CHAPTER II

REVIEW RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter presents the underlying theories that are relevant to the research problems. The study review consists of definition of pronounciation, English vowel, Indonesian vowel, error analysis, sources of error, problem in pronounciation, types of pronounciation error and prevoius study.

A. Pronunciation

Kristina et al (2006:1), define pronunciation as the act or the manner of pronouncing word; utterance of speech. In addition, pronunciation is the production of significant sound in two senses. Sound is significant because it is used as part of a code of a particular language. In this sense, pronunciation is as the production and reception of speech sound. It is used to achieve meaning in contexts of use. In this sense, pronunciation with reference to acts of speaking (Dalton and Seidlhofer, 1994:3). Pronunciation can always be studied from two points of view: the phonetic and the phonology (Crystal, 2003:236).

1. Phonetics

Phonetic is the study of the way human make, transmit, and receive speech sounds. It is divided into three main branches, corresponding to these three distinctions,

a. Articulatory phonetics is the study of the way the vocal organs are

used to produce speech sound.

b. Acoustic phonetics is the study of the physical properties of speech sounds**.**

c. Auditory phonetics is the study of the way people perceive speech sound.

2. Phonology

Phonology is the study of the system of languages and of the general properties displayed by these systems. By contrast with phonetics, which studies all possible sounds that the human vocal apparatus can make, phonology studies only those contrasts in sound (the phonemes) which make differences of meaning within language. When we listen carefully to the way people speak English, we will hear hundreds of slight differences in the way individuals pronounce particular sound.

The main features of pronunciation are segmental features (included phoneme) and suprasegmental features (included stress, intonation and connected speech).

1. Segmental features (Phonemes)

Segmental features of pronunciation also called phonemes, are the different sound within a language. Although there are slight differences in how individuals articulate sounds, we can still describe resonably accurately how each sound is produced. When considering meaning, we see how each sound rather than

another can change the meaning of the word. This principles which give us the total number of phonemes in particular language. The set of phonemes consists of two categories: vowel sounds and consonant sounds (Kelly, 2000).

a. Vowel

One of speech sound that is always produced by people is vowel. Vowels are articulated when a voiced airstream is shaped using the tongue and the lips to modify the overall shapes of the mouth (Kelly, 2000:29). Vowels are those units which functions at the center of syllable (Crystal, 1985:330). From a phonetic point of view, vowels are articulated with a relatively open configuration of the vocal tract: no part of the mouth is closed, and none of the vocal organs come so close together that we can hear the sound of the air passing between them. Vowels typically involved the vibration of the vocal cord (voicing), and their distinctive resonances are made by varying the shape of the mouth, using the tongue and lips. In English, there are no vowels whose chief characteristic is the use of nasal resonance. English vowels are all oral vowels, and take on a nasal quality only when they are being influenced by an adjacent nasal consonant, as in no, long, and man.

The chief task in describing the articulation of

vowels, accordingly, is to plot the movements of the tongue and lips. The most widely used method of doing this was devised by Daniel Jones, and is known as the cardinal vowel system. The cardinal vowel (CV) diagram was devised to provide a set of reference points for the articulation and recognition of vowels. Its dimension corresponds to the vowel space in the center of the mouth where these sound are articulated. The position of the front, center, and back of the tongue, are represented by vertical lines (Crystal, 2003:238).

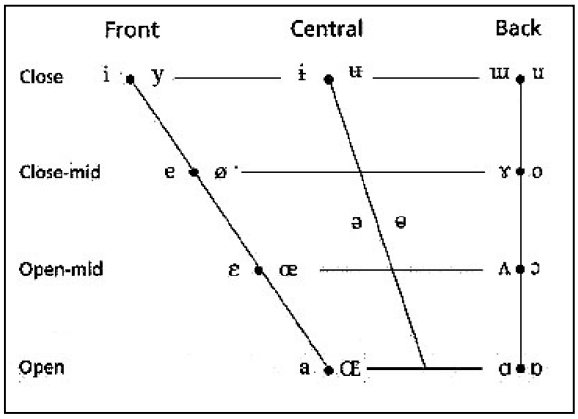


Figure 2.1. The Cardinal Vowel (CV) System

At the front of the mouth, [a] represents the lowest point that it is theoretically possible for the body of the tongue to reach, and [ɑ]represents the correspondingly lowest point at the back of the mouth. Vowel in the region of [a] or [ɑ] are called open or low vowels. [i], represents the highest point at the front that the body of

the tongue can reach while still producing a vowel sound (anything higher and the tongue would come so near to the roof of the mouth that the consonant sound would result). [u], similarly, represents the highest point at the back of the mouth. Vowel in the region of [i] and [u] are called close or high vowels.

Two horizontal lines are devided the space between [i] and [a] into equal areas. Vowels made in the region of the higher of these lines, represented by [e] and [o], are called mid-close or half-close. Vowels are made in the region of the lower of these lines, represented by [ɛ] and [ɔ] are mid-open or half-open. The term mid is often used to describe the whole of the area between these two lines (Crystal, 2003:238).

Lip position is an important factor in the description of vowels, and three main types are recognized (Kelly, 2000:30, Crystal, 2003:238). Fourth is rounded, where the lips are pushed forward into the shape of circle. Second is spread, where the corners of the lips are moved away from each other, as in a smile. Third is neutral, where the lips are not noticebely rounded or spread.

b. Consonant

There are three ways of describing the

consonant sound; the maner of articulation, refers to the interaction between the various articulators and the airstream; the place of articulation, gives more information about what the various articulators actually do; and the force of articulation, the following terms are used: fortis or strong and lenis or weak (Kelly, 2000:47). From phonetic point of view, consonants are articulated in one of two ways; either there is a closing movement of one of the vocal organs, forming such a narrow construction that it is possible to hear the sound of the air passing through; or the closing movement is complete, giving a total blockage. The closing movement may involve the lips, the tongue, or the throat, but in each case the overall effect is very different from the relatively open and unimpeded articulation found in vowels (Crystal, 2003:242)

Some consonants involve the vibration of the vocal cords: these are the voiced consonants, such as /b/ and /m/. others have no vocal cord vibration: these are the voiceless consonant, such as /p/ and /s/. The distinction is not absolute: depending on where in a word a consonant appears, there may be degrees of voicing. At the end of a word, for example, a

voiced consonant typically loses a great deal of its vibration (it is devoiced). The /z/ sound at the beginning of zoo /zu/ is muchmore vibrant than the one at the end of ooze /uːz/ (to voice this fully would produce an unnatural buzzing effect at the end of the word).

Unlike vowels, some consonants are primarily identified through their use of nasal cavity. Normally, in English, when we speak we keep the soft palate raised, so that it presses against the back of the throat and allows no air out through the nose with the three nasal consonants, /m/, /n/, and /ŋ/, however, the soft palate remains lowered (as it is when we breath), and the result is a series of sounds with a distinctive nasal resonance.

Certain other consonants are also somewhat vowel- like, in that they can be sounded continuously without any audible friction: the three nasals, /m/, /n/, and /ŋ/, /l/ as in *lie*, and /r/ as in *red*. These can all be classed together as (fricationless) continuants or sonorants, within which the four oral items (/l/, /r/, /w/, /j/) are often recognized as forming a distinct group (Crystal, 2003:242).

2. Suprasegmental features

Suprasegmental features, as the name implies, are features of speech which generally apply to groups of segments, or phonemes. The features which are important in english are stress, intonation, and how sounds change in conected speech (Kelly, 2000:).

a. Intonation

The term intonation, refer to the way the voice goes up and down in pitch when we are speaking. It is a fundamental part of the way we express our own thoughts and it enables us to understand those of others. It is an aspect of language that we are very sensitive to, but mostly at an unconscious level (Kelly, 2000:86).

b. Stress

All of words have each identifiable syllable, and one of the syllables in each word will sound louder than the others. The syllable indicated with louder sound, are the stressed syllable. Each stressed syllable, in a word in isolation, also has change in the pitch, or the level of the speaker's voice, and the vowel sound in that syllable lenghtened. Stress can fall on the fourth, middle or last syllable of words (Kelly, 2000:66-67).

c. Connected speech

Connected speech Connected speech refers to spoken language when analysed as a continous

sequence, as in normal utterances and conversation (Crystal, 1985:66). Vowel and consonant segments combine into syllables; syllables combine into words; words combine into phrases and sentences (Crystal, 2004:247).

B. English Vowel

Generally, English speakers use 12 vowels, 8 diphthongs and 5 triphthongs (Crystal, 2003:237).

1. Pure Vowel

Pure vowels are vowels with a single perceived auditory quality, made by a movement of the tongue towards one position in the mouth. When listening to the 12 pure vowels, it is evident that five of them are relatively long in duration, and seven are relatively short. Moreover, in several cases length seems to relate pairs of vowels which are articulated in roughly the same part of the mouth. The contrast between long and short vowels is not only due to length but also involved a different place of articulation. Here are the descriptions the feature of the pure vowels (Crystal, 2003:240-241).

a. Vowel /iː/, the articulation is the front of tongue raised to slightly below and behind close front position, the lips are spread, the tongue is tense, the side rims make firm contact with upper molars. The sound is as in *key, scene,* and people.

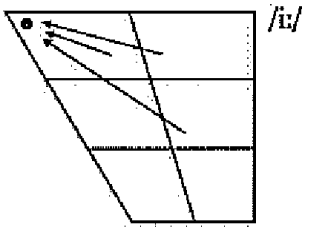


Figure 2.2. Vowel location of /i/

b. Vowel /ɪ/, the articulation is the part of the tongue nearer center than front raised to just above half-close position, the lips are loosely spread, the tongue is lax, the rims make light contact with upper molars. The sound is as in *hit*, *busy*, and *rhythm*.

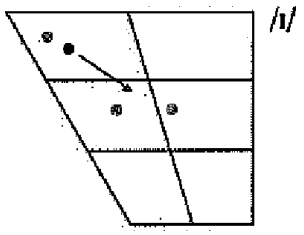


Figure 2.3. Vowel location of /ɪ/

c. Vowel /e/, the articulation is the front of the tongue raised to between half-open and half-close positions, the lips are loosely spread, the tongue is tenser than for/ɪ/, the rims make lighter contact with upper molars. The sound is as in *egg, said,* and *read*.

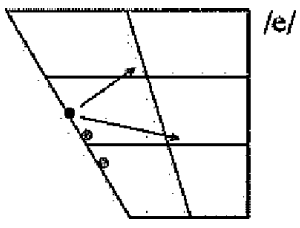


Figure 2.4. Vowel location of /e/

d. Vowel /æ/, the articulation is the front of the tongue raised to just below half-open position, the lips are neutrally open, the rims make very slight contact with upper back molars. The sound is as in *hat, attact*, and *antique*.

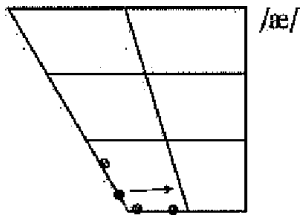


Figure 2.5. Vowel location of /æ/

e. Vowel /ʌ/, the articulation is the center of tongue raised to just above fully open positions, the lips are neutrally open, there is no contact between tongue and upper molars. The sound is as in *run, flood,* and *front.*

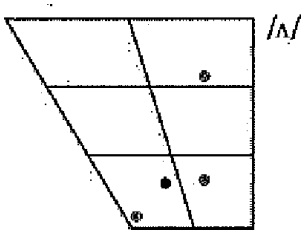


Figure 2.6. Vowel location of /ʌ/

f. Vowel /ɑ:/, the articulation is the tongue between center and back in fully open positions, the lips are neutrally open, there is no contact between rims and upper molars. The sound is as in *far, half,* and *class*.

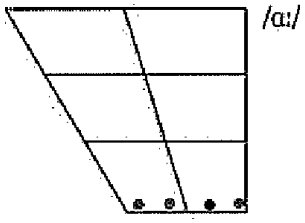


Figure 2.7. Vowel location of /ɑ:/

g. Vowel /ɒ/, the articulation is the back of the tongue in fully open position, it is slightly open lip rounded, there is no contact between rims and upper molars. The sound is as in *dog*, *want*, and *knowledge*

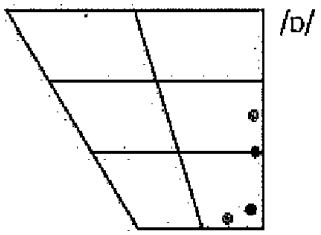


Figure 2.8. Vowel location of /ɒ/

h. Vowel /ɔ:/, the articulation is the back of the tongue raised between half-open and half-closed positions, it is medium lip rounded, there is no contact between rims and upper molars. The sound is as in *call*, *pour*, and *taught*.

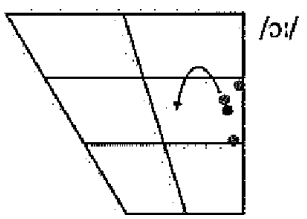


Figure 2.9. Vowel location of /ɔ/

i. Vowel /ʊ/, the articulation is the tongue nearer center than back, raised to just above half-close position, the lips are closely but loosely rounded, the tongue is lax, there is no firm contact between rims and upper molars. The sound is as in *book*, *pull*, and *woman*.

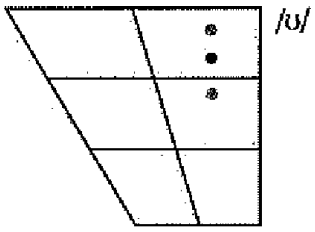


Figure 2.10. Vowel location of /ʊ/

j. Vowel /uː/, the articulation is the back of the tongue raised to just below close position, the lips are closely rounded, the tongue is tense, there is no firm contact between rims and upper molars. The sound is as in *food*, *true*, and *soup*.

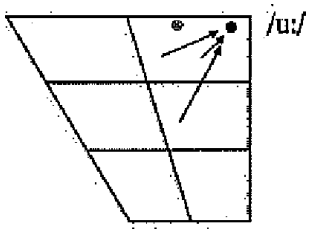


Figure 2.11. Vowel location of /u/

k. Vowel /ɜː/, the articulation is the center of the tongue

raised between half-close and half-open, the lips are neutrally spread, there is no firm contact between rims and upper molars. The sound is as in *word*, *serve*, and *pearl*.

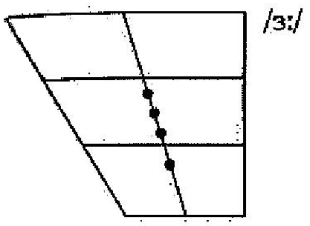


Figure 2.12. Vowel location of /ɜ/

l. Vowel /ə/, the articulation is the center of the tongue raised between half-close and half-open, the lips are neutrally spread, there is no firm contact between rims and upper molars. The sound is as in *the* (before consonant), *paper*, and *nation*.

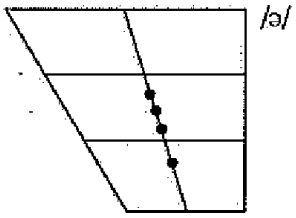


Figure 2.13. Vowel location of /ə/

2. Diphthtongs

Diphthongs are vowels where two vowel qualities can be perceived. From the point of view of lenght, the diphthongs are like long vowels, but the first part of a diphthong in English is much

longer and louder than the second. The eight diphthongs are usually grouped into three types, depending on the tongue movement involve. The first group ends with a glide towards the vowel in the center of the mouth, and are called centering diphthongs. The second group is called closing diphthongs which moves in direction of a quality at the front of vowel area which ends with a glide toward a higher position in the mouth. The last group is the other type of closing diphthong which moves in the direction of a quality at the back of the vowel area and thus adds some lip rounding. Here are the descriptions the feature of the diphthongs (Crystal, 2003:241);

a. Diphthong /eɪ/, the articulation is the glide begins from slightly below half-close front position, it moves upwards and slightly backwards towards/ɪ/, the lips are spread. The sound is as in*way*, *cake*, and *pain*.

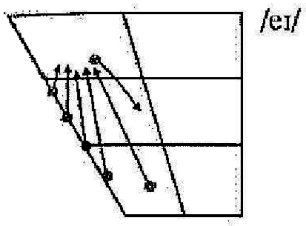


Figure 2.14. Diphthong location of /eɪ/

b. Diphthong/aɪ/, the articulation is the glide begins slightly behind front open position, it moves upwards towards/ɪ/, the lips change from neutral to loosely spread, it obvious closing movement of lower jaw. The sound is as in *eye*, *cry*, and *high*.

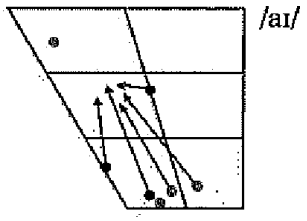


Figure 2.15. Diphthong location of /aI/

c. Diphthong /ɔI/, the articulation is the glide begins between back half-open and open positions, moves upwards and forwards towards/ɪ/, the lips open rounded changing to neutral. The sound is as in *boy*, *voice*, and *enjoy*.

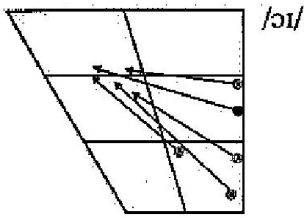
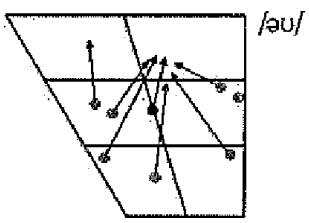


Figure 2.16. Diphthong location of /ɔI/

d. Diphthong /əʊ/, the articulation is the glide begins in central position between half-close and half open, it moves upwards and backwards towards/ʊ/, the lips are neutrally changing to slightly rounded. The sound is as in *go*, *snow*, and *although*.

Figure 2.17. Diphthong location of /əʊ/



e. Diphthong /aʊ/, the articulation is the glide between back and front open positions, it moves upwards and slightly backwards towards/ʊ/, the lips change from neutrally open to slightly rounded, the jaw movement is quite extensive. The sound is as in *bow*, *down*, and *house*.

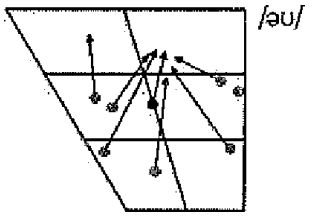


Figure 2.18. Diphthong location of /aʊ/

f. Diphthong /ɪə/, the articulation is the glide begins in position for/ɪ/, it moves backwards and downwards towards/ə/, the lips are neutral, with slight movement from spread to open. The sound is as in *here*, *fear*, and *idea*.

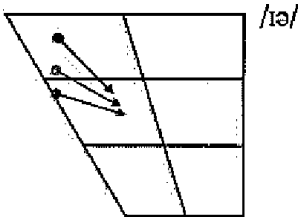


Figure 2.19. Diphthong location of /ɪə/

g. Diphthong /ɛə/, the articulation is the glide begins in half- open position, it moves backwards towards/ə/, the

lips are neutrally open throughout. The sound is as in *dare*, *chair*, and *there*.

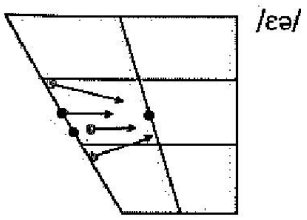


Figure 2.20. Diphthong location of /ɛə/

h. Diphthong /ʊə/, the articulation is the glide begins in position for/ʊ/, it moves forwards and downwards towards /ə/, the lips are weakly rounded becoming neutrally spread. The sound is as in *sure*, *tour*, and *obscure*

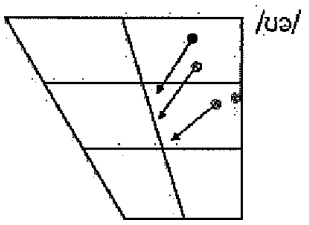


Figure 2.21. Diphthong location of /ʊə/

3. Triphthongs

Triphthongs are a glide from one vowel to another and then third, all produced rapidly and without interruption. Those can be heard in careful pronuncaition (Roach, 2009:19). Those are vowels in which three vowel qualities can be perceived. Those are formed by adding a central glide to the closing diphthongs (/eɪ/, /ɔɪ/, /aɪ/,

/əʊ/, /aʊ/ ending with /ə/) (Crystal, 2003:239). Those are constituted a single vowel unit (Wells, March 21th, 2016). There are two types of triphthong. First, that formed by the closing diphthongs ending with /ɪ/ and the second, which formed by the closing diphthong ending with /ʊ/.

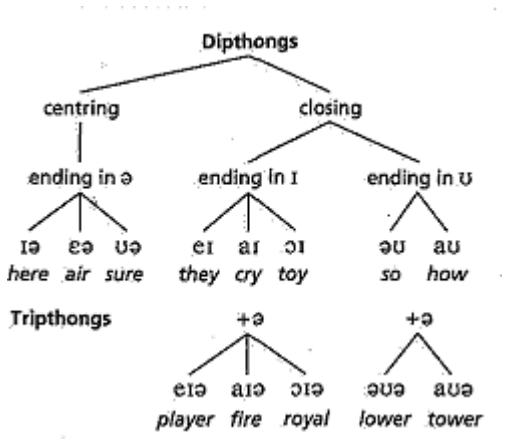


Figure 2.22. Triphthong formed diagram

All the precending diphthong glide are falling and closing; three of them /eɪ, aɪ, ɔɪ, əʊ, aʊ; aɪ, ɔɪ, aʊ/, require an extensive movement of the tongue. All precending diphthong followed by [ə] within the word, either as an inseparable part of the word, for example, Noah, fire, choir, iron, hire, society, our, sour, tower, or as a suffix (morpheme) appended to the root, for example, greyer, player, slower, mower, higher, drier, employer, or, sometimes, as, a separable elements internal in a composite form, for example, nowadays. But those have tendency in general RP spoken rapidly and particularly in Refined RP (even spoken slowly) to omit the second element ([ʊ] and [ɪ]), especialy when [ə] is not felt as a

separable morpheme. This process is sometimes known as smoothing (Cruttenden, 2008:145).

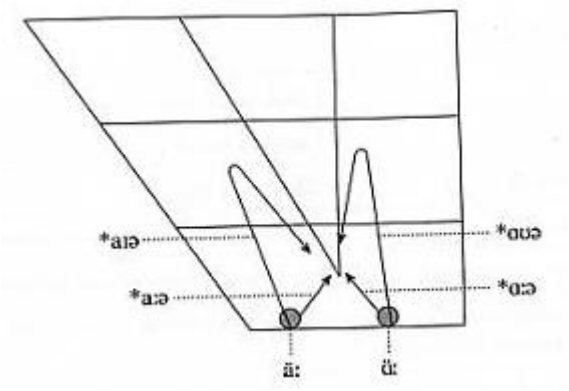


Figure 2.23. Triphthong sound movement (e.g., /aɪə/)

Here is the description of the triphthongs (Cruttenden, 2008:145-146);

a. Triphthong/eɪə/, formed by [eɪ] + [ə], [eːə] smoothing inGeneral PR, found in word *player*.

b. Triphthong /aɪə/, formed by [aɪ] + [ə], [aːə] smoothing inGeneral RP, found in word *fire*.

c. Triphthong /ɔɪə/, formed by [ɔɪ] + [ə], [ɔːə] smoothing ingeneral RP, found in word *royal*.

d. Triphthong /əʊə/, formed by [əʊ] + [ə], [əː] or /ɨ/ smoothing in general RP, found in word *lower*.

e. Triphthong /aʊə/, formed by [aʊ] + [ə], [aːə] smoothing ingeneral RP, found in word *tower*.

C. Indonesian Vowels

Indonesian exists in many regional and dialectal varieties. Consequently, the number of vowels varies by dialect. But still, it has own spelling standard. There are 6 vowels and 4 diphthong (Panitia Pengembangan Bahasa Indonesia, 2016: 4). Here the descriptions of each vowels based on Muslich (2008:61-72), Panitia Pengembanga Bahasa Indonesia (2016:4) and Andi-Pallawa (2013:120-126);

1. Vowel
    a. /i/ appears in word initial, medial and final positions. It is high, front and unrounded. It possesses two allophones, one is short vowel [ɪ] appearing in a closed syllable and the other one is long vowel [i] occurs in an open syllable. This vowel is denoted by the letter 'i'.
    b. /e/ occupies three places such as in the word initial, medial and final positions. It is middle, spread. It has two allophones, firstly, [ɛ] when it appears in a close syllable. Secondly, [e] when it occurs in an open syllable. The second is shorter than the first. It is denoted by the letter 'e'.
    c. /ə/ emerges in the word initial and medial positions. It is spread. It occurs only in close syllable. It hasn't other allophonic alternative. It also represents the letter 'ɐ'.
    d. /a/ emerges three locations in the words, for instance, in the word initial, medial and final positions. It is low, central, neutral. It has two allophones in close syllable. The one is

longer [ɑ:] than the other one [a]. [ɑ:] usually appears in first syllable. This vowel denoted by the letter ‘a’.

e. /o/ occupies in word initial, medial, and final positions. It is middle, low, rounded. It has two allophones, [o] and [ɔ:]. [ɔ:] appears both in close and open syllable but [o]comes out only in closed syllable. It is represented by the letter ‘o’.

f. /u/ appears in word initial, medial, and final positions. It is high, rounded. It possesses some allophone. The [u:] appears in open syllable and the [ʊ] vowel occurs in close syllable. In short the short one can occur either before or after another vowel. This vowel is denoted by the letter ‘u’.

2. Diphthong

a. /ay/ the articulation is the glide begins from slightly below half-close front position, it moves upwards and slightly backwards towards /ɪ/, the lips are spread.

b. /aw/ the articulation is the glide begins in central position between half-close and half open, it moves upwards and backwards towards /ʊ/, the lips are neutrally changing to slightly rounded.

c. /ey/ the articulation is the glide begins in close-midle position, moves upward toward /i/, the lips are spread.

d. /oy/ the articulation is the glide begins between back half-open and back positions, moves upwards and forwards

towards/ɪ/, the lips open rounded changing to neutral.

Table 2.1. Spelling guide in pronouncing Indonesian diphthong

Articulation	**Letters Combination**	**Example of Use (Position)**		
		Initial	**Medial**	**Final**
/ay/	Ai	Aileron	balairung	Pandai
/aw/	A u	Autodidak	taufik	Harima u
/ey/	Ei	Eigendom	geiser	Survei
/oy/	Oi	-	boikot	Amboi

In addition, when suffix –i is added to a root ending in a, a vowel sequence, /ai/ also occurs; for example, mula+i is pronounced with three syllable, mu.la.i, /mulai/, with stress falling on the penultimate vowel (the a), as is usually the case in Indonesia. This vowel sequence also occurs as the usual pronunciation of the orthographic sequence: ahi; for example, jahit is pronounced /jait/. Similar id the vowel sequence /au/, which usually occurs in word spelled with ahu; for example tahu 'know' is pronounced /tau/ (Echols and Shadily, 1989:xviii). But those, /ai/ and /au/, are not belong to diphthong.

In Indonesian spelling, like vowels written together are normally pronounced with an intervening glottal stop. So taat is pronounced /taʔat/. Exceptions to this spelling convention are noted in the text, for example, boom /bom/. Sequences of unlike vowels beginning with a high vowel and ending with a low vowel (ia, ua) are pronounced with an intervening glide: liar is /liyar/; luas is

/luwas/. As noted earlier, stress is usually penultimate (Echols and Shadily, 1989:xvi).

D. Error Analysis

In language learning, learner will always produce error whether in spoken or written language. It is due to mother tongue, intralingual, context of learning (Brown, 2007:263), or other factors. The study of error is commonly called *error analysis*.

1. Definition of Error Analysis

Error analysis is a technique for identifying, classifying and systematically interpreting the unacceptable forms produced by someone learning a foreign language, using any of the principles and procedures provided by linguistics (Crystal, 1985:112). It is a type of comparative linguistic study, which comparing a learner's interlanguage at a certain point in time with the target language. It should ideally be carried out on a spontaneous speech sample (Corder, 1973:269,273). It is the first approach to the study of SLA which includes an internal focus on learners' creative ability to construct language.

The primary focus of SLA is on learner errors and the evidence of how learner errors could provide an understanding of the underlying processes of second language learning or second language acquisition. Learner errors are windows into the language learners mind (Saville-Troike in Fauziati, 2009:135).

Corder in Brown (2007:257) stated that a learner's errors are significant in provide to the researcher evidence of how language is learned or acquired, what strategies or procedures the learners is employing in the discovery of the language. It is also able to help the teacher to devise remedial lesson and exercise, a correction or treatment, which can help learner reduce their errors (Fauziati, 2009).

A theoretical function of error analysis is the investigation of the language learning process. Within mentalist or cognitivist theories of language acquisition the rationale for studying error is based on the systematic nature of language learning. The systematic nature of language learning, seen for example in the use first and second language learners make of hypothesis- testing, has as a corollary that errors in a learner's interlanguage will also be systematic (Corder, 1973:270).

In error analysis the language a learner produces is compared with the target language and the errors analyzed. Ellis (1994:48-67), discussing theoretical error analysis as part of applied linguistics, describes Corder's five steps of error analysis: collection of a sample of learner language; identification of errors, description of errors; explanation of error; evaluating errors. While Brown (2007:260-263) suggestes two steps in the process of error analysis, they are the identification and the description error. In carrying out the task of performance analysis, the researchers are

called upon to conclude order and logic in this unstable and variable system.

2. Distinction between Error and Mistake

a. Error

In error analysis, it is essential to understand the distinction between error and mistake (Brown, 2007: 257-259). Error is a term referring to a performance that takes place when the deviation arises as a result of lack of knowledge (Brown, 2007:258). James in Fauziati (2000:139) noted that an error arises only when there was no intention to commit one. Errors are systematic, consistent devience which is characteristic of the learner's linguistic system at a given stage of learning. Errors can be identified by comparing original utterance with reconstruction utterance that is correct sentences having the meaning intended by the learner. Corder in Fauziati (2000:140) suggested two different ways to arrive at the interpretation, depending upon whether there is an access to the learner or not.

b. Mistake

A mistake refers to a performance error that is either a random guess or a slip, in that it is a failure to utilize a known system correction. The hesitations, slip of the tongue, random ungrammaticalities, and other performance lapses in native speaker production also occur in second language speech (Brown,

2007:257). Mistake is derivations due to performance factors such as memory limitation, fatigue, and emotional strain. James in Fauziati (2000:139) states that if the learners are able to correct a fault in their output, it is assumed that the form their selected was not the one intended, and shall said that the fault is a mistake.

E. Cause of Error

The students made some errors because affected by mother tongue. According to Ramelan (1994:4), a foreign language student will meet with difficulties in his learning process may be easily understood. Since childhood he has been speaking his mother tongue, which has been deeply implanted in him as part of his habits. The movement of their speech organs have been set to produce the speech sounds of their own language; it will, of course, be difficult for them to change the habit of moving their speech organs in such a way as to produce the foreign sounds.

Ellis (1994:58) identifies the sources or causes of competence errors into three categories:

1. Interference errors occur as a result of the use of elements from one language while speaking another.
2. Intralingual errors reflect the general characteristics of rule learning such as faulty generalization, incomplete application of rules and failure to learn conditions under which rule apply.
3. Developmental errors occur when the learner attempts to build up

hypotheses about the target language of the basis of limited experience.

According to the causes of error, Harmer (2001:99-100) explains that it is widely accepted that there are two distinctive causes of error that most if not all students make as various stages.

a. L1 interference Students who learn English as second language already have a deep knowledge of at least one other language, and where L1 and English come into contact with each other there are often confusions which provoke errors in learner's use English. This can be at the level of sounds: Arabic, for example, does not have a phonemic distinction between /f/ and /v/, and Arabic speakers may well say ferry when they mean very. It can be at the level of grammar where a student's first language has a subtly different system: French students often have trouble with the present perfect because there is a similar form in French but the same time concept expressed slightly differently; Japanese students have problems with article usage because Japanese does not use the same system of reference, and so on. It may finally, be at the level of word usage where similar sounding words have different meaning: libraria in Spanish means 'bookshop', embarazada means 'pregnat', not 'embarrassed' (such so-called 'false friend' are common between romance language).
b. Developmental errors For a long time no researchers in child

language development have been aware of the phenomenon of 'over-generalisation'. This is best described as a situation where a child who stars by saying 'Daddy went, they come, etc. perfectly correctly suddenly stars saying Daddy goed' and 'they comed'. What seems to happening is that the child stars to 'over-generalis' a new rule that has been (subconsciously) learnt, and as a result even makes mistakes with things that he or she knew before. Later, however, it all gets sorted out, as the child begins to have a more sophisticated understanding, and he or she goes back to saying went and came whilst, at the same time, handling regular past tense ending.

Errors are part of the students' intrerlanguage, which is the version of the language which a learner has at any one stage of development, and which is continually reshaped as he or she aims towards full mastery. When responding to errors teacher should be seen as providing feedback, helping that reshaping process rather than telling students off because they are wrong.

F. Problem in Pronunciation

In general, three different kinds of problem areas can be distinguished (Heronetal: 2000)

1. Problem in the pronunciations of non-native sound

   Problems in the pronunciation of non-native sounds occur if at the competence level the student is aware of the proper

pronunciation in the language to learn (L2), but at the performance level articulatory constraints cause poor performance in the non-native language. Such mistakes would consist in the student's mother tongue (L1) with similar phones in the native language; for example, interdental fricative [θ] and [ð] are realized as the homorganic stops [t] and [d] or as the fricative

[s] and [z].

2. Carry-over of pronunciation regularities from the mother tongue (L1)

A carry-over of pronunciation regularities from L1 to L2 takes place mostly at the phonological level. A similar carry-over can be caused by the spelling-to-sound mapping of the mother tongue.

3. Overgeneralizations of target Language (L2) regularities.

Overgeneralization of L2 regularities occur whenever the speaker chooses a possible pronunciation but in an inappropriate context.

G. Types of Pronunciation Error

1. Substitution

Substitution is a type of errors which are characterized by the replacement of an item (Crystal, 1985:295). A performace wich the

performer use the wrong form of pronunciation. The source could be from intralingual, interlingual transfer, and others. Substitution of a word such as heart /hɑːt/ is pronounced /həʊt/ ɑr /hɜːt/ by generalizing the spelling combination ‘ea’ in word such as learn /lɜːn/ and earn/ɜːn/.

2. Insertion

Insertion or addition is a type of errors which are characterized by the presence of an item, which should otherwise not appear in well-formed utterance (Fauziati, 2000). In this context, one or more extra sounds are added or inserted to a word. The source could be from intralingual, interlingual transfer, and others. Insertion vowel /ə/ in word such as, studied /ˈstʌdɪd/ is pronounced /ˈstʌdɪəd/.

3. Omission

Omission is a type of errors which are characterized by the absence of an item that must appear in well-formed utterance (Fauziati, 2000). Certain sounds are not produce – entire syllable or classes of sounds may be deleted. This type of errors occurred by the affect of intralingual, interlingual transfer, and others. Omission vowel /e/ Word such as, develop /divˈloped/ is pronounced /diveləpt/.

H. Pevious Study

The fourth previous study is a research entitled "*Error Analysis on Mispronunciation of Spoken Language Made by Students at the Fourth Semester of English Department of Sebelas Maret University in the Academic Year 2013/2014"*. This research is arranged by Hidayah Rohmah. She graduates from Sebelas Maret University.

The research design is descriptive. It is conducted at fourth semester students of English Education Department of Sebelas Maret University. The research's objective are to describe the kind, the frequency, and the causes of errors made by the students in pronunciation and to find the strategies that can be offered to solve the errors.

Hidayah Rohmah conducted the research by analyzed the error from the collected data. The data obtained by a test. The production test is conducted with the help of a tape recorder. She has done his research and finds that the errors made by the students based on segmental and suprasegmental phoneme. Segmental phoneme classified into two types; error in vowel and error in consonant, then suprasegmental classified into error in stress, error in linking and error in assimilation. From her research find 894 total errors consisting of 38 or 60.18% errors in vowel, 15 or 17.34% error in consonant, 57 or 6.37% error in stress, 47 or 5.26% error in linking, and 97 or10.85% error in assimilation. The factor causing errors are; (1) interligual transfer and (2) intralingual transfer (Rohmah, 2013).

The second previous study arranged by Siti Fatimah. Her research entitled "*Pronunciation Problems of English Segmental Sounds among the Fourth Graders of SMA Islam Malang"*. She graduated from Malang University.

The research is aimed at knowing the pronunciation problems of certain significant English segmental sounds among the fourth graders of SMA Islam Malang and in what position of words the problems occur. This research used test as the instruments. As well as Rohmah, she used a recorder to record the pronunciation of the students. As the transcription, she used IPA OXFORD Advanced Learner's Dictionary as the guidance.

On her research finds that the most problematic sounds to be pronounced by the students were the vowels /i:/ contrasted with /ɪ/, /e/,/ə/, and /eu/; /u:/ contrasted with /ʊ/, /ʌ/, /ɔ/; /æ/ contrasted with /ʌ/, /e/,/a/, /ə/, /ɪ/, /ɔ/, the consonant differed /p/, /t/, /k/; /θ/ toward/t/; /ð/ toward /t/; /v/ toward /f/; /ʃ/ toward /s/; /ʒ/toward /g/, /dʒ/ toward /s/, /ʃ/. Her research also find the comparison of both Indonesian and English for the most problematic words showed that one factor that might cause the pronunciation problems of English segmental sounds are: (1) There are sounds in English which are phonemic, but they are not phonemic in Indonesian, (2) There are some sounds which do not exist in Indonesian, but they exist in English, (3) There are sounds which are voiced in English but they are voiceless in Indonesian, (4) There are sounds which pronounced with aspiration in English, but not in Indonesian. Another indication of the cause is the unfamiliarity of the students toward the

words (Fatimah, 2010).

Both research above are conducted in the same field that is pronunciation. Both research focus in exploring the erroneous in segmental feature, consonant and vowel. Futhermore, one of the previous researches also explores the suprasegmental feature. The difference of the researches above and this research is that this research explore particularly English vowel. In this research, the researcher analyzes the pronunciation error of the fourth semester students of English Education Department in academic year 2018/2019