Original Article

A Brief Study of Developing Pronunciation Competence while Learning English as Second Language

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Abstract: *Understanding English pronunciation is a difficult task for regional people. This research mainly focuses on how the regional people mispronounce most of the commonly used words, how teachers teach pronunciation using various methods, and how Noam Chomsky's pronunciation and Dell Hyme's communicative competence play a major role in pronunciation. It also focuses the articulatory linguistics for a better understanding of pronunciation. This research has a list of commonly mispronounced words. The last chapter has remedial measures and oral drills for students and teachers for perfect pronunciation.*

Keywords: *Pronunciation, Linguistics, Competence, English Language Teaching.*

I. INTRODUCTION

Pronunciation of the English Language is a difficult skill to learn, and students should spend a significant amount of time improving pronunciation. (Aliaga Garcia, 2007; Martinez-Flor et al., 2006; Pourhosein Gilakjani, 2016). Clear pronunciation is the most crucial language training component and a fundamental prerequisite for learners' competence. While poor pronunciation makes learning a language much more difficult, good pronunciation encourages learning. (Pourhosein Gilakjani, 2012). Due to Fraser (2000), teachers might have access to training schemes and resources to improve their pronunciation lessons. She went on to say that second language education research should focus on articulation teaching methods rather than the importance of teaching English pronunciation.

Morley [1991] claims that knowing how to pronounce is one of the primary goals of pronunciation education. It is an essential part of effective communication. Students work on their functional communicability, functional intelligibility, higher self, speech monitoring abilities, and speech goals and procedures, according to Morley (1991). The author discusses the goal of English pronunciation teaching, defines the term "pronunciation," and discusses its significance in this article. The aim of teaching pronunciation is not to have students pronounce it as native speakers. Instead, clear articulation would be the foremost aim of oral communication. Students should alter how they perceive the sounds of English words if they wish to change how they pronounce them. Both individual sounds and more significant speech components like syllables, stress patterns, and rhythm fall under this category. Unfortunately, in English language classes, pronunciation instruction is not often adhered to (Pourhosein Gilakjani, 2011; Pourhosein Gilakjani, 2016). In the study, the researcher explores how teachers teach pronunciation, defines the term, and offers some recommendations on how to attempt to teach English pronunciation.

A. Applied Linguistics:

Applied linguistics looks at how linguistics may help us grasp the real issues that exist in the disciplines of psychology and education. It is comparable to linguistic theory, which seeks to look into things like morphology, phonology, and lexis. Language teachers are interested in the fields of applied linguistics, such as corpus studies, sociolinguistics, and language acquisition.

B. In Classroom:

The ELT classroom benefits from research in applied linguistics on subjects including bilingualism, dialogue, discourse analysis, sociolinguistics, language assessment, and language education. Realistic concerns with language in social interaction are the focus of applied linguistics. The most significant of these is learning a second or foreign language. The preservation and revitalisation of minority languages, language education, language policy, linguistic variation, and the evaluation and treatment of language disorders are a few more. The field of linguistics and applied linguistics offers many opportunities for creative work in a demanding and interesting environment.

II. HISTORY OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

More than any other topic of study, the English Language Teaching culture has significantly changed, especially in the 20th century. While the teaching of math or physics, the approach, has largely remained the same, it is rarely the case with English or language. This culture has been practised in language classes worldwide for centuries, with significant variations. This short essay will show that there have been some key turning points in the development of this tradition, which we will quickly discuss to support our choice and use of the top strategies and approaches for language instruction.

The Classical Method:

Learning another language in the 17th, 18th, and 19th centuries was associated with studying Latin and Greek, which were believed to increase the intellectual capability of their speakers. Grammar norms, syntactic frameworks, rote vocabulary memorising, and literary translation were all crucial at the time. Since oral communication was not possible in the studied languages, Latin and Greek were being taught to make speakers appear "scholarly" or "erudite" than for actual verbal conversation. The Classical Method, later known as Grammar Translation Method, provided little more than an understanding of grammatical rules.

The grammar-translation technique is a widely accepted and one of the most widely used and successful approaches to teaching languages. It has a long history and has been resistant to educational reform, but it is still the de facto standard. In hindsight, it has made a depressingly small contribution to language learning since it has turned the emphasis away from the real language and toward a "dissected body" of nouns, adjectives, and prepositions, doing nothing to improve a student's communication abilities in the foreign language.

A. Gouin and Berlitz : The Direct Method

A new era began throughout the latter two decades of the nineteenth century. In The Art of Learning and Studying Foreign Languages (1880), Francois Gouin recalls his "harrowing" experiences learning German, providing insight into language instruction and learning challenges. He spent a year in Hamburg trying to learn the language by memorising a German grammar book and a list of the 248 irregular German verbs rather than interacting with the locals. He hurried to university to take the test, rejoicing in the security his grasp of German grammar offered. The concept of a world was incomprehensible to him. He decided to memorise the German roots in response to his failure, but he was ineffective. He even tried memorising literature, translating Goethe and Schiller, and learning 30,000 words from a dictionary, but he was unsuccessful. Gouin learned that his three-year-old nephew had turned into a chatterbox of French when he returned to France, making him think the child might have the key to learning a language. He has resulted that language learning is a process of turning senses into conceptions and then using language to represent these concepts as a result of observations of his nephew. He used this information to create a teaching strategy based on these perceptions. In this light, the series Method was created, which directly taught students a "series" of comprehensible linked phrases.

As an example,
"I stretch out my arm. I take hold of the handle. I turn the handle. I open the door. I pull the door."
- However, this approach to language learning was only used for a generation before Charles Berlitz's direct method took its place. Berlitz believed that learning a second language is akin to learning a first language. In this situation, there should be much oral engagement, spontaneous language use, no translation, and hardly any study of the syntactic and grammatical structures. The Direct Method's guiding ideas were, in brief:
- The target language was used for classroom instruction.
- Grammar was approached inductively.
- Only common vocabulary was instructed.
- Images and objects were used to teach concrete language, while concept association was educated in abstract vocabulary.

The Direct method was popular in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, but it was difficult to implement due to budget, time, classroom issues, and requests. This method, however, has been revived after a period of decline, giving rise to the Audio-lingual Method.

B. Audio Lingual Method:
- The Audio-lingual methodology was introduced using psychological and language theory, and one of its principles is a scientifically descriptive analysis of various languages. The pattern practises of the audio-lingual method were combined with the conditioning and habit-form action learning models proposed by behaviouristic

physiologists. The method's characteristics are summarised below.
- Dependence on mimicry and memorisation of predetermined phrases
- Repetitive drills are used to teach structural patterns.
- There is no grammatical explanation.
- Tapes and visual aids are used.
- Concentrate on pronunciation.
- Correct responses are immediately reinforced.

C. Concept of Langue and Parole:

"Langue and parole," according to Saussure, are two language components. The term "langue" refers to the rules and norms that govern sound combinations, word and sentence formation, pronunciation, and meaning. All of these conventions are the result of social agreement and contain langue. That is, native speakers of a language have similar sounds, words, and meanings, implying that they have similar images and signs in their heads. Saussure[1916] believes. Considering the number of word images kept in each person's brain, we could study the social link that language reflects. It is a grammar that, via the active use of those members in a given group, can exist across every brain, or more specifically, in the brains of a set of people. After all, language cannot exist completely in a single speaker; it does so collectively.

It means that:
- Langue is social, with rules that all language speakers follow.
- Langue is abstract because these specialised conventions exist only in speakers' minds, who are members of the society that created the language.
- Parole, on the other hand, is a personal choice. When the norms that exist in the mind as langue are used in a concrete form in actual speech or writing, they are referred to as instances of parole. A single speaker or writer's actual sounds and sentences are called parole. It is a physical manifestation of the mind's abstract language. We hear sounds and sentences when we hear someone speaking a language we don't understand. So langue is the underlying system that gives meaning to individual performances or parole. Without it, parole would never be understood and would be rendered ineffective as a means of communication.

Thus, parole is:
- The use of language by an individual in speech or writing.
- Concrete and physical. Emitting words and phrases use physiological mechanisms, such as the speech organs.

Thus, langue exists in each individual's mind in the form of word images and conventional knowledge, that is, as an abstract from the language's grammar and dictionary. Individuals use this knowledge in their unique way to generate actual sentences, such as parole. Individuals can communicate with one another because they speak the same language, but their sentences differ. Their sentence production (parole) is defined as variable, unpredictable, diverse, inventive, and delightful, but to communicate, it must still adhere to the stable conventions of langue. The language system is called langue, whereas language behaviour is called parole.

According to Saussure (1916), language is the legislative side of language or language law. As the law, langue maintains social order and language homogeneity and is relatively enduring, i.e., it does not change individuals. Parole is the executive side of it s ends. Langue is executed through individual acts of speaking and writing. Another useful analogy between langue and parole is that of a chess game. All players know and understand the game's rules, but each game is unique and depends on individual performance, which varies from player to player. We can only study langue, not parole, according to Saussure, because langue is a clearly defined, homogeneous thing, as opposed to the heterogeneous, unexpectedly large mass of speech acts. Langue comprises commonly accepted signs saved in mind as psychological associations. These signs can be analysed when they are converted into regular written symbols. Individual speaking acts, however, are incorrectly described and too diverse to study. As a result, only langue, rather than parole, makes sense as a research topic.

D. Noam Chomsky's Concept of Competence and Performance:

Chomsky defines performance as the creation of actual sentences used in everyday life, whereas competence is the native language speaker's knowledge of the vocabulary and skills in the rule system. Thus, linguistic performance is related to how a speaker uses the vocabulary, whereas linguistic competence refers to his understanding of the structure of the language. What a speaker does i s referred to as efficiency, whereas competence refers to a set of principles that a speaker must recognise. The former refers to a specific code, whereas the latter specifies the encoding or decoding process. In

another way, competence is the internal or abstract grammar that allows the speaker to create and master any number of claims. Errors in memory, concentration, and other areas have little impact on competence but frequently show up in performance. In contrast to the difficult task of collecting a direct, coherent performance record, competence is wonderful since it gives a coherent image of the language and may be explored.

Chomsky's understanding of competence vs performance and Saussure's difference between langue and parole are comparable. Because langue is the same for all language users, proficiency varies from person to person. Saussure's definition focuses primarily on language's core social function, whereas Chomsky's idea focuses on psychology and believes people are unique. Because of this, even when two speakers apply the same linguistic rules, speaker A may be more proficient than speaker B. According to Chomsky, learning a language is a tool that people use to become competent or to internalise the system of linguistic norms, which enables them to create an infinite number of sentences. As a result, A would perform differently than B.

These distinctions have been the subject of debate in recent years. Some sociolinguists contend that these distinctions are artificial because language and parole are intrinsically related and interconnected. Just as parole is impossible or useless without it, it gradually changes a person's language. According to Saussure(1916), speech has both an individual and a communal side, and one cannot imagine the other without the other. According to sociolinguists, parole can be studied because it deals with language use in social contexts, which impacts langue. We cannot exclude parole or performance from our language study because it provides useful insight into language processes and has some advantages. The distinction is still useful, however, because it allows us to understand the two aspects of language and delve deeper into each.

E. Dell Hymes' Communicative Competence:
A language user's grammatical knowledge of syntax, morphology, phonology, and associated concepts, and their social awareness of how and when to use words correctly, are described in linguistics as language proficiency. In response to Noam Chomsky's (1965) difference between linguistic competencies and performance, Dell Hymes coined the word in 1966. Hymes undertook anthropological research on language proficiency, which included communicative form and function in mutual relationships, in reaction to Chomsky's abstract idea of competence. Hymes created communicative ethnography.

One of the philosophies that informs the communicative method of teaching different languages is the concept of communicative competency. There are three primary models in total. Canale and Swain created the first and most famous models, and a later model by Canale (1995), which saw the creation of a second model by Cele-Murcia, Dornyei, and Thurrell, precisely defines sociocultural content. Linguistics, technique, socio-culture, behavior, and vocabulary knowledge were formerly identified as components of effective communication. Bachman and Palmer's paradigm is a third that is frequently used in federal language instruction in Canada. The study of speech acts and the fields of pragmatics and linguistic philosophy have all impacted our understanding of communicative competence.

F. Articulatory Phonetics:
An articulatory phonetics branch examines the development and pronunciation of natural voices. According to articulatory phoneticians, several physiological mechanisms combine to form speech sounds in people. In articulatory phonetics, aerodynamic energy is often transformed into sonic energy. Airflow via the vocal tract is referred to as aerodynamic energy. While actual dynamic air movement takes the form of kinetic energy, air pressure is its potential form. Acoustic energy, which the human auditory system interprets as sound, is a change in the air force represented by sound waves.

The act of exhaling causes the sound to be produced. To change the audio level in a way that helps speak, two speech organs normally move an obstruction that shapes the air in a certain way. The articulation takes place at the point of greatest blockage, and the method of articulation influences how the intervention forms and relaxes.

a) Organs of Speech:
Speech organs are the various organs that play a part in creating speech sounds. Studies on speech organs help identify how each organ relates to the creation of speech sounds. Some of them are the articulators, vocal cords, and, mostly, the lungs.

b) The Lungs:

The lungs provide the force of airflow. Lungs are spongy respiratory organs located in the rib cage. It expands and contracts when breathing in and out. The force in the airflow depends on the level of air that is stored in the lungs.

c) The Larynx & Vocal Folds:

The larynx is another name for the voice box. It is in box-shaped form forward to the throat and is called "Adam's apple." The trachea and vocal cords are protected. The vocal folds look like a pair of horizontally placed lips from front to back. They are connected in front and separated in the back. The area between the connection is known as the glottis. The glottis will open when the folds are separated; when they are pressed together, it is closed.

d) The Articulators:

Articulators changes sound into speech that ia understandable. It might be either passive or active in style. It includes the pharynx, teeth, alveolar ridge behind them, the hard palatal and the softer velum behind it, the lips and tongue, the nose, and cavities. Changing airflow through the use of various articulators is known as articulation. The articulation structures are the articulators.

(i) A tube called the pharynx begins above the larynx. It is divided into two sections at the top end, one for the back of the mouth and the other for the beginning of the route into the nasal cavity, and is around 7 cm long in women and 8 cm long in men.

(ii) The mouth's roof is considered an important speech organ. There are three sections to it.
   - The upper front teeth are followed by the alveolar ridge, often known as the teeth ridge. Alveolar sounds are made when the convex region of the body is touched.
   - The concave portion of the roof of the mouth is known as Hard Palate. The location is at the centre of the roof.
   - The lower portion of the mouth's roof is known as the Velum or Soft Palate. It might be elevated or lowered. When the lings are depressed, their air stream may enter the nasal cavity. When it is elevated, the entry to the nasal cavity is blocked. Velar sounds occur when the back of the tongue makes contact with the area and creates sound.

(iii) The lips are also crucial to proper articulation. They may be forced against one other or the teeth. Consonant sounds called bilabial sounds are produced by bringing two lips together. Labio-dental sounds, on the other hand, are those made when the lips and teeth make contact. The capacity of the lips to change form and location is another crucial characteristic. Thus, lip-rounding is a crucial factor in defining vowel sounds. There is no wrong way to position the lips.
   - Rounded: Our lips can be rounded, drawing the corners of the lips together, and moving the lips forward when we pronounce a vowel. The resultant vowel is rounded in this location.
   - Lips: The lips can be spread. The lips are moved away from each other in this position. The vowel we pronounce from this location is unrounded.
   - Neutral: When the lips are not overly rounded or spread out, they can once more be in the neutral position. In this context, the articulated vowel is sometimes referred to as an unrounded vowel.

(iv) Teeth are also incredibly helpful for creating various speaking sounds. Dental noises are produced when the tongue comes into touch with the teeth.

(v) The tongue is divided into four parts:
   - The tip: The end of the tongue.
   - The blade: The opposite of the alveolar ridge.
   - The front: The opposite of the hard palate.
   - The back: The opposite of the soft palate or velum.

G. Manner of Articulation:

a) Stops/Plosives:

A plosive consonant entirely stops the mouth from exhaling. /t/, /d/, and /n/, accordingly. The airflow is stopped when the tongue tip touches the alveolar ridge. Nasal stops are /n/. oral stops /t/ /d/ .

b) Fricative:

The tongue tip almost touches the alveolar ridge in the sound /s/ but falls short. The aperture is still large enough to

allow circulation to proceed, but it is so small that the escaping air becomes turbulent. In the restriction technique, the articulators combine near enough to create a turbulent airstream in a fricative consonant. English has the following fricatives: /▯/, /▯/, /▯/, /▯/, /▯/, /▯/, /▯/, /▯/.

c) Approximants:

The articulators involved in the constriction are further apart in an approximant than in a fricative. The vocal tract is still farther apart than in its neutral position, but the articulators are too far apart for turbulent air to travel between them. English equivalents include /▯/, /▯/, /▯/ and /▯/. The sound /▯/ is produced by two simultaneous vocal tract constrictions. Lip rounding, also known as a bilabial approximation, considers it.

d) Affricates:

The affricates are single sounds with a stop and a fricative component. The airflow in English /▯/ is first interrupted by a stop, which is very similar to /▯/. The tongue gradually pulls away from the stop rather than swiftly finishing the articulation and moving on to the next sound. It results in a brief window of time after the stop when the constriction is too small to prevent an airstream from becoming turbulent. This same turbulent airstream period following the stop portion in /▯/ is the same as the fricative /▯/. English /▯/ is a voiced affricate similar to /▯/

e) Laterals:

The only lateral in English is /▯/. Like most other languages, English's additional sounds play an important role. It is more precise to say that /▯/ is a lateral approximant. Because of the width of the gap at the side of the tongue, no turbulent air is allowed to pass through.

f) Place of Articulation:

The location of a consonant's articulation reveals where the vocal tract narrows. From front to back, the articulation points used in English are:

(i) Bilabial:

The lower and upper lips move toward or touch each other in bilabial consonants. English bilabial stops are /▯/, /▯/, and /▯/.

(ii) Labiodental:

A labiodental consonant occurs when the lower lip comes close to the upper teeth. /▯/ and /▯/ are bilabial fricatives in English.

(iii) Dental:

The tongue's tip or blade touches the upper teeth when making a dental consonant. Both the /▯/ and /▯/ in English are dental fricatives.

(iv) *Alveolar:*

During an alveolar consonant, the tongue tip moves toward the alveolar ridge, this is the ridge directly behind the upper teeth. At this point of articulation, the airflow is blocked to produce the English stops /▯/, /▯/, and /▯/. The lateral approximant (/▯/) and the fricatives (/▯/ and /▯/) are likewise articulating here.

(v) Post alveolar:

A post-alveolar consonant forms a constriction directly behind the alveolar ridge. The blade or tip of the tongue can be used to restrict. At this point of articulation, the English fricatives /▯/ and /▯/ are produced, together with their matching affricates /▯/ and /▯/.

(vi) Retroflex:

The tip of the tongue is curved back to the mouth in a retroflex consonant. The retroflex approximant in English is /▯/.

(vii) Palatal:

The body of the tongue contacts the hard palate during palatal consonants. English's palatal approximant is /▯/.

(viii) Velar:

The body of the tongue contacts with the velum, or soft palate, when making a velar consonant. Velar sounds are /◌/, /◌/, and /◌/ in English.

(ix) Glottal:

The gap between vocal folds is known as the glottis. This aperture is sufficiently small in /◌/ to cause considerable turbulence in the airstream through the vocal folds. The sound /◌/ is frequently categorised as a glottal fricative

H. Acoustic Phonetics:

Acoustic characteristics of speech sounds focus on the phonetics subfield known as Acoustic Phonetics. Acoustic phonetics examines abstract linguistic concepts like phonemes, phrases, and utterances, time domain features like a waveform's mean squared amplitude and duration, and fundamental frequency domain features like the frequency spectrum or even combined Spectro temporal features of phonetics.

The development of the Edison phonograph significantly aided the study of acoustic phonetics in the late 19th century. Voice signals could be recorded using a phonograph and then processed and analysed. The same speech signal from the phonograph could be substituted multiple times and screened with a different band-pass filter to produce a spectrogram of the voice utterance. The term "format" was first used in a series of articles by Ludinar Hermann that were issued in Pflinger's collection during the latter two decades of the nineteenth century. . This research used the Edison phonograph to investigate the spectral characteristics of vowels and consonants. Hermann also re- played vowel recordings produced using the Edison phonograph at various speeds.

The phone industry's expansion made additional advancements in acoustic phonetics possible. Research conducted at the Bell Telephone Laboratories during World War II greatly benefited the systematic study of the spectral properties of periodic and aperiodic speech sounds, vocal tract resonant frequency and vowel shapes, sound quality, prosody, and other factors.

Theoretically, speech acoustics can be modelled in a way that is analogous to electrical circuits. Lord Rayleigh was the first to realise the new electric theory could be used to study acoustics. Still, Chiba and Kajiyama's 1941 book "The Vowel: Its Nature and Structure" was the first to apply the circuit model successfully. 1952 publication of "Preliminaries to Speech Analysis" by Roman Jakobson, Gunnar Fant, and Morris Halle is a landmark study that connects acoustic phonetics with phonological theory. Following this small book was Fant's "Acoustic Theory of Speech Production" in 1960, which has continued to serve as the principal theoretical framework for speech acoustic research in academia and industry. Osamu Fujimura, Peter Ladefoged, and Kenneth N. Stevens, the author of "Acoustic Phonetics," are important additional originators of the area.

I. The Vowels in English:

The portion of the mouth above the tongue, known as the upper vocal tract, can change shape to produce a vowel, a particular speaking sound. It's critical to comprehend the distinction between an alphabet [letter] and an English vowel sound. There are five vowel letters in the English alphabet. The English alphabet's vowels and consonants are a substitute for the sounds of the language. Vowel letters are used to create every word in English.

In English, these are vowel letters: A, E, I, O, U, and sometimes Y. Because the letter 'Y' represents both vowel and consonant sounds, it is said to be "sometimes" a vowel. The vowel sound /◌/ is represented by the words cry, sky, fly, my, and why, and the letter 'Y.' 'Y' represents the vowel sound /◌/ in words like myth and synchronise. 'Y' represents the vowel sound /◌/ in words like only, quickly, and folly. It can also be a glide, a consonant sound found at starting words like yellow, yacht, yam, and yesterday. About 2.75 percent of the time, the letter "Y" is a consonant, and the remaining 97.5 percent is a vowel.

Sometimes the letter "W" is the second component of the vowel sound in words like "cow," "bow," or "how." The vowel in these words has the sound /◌/. When, where, and wet words start with the letter "W" as a consonant sound. The vowel sound /◌/ is represented by the letter "W" in several languages, such as Welsh.

a) Vowel sounds in English:

   (i) There is no restriction on the airstream when pronouncing vowels. Vowels are frequently employed as the bases of syllables.

(ii) Variations in oral shape result in various vowel kinds. The tongue and lips bring on these modifications.

(iii) Lifting or lowering the tongue's body concerning the palate, which is the roof of the mouth.

(iv) Moving the tongue's body forward, away from the teeth, or backward, toward the throat. Back or front.

(v) Whether to round or not to round the lips.

(vi) Making these motions while tight or relaxed with the tongue or lips.

b) Cardinal Vowels:

      A group of vowel sounds is utilised as a common framework for describing and classifying vowel sounds across all languages. There are 12 vowel sounds in the English language. Each vowel is explained about –

(i) The part of the tongue is raised.

(ii) Height from the palate.

(iii) The shape of the lips (rounded/unrounded)

c) The Pure Vowel Sounds:

      Single vowel sounds are "pure" to be distinguished from diphthongs. Based on how they are articulated, the sounds have been categorised as the standard lip position used to define how vowel sounds are spoken. There are three lip positions: rounded, wide, and neutral.

d) Diphthongs:

      Another name for "diphthongs" is "vowel glides." Vocal organs fill in for another vowel left unfinished when they turn a diphthong into a vowel before finishing its position. For instance, the vowel glide /□/ is created when the vowel /□/ is immediately followed by the vowel /□/. As many as twenty different vowel sounds are called by the five vowel letters (a, e, i, o, u). Eight are classified as diphthongs, and twelve as "Pure vowels." In English, the letters /aɪ/ /eɪ/ /əʊ/ /aʊ/ /eə/ /ɪə/ and /ɔɪ/ are diphthongs.

e) Three-term label for pure vowels in English:

(i) Short vowels

- /□/ centralised front unrounded vowel just below half-close.
- /□/ Front unrounded vowel between half-close and half-open.
- /□/ Front open unrounded vowel.
- /□/ Central unrounded vowel just above open.
- /□/ Back open rounded vowel.
- /□/ Back rounded vowel just above half-closed.
- /□/ Central unrounded vowel just below half-open. Long vowels
- /□/ Front close unrounded vowel.
- /□/ Back open unrounded vowel.
- /□/ Back rounded vowel between half-close and half-open.
- /□/ Back close rounded vowel.
- /□/ Central unrounded vowel between half-close and half-open (long).

(ii) Three-term label for diphthongs or Glide vowels:

- /□/ A glide from a front unrounded vowel between half-open and half-close to a front unrounded vowel between close and half-close.
- /□/ A glide from a front open unrounded vowel to a front unrounded vowel between close and half-close.
- /□/ A glide from a rounded back vowel between open and half-open to a front unrounded vowel between close and half-close.
- /□/ A glide from a central unrounded vowel between half-close and half-open to a back rounded vowel between close and half- close.
- /□/ A glide from a back-open unrounded vowel to a back-rounded vowel between close and half-close.
- /□/ A glide from a front unrounded vowel between close and half-close to a central unrounded vowel between half-close and half- open.
- /□/ A glide from a front half-open unrounded vowel to a central unrounded vowel between half-close and half- open.
- /□/ A glide from a back rounded vowel between close and half close to a central unrounded vowel between half-close and half- open.

J. The Consonants in English:

A consonant is a speech sound articulated with the full or partial closure of the vocal chords, according to articulatory phonetics. Consonants can be pronounced using the lips, the front and rear of the tongue, the throat, forcing air through a small opening (fricatives), and the nasals of the nose.

There are 24 consonant sounds and 21 consonant letters in the English language. Because there are significantly more possible sounds than letters in any given alphabet, linguists developed systems like the International Phonetics Alphabet (IPA) to give each documented consonant a distinct and unarguable symbol. Because the English alphabet has fewer consonant letters than consonant sounds, digraphs such as /◌/, /◌/, /◌/, /◌/ are employed to increase the alphabet's length, while some letters and diagraphs serve to represent several consonants. For example, the /◌/ sound in "this" is a different consonant than the /◌/ sound in "thin."

a) Three-term label for Consonants:
1. /◌/ - Voiceless bilabial plosive.
2. /◌/ - Voiced bilabial plosive.
3. /◌/ - Voiceless alveolar plosive.
4. /◌/ - Voiced alveolar plosive.
5. /◌/ - Voiceless velar plosive.
6. /◌/ - Voiced velar plosive.
7. /◌/ - Voiceless palato-alveolar affricate.
8. /◌/ - Voiced palato-alveolar affricate.
9. /◌/ - Voiced bilabial nasal.
10. /◌/ - Voiced alveolar nasal.
11. /◌/ - Voiced velar nasal.
12. /◌/ - Voiceless labio-dental fricative.
13. /◌/ - Voiced labio-dental fricative.
14. /◌/ - Voiceless dental fricative.
15. /◌/ - Voiced dental fricative.
16. /◌/ - Voiceless alveolar fricative.
17. /◌/ - Voiced alveolar fricative.
18. /◌/ - Voiceless palato-alveolar fricative.
19. /◌/ - Voiced palato-alveolar fricative
20. /◌/ - Voiceless glottal fricative.
21. /◌/ - Voiced alveolar lateral.
22. /◌/ - Voiced post-alveolar frictionlesscontinuant.
23. /◌/ - Voiced palatal semi-vowel.
24. /◌/ - Voiced labial-velar semi-vowel.

III. COMMONLY MISPRONOUNCED WORDS IN ENGLISH

1. Abalone
2. Accessory
3. Aesthetic
4. Almond
5. Alumni
6. Asthma
7. Athlete
8. Automobile
9. Ballet
10. Bear
11. Beau
12. Bizarre
13. Boutique
14. Buffet
15. Bury
16. Cache
17. Chamois
18. Chaos
19. Chihuahua
20. Corps
21. Creature
22. Cucumber
23. Debris
24. Debut
25. Decimal
26. Demon
27. Deny
28. Detonate
29. Diffuse
30. Dilate
31. Divorce
32. Domestic
33. Doting
34. Draught
35. Echelon
36. Electoral
37. Eloquent
38. Epitome
39. Faux Pas
40. Femininity
41. Flautist
42. Gauge
43. Generic
44. Genre
45. Gigantic
46. Gratuitous
47. Gyroscope
48. Horizon
49. Hotel
50. Ignorance
51. Introduction

52. Itinerary	69. Official	86. Salmon
53. Jewellery	70. Onion	87. Silicon
54. Kerosene	71. Peasant	88. Statute
55. Lettuce	72. Physicist	89. Suite
56. Lieutenant	73. Pizza	90. Superintendent
57. Lingerie	74. Poem	91. Target
58. Magician	75. Poignant	92. Tomb
59. Memoir	76. Position	93. Tuition
60. Measure	77. Prejudice	94. Turquoise
61. Milieu	78. Prodigious	95. Viscount
62. Mischievous	79. Pseudonym	96. Venus
63. Monotony	80. Quinoa	97. Wednesday
64. Morgue	81. Quote	98. Xerox
65. Moustache	82. Radar	99. Xylophone
66. Nazi	83. Repetitive	100. Zion
67. Neglect	84. Respect	
68. Niche	85. Rhetoric	

A. Mother Tongue Interference:

One's native or parent language is referred to as their "mother tongue." (2015, mother tongue) Mother-tongue interference is the effect of a learner's native language on their acquisition of the target language. The language the learner hopes to acquire is called the target language. (Constrative analysis from 2015). While coaching English as a second language, interference from the mother tongue issues develops; the contrastive analysis aims to identify structural similarities and dissimilarities between the two languages. In the 1960s and the early 1970s, contrastive analysis was a common technique for illuminating why some aspects of a target language were more challenging to acquire than others. Mozlan (2015).

To understand the facets of learning a second language are simpler than others, contrastive analysis is applied. This approach is predicated on the idea that the more the learner's mother tongue and the target language diverge, the harder it will be for them to pick up certain structures or objects. (2015, constative analysis). The Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH) supposes that the degree of divergence between the learner's first and second languages can be used to determine or anticipate the difficulty of second language acquisition. There are some issues with this assumption. One problem is many of the mistakes students make when learning a second language are not predicted by this premise. This hypothesis makes predictions about interference errors that do not exist, which is another problem. (Eric, 2008). According to Lado's Linguistics across Cultures (1957), a student will find it simple to pick up target language words comparable to those in their native tongue.

Moreover, it will be harder for the learner to pick up on parts of the target language that differ from their native tongue. It is what the Contrastive Analysis hypothesis says. (Mozlan, 2015).
There are two versions of the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis: strong and weak. According to the strong version, the number of mistakes a target language student makes can be compared to the variation between learner 1 and learner 2. According to the weak person, the amount of interference a learner experiences affects the mistakes he or she makes when learning a target language. (2015) (Contrastive analysis hypothesis).

B. Raming False Analogies:

A faulty analogy is an informal fallacy. For inductive arguments, it holds. Because the mistake is with the argument's subject rather than the argument itself, it is an informal fallacy. An analogy suggests that two related concepts (A and B) connect to a certain property. X is a property of A. Hence X must also be a property of B. Even though the objects in a false analogy could resemble one another in some ways, it does not mean they are of the same size. It's common to use the phrase "comparing apples and oranges" when someone makes a false analogy or comparison.

C. Difficulty in Distinguishing Between Sounds:

A lot of individuals were having problems with the sounds /s/, /z/, /t/, /d/, /k/, /g/, /p/, and /b/. The same way and way of putting these sounds. The main distinction between /s/ and /z/ sounds is that /s/ lacks voice while /z/ has tone.

/t/ /d/, /k/ /g/, and /p/ /b/ sounds all have had the same case. The /k/ and /g/ sounds are the most frequently used substitutes for the /t/ and /d/ sounds. People who mistakenly make /k/ /d/ sounds for /t/ /d/ and other front sounds frequently struggle to lift their tongue tip or are unsure where to place their tongue to generate voiced and voiceless sounds. For instance, these terms can be difficult to pronounce for some people.

- Tip - Dip
- Paul - Ball
- Kid - Kit
- Could – Good

Individuals should practice these noises with and without vibration (voice and voiceless).

D. Problem with Vowels:

The study indicates that many folks have difficulty spelling short and long English vowels. Out of 900 entries, 483 had the correct pronunciation, with a mean score of 54. 79 short vowels were pronounced incorrectly, compared to 338 long vowels. Many folks made the typical error when pronouncing the word "food." Instead of pronouncing /fu:d/ some will say /fud/.

A long vowel makes the letter represents the sound. For instance, a long A sounds like the letter A. The long E sound is similar to the letter E. There are typically two ways that this happens. Placing two vowels next to one another is the first way to create a long vowel sound. The initial vowel in a word with two neighbouring vowels is typically long. Words like "bead," "seed," "mail," and "boat" fit this description. Pay attention to the long E sound in the word "bead" and the long A sound in the word "mail."

Placing an E at the end of a word produces a long vowel sound. An E at the end of a word causes a long vowel sound to be created. It can be seen in terms like "bake," "bike," "mote," and "mute." Remember that the words "bike" and "mute" have long I sounds and long U sounds, respectively.

E. False Imitation:

Plosive words are difficult for individuals to pronounce because of the /u/ sound added at the end. For instance, the word "book" is pronounced /bʊku/ rather than /bʊk/ while the word "note" is pronounced /nəʊtu/ rather than /nəʊt/. People should practice pronouncing plosive words by doing so correctly.

F. Remedial Measures:

Analysis of pronunciation errors

a) Error type 1: The Sound /ə/ It is a problem that affects all students, regardless of background, not only Indian students. For instance, the term has three /ə/ sounds, two of which are represented by the letter [a], which caused the students to pronounce the word as /A/. It impacts English's rhythm and intonation. The International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) should be taught by pronunciation teachers so that students may use it to recognise the /ə/ sounds in words. The children would quickly grasp that the /ə/ sound is frequent and merits additional attention.

b) Error type 2: Indian students mistakenly pronounce the long vowel /ɔ/ as the sound /ɒ/. The tongue descends too low due to the jaw opening wider than it should, and the remaining lips sort of idle rather than going to the front in a square shape. For instance, order, birth, sword, etc. Here, the attention should be on the forward-moving, square-shaped lips with a slightly open jaw. Now, this is not seen as a serious mistake because in American English, the vowel /ɔ/ is frequently sounded as /ɒ/ except when it is followed by a /r/.

c) Error type 3: The sound /ɪ/. It is a typical issue among English language learners, especially Thai, Vietnamese, Chinese, and Indians. The learners must move their tongues easily from one position to another to correctly pronounce the vowel / ɪ/. The tongue glides from a close-mid position/ə towards a close position with the sound /ɪ/. Like many others, Indian students have difficulties performing the glide and shifting the angle of their tongue while articulating the vowel /ɪ/.

d) Error type 4: The sounds /ʊ/. This vowel is categorised as a diphthong, like /ə/. It requires the students to simultaneously create the vowel /ə/ or /ɒ/ and the consonant /ʊ/ Indian speakers omit the consonant /ʊ/ and only pronounce the vowel /ə/. For instance, wrote, displayed, and a boat. After the sound, their lips should form a tight circle, but instead, they remain motionless.

e) Error type 5: The sound /w/ is frequently confused with /v/ for /ʋ/ by Indian learners, especially when it comes before vowels like /ʊ/, /ə/, /ʊ/ or /ɒ/. For instance, women, the womb, etc. Once more, the consonant /w/ calls for both lips to advance in a tight circle, and when they don't, and the lower lip unintentionally contacts the upper teeth, the result

is a sound that resembles /◌/.

f) Error type 6: De-voicing and voicing. Indian learners, like Arabic speakers, mispronounce /◌/ at the beginning of words by voicing it as /◌/. For instance, past, pardon peel, and so on. They mispronounce /◌/ at the end of the words by de-voicing it as a /◌/, which is ironic. For instance, rob, forbe, bulb, and so on. Similarly, at the beginning of words, /◌/ and /◌/ may sound like /◌/ and /◌/, respectively. For instance, time, height, karma, character, etc.

g) Error type 7: The sounds /◌/ and /◌/) require speakers to place at the tip of the tongue between teeth to let the air pass through a short gap between the tongue and teeth, but Indian English learners seem to find this difficult to manage. Consider the words father, mother, and so on. Then they keep the tongue inside and press the tip of the tongue against teeth, resulting in /◌/ instead of /◌/ and /◌/ instead of /◌/.

h) Error type 8: The sounds /◌/ and /◌/ . That is not a common issue for Indian learners, who may mistake /◌/ for either /◌/ or /◌/ or /◌/ and /◌/ For /◌/.It is determined by what comes before or after /◌/ and /◌/. Because the tongue tip is often curled back in Hindi when producing consonants, it makes contact with the soft palate, resulting in /◌/ instead of /◌/ and /◌/ instead of /◌/. For instance, hazard, zebra, reservation, sue, soon, suit, etc. The /◌/ and /◌/ in English require that the tip make interact with alveolar ridge just behind the upper teeth, that explains the confusion between the /◌/ and /◌/ or /◌/ and /◌/ or /◌/.

i) Error type 9: The sound /◌/. The /◌/sound in English is very distinct because of the tongue tip's curl, as I said before. When speaking English, the tongue's body is low, and just the tip rests against the alveolar ridge; air escapes readily via the space between the tongue's sides and the upper teeth. For instance, love, falling, etc.

j) Error type 10: The sound /◌/. The tongue tip cannot connect with the upper jaw when speaking American English. The root of the tongue slides back and upward when its sides touch the gum above the upper teeth. Think of a road, park, etc. At the same time that the lips move, the tongue tip curls back. On the other hand, the British /◌/ always sounds quiet after syllables and between a vowel and a consonant. The silent /◌/ is frequently pronounced by Indian students.

k) Error type 11: The sounds /◌/ and /◌/. Voiced and voiceless consonants, such as /◌/ and /◌/., take on a different quality due to the tongue tip being curled back. For instance, better times and parties. The tongue tip is pressed against the alveolar ridge to create the English consonants /◌/ and /◌/, like many others.

IV. CONCLUSION

These are all pronunciation issues that we run into daily. We may perfect our pronunciation and prevent these mistakes by performing a few corrective exercises.

Oral drill: The technique of drilling is repeating oral patterns and insights. Oral drills have been used in several ways, altering how this method was used moving forward. They were now employed as controlled practice opportunities with an increased communicative component rather than just for rehearsing language structures. The use of drills in the curriculum is demonstrated with the help of appropriate examples.

Repetition drill:

(i) Students mimic just what the teacher says during repetition drills. The entire class, smaller groups of students, or an individual student can participate in drills for repetition.

(ii) One of repetition drills' main advantages is it gives confidence to students while assisting teachers in bringing learners' attention to the phonological features of the target language. To make students aware of elements like connecting speech and sentence stress, repetition drills can be performed.

Substitution drill: A portion of the structure being practised is altered in substitution drills. To perform substitution drills, one of the most major methods is to offer students a hint and ask them to reproduce the linguistic structure.

Try to pronounce the different vowel sounds, i.e., short and long vowels. For example, /i:/ (heat) and /I/ (hit); /◌/ (late) and /◌/ (let);

/◌/ (calm) and /◌/ (come). Likewise, we should differentiate and practice the vowel sounds.

(i) Native speakers always emphasise specific words within sentences. If we learn to emphasise the appropriate words, our speech will have the natural rhythm of native speakers.

(ii) The intonation (the rise and fall of speech sounds) is important because it tells the listener whether you've finished speaking or if you still have something to say, whether you're asking a question or making a statement.

(iii) Try to practise individual and group oral drills. It could help with pronunciation development.

(iv) Conscious and actively listening to materials such as sounds, lectures, and discussions regularly.

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