3.1. INTRODUCTION

It is indispensable in our daily life to live without communication. People need to talk to each other to convey their thoughts and to execute the daily life works. We can say that we need communication to move further in our life. It is clearly observed that even the people who are not bestowed with the ability to speak, they need communication, and they have their own ways to express their thoughts. In short, the significance of communication cannot be ignored at all. In case of people who have been gifted with the ability to talk, communication is much easier. But here the question arises that it is really about only communication. If so, then what is the significance of verbal communication when the deaf and dumb people can do it as well? Here it is important to understand the role of pronunciation in communication which makes the difference. Pronunciation is an aspect of verbal communication which makes it more effective and attractive. Therefore, the significance of pronunciation becomes highly considerable in the process of verbal communication. Speakers of a particular language have a very deep and strong impact of the sounds of the alphabet on their pronunciation. There are certain sounds which every language possesses. Most of the sounds which a language has seem to be similar, but they are not pronounced in the exact manner. There are certain
differences in pronunciation. Therefore, when a person speaks any non-native language, he has to face certain sound difficulties. It is observed that the Indian students are very good speakers of English language and can pronounce all the sounds of it. However, a lot of Indian English speakers are observed mispronouncing the certain sounds and even the particular words of English language. Therefore it is necessary to impart the training in pronunciation by a different innovative way which will make the learners confident enough to pronounce and speak. The training can be given in such a way to develop the psychology of the learners to prepare them to come forward to speak correctly.

3.2. ENGLISH AS AN INTERNATIONAL LANGUAGE

English has gained a status of an international language, and is used as a lingua franca in numerous contexts when people do not have any other common language to communicate in. Speakers of English as a second language (L2) or foreign language (FL) are found all over the world, with varying accents and command of the language. This is a challenge for English language teaching, especially pronunciation; native varieties alone diverge from each other phonologically (Trudgill 1998; 2003), and when all the national L2 varieties and FL accents are considered, learners are faced with a puzzling plethora of speech varieties. This is a result of the geographical spread of English from the 17th century onwards, and the division into varieties that followed (Nevalainen 1998). Braj Kachru (1985) has classified the varieties of English in his model of the three concentric circles of world English. In this approach, the inner circle refers to speakers at the traditional geographical bases of English (e.g. UK, USA, Australia),
where English is the primary language. This is the traditionally norm-providing circle of native speakers of English. In the outer circle, institutionalised varieties of English are used; these regions have gone through periods of colonisation by the inner circle. The speakers in the outer circle are bilingual or multilingual, and English is only one of two or more languages in their repertoires. Moreover, English has official status in the language policies of most of these outer circle multilingual nations (e.g. India, Singapore, Nigeria). The expanding circle is formed by speakers from all over the world using English for international communication and studying it as a foreign language. As the term suggests, the outermost of the concentric circles is expanding; the number of people involved in EFL learning is ever-increasing. It has been estimated that as many as 1 billion FL speakers of English exist worldwide (Crystal 2003, 68). Estimates for the inner and outer circle speakers, respectively, are 400 million and 430 million (Crystal 2003, 67–68), which indicates that non-native speakers outnumber native speakers.

3.3. TEACHING AND LEARNING ENGLISH PRONUNCIATION

Pronunciation seems to be sometimes a neglected part in our English lessons. Many teachers are not used to teaching it for many reasons. As most teachers in our schools are not native speakers, there is no need to set native-like pronunciation as one of our goals, moreover, most teachers themselves do not feel perfect in this language component and thus feel reluctant to show it. But we do not need to be perfect to enable our pupils to achieve their best. The next obstruction for teachers is the lack of pronunciation tests and general unfamiliarity with their assessment. Nevertheless, giving feedback on correct speaking to our students should be
involved. Learning pronunciation will elevate their level of speaking and undoubtedly will improve their listening skills.

Before teaching pronunciation, many aspects should be taken into account. Among the most important ones are the roles of the teacher and the learner. On the one hand, what they aim to achieve and, on the other hand, what they are willing to give to succeed in achieving it. Before setting up goals and working out a plan, the teacher should know about their learners’ skills and limitations. Needless to say, the overview of the various aspects of English pronunciation – sounds, stress, rhythm and intonation – is essential.

3.4. THE ROLE OF THE TEACHER

As pronunciation is a very complex language component, there are many tasks for the teacher. Firstly, helping learners hear and produce sounds from their native language point of view. Secondly, it is establishing what to concentrate on. It is advisable to set out priorities according to the acceptability to the English speaker as well as to what is beyond good intelligibility and is not necessary to take one’s stand on. Thirdly, devising activities, adjusting them for different learning styles, and according to the aspects which influence pronunciation learning as it is going to be described in the following chapters. The last but not least important task is providing feedback and assessing learners’ performance and progress. Assessing one’s own production of speech is very difficult as we tend to hear ourselves in a distorted way and thus it is complicated to compare with the correct production. Moreover, the feedback on how the learner is doing and progressing is an essential motivation factor in further pronunciation learning.
3.5. THE ROLE OF THE LEARNER

The learner’s role is the same as in any other subject which means taking one’s own responsibility and being willing to learn. Here, the teacher’s possibilities are limited, but still the choice of appropriate activities, motivating learners and building the general awareness of usefulness may be supportive. For example, one of the methods for increasing motivation can be a class-discussion based on one’s own experience with foreigners and their pronunciation, what is acceptable and what is disruptive while talking to a foreigner in any language. The issue of motivation within all subjects of learning is definitely very complex, depending on many inner and outer factors and should not be neglected.

3.6. SETTING GOALS IN ENGLISH PRONUNCIATION

People learn languages for many different purposes. And therefore, the goals for individual learners may vary. From the teachers’ point of view, the following aspects should be taken into account: the age, natural ability and motivation of the learners which is to be the base for answering the questions about how much time we will devote to teaching pronunciation and what level is needed for obtaining efficient communication. This is difficult, since, in contrast with e. g. grammar or vocabulary plans, pronunciation does not enable this particular progressive pace as all phonetic and phonological features occur from the very beginning. Nevertheless, we can count on the subconscious acquisition of the sound of English which will be beneficial for both, teachers and learners, later on.
We can delimit two extreme targets in learning pronunciation. On the one hand, some learners aim to obtain native-like pronunciation, on the other hand, many learners’ purposes are more practical in the way that as long as their speaking is comprehensible, they do not have the need to improve. Both these opinions have their advantages and disadvantages. In practice, many learners do not achieve native-like pronunciation and the question is, if its obtaining is necessary. At the same time, learning pronunciation does not only improve speaking, but has a great influence on our listening skills, so its practice is useful.

According to Gimson (1994), the first extreme target is achieving just such a level of pronunciation which enables understanding. Gimson mentions so called Minimal General Intelligibility as the lowest requirement.

**General Intelligibility**

Possesses a set of distinctive elements which correspond in some measure to the inventory of the RP phonemic system and which is capable of conveying a message efficiently from a native English listener’s standpoint, given that the context of the message is known and that the listener has had time to “tune in” to the speaker’s pronunciation. In its opposition, Gimson describes High Acceptability as: a form of speech which the native listener may not identify as non-native, which conveys information as readily as would a native’s and which arrives at this result through precision in the phonetic realization of phonemes and by confident handling of accentual and intonation patterns.
As the previously mentioned statements were the extremes in attitude to pronunciation learning, our aim should be somewhere in between, which means that we should aim to reduce the time to “tune in” for the listener as well as to put down the strain for the speaker in order to make the conversation comfortable for both sides.

3.7. THE DEFINITION OF PRONUNCIATION

Pronunciation is one of the important aspects in English, especially in oral communication. Every sound, stress pattern, and intonation may convey meaning. The non native speakers of English who speak English have to be very careful in pronouncing some utterances or he may create misunderstanding. So, having an intelligible pronunciation is necessary rather than having a native-like pronunciation.

Here is pronunciation definition from some experts:

According to Lado (1964), pronunciation is the use of a sound system in speaking and listening. Here, pronunciation is merely treated as the act that happens in speaking and listening, Lado doesn't mention how the sounds are produced.

Pronunciation is the act or manner of pronouncing words; utterance of speech. In other words, it can also be said that it is a way of speaking a word, especially a way that is accepted or generally understood. In the senses, pronunciation entails the production and reception of sounds of speech and the achievement of the meaning (Kristina, Diah, et al.). This second definition gives a briefer pronunciation's definition. It contains some important keys in pronunciation: act, speaking, production and reception of sound. It means that the words being pronounced should be understandable.
Meanwhile, another expert says that pronunciation is the particular way a word or phrase is to be said. This definition is clear enough but it has lack information about pronunciation.

According to Oxford Advanced Learner’s English Dictionary, pronunciation is a way in which a language or a particular word or sound is spoken. This definition has clear information as follows:

a. Pronunciation is a way of producing something.

b. The product of this act is language or word or sound.

But it does not have any important information about how a language or a particular word or a sound should be spoken. From the definitions above, it can be concluded that pronunciation is the particular way of speaking a word or phrase which is accepted or generally understood (intelligible).

3.7.1. Received Pronunciation

It is regarded as the standard accent of Standard English in the United Kingdom, with a relationship to regional accents similar to the relationship in other European languages between their standard varieties and their regional forms. RP is defined in the Concise Oxford English Dictionary as "the standard accent of English as spoken in the south of England", although it can be heard from native speakers throughout England and Wales.
3.8. THE DEFINITION OF PHONETICS

O'Connor (1973) states that phonetics is the branch of linguistics which studies the sounds of language. This definition provides clear information about phonetics. There are two important keys in phonetics based on this definition:

- Phonetics is branch of linguistics
- Phonetics studies sounds of language

According to Peter and Susan, phonetics is the study of how sounds are produced and how the position of the mouth can be changed to produce different sounds. In the previous definition, O'Connor states that phonetics is a study of sounds. Peter and Susan give clearer definition. According to them, phonetics is study of how sounds are produced and the position of mouth when the sounds are produced. Meanwhile, according to Laver phonetics refers to any learnable aspect of use of the vocal apparatus.

Based on the definitions, the researcher concluded that phonetics is the study of sound and how they are produced.

3.9. ARTICULARY PHONETICS: HOW SOUNDS ARE PRODUCED

How sounds are produced? Sounds, the sounds production and the speech organs are closely related to each other. To produce sounds, the speaker has to follow some processes that employ speech organs. By knowing the process, hopefully the non-native speakers are able to produce English sounds easily and correctly.
a. Speech Sounds Production

People think that most sounds of all language are made with outgoing breath from the lungs. When people breathe in, air travels through the nose or mouth, down the trachea, which branches into the two bronchi and down into the lungs. Riviera in Trujillo’s journal (2002: 1) states that speech does not start in the lungs. It starts in the brain. After the creation of the message in the brain, it needs a representation of the sound sequence and a number of commands which will be executed by speech organs to produce the utterance. So, it needs a phonetic plan of and a motor plan. The next step is the physical production of sounds. Speech is produced by an air stream from the lungs, which goes through the trachea and the oral and nasal cavities. It involves four processes:

- Initiation/airstream mechanism,
- phonation,
- oro-nasal process and
- articulation.

1) Initiation Process

The initiation process or airstream mechanism is the process when the air is expelled from the lungs then it goes through the trachea to the oral/nasal cavity. In English, speech sounds are the result of “a pulmonic egressive air stream” (Giegerich, 1992).

Ambercrombie in Dr. Photini Coutsougera"s journal (2004) says that the airstream provided the action of some organs of speech that makes audible the movements of other organs. In the same journal, other expert, Catford (1994) states
that the airstream mechanism is the movements of organs during the organic phase act upon the air contained within the vocal tract. They compress the air, or dilate it, and they set it moving in various ways – in rapid puffs, in sudden bursts, in a smooth flow, in a rough, eddying, turbulent stream, and so on.” There are 3 airstream mechanisms used in world languages: pulmonic (involving lungs), velaric (involving velum and tongue) and glottalic (involving glottis and larynx).

a) Pulmonic airstream

(1) Pulmonic Egressive Airstream

“We may think of the lungs as large sponges being alternately filled with air and emptied of it. They are enclosed in the rib cage and are bounded at the bottom by the diaphragm, and it is the action of the ribs and the diaphragm which causes air to flow into and out of the lungs” (O’Connor 1973). In his statement O’Connor gives a basic concept of how the air from the lungs is forced to flow out of the lungs. He does not explain how the air is drawn into the lungs and where the air is escaped.

Dr. Photini Coutsougera in his journal (2000) gives a clearer explanation about regressive airstream. He says that in order to draw air into the lungs the diaphragm contracts and the thoracic cavity expands, so the lungs are full with air. The diaphragm relaxation causes the thoracic cavity to contract. The lungs are compressed and the air pressure inside them is now greater than that outside of the body. This pressure difference forces the air to move up through the vocal tract and escape through the mouth/nose. It is clearly stated that the air is drawn to the lungs by the contraction of diaphragm and the expanding thoracic cavity. Then, the lungs are compressed and it causes the air to move up and escape through the oral cavity.
(2) Pulmonic Ingressive Airstream

When the diaphragm is contracted, the thoracic cavity expands. The air pressure inside the lungs is now lower than that outside of the body and this pressure difference forces the air to flow into the lungs. Sound is produced while breathing in. The result of this process is similar to yawn. Its use is very limited in languages.

b) Velaric Airstream

(1) Velaric Egressive

It does not used in languages. The result of a velaric egressive airflow initiation would be a spitting sound.

(2) Velaric Ingressive

Airflow is generated by trapping air inside the oral cavity. This is done by closing the back of the tongue against the velum and the lips or the front of the tongue against the upper teeth/alveolar ridge/ palate. By pulling down the body of the tongue, the volume of the enclosed region is expanded and a vacuum is created. Finally, the closure at the front is released. Velaric ingressive sounds are called ‘clicks’. In English, some click sounds are used paralinguistically: e.g. the kissing sound (bilabial click), the ‘gee up’ sound (alveolar click) etc.

c) Glottalic Airstream

(1) Glottalic Egressive

An airflow is generated by constricting the vocal folds and also forming a second closure at the front of the vocal tract. The larynx is then moved upwards and the air pressure in the vocal tract increases. Release of the second closure will then
allow the trapped air to escape creating an airflow. Glottalic egressive sounds are called ‘ejectives’. They are always voiceless.

(2) Glottalic Ingressive

A closure is formed at the vocal folds and at some other point in the vocal tract. The larynx is then lowered causing the air pressure above the larynx to decrease. Release of the second closure causes the air from outside the body to flow into the vocal tract in order to equalize the pressure. A vibration of the vocal folds is involved because, as the larynx is lowered, the vocal folds open slightly and the difference between sub- and supraglottal pressure causes the air below the larynx to move through the vocal folds, resulting in voicing. Glottalic ingressive sounds are called „implosives“.

2) The Phonation Process

The phonation process occurs at the larynx. The larynx has two horizontal folds of tissue in the passage of air; they are the vocal folds. The gap between these folds is called the glottis. When glottis is closed no air can pass. Or it can have a narrow opening which can make the vocal folds vibrate producing the “voiced sounds”. The examples of voiced sounds are: [b], [g], and all vowels. Finally, when the glottis can be wide open, as in normal breathing, thus the vibration of the vocal folds is reduced, producing the “voiceless sounds”, for example a plosive such as [p], [t], and [k]. After it has gone through the larynx and the pharynx, the air can go into the nasal or the oral cavity. This process called oro-nasal process. The velum is the part responsible for that selection. Through the oro-nasal process, nasal consonants (/m/, /n/, /ŋ/) can be differentiated to other sounds.
3) The Articulation Process

The articulation process takes place in the mouth and it is the process which speech sounds are distinguished from one another in terms of the place where and the manner how they are articulated. In other word, the people can distinct the oral cavity, which acts as a resonator, and the articulators, which can be active or passive: upper and lower lips, upper and lower teeth, tongue (tip, blade, front, back) and roof of the mouth (alveolar ridge, palate and velum).

3.10. THE ORGANS OF SPEECH

More than half of human body, from the head to the abdomen, is needed for the production of spoken language. There are three systems of body organs which are needed for this purpose. They are usually known as the respiratory system, the phonatory system, and the articulatory system.

3.10.1 Respiratory System

The respiratory system comprises the lungs, the diaphragm, the bronchial tubes, pharynx, and trachea. The main function of this system is breathing. Lungs are the main organ for respiration. Lungs provide the energy source of airstream to create speech sound and to organize speech sound. Lungs are the initiator in initiation, so most sounds called pulmonic sound.
The diaphragm is a dome-shaped sheet of muscle immediately below the lungs, the dome pointing upwards. Diaphragm can be felt by touching the abdomen three or four inches below the breast bone and breathing in deeply.
Pharynx is vocal organs above the larynx. The pharynx stretches from the top of the larynx up to the back of the nasal cavity and serves mainly as the container of a volume of air which can be set into vibration in sympathy with vibrations coming from the vocal cords.
3.10.2. Phonatory System

The phonatory system is formed by the larynx. Larynx is a fairly rigid box made up of cartilages, situated at the top of the trachea and continuous with it so that all air passing in and out of the lungs must pass through it. Inside the larynx are the first of the structures which can interfere with the air stream, named the vocal cords. The primary function of the larynx is to convert the energy into audible sound.
Picture 3.4 Vocal Cords

Picture 3.5 The Larynx
3.10.3. Articulatory System

The articulatory system consists of the nasal and the oral cavity. The nasal cavity is like violin body; its contribution to speech is a matter of resonance. If, with the vocal cords vibrating, the soft palate is lowered so that the pharynx and nasal cavity and oral cavity are connected, the whole mass of air in the connected cavities vibrates with a characteristic nasal effect.

The oral cavity considered the most important of the three cavities because it is the most variable in dimensions and shape. The oral cavity consists of lips, teeth, tongue, palate and lower jaw. The oral cavity can be divided into two parts based on the function: articulators and place of articulation. The function of articulators is to transform the sound into intelligible speech.

(a) The Tongue

The tongue is organ that is synonymous with language. So, there are a lot of terms about the language using tongue, for example ‘mother tongue’, ‘lose tongue’, et cetera. The tongue consists of a complex bunch of muscles, which make it flexible. It is divided into three major parts according to their relationship to the parts of the palate:

a. The blade which lies below the alveolar ridge.

b. The front/tip below the hard palate.

c. The back below the soft palate.

The tip and the blade of the tongue are the parts that have great variety of movement. The tip is elastic enough to trill against the alveolar ridge.
(b) The Palate

Palate is a dome-shaped structure whose front part is bony and immovable, while the back part is moveable. The palate can be divided into three main parts: the alveolar ridge (the convex ridge behind the upper incisors teeth), the hard palate (the highest part), and the soft palate or velum (the most back part).

Alveolar ridge is located between front teeth and hard palate. This organ is passive articulator. The sound produced by this articulator called alveolar sound. Hard palate is often called as “roof of the mouth”. Just like velar this articulator is passive articulator. The sound produced by this articulator called palatal sound.

Velum is located in the upfront of the uvular, it is considered the most back part of the palate. The position of velum can be up or down, so it will control the air stream through the oral cavity or nasal cavity. Velum is passive articulator. The sound produced by this articulator called velar sound.

(c) The Lips

The lips are flexible and have same degrees of movement as the tongue. The two lips can form various shapes: close-rounded (as in the pronunciation of ‘wood’), open rounded (as in the pronunciation of ‘hot’), spread (as in the pronunciation of see), and neutral (as in the pronunciation of ‘ah’). There are plenty of languages which have front tongue raising both with spread and rounded lips (French, German, Swedish, Danish, Norwegian, et cetera). Others though not so many have back tongue rising with both spread and rounded lips (Turkish, Vietnamese). In English any rising of the front of the tongue is always accompanied by a spread or neutral lip
position. However, the English have similarities with most languages: most languages have spread lips with front tongue rising and rounded and not the reverse.

(d) The Lower Jaw

The lower jaw, in moving up and down can decrease or increase the size of the cavity and so influence the quality of sound produced. This movement is not crucial, since many people can perform ventriloquist (speaking without moving lower jaw).

(e) The Teeth

The teeth are divided into two, upper teeth and down teeth. In producing sound, teeth is often as passive articulator. The sound produced by this articulator called dental sound.

Picture 3.6 The Teeth
The picture below describes human speech organs (articulatory system and phonation system):

![Speech Organs Diagram](image)

**Picture 3.7 Speech Organs**

### 3.11. ENGLISH SPEECH SOUNDS PRODUCTION

Speech sounds are made by air moving outward from the lungs through the mouth or nose. Different speech sounds result when the airstream is changed in some way by the positioning of various parts of the mouth. Some sounds are made as a result of the lips changing the airstream while other sounds made as a result of the tongue changing the airstream. The parts of the mouth that are involved in
production of speech sounds can be divided into two: articulators and places of articulations. The moveable parts of the mouth (the lower lip, the bottom teeth, the tongue, and the lower jaw) are referred to as articulators. The unmovable parts of the mouth involved in the articulation of speech sounds are referred to as places of articulations. In the production of speech sounds, the articulators approach the places of articulations, causing the airstream to be changed in different ways.

3.12. ENGLISH PHONETIC SYMBOLS

Given the complexity of sound-spelling correspondences in English, it would be difficult to use the Roman alphabet to symbolize English sounds. Some problems would arise when English spelling system is used to represent sound. Consider trying to represent the first sound of „cat” using English spelling system. If letter ‘c’ was used to represent this sound, the problem will arise when the same letter is used to represent word ‘certain’. Furthermore, the word ‘kite’, which has the same initial sound as ‘cat’ is also impossible to use the letter ‘c’. In order to avoid the problems that a spelling system like English poses for the representation of sounds, it is helpful to use phonetic alphabet when discussing sounds in languages. In the phonetic alphabet, each symbol represents only one sound and each sound is represented by only one symbol. Therefore, the vowel sounds in the words ‘to’, ‘two’, ‘too’, ‘through’, ‘threw’, ‘shoe’, and ‘suit’ would be represented by one phonetic symbol because each of these words has the same vowel sound. On the other hand, the letter ‘c’ in words ‘certain’, ‘car’, and ‘chair’ would be represented by three distinct phonetic symbols, as this letter represents three different sound
Table 3.1 Sounds and Words

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vowels</th>
<th>Diphthongs</th>
<th>Consonants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>eɪ</td>
<td>p</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>u</td>
<td>ʊ</td>
<td>b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e</td>
<td>aɪ</td>
<td>t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>æ</td>
<td>ə</td>
<td>k</td>
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<td>aʊ</td>
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<td>u:</td>
<td>aʊ</td>
<td>r</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i:</td>
<td>ə</td>
<td>h</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ə:</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>ɹ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ə:</td>
<td>g</td>
<td>j</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>æ:</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>ɲ</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

English Pronunciation has distinctive sound classes. It is divided into two basic groups: segmental and suprasegmental. In the segmental group there are vowels, diphthongs and consonants. In suprasegmental group there are stress and intonation.
1) Vowel

Vowels are a speech sound formed from a free and obstructed flow of vibrating breath. Peter and Susan (1992) state that vowels are differentiated from consonants by the relatively wide opening in the mouth as air passes from the lungs out of the body. This means that there is relatively little obstruction of the airstream in comparison to consonants. English has twelve vowel sounds. In general they are divided into seven short and five long vowels. An alternative way of organizing them is according to the place they are produced. By using this method, vowels can be described as front, central and back. They can be qualified further by how high the tongue and how low the jaw when these vowel sounds are produced, and by whether the lips are rounded or spread, and finally by whether they are tense or lax. This scheme shows the following arrangement:

a) The Tongue Height (Is it high, low or mid?)

Someone will „drops” his jaw and low his tongue when he pronounces „bat” after pronounces „beat”. If he pronounces the vowels in „beat”, „bit”, „bait”, „bet”, and „bat” in sequence, his tongue will be lower and his jaw will drops as he move from one vowel to the next. The vowels of „bait” and „bet” are considered to be mid vowels because the tongue is neither high nor low in the mouth. The vowel of „bat” is considered to be a low vowel because it is made with the tongue below its rest position.
Picture 3.8- Vowel chart inside mouth

Table 3.2 Classification of English Vowels by Tongue Height

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>High</th>
<th>Mid</th>
<th>Low</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Beat</td>
<td>Beat</td>
<td>Bait</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boot</td>
<td>Book</td>
<td>Boat</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bit</td>
<td>Bought</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Book</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

b) The Tongue Advancement (Is it front, back, or central?)

Both the vowel in „beat” and in „boot” is high vowels because the tongue is raised above its rest position. However, the vowel of „beat” is made with the front part of the tongue high in the mouth, while the vowel of „boot is made with the back part of the tongue high in the mouth.

Thus, the vowel of „beat” is referred to as a high front vowel and the vowel of „boot” is referred to as high back vowel.
There are also vowels in English made with neither the front nor the back part of the tongue. These are referred to as central vowels, for example the vowel in the word „but“. The tongue is neither high nor low in the mouth when this vowel is pronounced. In addition, neither the front nor the back part of the tongue is involved. This is called a mid central vowel. Another vowel sound made with the tongue in the mid central position is the initial vowel sound in a word such as „machine“. This vowel is called schwa. The schwa is the most frequently occurring vowel in English and plays a major role in the English stress system.

![Three English back vowels](image)

**Picture 3.9- Back Vowels**

**Table 3.3 Classification of English Vowels by Height**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Front</th>
<th>Central</th>
<th>Back</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>Beat</td>
<td>/i:/</td>
<td>Booth /u:/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bit</td>
<td>/u/</td>
<td>Book /o/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mid</td>
<td>Bait</td>
<td>/ɛ/</td>
<td>Machine /æ/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bet</td>
<td>/ɛ/</td>
<td>Boat /əʊ/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>But /ʌ/</td>
<td>Bought /ɔ:/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
c) The Muscles Tension (Is it tense or lax?)

Another way in which vowels can differ is in terms of muscle tension in the mouth. Vowels produced with extra muscle tension are tense and the vowels produced without this tension are lax. Both vowels in ‘beat’ and in ‘bit’ are made with the front part of the tongue high in the mouth. They differ in the degree of muscle tension with which they are produced. The facial muscles are tenser in the pronunciation of ‘beat’ than in ‘bit’. This causes a greater spreading of the lips in ‘beat’. An effective way to detect the difference in tenseness is to sing both vowels at high pitch. The tense vowel (the vowel of ‘beat’) will feel as if it is being produced with much more effort than the lax one (the vowel of ‘bit’).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Front</th>
<th>Central</th>
<th>Back</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High Tense</td>
<td>Beat /i:/</td>
<td></td>
<td>Boot /u:/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lax Bit /ə/</td>
<td></td>
<td>Book /ʌ/</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mid Tense</td>
<td>Bait /eɪ/</td>
<td></td>
<td>Boat /ɑʊ/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lax Bet /ɛ/</td>
<td></td>
<td>But /ʌ/</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

d) The Shape of Lips (Is it rounded or spread?)
In addition to tongue height, frontness/backness, and muscle tension, lip rounding is also important in the articulation of vowels. English has four vowels (back vowels) made with lip rounding such as [ʊ], [u:], [ɒ], [ɔ:] 

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Front</th>
<th>Central</th>
<th>Back</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>Tense</td>
<td>Beat /i:/</td>
<td>Boot /u:/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lax</td>
<td>Bit /u/</td>
<td>Book /ʊ/</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mid</td>
<td>Tense</td>
<td>Bait /æ/</td>
<td>Machine /a/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lax</td>
<td>Bet /e/</td>
<td>But /ʌ/</td>
<td>Bought /ɔ:/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Bat /æ/</td>
<td>Star /aː/</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In phonetics it is usual to symbolize the place of vowels in the mouth schematically by a chart as displayed below:
2) Diphthongs

Although any vowels can constitute a diphthong, some are acceptable in career speech and some are not. The diphthong that will be discussed in detail.

3) Consonants

Consonant are sound whose articulation involves a significant obstruction to airflow in the vocal tract. In this discussion about consonant, the researcher will refer to three basic characteristics:

a) Place of articulation

In English, there are six places in the mouth where the airstream is obstructed in the formation of consonants.

(1) Bilabial (both lips)

Bilabial sounds are made with two lips coming together and touching momentarily. The obstruction of the airstream thus occurs at the lips. The phonetic symbols for these three sounds are the same as the English letters. The sounds /p/, /b/, and /m/ are referred to as bilabial sounds because the two (bi-) lips (-labial) are involved in their production.
Picture 3.11 Bilabial

(2) Labiodentals (lower lip and upper teeth)

The labiodentals sounds are made with the top of the teeth touching the bottom lip. Therefore in this case of two sounds, the obstruction of the airstream occurs not because the two lips come together but because the bottom lip and the top teeth come together. The sounds /f/ and /v/ are referred to as labiodentals sounds because the lips (labio) and the teeth (dental) are involved in their production.

Picture 3.12 Labiodental

(3) Dental/dental fricative (tip of the tongue and the teeth)

Dental sounds are obstruction of the airstream occurs because the tip of the tongue is between the teeth or just behind the teeth. The phonetic symbols for these sounds are not the same as the English letters. The th as in word „think” is represented by the symbol /θ/ and th as in the word „those” is represented by the symbol /ð/. The sounds /θ/ and /ð/ are referred to as interdental sounds because the tongue is placed between (inter) the teeth (dental).
(6) Velar

Velar sounds occur when the back of the tongue is raised towards the velum (soft palate), as in “cool” and the final consonants in “back”, “bag”, and “bang”. Voicing and nasality distinguish these further.
2) Manner of Articulation

Manner of articulation refers to the way in which the obstruction of the air-stream, which characterizes all consonants, is achieved (Peter and Susan, 1992). At the different places of articulation in the mouth, there are several basic ways that the air-stream can be obstructed.

a) Stops

Malmberg (1963) states that momentary consonants or stops are complete closing followed by an abrupt opening (explosion). With regard to English, this closing may be achieved with both lips against each other (bilabial stop), with the tip of the tongue against the teeth or the gums (dental or alveolar stop), or with the back of the tongue either against the hard palate (palatal stop) or against the soft palate (velar stop). The examples of stops are:

- Bilabial: p, b, and m
- Alveolar: t, d and n
- Velar: k and g

Stops may be voiced or voiceless. The consonants [b], [d], and [g] are voiced, while [p], [t], and [k] are voiceless. There are essentially two types of voiceless stops, aspirated and unaspirated. The articulatory difference between the two types is as follows: during the closure of a stop of the unaspirated type, the glottis is closed. While, during the closure of an aspirated stop the glottis is open. The French consonants [p], [t], [k] are unaspirated stops. This same type found in the Romance languages and in most European language except Germanic group. A stop may also be realized in the pharynx or in the larynx itself, where it is possible to close the air passage by bringing the vocal cords close together. This is called glottal stop. In certain languages, German for example, it is normal consonant sound placed regularly before every stressed initial vowel.

**Table 3.6 The stop consonants of English**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Bilabial</th>
<th>Labiodental</th>
<th>Interdental</th>
<th>Alveolar</th>
<th>Alveopalatal</th>
<th>Velar</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Voiceless</td>
<td>p</td>
<td>t</td>
<td></td>
<td>k</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voiced</td>
<td>b</td>
<td>d</td>
<td></td>
<td>g</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**b) Fricatives**
Fricatives are sounds made by partial obstruction of the airstream. This partial obstruction results from the lips or the tongue coming close to some part of the upper mouth. These consonants are called fricatives because the close approximation of the articulations causes turbulence or friction in airflow. Fricative consonants are characterized by a narrowing of the air passage, which produces a frictional or rubbing noise as the air passes through the tiny opening formed by the articulating organ. In principle, it is possible to produce fricatives at any point whatever in the mouth, from the lips to the pharynx, and also in the larynx itself. English has fricative consonants as follows: [f], [v], [s], [z], [ʃ], [ʒ], [θ], and [ð]. French [ɥ] in lui is a dorso-palatal labialized fricative. German [ç] in ich is a voiceless dorso-palatal fricative.

**Table 3.7- The Fricatives Consonants of English**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bilabial</th>
<th>Labiodental</th>
<th>Interdental</th>
<th>Alveolar</th>
<th>Alveopalatal</th>
<th>Velar</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Voiceless</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>θ</td>
<td>s</td>
<td>f</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voiced</td>
<td>v</td>
<td>ʒ</td>
<td>z</td>
<td>ʒ</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

➢ The front of the tongue is raised closer to the tooth ridge (gum)
➢ Watch that the vocal cords vibrate for /z/


Picture 3.16 Fricatives

c) Affricatives

Affricatives are the consonant which is the combination of stop and fricative. The example of affricatives is [ʧ] as in English initial consonant of child, or the Spanish intervocalic consonant in mucho. A similar sound is heard in the Italian cento. Sound [ʧ] is voiceless affricatives. Another affricative sound is [ʤ] as in the English jam, in the Italian giorno. This sound is voiced affricatives.

Table 3.8 The Affricatives Consonant

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bilabial</th>
<th>Labiodental</th>
<th>Interdental</th>
<th>Alveolar</th>
<th>Alveopalatal</th>
<th>Velar</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ʧ</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ʤ</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

d) Nasals

Nasal sounds are sounds made with the air escaping through the nose. All nasal sounds much alike a kind of humming sound. English has several nasal consonants: nasal bilabial [m], nasal alveolar [n] and velar nasal [ŋ]. The sound [ŋ] can also be found in German jung. The sound [n] in France is considered dental. Nasal consonants are normally voiced but may lose their voicing in combination with voiceless consonants. For example in French [m] normally becomes voiceless after voiceless [s] in words ending in –sme (enthousiasme, communisme).

Table 3.9 The Nasal Consonant

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bilabial</th>
<th>Labiodental</th>
<th>Interdental</th>
<th>Alveolar</th>
<th>Alveopalatal</th>
<th>Velar</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
e) Laterals

Laterals are sounds that occur when the tongue makes a firm contact with the point of articulation in the teeth or the palate. This contact takes place only at the middle and oral cavity, while air escapes from both sides of the place of articulation. The English [l] in long is a lateral type. The tip of the tongue touches the upper gums, and air escapes on both sides of the tongue. English [l] sound is alveolar lateral. Many languages have palatal lateral [ʎ], Switzerland in mouille, Spanish in calle, and Italian in figlio.

f) Trills: r-sound

The consonants called trills or vibrant are articulated in such a way that the articulating organ (in this case is either the tip of the tongue) forms a series of very brief occlusion, separated by small vocalic elements. The trills belong to the r-family sounds. There are two kinds of r in terms of the articulatory organ: the front or apical r and the back or uvular r. The first is pronounced in such a way, that the tip of the tongue touching the alveoli, is pressed by forward by the stream of air. In many European language, such as Spanish, Italian, Slavic, et cetera, the apical r is preserved. But in French, in German, and in a few other European languages, the apical r is now being replaced by a uvular r. This kind of r is no longer produced by the tip of the tongue, but by the uvula, which vibrates and forms the repeated contacts with the back part of the tongue.
g) Glides (semi-vowels)

Other consonant sounds of English produced with little turbulence in the airstream are the initial sounds of the word ‘wet’ and ‘yet’. The phonetic symbols for these sounds are identical to the English letters /w/ and /j/. The two sounds are called semi-vowels because they are made with a relatively wide opening in the mouth. In pronunciation of /w/, the lips are rounded and, at the same time, the back of the tongue approaches the soft palate. In the pronunciation of /j/, the blade of the tongue approaches the hard palate.

c) Voicing: whether there is vibration of the vocal cords
The initial sound of word zoo and sue are identical in the term of place of articulation and manner of articulation (fricatives). However, they differ in terms of voicing. The /s/ is a voiceless sound and /z/ is voiced sound. The vibration that is heard with the voiced sounds is caused by the vocal cords. Sounds made with the vibrating vocal cords are voiced and sounds made with no vibration of the vocal cords are voiceless. The vocal cords are bands of muscle attached to the walls of the larynx. When they are close together, the air passing form the lungs into the mouth cause them vibrate. When they are apart the passing through air causes no vibration. There are eight fricative sounds in English; four of these are voiced and four others are voiceless.

**Table 3.10 Classification of Fricatives in Terms of Voicing**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Labiodental</th>
<th>Interdental</th>
<th>Alveolar</th>
<th>Alveopalatal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Voiced</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>s</td>
<td>f</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voiceless</td>
<td>v</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>z</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The stop consonants also come in voiced/voiceless pairs. With stop consonants, however, it is a little more difficult to feel the vibration of the vocal cords that accompanies voicing.

**Table 3.11 Classification of Stops in Terms of Voicing**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Bilabial</th>
<th>Alveolar</th>
<th>Velar</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

175
The two affricates of English are made at the same place of articulation but are distinguished in terms of voicing. The affricate /ʧ/ as in ‘chair’ is voiceless and /ʤ/ as in ‘judge’ is voiced.

**Table 3.12 Classification of Affricates in Terms of Voicing**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Alveopalatal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Voiced</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ʧ/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voiceless</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ʤ/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Below is the consonant chart that combines all the three aspects of articulation in one chart.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Manners of Interference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1) Closure</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There are three different types of closure: stops, rolls, and flaps. As stated above, stops are complete closing followed by an abrupt opening (explosion). When there is velic closure the air the air-stream cannot get out through the nose, nor can get out immediately through the mouth. Since the lungs are still pushing air upwards the air is compressed within the totally enclosed cavity, and then when the mouth
closure is removed, this is compressed air explodes out of the mouth as pie, by, die, et cetera. This kind of sound, which has compression and explosion, is called plosive. Rolls consist of several rapidly repeated closures and openings of the air passage, as in the rolled r-sounds of Scottish and Italian for which the tip of the tongue makes several quick taps against the alveolar ridge. The rolls are commonly found in Dutch for r and may be heard in French and German too. The sound is similar to a gargling noise. The lips can be made to roll in a similar way (as in B’rrrr noise) but this is not found as a regular sound in language.

2) Narrowing

When two speech organs are very close together the air forcing its way, then it is resulting narrowing. The air then becomes turbulent, and this turbulence is heard as friction noise. Sounds having such friction are known as fricatives. Some fricatives are made with a hissy kind of friction, example /s/ and /ʃ/, and these are sometimes referred to as sibilants; while the non-sibilants have a less hissy, like /f/ and /θ/. In German s is generally even more grooved than in English and this makes it sounds very characteristic.

3) Opener Positions

If two organs are not so close together that they cause friction they may be playing a major part in shaping the cavities through which the air flows. This position causing frictionless sounds named frictionless continuants. This sound can be produced if the speaker gently lowers the lip away from the teeth when he says along fricative sound (for example /v/) until the friction disappears. This friction /v/
sound can quite often be heard as a defective /r/ in English. The word ever said with a frictionless /v/ will sound like defective version of the word error.

3.13. ENGLISH PHONOLOGY

a. English Spelling System

Before discussing English phonology in details, it is necessary to discuss the English spelling system since there are some discrepancy between spelling and sounds, for example:

1) Different letters may represent the same sound

All of these words contain the same vowel sound /u:/ but it is represented by eight different spellings For example: to two too through threw clue shoe Sioux

2) The same letter represents different sound

The pronunciation of the letter ‘a’ is pronounced as five different vowel sounds. For example: cake mat call any sofa

3) Combinations of letters may represent one sound

It is possible for a combination of letters to represent only one sound. On the words below, Gh, ph and ea each represent only one sound even though the spelling represents this single sound as two letters. For example: Rough physics head

4) Letters may represent no sound

It is possible for no sound to be represented by a particular letter. For example: Bomb cake pneumonia knee debt receipt (Peter and Susan, 1992) Those
spellings illustrate clearly the way in which a particular sound in English can be spelled in different ways.

b. English Sound Classes

To be effective in learning English pronunciation, it is essential to have an understanding of how the speech sounds of English are produced. By knowing how sounds are produced, the correct English sounds can be correctly produced.

3.14. CURRENT ISSUES IN ENGLISH PRONUNCIATION TEACHING

This section explores issues that have been the topic of recent debate concerning English pronunciation teaching globally. Since the 1980s, when increased interest began to be shown in pronunciation teaching as a research topic, various changes have taken place in language pedagogy, particularly in approaches to pronunciation teaching, as well as in the status of English as an international language. In language pedagogy, we have witnessed an era dominated by the communicative approach, or Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), which has, among other things, been implemented by directing the learner’s attention away from form to conveying meaning, and as a growth in the appreciation of learner-centred methods (e.g. Richards & Rodgers 2001). Communicative methods have been suggested for pronunciation teaching as well, and many of the traditional methods have been abandoned as inappropriate for communicative language teaching (Celce-Murcia et al. 2010). Their place (in recommendations) has been taken by communicative pronunciation tasks and a change of focus from accuracy in
the production of segmentals (individual sounds) to fluent use of suprasegmental features of speech (e.g. intonation, stress, rhythm). However, the proponents of CLT have been criticised for not sufficiently addressing pronunciation teaching. When discussing English pronunciation, the status of English as an international language cannot be ignored. The lively debate around the theme of English as an International Language (EIL), and on the ownership of English, has had an impact on English language teaching as well.

3.15. COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING

From the late 1970s, the communicative approach has been popular in language teaching. Its origins, however, date back to the end of the 1960s, when British applied linguists such as Christopher Candlin and Henry Widdowson initiated change in the language teaching tradition. They drew on Dell Hymes’ (1971) theory of communicative competence – a development of (or response to) Noam Chomsky’s (1965) linguistic competence – seeing the need to focus on communicative proficiency instead of mere mastery of structures in language learning. (Ridhards & Rodgers 2001) CLT is based on the notion of communication as the primary purpose of language, and therefore using language for communicating should be emphasised in language pedagogy (Celce-Murcia et al. 2010). However, CLT and pronunciation teaching seem to be a problematic combination. CLT is based on directing the learner’s attention away from language items to conveying and focusing on meaning. Lane (2010) notes that in communicative speech situations learners’ pronunciation tends to fall apart because the learners have to process too many things at the same time: find the right words, make grammatical choices,
manage difficult articulations and unfamiliar prosodic patterns. Also, to learn language items, they need to be noticed (Schmidt’s noticing hypothesis; e.g. Schmidt 1990; 1995) and therefore highlighted, which forms a dilemma in the CLT framework. Proponents of CLT have been found fault with not setting strategies for teaching pronunciation communicatively (Celce-Murcia et al. 2010, ), despite their rejection of many of the commonly used techniques as incompatible with teaching language as communication. As communicative goals have become important in language learning, and traditional segmental training has been rejected in the CLT framework, it has been suggested that more emphasis should be laid on teaching suprasegmental features of speech, as these seem to play greater a role in intelligibility than segmentals. In the communicative approach, fluency and intelligibility are considered more important than accuracy at the segmental level. Promoting learner autonomy is manifested, for example, in the urge towards increasing learner involvement, for example through self-monitoring (which, however, was nothing new in language pedagogy, even in the 1980s, as pointed out by Morley 1991), and in the demand that learners be considered as individuals with different learner styles (Celce-Murcia et al. 2010; Morley 1991).

3.16. BROAD APPROACH TO PRONUNCIATION TEACHING

Suprasegmental features of speech play an important role in interaction. Studies have shown, for example, the importance of correct sentence stress for intelligibility (e.g. Hahn 2004). The role of intonation in interaction has been substantially researched within the Discourse Intonation framework, developed from the 1970s by David Brazil and colleagues, and in Interactional Phonetics, which
combines methods of conversation analysis and acoustic phonetics with special focus on prosody. Both these frameworks offer many points of interest for pronunciation teaching. In general terms, intonation makes speech coherent and interpretable to the listener (Pennington & Richards 1986). Inappropriate intonation can mislead people, disrupt communication and cause annoyance (Rogerson-Revell 2011), as also does deviant speech rhythm and word stress, according to Pihko (1997). Intonation can be seen as having four functions: attitudinal, accentual, grammatical and discourse function (Rogerson-Revell 2011). In the attitudinal function, intonation conveys e.g. emotions, interest, doubt and attitudes towards the topic or the interlocutor. Intonation is an important means of signalling emphasis (and de-emphasis), this being the accentual function. Intonation marks elements that the hearer should or should not pay attention to (Brown & Yule 1983). In its grammatical function, intonation helps to recognise the grammatical structure of spoken language (Rogerson-Revell 2011). Further, intonation has a discourse function, giving cues about the nature of the uttered information (whether it is new, known, salient, less salient, topic, comment etc.) (Pennington & Richards 1986, 211) and the turn-taking of the interlocutors (Rogerson-Revell 2011; Seidlhofer 2001).

In recent recommendations, intelligibility has clearly replaced accuracy as the main goal of pronunciation teaching and learning. In striving for this new goal, suprasegmental features of speech seem to have a more crucial a role in the sense that their use has greater impact on intelligibility than the accurate production of segmentals, which in itself is not perhaps seen to characterise near-native pronunciation. Also, the accurate production of segmentals is not a fundamental
prerequisite of intelligible speech. (Pennington & Richards 1986.) In fact, compared to mispronounced segmentals, inappropriate use of suprasegmentals has been suggested to cause more communication breakdowns in communication between non-native (NNS) and native speakers (NS) (Lane 2010). However, Jenkins’ (2000) empirical study on communication between non-native speakers suggests the opposite: she claims that mispronounced segmentals cause more communication breakdowns, and that, for example, inappropriate word stress alone rarely causes intelligibility problems. This is in contradiction with e.g. Roach (2000) who names incorrect stress placement as a major cause of communication breakdowns, and Cruttenden (2008) who classifies word stress as high priority for learners of English. This view is also shared by Seidlhofer (2001) and Dirven and Oakeshott-Taylor (1984). Nevertheless, we must at least consider the possibility of NNS–NNS communication being different from NNS–NS communication, and bear in mind that while most studies in this field have dealt with NNS–NS interaction, Jenkins’ data consist of NNS–NNS interaction only.

Changing the approach to pronunciation teaching from narrow to broad does not mean total neglect of teaching segmentals. Especially when dealing with learners for whom a substantial phonological distance exists at the segmental level between their L1 and the target language, it is wise also to focus on the challenging segments. This is precisely the case with L1 Finnish-speaking learners of English. For example, Finnish lacks sound contrasts such as /s, z/ and /s, ɨ/ that are considered to have high functional load (Brown 1988), and therefore great importance for intelligibility, in English. Segmental level issues such as these contrasts should be retained as part
of the teaching, and therefore the recommendation for the context of the present study would be better described as a balanced approach following Lane (2010), who also includes the important consonants and vowels as well as suprasegmentals in pronunciation teaching. Similarly, Celce-Murcia et al. (2010) see a tendency towards a balanced view in recent recommendations, recognizing that difficulties on the segmental and suprasegmental levels can both cause intelligibility problems. It is also recognised that the segmental and suprasegmental approaches may work best interactively (Seidlhofer 2001), and that attention to both segmental and suprasegmental features of speech in teaching benefits learners (Derwing et al. 1998).

3.17. OVERVIEW OF PRONUNCIATION TEACHING TECHNIQUES

This section is an exploration of English pronunciation teaching techniques. The approach here is very practical, and relates to classroom practices. The aim of this classification is to provide a summary of the different tasks and activities that are frequently recommended for foreign language classrooms.

1. Imitation and drilling. Before the communicative approach to language teaching, pronunciation teaching relied mainly on mechanical production: drilling and imitation practice. Although these techniques may seem old-fashioned to many, drilling is important, as motor skills and automaticity are essential in learning to produce new sounds (Rogerson-Revell 2011). Also, imitation tasks have maintained their status as an all-time favourite in pronunciation teaching, and many recent textbooks still rely on them (e.g. Dale & Poms 2005). Similarly, tongue twisters are suggested in recent teaching materials (e.g. Folse 2006), and it seems that new ones
are being invented to replace the clichéd ones like She sells sea shells on the sea shore, as will be demonstrated by Example 2 in Study I (e.g. Vic the vet loves Vonda the village vocalist and vice versa). Minimal pair drills can be made contextualized (Celce-Murcia et al. 2010; Seidlhofer 2001) in order to make the practice more meaningful, e.g. as ear training for sound contrasts and choosing the correct alternative in sentences such as She thinks she’s going today/to die (Hewings 2004,). Minimal pair practice (like many other practice types) can also be made into a game, e.g. minimal pairs bingo (ibid., 53). Reading aloud and recording learners’ production is also often used and recommended, prompting Morley (1991) to point out that these types of mechanical tasks should not be used once the learner can produce the given feature easily, but instead learners should move on to rehearsed and extemporaneous speech modes. Pennington and Richards (1986) prefer a similar approach as they state that “the goal of any explicit training should be to bring learners gradually from controlled, cognitively based performance to automatic, skill-based performance”.

2. **Phonetic training.** This category includes activities that make use of phonetic terminology, the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA), and/or focus on physical articulation and the functions of the articulators. Since the first linguistic efforts in teaching pronunciation were strongly connected with the founding of the International Phonetic Association and the development of the International Phonetic Alphabet during the Reform Movement in 1886 (Celce-Murcia et al. 2010), phonetic training in language pedagogy is perhaps first and foremost associated with learning the IPA and producing transcriptions. These techniques can be very useful
for L1 Finnish-speaking learner and a connection between transcription skills and English pronunciation skills has been suggested (Lintunen 2004; 2005). The IPA is also strongly present in Finnish EFL textbooks, as will be shown in Study I. However, phonetic training can be understood as a wider range of activities, including e.g. explanation of how sounds are articulated and comparisons of the L1 and the target language (TL) phonological systems. Phonetic terminology can be helpful in these tasks, along with vowel space diagrams, formant maps, consonant charts, intonation contours, pictures (and practice) of lip-shapes and tongue positions (e.g. Hewings 2004), and head cross-sections. Knowing the IPA is essential for learning the pronunciation of previously unfamiliar words with the help of dictionaries, and it helps learners in tackling with the irregular (and at times ambiguous) spelling(to sound) of English (see Wells 1996). Gomes de Matos (2002) mentions phonetic training in his list of learners’ rights. According to him, the learners have the right to receive explicit phonetic instruction, and the right to be taught how to read transcriptions in dictionaries.

3. Awareness-raising tasks. One of the goals of phonetic training is to help learners to learn through raising their phonetic and phonological awareness (cf. Schmidt’s (1990; 1995) noticing hypothesis, according to which learning new language items requires noticing them). Tasks have been designed to help learners recognise their learner type. These include, e.g., learner diaries and awareness-raising questionnaires (e.g. Hewings 2004). Here, it should be mentioned that pronunciation teaching should also cater for these different learner types. Excellent tips in how to do this are presented in Celce-Murcia et al. (2010). To mention just a few, tasks that use
different multisensory modes (visual, auditory, tactile, kinaesthetic) are getting learners to stretch rubber bands to demonstrate vowel length, feeling voicing by placing a finger on one’s Adam’s apple, demonstrating tongue positions by hand gestures and aspiration by holding a sheet of paper in front of your mouth.

**4. Ear training.** Training one’s ear, so to speak, (or, perceptual/receptive training) can range from practice in discriminating individual sounds to getting used to whole accents and language varieties. Because of the close connection between perception and production (e.g. Diehl et al. 2004; Baars & Gage 2007), speaking and listening can be seen as two sides of the same coin – spoken language (Cauldwell 2003). While there is disagreement on how the relationship functions, its existence has not been questioned. Discrimination practice often deals with individual sounds, e.g. distinguishing between two sounds like /m/ and /n/ (Morley 1992). However, this technique can be also used for listening for stress and intonation. As understanding speakers is at least as important as being understood, learners would benefit from familiarization with different varieties and accents of English. This factor is also listed in Gomes de Matos’ (2002, 314) list of learners’ rights. Ear training in this scale, named accent addition, is recommended (in a very programmatic manner) in Jenkins (2000). Returning to smaller units, peer dictation and spelling activities are used and suggested (e.g. Seidlhofer 2001) because they activate both speaker and listener.

**5. Creative techniques.** Pronunciation teaching can benefit from various techniques that derive from other disciplines such as drama, and nonmainstream pedagogies such as Suggestopedia. Drama techniques applicable for pronunciation teaching deal
with, e.g., control of speech volume, rate of delivery, imitation techniques, interview, improvisation, sociodrama, and simulations. A method referred to in Seidlhofer (2001) as whole brain activities often includes incorporation of relaxation techniques, guided imaginary activities and use of classical music (to activate the right hemisphere of the brain). Developmental approximation drills, deriving from first language acquisition research, are mentioned by Celce-Murcia et al. (2010). This method is based on word pairs that present sounds in the order typically found in L1 English-speaking children’s language acquisition.

6. Corrective feedback. Included in the recommendations on corrective feedback (CF) are that it should not cause negative feelings in pupils, and they should not feel as if they were being punished (Morley 1991). According to Gomes de 8 There is disagreement among scholars researching the relationship between perception and production of speech. Simply put, the question that remains unresolved is whether perception precedes production or the other way around: that is, are good perception skills a prerequisite of good pronunciation or vice versa? Or do both skills affect each other? There are also opinions according to which it is not helpful to consider perception and production as a “mirror image” of each other (Leather 2003). For a review of the topic, see e.g. Llisterri (1995). Matos (2002), it is a learner’s right to be corrected “in a positive, tactful manner”. Lane (2010) suggests that pupils should have a chance to self correct by giving them a cue about a mispronunciation and space for modifying his or her production. Morley (1991) also sees correcting as the learner’s task, whereas the teacher’s task is to give cues on how to do that. Using recasts (Nicholas et al. 2001) in the sense of reformulations (or, paraphrasing) of the
learner’s utterance in a way that it does not come across as explicit correction is a soft way of CF. Research findings by Saito and Lyster (2012) suggest that CF has a positive effect in form-focused instruction: L1 Japanese-speaking learners who received CF in addition to form-focused instruction developed more than peers who only received form-focused instruction. The authors suggest that CF might be especially effective in L2 pronunciation development.

7. Materials, tools and technology. Many kinds of assistive tools are available for pronunciation teaching – especially in the present technological era. However, tools can also be as simple as the following (some of which have been mentioned above): sound-colour charts, mirrors, pictures, rubber bands, and plain sheets of paper (for more on visual aids. Kazoos are considered excellent for teaching intonation (a kazoo is “a toy instrument into which you hum a melody”). Because English language teaching is such a huge industry, the variety of published materials is also enormous. In general, textbooks, dictionaries and reference guides for teachers are published nationally in many countries, as well as internationally. Some of these focus specifically on pronunciation. It should also be kept in mind – especially now that authentic materials have gained popularity – that suitable materials can often be found closer to hand than we think: in e.g. jokes, poetry, songs, and comic strips. Also, the Internet offers unlimited resources for different kinds of materials, and teachers can use electronic platforms or create a course website or blog for sharing materials and exercises, collecting course work, and offering a forum for discussion for learners. Modern language labs and instructional technology can offer efficient audio and visual feedback. For example, seeing the pitch contour of your own
production displayed on a computer may be very helpful in learning intonation (Chun 2013); this is one example of the multiple possibilities of modern pronunciation software that have been demonstrated to help L2 learners to learn prosodic patterns. It has been suggested that computer-mediated pronunciation teaching (CAPT) could meet the needs of teachers, who seem to suffer from lack of time for pronunciation teaching and insufficient training in how to teach it. According to Levis (2007), CAPT applications are tireless, consistent in their presentation of stimulus material and feedback, and provide variety in the number of voices used as models and in the form of visual feedback. This is usually not the case in traditional classroom teaching with individual teachers. CAPT also promotes learner autonomy. (Levis 2007.) Research has shown that CAPT can lead to pronunciation development. For example, Thomson’s (2011, 2012) experiment in teaching Canadian English vowels to L1 speakers of Mandarin by using high variability phonetic training (HVPT) was successful. HVPT is one example of CAPT, and is based on exposing the learner to multiple voices producing the target sounds. After the stimulus, the learners are to click on labels indicating which sound they perceived, which is followed by immediate feedback. Many CAPT applications, however, have been criticised for not bringing much new to pronunciation teaching but simply presenting similar content in a new medium. It is also uncertain whether the development achieved with CAPT could equally well have been achieved in regular classroom teaching. With respect to the use of automatic speech recognition (ASR) in CAPT, it should be kept in mind that ASR cannot handle non-native speech accurately, as pointed out by e.g. Chun (2013) and Levis (2007). ASR-based
systems may be able to give satisfactory overall evaluations of learners’ pronunciation, but they cannot pinpoint specific errors, which would be important for the learner (ibid.). It is also uncertain to what extent these systems correlate with human judgments of intelligibility (Thomson 2011). The use of phonetic displays (i.e. spectrograms) in CAPT has also been criticised, because they are not interpretable by non-experts and therefore cannot offer information that could be readily used to improve pronunciation (Levis 2007, Thomson 2011). All in all, it seems that CAPT is a promising means of complimenting traditional classroom teaching, but the suitability of each application to language learning should be carefully evaluated before use, as suggested by Derwing et al. (2000).

3.18 PRINCIPLES UNDERLYING ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHER EDUCATION

Richards (1998) quoting Zahorik states that no matter what the teacher education study programmes are, they will always be influenced by the underlying approaches or guiding principles of their designers; of which he identified three:

- science/research
- theory/philosophy
- art/craft

to which may be added (in addition to whatever the current political weather may be doing in the relevant Government departments and agencies cp. Hanusova (2005)

- tradition/intuition.

Hanušová states her firm belief that programmes should be based on research, theory and examples of good practice instead This includes the recently
formulated principle that a teacher should be trained so as to be equipped with a set of competences which Prucha et al. (1998) define as the ‘set of professional skills and dispositions a teacher should possess to be able to pursue their profession effectively’ They acknowledge that it is ‘more practical to perceive the competences in a dynamic sense as a 'movable goal' that can never be fully achieved but that indicates the direction in teacher training that we should aim for’. In general, these competences should be derived from the competences desired of the pupils (cf. Choděra et al. 1999); and these desired acquired competences on which the proposed educational standards will be based around should be provable, according to Vašutová (2001); i.e. there should be a demonstrable, measurable change for the better. Some of this is clearly a re-definition of what already happens in practice: an exam is designed to measure the degree of competence of a student in the subject concerned, including a whole raft of subject-specific skills within that. Similarly, any model of professional standards for the purpose of teacher education should undoubtedly be defined in terms of professional competences. What is new is the extension of this to include the whole human being, as the following list of key competences produced by Vasutova for upper-primary or secondary teachers makes clear:

- Subject competence
- Didactic and psycho-didactic competence
- General pedagogic competence
- Diagnostic and interventional competence
- Social, psychosocial and communicative competence
Managerial and normative competence
Professional and personal competence.

The European Commission in 2004 accepted the ‘Common European Principles for Teacher Competences and Qualifications’, a document which acknowledged the vital part teachers play in implementing present day educational reforms, before going on to emphasize the following points:

- Qualified profession (all new teachers are graduates),
- Teaching is a profession requiring a commitment to lifelong learning,
- Teaching is a mobile profession, i.e. teachers can teach anywhere in principle,
- Teaching is a profession based on partnerships.

The key competences that make these principles work are seen in the ability of teachers to work with others; to work with knowledge, technology and information; and finally, to work with and in society. It might be here added that society in return has an obligation towards teachers of support on the one hand, and in not continuously placing more and more burdens on them by way of unconsidered criticism, extra material, bureaucracy and change, a topic of continuing concern within the UK, for example. Teachers are not ‘supernatural heroes’, with endless time and energy at their disposal as they guide ideal classes in their enthusiastic learning, much as they might prefer to be.
This document in its recommendations goes on to emphasize the value of ‘research and evidence-based practice to the development of new knowledge about education and training’ to which emphasis this present work is a contribution.

From the point of view of a subject teacher, their professional competences will divide into two groups – those relevant to all teachers, such as pedagogy and child-psychology; and those which are subject specific. In the case of English these competences can be split into a number of categories,

1. **Communicative competence**
   - Linguistic, sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences;
   - Spoken and written language at near native educated fluency.

2. **Linguistic competence including**
   - Theoretical and practical knowledge in the areas of phonetics, phonology, and syntax, among others, in order to transmit their own fluency effectively;
   - The ability to apply this linguistics knowledge when teaching their students.

3. **Cultural competences**, including among others:
   - A socio-cultural component relating to understanding something of the societies and their cultures of English-speaking countries;
   - An intercultural component, based on implications of English as a Lingua Franca as it relates to other countries or cultures.

4. **Literary competence** in English literature including children”’s books.

5. **Didactic competence** including but not limited to:
   - Awareness of language acquisition problems and how to minimize them.
Although the offered course clearly focuses on the competences of phonetics and phonology, it has a major input into competences such as the problem of language acquisition and bringing the students own performance in speech up to as near a native standard as possible.

3.19. THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN PHONETICS AND PHONOLOGY

It is clear that these two disciplines are essential in raising the competence of the students concerned from that of being mere users of the language to becoming linguists themselves, in order to raise their own pupils up to the standard of being sufficiently competent in English to be at least comfortably intelligible. Ideally, the programme should have the effect of raising their standard of spoken English at graduation beyond that of their former teachers, so that in turn their own future pupils will be enabled to leave school with a much higher standard of spoken English than they themselves had when they left school.

The teacher being the pupils’ role model for pronunciation, and they being nearer the age where they can copy correct pronunciation accurately without having to think about it, it follows that the more accurate the teacher’s pronunciation is, the fewer will be the creation multiples of 30 new and faithful copies per annum of the old errors, resulting in fewer mistakes to add to the children’s burden of ‘fossils’. As the teacher’s voice with its pronunciation is the means presenting most of what is taught in the classroom - such as vocabulary, grammar, and literature comprehension - it is a powerful tool of pedagogical communication, especially when English is being used in and with the class as far as is practicable.
The teacher therefore is a complex model for his or her pupils, affecting not only their cognitive but also their affective spheres. If, then, the teacher both mediates and teaches in and through medium of English, expressing not only instructions and information, but also thought and feeling through it; then the students will see that their teacher is fully qualified to express these fluently and accurately. As a result, their motivation to make the very considerable effort to actually learn this strange foreign language of English will be unquestionably greatly enhanced, particularly if they also see and sense that their teacher is enthusiastic, cares about them, and is likeable. Otherwise they will feel cheated, as the following rather biting comment from one of the course”s new students concerning his own recent experience at school vividly illustrates: “Real pronunciation, not what they learnt us at grammar school”.

3.20. THE PROBLEM OF A ‘FOREIGN’ (i.e. NON-NATIVE) ACCENT

Pronunciation reveals much about our whole use of English, and in addition includes clues that may also reveal our social affiliation and status as well as our origins. A foreign accent such as that a non-native student of English will almost inevitably possess may compound the problems that such a student will experience because of the additional temptation to choose and use a simpler vocabulary and less complex grammar than they are capable of through lack of confidence. Their awareness of their foreignness of accent may awaken a fear of rejection because of its and consequently their ‘social unacceptability or unintelligibility [because] of the accent concerned or the listener’s low tolerance of a foreign accents in general’
(Dalton and Seidlhoffer 1994). As a result, their lack of confidence is made worse, and so their whole ability to communicate effectively is impaired. McAllister (1997) states that it is an obvious fact that adults are, as a rule, not completely successful in acquiring a native L2 speech. Crystal in his ‘A Dictionary of Phonetics and Linguistics’ defines accent as the cumulative auditory effect of those features of pronunciation which identify where a person is from, regionally or socially, and it refers consistently to the inability of non-native language users to produce the target language with the phonetic accuracy required by native listeners for acceptance as native speech (Major 2001).

It follows that any phonetics course must aim to minimize the effect of this fear of rejection by giving the student enough confidence in their pronunciation that they will be able also to resist this temptation to choose the basic, simplified option for communication.

3.21. LINGUISTICS, PHONOLOGY AND THE STUDENT

Much teaching, even of languages, treats pupils at school and students at university almost as if they were biological computational devices. To some degree this works, but the truth of the matter, as Fraser (1997) in her paper [advocating a change in or departure from this traditional second language phonology] is that students are whole people, not machines. This change of approach comes from, as she says, the trend towards increasing recognition of the complexity and variability of phonological and phonetic representations and of the processes that relate them towards what she terms phenomenological phonology – i.e. something that could equally be called as whole person phonology.
This is at variance with the assumptions of standard phonology, where the phonological system as part of the whole linguistic system, is deemed to be computational in its structure; in other words, it is a system composed of formal representations of various kinds of computational processes and their interrelationships. This is a stance that is rarely, if ever, questioned by theorists. Fraser’s approach therefore essentially rejects this computational view of language use: she quotes Roach (1991) as saying that ‘...from the purely practical classroom view ... has little to offer and could well create confusion’. So it follows that best practice in the classroom is to ‘take a meaning-and context-based approach; and treat the students as whole persons, not as computational devices.’ In other words, what goes on in the class-room will be more readily accepted by the pupils if they see its relevance to their present and future lives beyond its walls.

For those purposes, phenomenological phonology works with descriptions, rather than the representations of standard phonology, since these descriptions are the products of mental processes and not their basis as is assumed by standard phonology. Essentially, people making such descriptions can be divided into two groups, even though they may overlap somewhat:

Regular or normal language-users, who will try to describe speech sounds in terms of words, phrases and sentences. These are considered less abstract than the phonetic descriptions since they are more basic and directly relevant to the day to day experience of the language user.
Linguists, who will take a reflexive attitude towards language and consider the nature of its sounds and structures, normally preferring to describe these in terms of phonetic symbols, representations and descriptions as necessary.

The fact is that the mental descriptions made by a language user differ considerably in their nature from those made by a linguist. The former are essentially psycho-phonological descriptions, while the latter are classical phonetic descriptions. These are more abstract than the descriptions of a regular user, since they require a reflective approach.

3.22. THE TEACHER AS LINGUIST

In preparing future teachers we train both language users who must also be able to function as linguists. They need to understand the principles underlying what they are doing, so they must know how to work with fully-fledged phonetic descriptions. However, these future teachers will be working with a majority of subjects who will only become regular language users and, therefore, as part of the teaching process, the above mentioned psycho-phonological descriptions, (which may also be described as naive descriptions of phenomena, a term popular in modern pedagogy) should not only be tolerated, but encouraged. Then, and only then, will we be able to work with realistic expectations of our students and then and only then will we be able to work with the intuitive sphere of the learner, where most of the acoustic information they are learning should be recorded. The object of the exercise is not so much that the teacher teaches, but that their pupils are learning pronunciation in a way that is as intuitive as practicable.
3.23. TRADITIONAL CLASSROOM TECHNIQUES TO TEACH PRONUNCIATION

Teaching pronunciation is part of the communicative approach, and traditionally, teachers of English pronunciation have used the phonetic alphabet, and activities such as transcription practice, diagnostic passages, detailed description of the articulatory systems, recognition/discrimination tasks, developmental approximation drills, focused production tasks (e.g., minimal pair drills, contextualized sentence practice, reading of short passages or dialogues, reading aloud/recitation), tongue twisters and games (Pronunciation Bingo). Other popular methods are listening and imitating, visual aids, practice of vowel shifts and stress shifts related by affixation, and recordings of learner’s production (Celce-Murcia, 1996).

These methods all rely on teachers having their learners learn each sound and then apply them in real speech. Some students benefit from these methods but others do not learn the pronunciation of the other language readily from them. Therefore, new methods are being developed to supplement the learning of English pronunciation.

3.24. NEW DIRECTIONS IN THE TEACHING OF PRONUNCIATION OF ENGLISH

New directions in teaching and learning English pronunciation have come from other fields such as drama, psychology, and speech pathology (Celce-Murcia, 1996). The techniques celce-Murcia highlighted are the use of fluency-building activities as well as accuracy-oriented exercises, appeals to multi-sensory modes of
learning, adaptation of authentic materials, and the use of instructional technology in the teaching of pronunciation.

There is a variety of current technology equipment and applications used in education. They include computers, digital cameras, scanners, LCD (liquid crystal display) panels and/or projectors, distance education/video conferencing systems, word processing, databases, spreadsheets, drawing/graphics programs, website development, electronic references, discussion groups/list servers, instructional software (tutorials, drill and practice), presentation software, hypermedia, email, internet, assistive technologies and instructional methods for integrating technology (Muir-Herzig, 2004). Among these technology equipment applications, instructional software (tutorial drills and practice) is used commonly to assist people learning languages.

Technological and software methods to teach English pronunciation are very different from the more traditional methods of teaching pronunciation. This research attempts to use both traditional and new directions of teaching pronunciation to accelerate pronunciation learning.

3.25. PRONUNCIATION BUILDING STRATEGIES

3.25.1 Construction

The pronunciation building strategies were constructed by the investigator by going through the review of related literature and selecting appropriate strategies to teach pronunciation according to the needs of the present sample B.Ed., optional I English teacher trainees. The strategies were selected based on the results arrived from the informal observation and the opinions given by the teacher trainees in the
opinionnaire. Thus the pronunciation building strategies namely (i) Segmentation and Blending, (ii) pronunciation drills and (iii) Audio Assistance were constructed.

3.25.2. Description

The three strategies namely (i) Segmentation and Blending, (ii) pronunciation drills and (iii) Audio Assistance are selected by reviewing of related literature in English pronunciation. These strategies are further elaborated by adding many activities such as rhymes, songs, games, drills, charts, and tables which were referred from the internet. The steps involved in these three strategies and the expected benefits of the application of these strategies are given under each strategy in unit 4 methodology.

3.25.3. Administration

The pronunciation building strategies were administered to the experimental group B.Ed., optional I English teacher trainees in the treatment session. The English teacher trainees were given training and activities in each strategy for a particular period of time. Implementation of one strategy does not affect the implementation of another strategy as they all focus on the single concept English pronunciation with specific emphasis on sounds.

3.25.4. Validation

After the selection and construction of the pronunciation building strategies, they were circulated to the principal of the college, professors in English, experts and Research Supervisors for its approval. After their approval the strategies were brought out and administered to the teacher trainees in the experimental group.

3.26. SELECTED STRATEGIES TO TEACH PRONUNCIATION
The treatment that the researcher uses for the present study is some of the selected strategies to enhance English pronunciation. The found strategies were submitted to five experts. From the experts’ opinion the tool is said to have the validity and reliability and may be an instrument to enhance English pronunciation among the B.Ed., optional-I English trainees. The selected strategies are,

- Segmentation and blending
- Pronunciation drills
- Audio assistance

**Segmentation and Blending**

Segmenting and blending are reversible key phonic skills. Segmenting (‘chopping’, ‘robot arms’) consists of breaking words down into their separate phonemes to spell; s p e ll. Blending consists of building (synthesizing) words from their separate phonemes s p e ll spell. Blending tends to be the neglected part of this process but it is very important that children secure the skill of blending in order to become successful readers. Blending should be modelled and practised in phonics and throughout the day whenever reading or oral blending is undertaken. Many classes include children who ‘sound out’ very well when reading but struggle to blend the sounds they have identified into a word. This makes reading a chore and can be exhausting for both reader and listener.

The researcher uses the following technique in carrying out this strategy.

- Segmentation and blending games
- Segmentation and blending activities
- Segmentation and blending rhymes
• Segmentation and blending through word chart prepared by the researcher

Pronunciation Drills

Correct pronunciation is an important part of learning to speak English. Pronunciation should be taught, and at least the worst errors corrected as a part of drills which center the students’ attention on pronunciation problems. This will be needed particularly by individual students who have more than average difficulty in correcting pronunciation errors. Pronunciation Drills are all of the imitative-repetition type. They vary in the ways in which they center the attention on an isolated pronunciation problem or divide it between two or more. Drills can be arranged in the order of increasing variety of pronunciation problems they present at one time.

Drills On Individual Sounds

1. Repetition of the sound by itself.- The teacher pronounces the sound and has the students imitate her pronunciation in chorus, in small groups, or individually.

2. Repetition of the sound in association with known and easy sounds. The students imitate the investigator’s pronunciation of a series of words that contain the sound that is being drilled.

3. Minimal pairs.- This drill centers the attention on the difference in the pronunciation of two sounds. The minimal-pair device uses word pairs which differ in pronunciation only in the new sounds under consideration, such as: Bit- beat. / Lick – leak.

4. Patterned pairs.- There is more than one sound changed within a pair. For example: Pull – bun / Put – cut / Sing – been.
The researcher uses the following technique in carrying out this strategy.

- Substitution drills of pronunciation
- Word drilling through word chart prepared by the researcher
- Pronunciation drill games

**Audio Assistance**

Audio based teaching of English speech sounds is very essential in the pronunciation classes. In this study the researcher recorded her own delivery of speech sounds. She also selected some of the pronunciation audio lessons used in the websites and previous researches. She made use of the pronunciation dictionary while learning pronunciation of words. The audio lessons were given in the CD.

The researcher uses the following technique in carrying out this strategy.

- Listening to the audio lessons regarding English pronunciation
- Listening to the audio prepared by the researcher
- Listening to the videos of native speakers an pronunciation of sounds
- Imitating the utterances of the native speaker and the researcher
- Checking the pronunciation of words by listening to the pronunciation of words in net.

The investigator used bbclearningenglish.com to download audio and video lessons.
3.27. GOWRIE’S MODEL OF TEACHING PRONUNCIATION

**Input**
- Creating desirable situation to learn pronunciation
- Availing comfortable classroom
- Availing audio visual aids
- Creating friendly atmosphere
- Introduction of sounds in English (vowels and consonants)
- By teacher’s utterance
- By a tape recorded voice
- Describe of each sound by charts pictures and videos
- The air stream mechanism
- The organs of speech
- The position of the tongue, lips, teeth, uvula etc.,
- The production of speech sounds
- Proceeding from sounds to words by using word chart,
  Segmentation and blending, drills
  regarding sounds and words and audio assistance

**Process**
- Get ready and acquaint with the new situation
- Liking the comforts and facilities in the classroom prepare to learn in a friendly atmosphere
- Recognizes the variation between sounds in English
- Understand the way the sounds are produced
- Understand the concept in detail and try to manipulate by own and develop a curiosity to analyze the words in general and sounds in particular.

**Output**
- Have confidence and sound out without hesitation and
- Make use of the audio visual aids
- Make use of the opportunities willing to talk freely
- Utter the sounds confidently without any doubt or hesitation
- Checkout the production of sounds by own
- Acquires a clear concept of sounds and words and pronounce them more clearly, freely and confidently than before.
3.28. CONCLUSION

This chapter explains the collection of all the subject matters related to this research work. She utilizes the subject matters while conducting the treatment session. English pronunciation is broad area of study. She has taken only the segmental levels of pronunciation i.e. pronunciation of sounds. She has planned to incorporate the subject matter with in the selected strategies of teaching English pronunciation. In order to carry out the treatment session in this research work successfully she has prepared her own model of teaching English pronunciation which suits to the psychological and physical needs of the learners. The plans and procedures of the study is given in the following chapter.