CHAPTER II
THEORETICAL REVIEW

A. Pronunciation

1. Definition of Pronunciation

Pronunciation refers to the production of sounds that we use to make meaning. Pronunciation is the way how sounds are perceived by the hearer (Richards, Platt, and Weber, 1992, p. 296). They also said it includes attention to the particular sounds of a language (segments), aspects of speech beyond the level of the individual sound, such as intonation, phrasing, stress, timing, rhythm (suprasegmental aspects), how the voice is projected (voice quality) and, in its broadest definition, attention to gestures and expressions that are closely related to the way we speak a language.

The way we speak immediately conveys something about ourselves to the people around us. The different pronunciations or different sounds will cause different meanings. Speaking without considering the pronunciation will disturb and cause misunderstanding in the meaning of the words spoken. Learners with good pronunciation in English are more likely to be understood even if they make errors in other areas, whereas learners whose pronunciation is difficult to understand will not be understood, even if their grammar is perfect.

Dalton and Seidhoffer as cited in Abbas Pourhosein Gilakjani thesis state that a person’s pronunciation is one expression of that person’s self-image. That is why, a word can be spoken in different ways by various individuals or groups, depending on many factors,
such as the area in which they grew up, the area in which they now live, whether they have speech or voice disorder, their ethnic group, their social class, and their education.

2. Aspects of Pronunciation

Pronunciation has two main features; they are segmental and suprasegmental features. Segmental feature includes phoneme that consist of vowel and consonant. In addition, suprasegmental includes stressing and intonation. Although these different aspects of pronunciation are treated in isolation here, it is important to remember that they all work in combination when we speak.

a. Segmental.

The segmental feature concerns with the phonemes which includes of vowel and consonants of a language. Titi Wahyuti (2010:26) said that segmental or just segments refer to the sound units which are arranged in a sequential order in speech; the sound unit of utterance are represented by the phonetic symbols. She also adds that segmental are speech sounds which are meaningfully arranged in a sequence of speech, so that segmental can be studied in isolation. Every expression may be cut up or segmented into a linear sequence of segmental which can be studied or analyzed separately in the way how it is produced by one’s speech organs.

b. Suprasegmental

Suprasegmental features are different with segmental features. Suprasegmental features can’t be studied in isolation without segmental features. Titi Wahyukti (2010:28) said that Suprasegmentals are called “Suprasegmental” because they occur only with the
segmental, they are imposed on the segmental phonemes; such suprasegmental features are stress, pitch, intonation, and juncture.

1. Stress.

Stress is emphasis that may be given to certain syllables in a word, or to certain words in a phrase or sentence usually through a combination of relatively greater loudness, higher pitch, and longer duration. Lodefoged (1975 : 279) says “Stress sound are those on which the speaker expends more muscular energy, so that there is an additional increase in pitch”. Stress refers to the prominence given to certain syllables within words, and to certain syllables or words within utterances. It is signaled by volume, force, pitch’ change and syllable length, and is often the place where we notice hand movements and other gestures when we are watching someone talking.

2. Pitch.

Titi wahyuti said that Pitch is some degree of highness or lowness of tone in each syllable of a word. The going up and down of pitch over different syllables in an utterance is called intonation. Pitch and intonation are often terms used interchangeably. As to the number of syllables in an utterance, there are several pitch levels. Practically there are four significant pitch levels in an utterance; starting from the highest to the lowest tone, the pitch level are numbered : /4/ , /3/ , /2/ , and /1/ respectively. Pitch level /2/ is the normal pitch by which someone normally starts an utterance, this is also called ‘mid’; whereas pitch level /3/ is a little higher than pitch level /2/ and normally accompany the stressed word in a sentence, this is called
‘high’. Pitch level /1/ is ‘low’ as it is the lowest tone and usually used to end an utterance or a sentence.

The use of four pitch levels above can be illustrated in an utterance: “Good Morning”. The first syllable ‘Good’ is used pitch level /2/ then followed with pitch level /3/ in ‘mor’ and ended with pitch level /1/ in ‘ning’.

Pitch level /4/ is higher than pitch level /3/, so that it is called ‘extra high’. It is only used in emphatic speech, for example, in the expression: ‘it is his house’ the word ‘his’ can be expressed in pitch level /4/ when we want to say ‘not my house’

3. Intonation.

Hasa (2015) states that intonation is the variation of our pitch, in the spoken language. Intonation indicates our emotions and attitudes, determine the difference between statements and questions and sometimes highlight the importance of the verbal message we’re giving out. He also adds that in English, there are 3 basic intonation patterns: Falling Intonation, Rising Intonation, and Partial/Fall-rise Intonation.

a) Falling intonation

Falling intonation describes how the voice falls on the final stressed syllable of a phrase or a group of words. It is used in expressing a complete, definite thought, and asking wh-questions. “She got a new dog”, ”The girl is an actress.”

• Rising intonation

Rising intonation describes how the voice rises at the end of a sentence. This is common in yes-no questions or in expressing surprise. “Your dog can speak?”, “Are you hungry?”
• Partial Intonation

Partial Intonation describes how voice rises then falls. People use this intonation when they are not sure, or they have more to add to a sentence. We also use this intonation pattern to ask questions, as it sounds more polite. “Would you like some coffee?”, “I want to go to France, but…”

Clennell (1997) provides a useful description of how intonation is used to signal what is important in what is said (on AMEP research center), the force or attitude with which something is said, how we use intonation to distinguish between new and old information, and how we use pitch change to signal turn-taking and other conversational management strategies. He also suggests some teaching ideas appropriate for more advanced learners, but which could be adapted for use with lower levels.


Juncture is a joint or connection between two things. Titi Wakyukti (2010: 30) states that juncture is a type of connection or pause between syllables or words in an expression. In English syllables may have close juncture, that is they are connected together very closely without pause; but in other case, they are so loosely connected (having open juncture) that there seems to be a pause in pronunciation. The two types of juncture can be shown in the following utterances:

a. Night rate / nait + reit / → this expression has open juncture (+) between two words (night and rate)

b. Nitrate / naitreit / → this expression has close juncture, no pause between two syllables.
Even though there are two aspects of pronunciation that are segmental and suprasegmental features but those two aspects can not be separated completely. The two features always appear when we speak or produce a meaningful expression. Only for the sake of language analysis, we divide an expression or utterance into segmental and suprasegmental ones.

3. The Importance of Pronunciation

Like all languages, English has its own unique set of sounds. Although many of the English sounds may be the same (or almost the same) as in your native language, many are different. If you want to speak English well, you cannot pronounce English words using the sounds of your native language. If you do so, your English will be difficult to be understood. For example, if your native language does not have the θ sound, you cannot just replace it with ɹ or s. If you do, your thin will sound like tin or sin.

English pronunciation involves too many complexities for learners to strive for a complete elimination of accent, but improving pronunciation will boost self esteem, facilitate communication, and possibly lead to a better job or at least more respect in the workplace. To pronounce words clearly, we need to practice it intensively.

4. Factor causing pronunciation error

English pronunciation is unpredictable, guessing is a terrible strategy. It often leads to errors, which lead to bad habits. Pronouncing the second language (English) is more difficult rather than pronouncing their mother tongue for the learners because they had different pronunciation.
In speaking English the communication between the speaker and the listener has mutual relationship. It affects each other. It means that in order that the listener can comprehend the meaning of what is said, the speaker has to speak clearly. For this reason, pronunciation is one of the important aspects of language to be learned. If the students speak with incorrect pronunciation it can make misunderstanding in meaning.

There are many factors caused students pronunciation errors. The researcher considered two factors as the main factors that are mostly happened in the students.

a. Influence of mother tongue

In speaking, there might be native language (mother tongue) influence in the pronunciation of speakers. Eltrug (1984) as cited in Ivy thesis also add that mother tongue interference can contribute to a large number of pronunciation errors made by students.

Most researchers agree that the student’s native language influences the pronunciation of the target language. The use of Bahasa Indonesia as a mother tongue influences English pronunciation which can cause the error in producing English sound. Lanteigne, cited in Tiono (2008) states the difficulties in learning English occur due to the fact that some of English sounds do not exist in the mother tongue of the learners. It is difficult for them to produce certain English sounds which do not exist in their mother tongue. It also happened in students of Muhammadiyah University of Purwokerto. The production of a particular English sound which does not exist in Indonesia can pose a difficulty for the students.

Avery and Ehrlich point out that the sound system of the native language can influence the learners’ pronunciation of a target language in at least three ways. First, when there is a sound in the target language which is absent from the learners’ native
sound inventory, or vice versa, learners may not be able to produce or even perceive the sound(s). Second, when the rules of combining sounds into words (i.e., phonotactic constraints/rules) are different in the learners’ mother tongue from those of the target language, they cause problems for learners because these rules are language specific as they vary from one language to another. Thirdly, since the rhythm and melody of a language determine its patterns of stress and intonation, learners may transfer these patterns into the target language. (as cited in Abbas Pourhossein Gilakjani thesis). So mother tongue plays great role in someone’s pronunciation.

b. Orthographic writing

In English, it is often that the writing was different with its sound. The spelling was not reliable guide to know how a word is pronounced. It was different with Indonesian language that the pronunciation of the words can be predictable. It means, most of the writings were the same with the sound.

Benedetta Bassetti (2008) says that It is argued that L2 (target language) learners’ pronunciation can be affected by L2 orthographic representations and that these can be reinterpreted according to L1 (mother tongue) orthography-phonology correspondences. Potential effects of orthography should be considered in the teaching of L2 pronunciation, and this variable should be considered in the long-standing debate about when to introduce the written word in L2 teaching.
B. English Diphthongs

1. Definition of Diphthongs

Diphthong is a combination of two vowel sounds or vowel letters, for example the sound /aɪ/ in pipe /paɪp/ or the letter ou in doubt. The origin of diphthong is from the Greek word, *diphthongos*. *Diphthongos* is from two words, *di* and *phthongos*. *Di* means 'twice', and *phthongos* means 'voice, sound'.

English diphthong is divided into two types. Those are English closing diphthong and English centering diphthong. The English closing diphthong is diphthongs that the second vowel is closer than the first vowel. The closing diphthongs are identified when the movement of the tongue is carried out from the position of an open vowel to that of a closer vowel.

Ramelan in Dyah Mustikaraini’s thesis, says that the English centering diphthong is diphthongs that the second vowel is more center than the first vowel. The centering diphthongs are formed when the movement of the tongue is carried out toward the central vowel [ə] as the symbols indicate. The English closing diphthong consists of [eɪ], [aɪ], [ɔɪ], [oʊ], and [aʊ], and The English centering diphthong consists of [ɪə], [ɛə], and [ʊə].
2. **Glide in English Diphthong**

Glide is when the tongue moving from one vowel position to another vowel position. In phonetic writing, diphthong is normally represented by two symbols of vowel sounds, such as [eɪ], [ou], and [aɪ].

Ramelan as cited in Dyah thesis made reference to the two vowel sounds or the two elements that constitute the beginning of the glide and the end of the glide. The transitional sounds heard incidentally in between are taken for granted, since they will be automatically produced when the tongue is moving from the first to the second vowel position.

For the diphthong [aɪ], for instance, the tongue moves from the position for the production of [a] in the direction of [ɪ]. The vowel [a] is an open vowel, while [ɪ] is a
close vowel, so that the direction of the glide is toward a vowel with a close position. A *closing diphthong* is a diphthong when the movement of the tongue is carried out from the position of an open vowel to that of a closer vowel. When the movement of the tongue is carried out towards the central vowel [ə], the diphthong is called a *centering diphthong*.

3. **Kinds of English Diphthongs**

   *a. English centering diphthongs*

   1. **Diphthong [ɪə]**

      Diphthong [ɪə] is a high-front-centering diphthong. The tongue starts from the vowel [ɪ], as found in the word „bill“ or the second from the word „sikil“ (*Javanese*), and not from the closer [i] vowel sound; then it glides away in the direction of the central vowel [ə]. The two lips are in neutral position during the vowel glide. (Ramelan, 1999:95).

      ![Diphthong [ɪə] Diagram](image)

      Figure 2.2: *Diphthong [ɪə] Diagram*

      For example:
1. here [hɪə]
2. fear [fɪə]
3. dear [dɪə]

2. beard (brəd)

Diphthong [ɛə]

Diphthong [ɛə] is a low front-centering diphthong. The tongue starts from an open vowel position, slightly higher than the position for the English [æ] vowel sound as found in the word „man“; then it glides away in the direction of the central vowel [ə]. The lips are either spread or neutral during the glide. The lower jaw is clearly felt to be slightly moving upward.

![Diagram of Diphthong ɛə]

*Figure 2.3: Diphthong [ɛə] Diagram*

For example:

1. hair [hɛə]
2. pair [pɛə]
3. bare [bɛə]
4. rare [rɛə]

3. Diphthong [ʊə]
Diphthong [ʊə] is a high back centering diphthong. The tongue starts from the English vowel [ʊ] position such as found in the word „good‟, and not from the closer [uː]; then, it glides away in the direction of the central vowel [ə]. The lips are rounded for the first element, and are then drawn back to neutral position during the glide.

For example:
1. sure [ʃʊə]
2. tour [tʊə]
3. cure [kjʊə]
4. pure [pʊə]
b. *English closing diphthong*

1. *Diphthong [ɛɪ]*

Diphthong [ɛɪ] is when the tongue starts from the position for the vowel [e], a front vowel which is a little lower than the half close position. Then, the tongue moves in the direction of the vowel position of [ɪ], which is a little above the half close position, though it is not necessarily reached.

![Diagram of Diphthong ɛɪ](image)

*Figure 2.5: Diphthong [ɛɪ] Diagram*

Example:

raid [reɪd]
pain [peɪn]
fail [feɪl]
tail [teɪl]
2. *Diphthong [ai]*

Diphthong [ai] is a front-front closing full diphthong. First, the front of the tongue is very slightly raised for the first element of the diphthong [ai], which is a front vowel with a position in between [æ] and [aː]. Then, the tongue moves to a closer position as if to produce [ɪ] vowel sound, though this position is normally not reached (ai become æ). The lips are apart and gradually closing.

*Figure 2.6: Diphthong [ai] Diagram*

For example:

- mine [maɪn]
- file [faɪl]
- rice [raɪs]
- lime [laɪm]
3. **Diphthong [ɔɪ]**

Diphthong [ɔɪ] is a back-front closing full diphthong. First, the back of the tongue is raised to a point midway between [ɔ] and [ɔː]. Then the front tongue is gradually raised in the direction of [ɪ], though in practice, it is never reached; [ɔɪ] sounds more or less like [ɔe]. The lips are rounded for the first element of the diphthong and gradually spread.

![Diagram of Diphthong [ɔɪ]](image)

Figure 2.7: *Diphthong [ɔɪ] Diagram*

For example:

1. soil [sɔɪl]
2. coil [kɔɪl]
3. point [pɔɪnt]
4. coin [kɔɪn]
4. *Diphthong [ʊo]*

Diphthong [ʊo]. For the beginning, some part of the tongue between the back and the center is raised to a point between half-close and half open position. Then, the tongue moves to a closer position in the direction of [ʊ], a back centralized vowel, which is a little above the half-close position. (Titi wakhyukti : 52)

![Diphthong Diagram](image)

*Figure 2.8: Diphthong [ʊo] Diagram*

For example:
- code [kʊd]
- coat [kʊt]
- coast [kʊst]
- tone [toʊn]
5. *Diphthong [au]*

Diphthong [a] is a front-back closing full diphthong. First, the front part of the back (central part) of the tongue is slightly raised for the first element of the diphthong [aʊ]. This vowel is more backed than the first element of the diphthong [aɪ]. Then, the tongue moves in a direction of [ʊ], though it never reaches it ([aʊ] become [ao]). The lips start at the neutral position, and gradually rounded.

![Diagram of Diphthong [au]](image)

Figure 2.9 : *Diphthong [au] Diagram*

For example:

sow [saʊ]

found [faʊnd]

foul [faʊl]

now [naʊ]
C. Error

1. Definition of Error

According to Hornby, error is something done wrong or condition of being wrong in beliefs or conduct. The term error also means the faulty side of learners’ speech or writing. Error in speech or writing as second or foreign language learners is regards as showing faulty or incomplete learning. Error is different from mistakes. Therefore, it is crucial to make a distinction between them in order to analyze learners’ language in proper perspective.

Error is deviation from student structure since the learners has not completely mastered the rules of the language they learned. He also states that the mistakes are structural deviation, which occurs because the learners cannot determine the choice of expression in proper accordance the situation. A mistake refers to a performance error that is either a random guess or a ‘slip’, in that it is a failure to utilize a known system correctly. An error is a noticeable deviation from the adult grammar or nature speaker, reflecting the inter language competence of the learner.

2. Differences between Error and Mistake

In learning a language, students sometimes make a mistake or error. This errors or mistakes are naturally happened because the learners learn the foreign language which is different from their mother tongue or their first language.

It is important to differentiate errors from mistakes. Mistakes are frequently made by the students. However, they are generally able to correct themselves quickly. Such mistakes include slips of the tongue and random ungrammatical formations.
On the other hand, errors are systematic in that they occur repeatedly and are not recognizable by the learner. The learner does not generally consider them as errors. They are *errors* only from the perspective of teachers' and others who are aware of it. That is, mistakes can be self-corrected with or without being pointed out to the speaker but errors cannot be self-corrected.

Table 2.1.
Table of differences between error and mistake

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Mistake</th>
<th>Error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Duration</td>
<td>It is not permanent</td>
<td>It is permanent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linguistic system</td>
<td>The learner has understood the language system</td>
<td>The learner has not understood the language system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improvement method</td>
<td>It is corrected by the learners</td>
<td>It is not corrected by the learners, but by teacher through</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. Previous research

Some researchers have conducted research that deals with pronunciation. One of the studies is done by phonetic research is conducted by Nugroho & Cahyono (2011), Their research deals with EFL or English as a Foreign Language learners. It aims to investigate the error in the pronunciation consonants made by EFL and
possible explanations of these errors. The focus of this research is limited amount of previous research on pronunciation errors made by EFL. The finding of this research these language segmental errors are largely limited to final stops [p], [b], [t], [d], [k], [g], final sibilants [s], [z], [iz] initial and final affricates [ʒ], [ʃ] and interdentals [θ] or [ð]. The most common error the students made is that the students usually imitate their native language in pronouncing the words, such as when producing the word three the students commonly pronounced [tri:].

The research of error pronunciation is also conducted by Tiono & Yostanto (2008) as cited in Hambalee Jehma1 & Supakorn Phoocharoensil journal. The researchers deals with the kinds of English phonological errors produced by English department students, particularly English consonantal sounds that do not exist in Indonesian phonetics system [v], [θ], [ð], [ʒ], [dʒ], and [tʃ] and the patterns of those errors. The result shows that the students produced thirty-four kinds of phonological errors and that the deviations occurred most frequently before, after, or in between vowels.

Unlike the previous research which has been conducted, the researcher will focus only on which English diphthongs that are pronounced incorrectly by students of Muhammadiyah University of Purwokerto. This research took the sixth students of Muhammadiyah University of Purwokerto as the subject of the research while the previous research took different subjects.