CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This part presents the review of related literature. It covers Introduction of the Mother Tongue, Definition of pronunciation, the Problems in pronunciation, Definition of Speaking, and Factor Influencing to difficult of learning speaking.

A. Introduction to the Mother Tongue

“Hammerly estimates that the judicious use of the mother tongue (MT) in carefully crafted techniques can be twice as efficient (i.e. reach the same level of second language proficiency in half the time), without any loss in effectiveness, as instruction that ignores the students”’ native language”.14

An individual's mother tongue is a means for a person to participate in the knowledge of the social work. Another influence of the mother tongue is that it causes the reflection and learning of successful social patterns of acting and speaking. It is, in fact, in charge of differentiating the linguistic competence of acting. Language is the most impressive instrument in the progress of any human being. It is the greatest asset we possess. A good understanding of language is equal with a sound ability to think. In other words, language and thought cannot be separated. Language has an important part in supporting person’s identity and in helping people understand where they fit in the new environment.

The acquisition of language is essential not only to person’s cognitive development, but also to their social development and wellbeing. The early years are recognized as the foundation years for person’s development. In particular, the

---

first six years are crucial for young children in developing their first language and cultural identity, and it is during these early years that children build up their knowledge of the world around them.

All the praise that is heaped on the languages as an educational tool is due in double measure to the mother tongue, which should be called “The Mother of Languages” in which every new language can only be established by comparison with it. Therefore, the mother tongue is, for all school subjects including foreign language learners, a child’s strongest ally and should be used systematically. With using the mother tongue, we have (1) Learnt to think, (2) Learnt to communicate and (3) Acquired an intuitive understanding of grammar. The mother tongue is therefore the greatest asset people bring to the task of foreign language learning and provides a Language Acquisition Support System.\textsuperscript{15}

1. The Importance of Maintaining the Mother Tongue or Home Language

One of the greatest gifts to be passed on to children is language. The first language, learned in the home, is extremely important and forms the foundation for all later language development. Parents, family members and early childhood professionals are the most significant influences on the development and maintenance of the first language.

Research suggests that knowing one language can help the child understand how other languages work. The maintenance of the first or home language is particularly important for the child’s development of a positive self-
concept and well-being. Children who have the opportunity to maintain their first language can extend their cognitive development, while learning English [this also can be correct with other languages including Turkish] as a second language. Their level of competence in the second language will be related to the level of competence they have achieved in their first language. Children with a sound knowledge of their first language will be able to transfer skills from one language to another.

The mother tongue opens the door, including its own grammar, to all grammars, in which it awakens the potential for universal grammar that lies within all of us. It is the valuable asset people bring to the task of language learning. For this reason, the mother tongue is the master key to foreign languages, the tool which gives us the fastest, surest, most precise, and most complete means of accessing a foreign language.

Successful learners capitalize on the vast amount of linguistic skills and world knowledge they have accumulated via the mother tongue. For the beginner, becoming aware of meanings automatically involves connecting them with the mother tongue – until the FL has established an ever-more complex network for itself. “You can banish the MT from the classroom, but you cannot banish it from the pupils’ heads”. We need to associate the new with the old. To exclude MT links would deprive us of the richest source for building cross-linguistic networks. \(^{16}\)

\(^{16}\) *Ibid*, p. 9.
The well-directed and informative use of lexical and syntactic parallels between the mother tongue and foreign languages taught in schools promotes retention and deepens the understanding of the historical affinity of language and culture.\textsuperscript{17}

2. Importance of Mother Tongue Education

Many linguists and successful bilinguals argue that for multi-cultural societies to support the use of a first language in the learning of young bilinguals in schools is of high importance. Since mother tongue education in the primary years suggests the best introduction to literacy which becomes useful in the acquisition of a second language. Research on L2 acquisition displays that learning another language becomes less problematic, if a child masters the first language in the habits of speech, listening, reading and writing which can be transferred to the learning of the second language.

Chaudron asserts that where the L2 is used as a medium of instruction, learners encounter problems because their task is threefold. Making sense of the instructional tasks presented in the second language, attaining linguistic competence required for effective learning to take place and facing with the problem of mastering the content itself. The report of UNESCO Committee shows that students learn quickly through their first language than an unfamiliar linguistic medium. As a result, it states that the best medium for teaching a child

\textsuperscript{17} Ibid, p 9.
is the mother tongue through which children understand better and express themselves freely.\textsuperscript{18}

3. Mother tongue and translation in English Language Teaching

It is necessary to discriminate between the teaching of translation as a vocational skill and the use of the mother tongue in the teaching situation as an aid to language learning. The need for some translation in language learning is usually supported by non-native teachers. Native teachers of English argue that foreign language learning needs as much exposure to the L2 as possible during precious classroom time, and any usage of the L1 or translation is a waste of time.

In the past, most methods in L2 language pedagogy dictated that L1 should be prohibited in the classroom. Communicative approaches to language learning in the 1970s and 1980s considered the use of the L1 as undesirable. However, recently the attitude to mother tongue and translation in language classes has undergone a positive change.

Translation is sometimes referred to as the fifth language skill alongside the other four basic skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing. ‘Translation holds a special importance at an intermediate and advanced level: in the advanced or final stage of language teaching, translation from L1 to L2 and L2 to L1 is recognized as the fifth skill and the most important social skill since it promotes communication and understanding between strangers.

Mother tongue has potentially both positive and negative consequences: it may serve social and cognitive functions. It is claimed that students working in

\textsuperscript{18} Ibid, p. 9.
groups do not have to speak English all the time. Use of mother tongue relates to learner identity. Negative impact of mother tongue use is that too much reliance on the L1 may undermine the interaction in English. However good the students are at comprehending authentic reading or listening materials, the majority keeps mentally translating from L2 into L1 and vice versa. This fact makes teachers of foreign languages aware of the importance of translation in language classrooms.

Why do students use the mother tongue in class? According to J. Harmer, a principal cause of the L1 use is required by the activity, if students are linguistically incapable of activating vocabulary for a chosen task. Another reason is that translation is a natural thing to do in language learning, and code-switching between languages is regarded as naturally developmental. The amount of L1 use by particular students may well have to do with differing learner styles and abilities.\(^{19}\)

Evidence from research into the crucial issue of the L1 use in classrooms around the world was analyzed by G. Mattioli. For instance, L1 use in the Chinese classrooms offers evidence that L1 is a valuable tool for socio-cognitive processes in language learning. Another reason for L1 use in the classroom relates to the fostering of a positive affective environment. C. W. Schweers encourages teachers to insert the native language into lessons to influence the classroom dynamic, provide a sense of security and validate the learners’ experiences.

\(^{19}\) Galina Kavaliauskienė, “Role of Mother Tongue in Learning English For Specific Purposes”. Mykolas Romeris University, Vilnius, Lithuania, ESP World, Issue 1 (22), Volume 8, 2009, p. 2.
The real usefulness of translation in English classes lies in exploiting it in order to compare grammar, vocabulary, word order and other language points in English and the student’s mother tongue. According to N. J. Ross, if students are aware of the differences, language interference (transfer) and intervention from their own language are likely to be reduced. It is known that linguistic awareness can be either conscious or unconscious. Cross linguistic similarities and differences can produce positive transfer or negative transfer such as underproduction, overproduction, production errors, and misinterpretation. It should be emphasized that transfer is not always caused by the influence of native language.\textsuperscript{20}

Since mother tongue is now generally regarded as essential during the initial school years, we turn first to a number of ways in which it can be defined. There are various definitions of mother tongue, and the variety of these definitions has much to do with the fact that people can have more than one mother tongue, and that their mother tongue can also change throughout their lifetime.

The mother tongue, as most people understand it, is the language usually spoken in the individual’s home in their early childhood, although not necessarily used by them at present. Thus, mother tongue could be the language one knows best at home, or it could be a language that a child acquires later.

According to her, the declaration of children’s linguistic rights states that every child should have the right to identify positively with her/his original mother tongue and have his/her identification accepted and respected by others.

\textsuperscript{20} Ibid, p.3-4
Every child should have the right to learn the mother tongue fully and have the right to choose when s/he wants to use the mother tongue. Cummins holds that the mother tongue as medium of instruction in the initial school years is extremely important.

According to Cummins as learners’ progress through the different grades, they are increasingly required to manipulate language in cognitively demanding and the contextualized situations that differ significantly, therefore need not only communication skills but also cognitive linguistic competence skills to be able to satisfy the academic demand of school.  

4. The Definition of Mother tongue or First Language (L₁)

The mother tongue has many definitions; According to Skutnabb-Kangas and Phillipson, mother tongue can mean the following:

1. The language learned from the mother
2. The first language (L₁) learned, irrespective of "from whom."
3. The stronger language at any time of life.
4. The mother tongue of the area or country (e.g., Byelorussian in Byelorussia).
5. The language most used by a person
6. The language to which a person has the more positive attitude and affection.

---

21 K. GONTES, “Investigate How Mother Tongue Instruction Influences The Learner Performance in The Acquisition of Reading and Comprehension Skills of Khoekhoegowab Speaking Learners in Grade 2 in Comparison with Foreign Medium of Instruction”, unpublish Research Proposal, Rhodes University Education Department, 2002, p.20

B. Definition of pronunciation

Pronunciation is the way a certain sound or sounds are produced. Unlike articulation, which refers to the actual production of speech sounds in the mouth, pronunciation stresses more the way sounds are perceived by the hearer.\(^{23}\)

Pronunciation refers to the production of sounds that we use to make meaning. 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 (supra-segmental 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. Each of these aspects of pronunciation is briefly outlined below, and references for further study are suggested.\(^{24}\)

1. Supra-segmental aspects of pronunciation

1). Stress

Many teachers advocate starting with stress as the basic building block of pronunciation teaching. Stress refers to the prominence given to certain syllables within words, and to certain syllables or words within utterances. It is signalled 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.

---


\(^{24}\) AMEP Research Senter, “*fact sheet-what is pronunciation*”, October 2002, p.1
2). Intonation

Intonation, or change of pitch, is crucial in signaling speaker meaning, particularly interpersonal attitudes. As we saw in the previous section, pitch changes are crucially linked with stress. Since intonation patterns are language-specific, learners will need to acquire new ones for English in order to avoid inappropriate transfer from their first language, and thus perhaps inadvertently causing offence.

There have been three major approaches to intonation theory: the grammatical approach (which relates intonation to grammatical functions), an approach that focuses on the link between intonation and attitude, and the discourse approach (which emphasises speakers and their intentions in longer stretches of discourse).25

3). Features of connected speech

In English we link and blend sounds between words in a way which is quite distinctive from that of other languages, and these features help us to manage the patterns of stress, unstress and pitch change discussed above. Crucially, learners in whose first language final consonant sounds are rare or not fully pronounced (eg many Asian languages) may find it very difficult to say word-final consonants and therefore to link words in the way that is characteristic of English. These linking devices are not trivial, as they help learners to avoid the breathy, choppy delivery that can impede communication.

25 Ibid, p. 2
4. Voice quality

Voice quality has received little attention in L2 learning, although actors may be quite familiar with the concept. The term refers to the more general, longer-term articulatory settings shared by many sounds within a language, and these affect accent and the quality of voice in a global way.26

2. Phonology System

Phonology is the study of the sound system of languages.

a). Articulation described by region

1) Glottal articulation – articulation by the glottis. We use this for one consonant in English. This is /h/ in initial position in house or hope.

2) Velar articulation – we do this with the back of the tongue against the velum. We use it for initial hard /g/ (as in golf) and for final /ŋ/ (as in gong).

3) Palatal articulation – we do this with the front of the tongue on the hard palate. We use it for /dʒ/ (as in jam) and for /ʃ/ (as in sheep or sugar).

4) Alveolar articulation – we do this with the tongue blade on the alveolar ridge. We use it for /t/ (as in teeth), /d/ (as in dodo) /z/ (as in zebra) /n/ (as in no) and /l/ (as in light).

5) Dental articulation – we do this with the tip of the tongue on the back of the upper front teeth. We use it for /θ/ (as in think) and /ð/ (as in that). This is one form of articulation that we can observe and feel ourselves doing.

26 Ibid, p. 3
6) Labio-dental articulation – we do this with the lower lip and upper front teeth. We use it for /v/ (as in vampire).

7) Labial articulation – we do this with the lips for /b/ (as in boat) and /m/ (as in most). Where we use two lips (as in English) this is bilabial articulation.27

b). Articulation described by manner

This scheme gives us a different arrangement into stop (or plosive) consonants, affricates, fricatives, nasal consonants, laterals and approximants.

1). Stop consonants (because the airflow is stopped) or plosive consonants (because it is subsequently released, causing an outrush of air and a burst of sound) are:

- Bilabial voiced /b/ (as in boat) and voiceless /p/ (as in post)
- Alveolar voiced /d/ (as in dad) and voiceless /t/ (as in tap)
- Velar voiced /g/ (as in golf) and voiceless /k/ as in (cow)

2). Affricates are a kind of stop consonant, where the expelled air causes friction rather than plosion. They are palatal /tʃ/ (as in cheat) and palatal /dʒ/ (as in jam).

3). Fricatives come from restricting, but not completely stopping, the airflow. The air passes through a narrow space and the sound arises from the friction this produces. They come in voiced and unvoiced pairs:

- Labio-dental voiced /v/ (as in vole) and unvoiced /f/ (as in foal)
- Dental voiced /ð/ (as in those) and unvoiced /θ/ (as in thick)

o Alveolar voiced /z/ (as in zest) and unvoiced /s/ (as in sent)

o Palatal voiced /ʒ/ (as in the middle of leisure) and unvoiced /ʃ/ (as at the end of trash)

4). Nasal consonants involve closing the articulators but lowering the uvula, which normally closes off the route to the nose, through which the air escapes.

There are three nasal consonants in English:

- Bilabial /m/ (as in mine)
- Alveolar /n/ (as in nine)
- Velar /ŋ/ (as at the end of gong).

3. Second Language Acquisition (SLA) of Pronunciation

1) Second Language Acquisition (SLA) Theory.

Second Language Acquisition refers to the process by which people learn in conscious learning or an unconscious assimilation a second language under natural or guided conditions in addition to their native language. The term second language is used to describe the acquisition of any language after the acquisition of the mother tongue. The language to be learned is often referred to as the "target language" or "L2", compared to the first language, "L1". Second language acquisition may be abbreviated "SLA", or L2A, for "L2 acquisition". The term "language acquisition" became commonly used after American linguist Stephen D Krashen contrasted it with formal and non-constructive "learning". However, "second language acquisition" or "SLA" has become established as the preferred term for this academic discipline. Though SLA is often viewed as part

---

29 Zeng Xin, 2009, “Second Language Acquisition theory and Left-Behind student’s English Teaching”, A seminar paper research, University of Wisconsin-Platteville, p.4
of applied linguistics, it is typically concerned with the language system and learning processes.\(^\text{30}\)

So, in this case Banjarnese, Dayaknese and Javanese students as second learners at study program of English education of STAIN Palangka Raya, in order to their Second Language Acquisition they need the process by which people learn in conscious learning or an unconscious assimilation a second language under natural or guided conditions. The language to be learned is referred to English language as their “L2” or “target language”, compared to the Banjar, Dayak and Java language, "L1".

2) The Role of the First Language (L\(_1\)) in Second Language (L\(_2\)) Acquisition (SLA).

The topic of "first language interference" has had an unusual history in second language acquisition research and practice. For many years, it had been presumed that the only major source of syntactic errors in adult second language performance was the performer's first language, and a great deal of materials preparation was done with this assumption in mind. Subsequent empirical studies of errors made by second language students led to the discovery, however, that many errors are not traceable to the structure of the first language, but are common to second language performers of different linguistic backgrounds.\(^\text{31}\)

\(^{30}\)Ibid, p.4
4. Factor Affecting of Pronunciation

There are four factors in this study that have been shown to have major effects on the learning of another sound system. They are the age of the learner, the learner’s first language, the learner’s current stage of proficiency development, and the experience and attitudes of the learner. All these factors need to be considered in a well-balanced approach to pronunciation.

1) Age

There is clear evidence that there is a relationship between the age at which a language is learned and the degree of foreign accent. Usually, if the learner began to speak in the second language before the age of six there will be little or no accent. If the learner began to speak between the ages of seven and 11, the learner is likely to have a slight accent. If the learner began to speak after the age of 12, then there is almost always an accent. There are two important points to note here. First, this relationship between age and accent does not invariably apply to everyone. A few adult learners do achieve native-like pronunciation. Second, there are several competing explanations of the cause of the relationship. The physical explanation says that there are physical changes in the brain as a result of age that affect the learning of a new sound system and other aspects of the language.32

The Banjarnese, Dayaknese and Javanese students’ mother tongue is the second language learner at the Study Program of English Education (TBI) of STAIN Palangka Raya. Most of them began to speak English language after

the age of 13. It began when they Junior high school. If the learner began to speak second language after the age of 13, then there is almost always an accent. This accent affects their English pronunciation.

2) The Learner’s First Language

Teachers’ experience and research studies show that the learners’ first language can have a major influence on learning the sound system of another language. The type of evidence for this is where speakers of the same first language typically pronounce the second language in the same way, making the same kinds of substitutions and patterns of pronunciation. Another type of evidence is that there is a reasonable degree of predictability in the types of relationships between first language and second language sounds and their relative difficulty for long-term success for second language learners. It also found “the most important interference from 1L to 2L occurs at the level of phonetic implementation rather than at an abstract level of organization based on features.”

3) The Learner’s Development and Range of Styles

There is considerable evidence to show that a learner’s pronunciation changes as the learner becomes more familiar with the second language. Just as there is an interlanguage stage for grammatical development there is a developmental interlanguage stage for phonology. He suggests that as learners proceed in their learning of the second language, interference processes from the first language decrease but developmental processes increase and then

---

33 Ibid, p.78
34 Ibid, p.79
decrease. This means that teachers should not classify learners’ pronunciations too quickly as errors, but should look to see if they are stable or changing. If they are stable, there may be value in encouraging change. If they are changing it may be better just to observe. Change may also be seen by observing learners’ pronunciation in formal and informal situations, as different styles of pronunciation may be used. The presence of different styles shows flexibility and shows that the learners’ second language pronunciation is developing.

Before beginning intensive pronunciation work, it is thus useful to observe learners over a period of time and in a range of situations.  

4) The Experience and Attitudes of the Learner

Each learner brings different life experience and attitudes to the classroom and these may affect the learning of a new sound system. It looked at 20 different factors that might affect learning. These included experience factors like the number of years the learner had lived in an English-speaking country, the amount of conversation at home in English, the amount of training to speak English, the number of languages the learner knew, and the proportion of teachers who were native speakers. They also included attitude factors like the type of motivation (economic, social prestige, integrative) of the learner, the strength of the learner’s desire to have an accurate pronunciation, the learner’s skill at mimicry, and the learner’s extroversion or introversion.

They found that the factors most strongly related to success in pronunciation were the number of years the learner had lived in an English-speaking country.

---

country, the number of months the learner had lived with native speakers, the
learner’s first language, the learner’s desire to have an accurate
pronunciation, and the learner’s skill at mimicry. In general, it was found that
classroom factors, like the quantity of English lessons and whether the
teachers were native speakers were not important factors\textsuperscript{36}.

5. The Problems of Pronunciation

1) Nature of Pronunciation problems

There some problems in learning foreign language and they are\textsuperscript{37}:

\textbf{a.} The identification of foreign sounds one problem is concerned with the
identification of the foreign sounds. The language learners have to
remember his acoustic qualities to be able to identify them in an utterance.
For instance the quality of English vowel /ae/ as found in \textit{man}, the
language learners have to be able to distinct from a similar sound as found
in the word \textit{men}.

\textbf{b.} The production of the foreign sounds by his organs of speech Ability in
hearing and identifying the acoustic quality of the foreign sounds is
prerequisite for the ability in producing them. Without having heard the
quality of a given sounds before, one cannot be expected to pronounce it;
when he has heard the sounds produced by someone else, he may able to
produce it himself by imitating the speaker. This is a matter of training to
move the speech organs or also called mouth gymnastics, which should be
practiced over and over again. Knowledge about the phonetic theory and

\begin{footnotesize}
\textsuperscript{36} I. S. P. Nation and J. Newton, 2009, \textit{“Teaching ESL/EFL Listening and Speaking”}, in
Purcell and Suter (1980), © Routledge, Taylor & Francis, p.81
\textsuperscript{37} Ramelan, 1985, \textit{“English Phonetics”}, IKIP Semarang Press, Semarang, p.9
\end{footnotesize}
the ways of moving speech organs for the production of the foreign sounds, combined with much practice based on that theory would be of great help to the foreign learner.

c. The different nature especially in Supra-segmental features (stress, length, pitch and intonation) it is quite obvious that these features different in different languages. Someone may be able to produce the foreign sounds correctly but if the stress patterns or the intonation patterns of his own mother tongue are transferred to the foreign language his speech will be stamped as ‘foreign’ by the native speaker. Again, untiring imitation and disciplined practiced will help the student to produce the supra-segmental features correctly.

So, The Banjarnese, Dayaknese and Javanese students as second language learners may be able to produce the foreign sounds correctly but if the stress patterns or the intonation patterns of their own mother tongue are transferred to the English language their speech will be stamped as ‘foreign’ by the native speaker.

2) Reasons for Pronunciation Problems.

There are two kinds of mistakes that might cause the students to make mistake: L1 interference and developmental error. According to some reasons about why students make mistake in their pronunciation are because they face such problems\(^{38}\), they are:

\(^{38}\) Ibid. p.6-7
a. The existence of a given sound in the latter, which is not found in the former.
b. Sounds which have the same phonetic features in both languages but differ in their distribution.
c. Similar sounds in two languages which differ only slightly in their phonetic features.
d. Sounds that have the same qualities in both languages may constitute some learning problem if they occur in a cluster or sequence of sounds.

6. The transcription symbols of Banjarnese, Dayaknese, Javanese and English

1) Banjarnese

In the language of Banjar discovery of two major dialects namely Banjar Hulu dialect and language of Banjar Kuala. If in Banjar Hulu using only the vowels (a), (i), and (u), while Banjar Kuala besides recognize vowel (a), (i), and (u) there are also sound (e) and (o). In Banjar Banjar Kuala Hulu and there are also two different vocabulary to refer to the same object. In 1993 it was also South Kalimantan Provincial Government issued a decree to make Bahasa Banjar (BB) as a matter of local content to be taught in elementary and junior high. In August 1997 Dictionary Banjar were entered into the third edition with the addition of new entries and repair various examples of the use of the vocabulary and also the addition of English phonology and
morphology of Banjar briefly to better understand the structure of Banjar language.39

THE ORTHOGRAPHIES SIGN
Of Banjar language

Vowels:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Pronunciation</th>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>/a/</td>
<td>bungas</td>
<td>‘beautiful’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>/i/</td>
<td>isuk</td>
<td>‘tomorrow’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>u</td>
<td>/u/</td>
<td>unda</td>
<td>‘I’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e</td>
<td>/é/</td>
<td>koler</td>
<td>‘Lazy’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o</td>
<td>/o/</td>
<td>koyo</td>
<td>‘nonsense’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2) Dayaknese

In the circle of Dayaknese, Dayaknese consisted of three levels of speech. It was like other region language in Indonesia such as Javanese, Sundanese, Maduranese, Banjarnese, etc. They are: plain, Informal, and formal. Dayaknese used the language customarily according to the situation and to whom they speak. Among friends or business partner, they use plain or informal level. On the other hand, they use more polite or formal level when they speak to their parents or to honored people in formal situation. Even though, Dayak language consisted of many dialects basically it has same characteristics in sounds and words but commonly different in intonations. The characteristics can be different from other region or even other countries.

We can see the orthographies sign of dayaknese language below:


THE ORTHOGRAPHIES SIGN

Of Dayak language

Vowels:

a /a/ ara ‘name’
e /é/ are ‘many, much’
E /É/ Eka ‘place’
u /u/ untung ‘luck’
i /i/ imbit ‘deliver, bring, carry’
o /o/ oloh ‘person’

In some case of vowels symbols /o/ e.g. oloh, danom mostly pronounced in sound /u/ and sound /u/ has same pronounce /u/. In other case of transcription in vowel symbols of Dayaknese. It does not have Diphthong symbols.

3) Javanese

E.M. Uhlenbeck classify dialects spoken in the western region of Central Java as a group (clumps) of western Java language (Banyumasan, moor, Cirebon and Banten North). Another group is the Central part of the Java language (Surakarta, Yogyakarta, Semarang, etc.) and the eastern part of Java language groups. Western Java language groups (please distinguish from West Java / Sunda) is often called the language Banyumasan.  

---

41 Dunis Iper and Darius Karel Alexander, 2009, Palangkaraya, “Kosakata Bahasa Indonesia-Dayak”.
**THE ORTHOGRAPHIES SIGN**

**Of Java language**

Vowels:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Letter</th>
<th>Pronunciation</th>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>/a/</td>
<td>alon</td>
<td>‘slow’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e</td>
<td>/é/</td>
<td>duwé</td>
<td>‘have’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>/i/</td>
<td>apik</td>
<td>‘good, nice’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o</td>
<td>/o/</td>
<td>oloh</td>
<td>‘person’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Compared to the Java language dialect Yogyakarta and Surakarta, dialect Banyumasan lot of difference. The main difference is that the suffix 'a' remains pronounced 'a' instead of an 'o'. So if people eat Solo 'sego' (rice), in the region Banyumasan people eat 'sega'. In addition, words ending in consonants read the full, for example the word sounds *enak* by other dialects *ena*, while the dialect Banyumasan read sound *enak* with the letter 'k' is clear.

4) **English**

As an International language, English was very important for communication such as business, formal or informal conversation, etc. English also have levels of speech. In English, there were three levels of speech: plain, informal, and formal. Among friends, they speak in plain level. They use informal and formal level when they speak to honored people in formal situation. English has more complex sound than Dayaknese. The Diphthong symbols of English below:

---

43 Ibid, p.55
DIPHTHONG SYMBOLS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Pronunciation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[eɪ]</td>
<td>say</td>
<td>/seɪ/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[əʊ]</td>
<td>go</td>
<td>/gəʊ/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[ai]</td>
<td>five</td>
<td>/faɪv/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[au]</td>
<td>now</td>
<td>/naʊ/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[ɔɪ]</td>
<td>boy</td>
<td>/bɔɪ/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[iə]</td>
<td>near</td>
<td>/niə(r)/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[eə]</td>
<td>hair</td>
<td>/heə(r)/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[uə]</td>
<td>pure</td>
<td>/pjuə(r)/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When we learn English, automatically we should learn how to pronounce the words. Every speaker should be able to pronounce the words correctly; otherwise the hearer will misunderstand what he means because the hearer cannot get the point of speech.

When we listen to a foreigner speak in Indonesian. It was difficult to understand what the foreigners try to tell. This is not because he does not know the vocabulary or even the grammar, but it is because strange sounds that he produces. The English pronunciation sometime was difficult to learn, especially for non-native speakers because their first language (mother tongue) is different with native-speakers. As an example Dayaknese as non-native speakers who wants to learn English will find the same problems.

7. English Diphthong Symbols

Tongue position is described using two criteria: the height (how high is the tongue) and the part of the tongue involved in the production of the sound. In English the tongue may either be **high**, i.e. when the speaker produces e.g. [i:, u:] in [bi:t, bu:t] *beat, boot*, **intermediate**, e.g. [e, ə:] in [bet, bə:t] *bet, bought*, or **low**, e.g. [æ, a:] in [bæt, ba:t] *bat, Bart.*

![Tongue height](image)

a) Tongue is at the highest b) Tongue is at the lowest

**Figure 2.1. Tongue height. (Thomas 1976:56 in Claire A Forel, Genoveva Puskás, 2005)**

Depending on the language we can have several intermediate tongue heights. English has three heights: high, mid and low, whereas French has two intermediate tongue heights with a total of four tongue heights: high, mid high, mid low and low.

The part of the tongue involved in the production of a vowel can also be illustrated with the examples above. If you say [i:] and then [u:] just after it, you almost have the feeling that you are moving your tongue backwards. This is because [i:] is a **front** vowel, and [u:] is a **back** vowel, or in other words, the

---

45 Claire A Forel, Genoveva Puskás, 2005, *Phonetics and Phonology*, University of Oldenburg, p. 14
highest point in the pronunciation of [i:] is the front of the tongue, whereas the highest point in [u:] is the back of the tongue. Figure (2) gives you two examples of tongue position:

a) Is an example of the front of the tongue being at the highest.

b) It is the back of the tongue which is nearest to the palate.

C. Definition of Speaking

In Oxford Advanced Dictionary the definition of speaking is to express or communicate opinions, feelings, ideas, etc, by or as talking and it involves the activities in the part of the speaker as psychological, physiological (articulator) and physical (acoustic) stages.

According to Chaney, speaking is the process of building and sharing meaning through the use of verbal and non-verbal symbols, in a variety of contexts. While another expert, Theodore Huebner said Language is essentially speech, and speech is basically communication by sounds. And according to him, speaking is a skill used by someone in daily life communication whether at school or outside. The skill is acquired by much repetition; it primarily a neuromuscular and not an intellectual process. It consists of competence in sending and receiving messages.

From the above definition, it can be inferred that speaking is expressing ideas, opinions, or feelings to others by using words or sounds of articulation in order to inform, to persuade, and to entertain that can be learnt by using some teaching . learning methodologies.

---

47 Ibid, p.14
D. Factors Influencing to Difficulty of Learning Speaking

Learning as a process or activity is required by some factor influencing. Sumadi Suryabrata in its book Education Psychology express that there are two factors as follow:\(^{49}\):

1. **Factors Coming From Within Self**

   Factor comes from within student self (Internal) can be classified into two. There are:

   1. Physiological factor, related to condition of physical, that is:
      
      a.) Experiencing of handicap from one of the legs and hands, more or less will influence that student in learning.
      
      b.) Healthy physical will very supporting is spirit of student efficacy.
   
   2. Psychological factor, for example:

      a.) Ability of student base (intelligence) how wide acknowledged a difference of speed and perfection of individual in breaking various problems which face him, so that this thing will strengthen assumption that intellectual ability truly there is and different each other in each people, where having level intelligence is higher, quicker to break same problems when in comparing with people having level intelligence is lower. This difference of intelligence not lay in quality of intelligence itself, but at the level. Ability of intelligence owned by individual truly role which of vital importance in determining the individual efficacy in learning.

---

b). Talent is potential ability owned by individual, possible of the individual to grow at period to come. For presumably someone talent require to be known early possible to get adequate treatment for growth in an optimal fashion.

c). Enthusiasm is a mental peripheral consisting of combination, solidarity, and mixture from feeling, hope, prejudiced, worried, feared, and other tendency’s available to pointing individual to a choice of definite.

d). Basic Knowledge’s is knowledge becoming base or basing on knowledge of student being developed, a student. What studying material teaching the division, hence beforehand have to have the basic knowledge’s that is fight.\(^{50}\)

2. Factors coming from outside student self (external)

Factor from outside student self can be classified to become two, there are social factor and non-social.

1. Social factor consisted:

a.) Area of family

Family is social environment giving understanding of social giving understanding of first social for a child of people within doors doorstep, good of father, mother, and also the sister! brother in area of house hold consciously advise to the member concerning a problem or concerning activity of learning. Here family is not only undertaking to look after but functioning for idea, attitude, and social at the children. Family is obligation for training tradition or habit or grow ethic flavor, esthetics at child. Role of family assist child in very big

\(^{50}\textit{Ibid}, \text{p.250}\)
learning of the influence, in supporting efficacy of child of learning, like understanding and drive of other family member or old fellow.

b.) Relation between children of Teacher

The relation between children of Teacher coeval his influence student learning, because in general influence coeval can in the form of healthy emulation. Sometime with learning with will increase the learning result. For example, take part in friend coeval this activity of learning outside hour clock school to more or less influencing mind of the child which finally arising desire for hanging on to coattail step of the friend in following minor outside hour clock going to the school.

2. Factor non-social composed:

a. Learning facility

This learning facility is thing concerning supporting facilities and equipment of student learning, either in house and also go to school. This thing hardly influences enthusiasm and spirit of student learning.51

b. Weather

Weather is condition of climate an area at season or certain time, for example related to situation of weather happened at the (time) of definite. These things have enough an effect on to student learning enthusiasm.

c. Time influence

Usage of time is related to timing and its use effectively and efficient and also matching with the one which in requiring for learning.

51 Ibid, p.251
The burgeoning importance placed on Oral Communication skills by employers has been echoed internationally for a decade or more and across disciplines. Knowledge and technical know-how are clearly important, but these must be presented with an excellent standard of communication skills, particularly oral. Furthermore, oral communication and presentation skills are considered the best skills for someone to get a job or enhance one's career. Speaking skill includes effective interpretation, composition and presentation of information, ideas and values to a specific audience. Individual and business relations can be maintained with the help of this skill.52

It is however regrettable that in our country, particularly in certain states, speaking skill is given least importance. Though we know the importance and benefits of spoken communication, yet we are unable to justify and prove its importance. For instance, during our schooling we get very less opportunity and suitable platform for speaking. Because the classes are totally teacher-centered, where teachers are only teaching and the students are playing the role of mute spectators.

As a consequence, when we go for higher studies to colleges and universities, the fear factor still prevails while speaking which becomes an obstacle in career progress. Consequently, this fear factor snatches away the opportunity of enhancing the skill. This is one of the prime reasons for poor placement in technical colleges. Furthermore, the mother tongue influence (MTI) in learning and speaking the second language, causes less intelligibility of L2.

52 Arun Behera, “Mother Tongue (L1) Vis-A-Vis Other Tongue (L2)? ”, Dj The Dawn Journal Vol. 1, No. 2, July - December 2012, p.3
Speaking skills can be improved by if one follows the few steps suggested below:

a) Practices wherever and whenever she/he can;
b) Builds her/his confidence;
c) Tries to experiment with the English she/he knows;
d) Tries to respond to what people say to her/him;
e) Doesn’t speak too fast;
f) Tries to relax when she/he speaks.\(^\text{53}\)

\(^{53}\)Ibid, p.4