be accountable variable for the accuracy of their stress placement production.

Stress and intonation play very important role in understanding spoken English. In order to avoid misunderstanding, learners of English as a second and foreign language should pay seriously attention to this matter. Four different tones in English are identified as fall, rise, fall-rise, and rise-fall, each with 2 variations depending on the context. Problems are inevitable for non-native speakers who speak English to native speakers without using word stress especially when the native-speakers are speaking fast. On the other hand, native speakers may find it difficult to understand nonnative speakers' utterance if they do not use word stress since native speakers of English use word stress naturally. From a study, Lasim Muzammil (2015) found that Indonesian EFL learners' style of stress and intonation pattern in L1 (Bahasa Indonesian) affects the style of L2 (English). Both Indonesian and English share similarities in the locus of monosyllabic; that is, the vowel becomes the stress and the sentence patterns can be both observed at the sentential level. Differences take place in both languages if changing the locus of primary stress in English will change the meaning—but not in the Indonesian. Learners are still influenced by their L1 at the level of sentence pattern particularly the use of rising intonation in Indonesian beginning with information questions like 'Apa', 'Dimana', 'Mengapa', etc., which are still brought to the use of L2 (English) when they have to produce falling intonation in English beginning with 'What', 'Where', 'Why', etc.

Moedjito (2016) suggested from his study results in teaching of English pronunciation focusing on perceptions of Indonesian school teachers and university students that teachers must include pronunciation in EFL classrooms as an intelligent goal. Moreover, segmental features such as consonants and vowels as well as sentence stress must also become the priorities for EFL learners. The teacher's explanation in students' L1, followed by demonstration of how to produce the English phonemes is a better way to teach English pronunciation in EFL classrooms. Metacognitive strategy used for learning and improving English pronunciation problems for Thai EFL learners consist of 1) goal and objective setting, 2) planning and

arranging for the language task, 3) self-directing and self-evaluating on improvement to achieve the goal. All sessions must be attentive and with hard practice.

Strategies for EFL learners' pronunciation development

Affective language learning strategy (LLS) is used to boost the learners' attitude to the training and learning to fulfill their expectations. With positive attitudes, the learners will be happy to participate in the pronunciation training, as well as having fun and enjoy pronunciation improvement activities. Social strategy is the practice of co-operating with others that learners can use to help them success in improving English pronunciation by means of sharing, working and discussing with friends or classmates. This practice gives them more confidence. Suggested framework for teaching pronunciation includes:

1. Set pronunciation in a communicative context.
2. Take a learner-centered approach.
3. Apply strategies for teachings segmental (sounds) and symbols.
4. Make analogies from the known to the unknown.
5. Teach unfamiliar sound symbols.
6. Select and prepare some common letter combinations and show learners the normal way to pronounce them.
7. Have learners practice phonetics symbols communicatively.
8. Challenge learners to look for words spelled with letter combinations that represent more than one sound.
9. Adopt strategies for teaching suprasegmentals.

Kimkong Heng (2017) had conducted a study of Cambodian EFL university students' learning strategies and motivation to improve their English language speaking skills that are highly desirable for EFL learners to be able to successfully engage in meaningful communication with others. By using focus group interviews with the samples from Cambodian undergraduate and graduate student majoring in English, the finding revealed that the students utilized a variety of techniques and strategies, including speaking to oneself in front of a mirror, watching movies and YouTube videos, and chatting with friends on the Internet in order to enhance their English speaking skills. The study also revealed that extrinsic motivating factors, such as job opportunities, family reputation and scholarships, are major sources of motivation for the students to sharpen their English speaking skills. Moreover, there are the most frequent issues the students

encounter when engaging in English conversations as well as trying to improve their speaking; which include the difficulties with vocabulary, pronunciation, L1 interference, speaking anxiety, and peer pressure.

Judy Gilbert, an English pronunciation expert, suggests that to improve pronunciation is to train ears, or listening, first It is not only individual sounds of English are taught and practiced, but other elements must also be included; such as rhythm, intonation, and stress because they are the qualities that make up the system of spoken English, which in everyday speech some words and sounds are almost always pronounced fully and clearly, while others are reduced and less clear. Similarly, William Stout who has been leading pronunciation workshops for more than 10 years, says that the goal of improving English pronunciation should be communicating to be easily understood, not removing the accent, which is often difficult or impossible (VOA Learning English, May 16, 2017). Referring to the two experts, the most important thigs to do to Improve pronunciation is to learn how to listen to English effectively first and a big part of doing it is to recognize and understand reduced English words and sounds one hear them (such as pronouns, helping verbs, conjunctions, articles and prepositions). Knowing these rules can help learners train their ears more effectively. And, this can help them reproduce the sounds of everyday English speech as more easily understood.

Using songs, limericks and jazz chants can help speed up pronunciation progress. Also, learning to improve pronunciation at all levels of proficiency and sooner to start to notice the patterns of English pronunciation the sooner one's going to improve, which will not develop bad pronunciation habits that are hard to change over time. Lastly, EFL learners must be willing to take chances and sound different to themselves, that is to change the way of talking and sounding to be a new personality in the way of speaking a different language.

Ebong & Sabbadini (2007) also recommend that songs can help EFL learners improve pronunciation in many ways. First, words in songs fit the music, helping learners associate the number of syllables/stress in words with memorable rhythms. The relaxed atmosphere songs can expose students to difficult pronunciation area without their realizing. Songs contain endless examples of weak syllables, helping to convince learners of the way English is pronounced. Also, songs can focus on connected speech, linking together and emphasizing certain words, rather than each word standing alone. Songs are favorite tool for learning pronunciation, especially the chorus provides real and 'catchy' examples of how whole phrases are pronounced. The music emphasizes the 'flow' of the words. Songs, like other spoken texts, are full of contractions. Students can be keen to reproduce this, in order to sing the song as they hear it. Finally,

however, there is a warning for using songs. That is, songs are creative works, so be ready to justify the occasional 'mis-pronunciation' to the students!

Ai-Hwa Chen (2016) confirmed that music preference strengthens learning outcomes. He had explored the effects of integrating music into English pronunciation practice and he found that more than 90 percent of students agreed that they grew more familiar with the pronunciation rules through this class. The teacher/researcher gave pronunciation instruction including both identifying phonetic symbols and practicing pronunciation forms used by native English speakers. In addition, students had to keep listening and singing specific songs covered in their quizzes. It is worth mentioning that the song, *Colors of the Wind*, was the most popular with students because many of them indicated that they had seen the movie and listened to the song when they were in elementary or junior high schools. In addition, for those students who lived in the dormitory, the lyrics of *You've Got a Friend* were particularly meaningful. It made them better realize the importance of friendship when they were far away from home and thus resonated with them strongly. Thus, the familiarity of the songs and the contents of the lyrics may both influence learning outcomes. Students simply were not familiar with the song and this affected learning negatively. In addition, the number of words in the lyrics of this song, which is close to 300, also seemed to contribute to its unpopularity. This, in turn, was reflected in poor quiz performances.

Watching movies is also a great way for students to improve their English, especially the listening and speaking skills. Films are not usually created for English language learners – they are made for native English speakers. Therefore, the language is exactly how students hear it in real life – it is spoken quickly, with native accents and pronunciation and using many idioms and colloquial expressions. However, it would be definitely recommended that all English language students to watch films in English in their spare time for additional practice that they might not get in a classroom. If the level of English is quite low, choose a movie that students have already seen or a movie made for children which uses simpler language. For a higher level of English, try to challenge them with films with more advanced language. Whatever level of English is, students might be tempted to switch on subtitles. English subtitles can help along while they are listening and watching. If they have time, first watch it with no subtitles, then with English subtitles. This will really help (Bloomsbury International, October 2013).

Minimal pair practice

Trying to repeat words and phrases containing particular difficult sounds can be a useful way of working on your pronunciation, though it takes much longer than to impact a learner. The following pairs of words sound different from each other providing that a downloadable digital files are provided as the model shown in table 26.

Table 26 Example of minimal pairs of words for practicing sounds that are different from each other

awning	– earning	export	– expert	pay	– bay
azure	– assure	fair	– fear	pest	– passed
bed	– bad	fled	– flood	read	– lead
beg	– bug	form	– firm	read	– red
beige	– bays	fur	– fear	ready	– ruddy
better	– butter	goon	– gun	saw	– sought
blessed	– blast	hell	– hull	shorts	– shirts
boot	– boat	jest	– just	sing	– sang
boot	– butt	know	– now	sock	– suck
but	– boot	lawn	– learn	soon	– son
call	– curl	leak	– lick	soot	– suit
care	– chair	leather	– lather	spoon	– spun
catch	– cash	left	– laughed	steady	– study
caught	– curt	lest	– last	super	– supper
chute	– shut	lit	– light	thirst	– first
cod	– card	look	– luck	vest	– vast
consort	– concert	many	– money	walk	– work
curse	– coarse	mood	– mud	whistle	– thistle
deft	– daft	net	– nut	whom	– hum
dug	– dog	noon	– none	why	– way
men	– man	noon	– nun	wreath	– wreathe
empire	– umpire	pawed	– purred	zoo	– sue

Source credit: Global PAD Open House https://warwick.ac.uk

This study had some limitations concerning the samples that were only the EFL leaners in the university level, who had learned English for many years. Therefore, it reduced the possibility of generalization to the nationwide population in both countries. However, the information gained could show the direction of change in learning English in ASEAN community that English has become more important for it people who are focusing on the communication breakthrough that is well understood in different contexts in which pronunciation errors might not be a problem at all. The ASEAN English accents could be

another topic for teachers of English and linguists for further study in the new world of communication with the advanced technological environment, especially the issues of variation and dialectic.

Conclusion and suggestion

Errors in realizing English vowels, intonation and stress are all important issues which need to be further researched to fill out the EFL picture. A teaching program for the pronunciation for EFL students in Thailand and Indonesia could include bases on the frequency of errors as shown in the findings from this study. Pronunciation can be one of the most difficult parts for learners whose mother tongue is but English and it has been out of fashion for some decades. It must be viewed as more than correct production of individual sounds or isolate words. Instead, it must be considered as a crucial integral part of communication that should be incorporated into classroom activities. Careful preparation and integration for EFL lessons, correct and fluent pronunciation performance can support the learners' overall communicative power. A linguist states that on the psychological reality speakers who are attempting to pronounce the sounds of a language new to them would usually produce a poor imitation of the second language, a strong foreign language accent can often persist even after years of practice (Fromkin, et al., 2000: p.546). In the current advance technological world, still there is need for much more to cover the wide range of needs, based on a sound foundation of well-documented research, on what works in pronunciation teaching for EFL learners in different language contexts.

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