CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The chapter in this section deals with any reviews of related literature, including the nature of pronunciation in language learning, some error in pronunciation, and role of error.

A. Pronunciation

Brown (2000: 5) state that language is a system of arbitrary conventionalized vocal, written, or gestural symbols that enable members of a given community to communicate intelligibly one another." In addition, learning English as second language is a long and complex undertaking. Person need total commitment, total involvement, a total physical, intellectual, and emotional response to successfully send and receive messages in a second language.

Drawing on the developing fields of learning which could either be the focus of the lesson or from a component of any lesson is pronunciation. Burns and Claire (1994: 5) emphasize pronunciation refers to the *phonology* of the language – or the meaningful perception and production of the sounds of that language and how they impact on the listener. Pronunciation (also known as phonology), refers to the production of sounds that we use to make meaning. It includes attention to the particular sounds of a language (segments), which is the various features that make up production of sound in English are the segmental level, aspects of

speech beyond the level of the individual sound such as intonation, phrasing, stress, timing, rhythm (as well as suprasegmental features), 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 (Gilakjani, 2012: 118).

Learning to pronounce the sounds of English in natural and correct speech is a crucial part of learning pronunciation in English. It is also supported by Burns and Claire (1994: 7) assert "the sound systems of consonants, vowels or their combinations are called *phonemes*. Phonemes are sounds that, when pronounced incorrectly, can change the meaning of the word. For example compare the changes of meaning in: pet – pat; lamp – ramp; about – abort". In fact, many learners may have difficulty with particular sounds, sound combinations or with putting particular sounds in particular positions.

Underhill (1994: 24) sees the sound system of English is made up of phonemes, or individual sounds which carry the potential to make meaning, and these may be vowels, diphthongs (combinations of two vowel sounds), triphthongs (combinations of three vowel sounds) or consonants. These sounds are made using our tongue in different parts of the mouth.

Consonants are made by causing a blockage or partial blockage in the mouth, many learner will only come to say sounds intelligibly through careful listening and practice. Consonant may be classified into voice consonant and voiceless consonant. A voiced consonant is a sound produced when the vocal

cords are vibrating. While, voiceless consonants is a sound made with no vibration of the vocal cord Dale and Poem (2005: 116).The distinction between voiced and unvoiced sounds is often more clearly heard in the amount of aspiration or force heard (greater for unvoiced sounds) and the length of the vowel *before* the sound (longer before voiced sounds) rather than in the presence or absence of voicing. Consonant sounds may occur together in English to form clusters, which can pose particular difficulties for learners. According to Baker (2005: 24) consonants is a sound, voiced and voiceless, in which the air stream is obstructed through a narrowing or complete closure of the mouth passage in the other words. The sound of a consonant depends on whether or not the vocal cords vibrate, where and how it is formed.

The vowels in the phonemic chart are ordered according to where they are made in the mouth. Thus the top row of vowels are made high in the mouth, the middle row are made in the centre, and the bottom row are made low in the mouth. Similarly, the vowels on the left side of the chart are made in the front of the mouth, the right-hand rows of the vowel section are made in the back of the mouth, and those in between are made in between. Thus the chart can serve as a useful reminder for both teacher and learner English may have many more vowel sounds or longer vowels than learners are used to in their first language, and so learners may need a lot of careful listening to vowel sounds, and to think about how to distinguish them, as well as where in the mouth they should make them. According to Jones (2002: 12) vowel is when the tongue takes up a vowel position, a resonance chamber is formed which modified the quality of produce by

the voice, and give rise to a distinct quality or timber. He defines a vowel (in normal speech) as a voiced sound in forming which the air issues in a continuous stream through the pharynx and mouth, there being a narrowing such as would cause audible friction. According to the position of the highest point of the tongue, vowels can be classified into front vowels, central vowels, and back vowels. In addition diphthong as a part of vowel sound diphthong is when the sound is made by gliding from one vowel position to another. Diphthongs are represented phonetically by sequences of two letters, the first showing the starting point and the second indicating the direction of movement. He defines a diphthong as an independent vowel-glide not containing within itself either a 'peak' or 'trough' of prominence. What is meant by vowel glide is that speech-organs start in the position of one vowel and move in the direction of another vowel. What is mean by 'independent' is that the glide is expressly made, and is not merely unavoidable concomitant of sounds preceding and following. Diphthongs are classified into three, namely raising/ closing diphthong, falling students and centring diphthongs.

The fact that few second language learners are able to speak a second language without showing evidence of the transfer of pronunciation features of their native language is evidence of the difficulty acquiring a native like pronunciation, moreover adult learners will already have 'drawn the boundary' of what counts as a particular sound in a slightly different place or manner in their first language.

B. Error

This sub chapter explains the error versus mistake, types of error and also sources of error.

1. Error versus mistake

Error and mistake are different. In order to analyze learners' errors in proper perspective, it is important to differentiate the errors and mistakes. Mistakes are akin to slip of tongue and recognizable (by the mistakes maker), error is systematic in which it is likely to occur repeatedly and is not recognized by learner". Brown (1987: 170) also maintains "that a mistake refers to the performance error that is either the random guess or a slip. It is because of failure to use known system correctly". In this case the learner can recognize and correct some lapse or mistakes, which are not the result of a deficiency in competence but the result imperfect in producing speech.

Besides, Corder (in Croft 1980: 105) describes that mistake are deviations due to performance factors, such as memory limitation, spelling, pronunciation, fatigue emotional strains, physical stresses, such as tiredness, physiological condition, such as strong emotion, while error are deviations of some system of language that the learner make. Furthermore according to Ellis (1997: 17) error reflects gaps in a learners' knowledge they occur because the learner does not know what is correct. Mistakes reflect occasional lapses in performance; they occur, because in particular instance, the learner is unable to perform what he or she knows.

Based on the statement above the way to distinguish error and mistakes is checking the consistency of learner performance. If they say a word twice or more which totally with different pronunciation in one occasion, this would suggest that they posses knowledge in correct form and are just slipping up a mistake, but if the speakers change their pronunciation of a word and consistently use it this would indicate the lack of knowledge or called an error.

2. Types of error

Dulay, Burt, Karshen (1982: 146) emphasis some error classification as called descriptive taxonomy, they are: a) linguistic category, b) surface strategy, c) comparative analysis, and d) communicative effect

a. Linguistic Category

Linguistic category in here, classify errors according to either or both the language component and the particular linguistic constituent the error affect. Language components include phonology (pronunciation), syntax and morphology (grammar), semantic and lexicon (meaning and vocabulary), and discourse (style) (Dulay, Burt, Karshen 1982: 146).

b. Surface strategy

Surface strategy taxonomy highlights the ways surface structure are altered (Dulay, Burt, Karshen 1982: 150). This

taxonomy classified into four types: omission, addition, misformation, and misordering.

1) Omissions are identified by the absence of an item that must appear in well-formed utterance it includes the omission of:

   (a) Voiced

   (b) Unvoiced

   (c) Single vowels

   (d) Diphthongs

2) Additions are identified by any unnecessary presence an item or morphemes which appear in an utterance. They are three types of addition errors:

   (a) Double marking

   (b) Regularization

   (c) Simple addition

3) Misformation are identified by the use of the wrong from of the morpheme or structure.

4) Misorderings are identified by the incorrect placement of a morpheme or group of morphemes in an utterance.

c. Comparative analysis

The classification of error in comparative taxonomy is based on comparisons between the structures of second language

errors and certain other types of construction (Dulay, Burt, Karshen 1982: 163). This taxonomy proposes four errors:

1) Development errors

   Development errors are errors similar those made by children learning the target language as their first language.

2) Interlingual errors

   Interlingual errors are similar in structure to a semantically equivalent phrase or sentence in the learner native language.

3) Ambiguous errors

   Ambiguous errors are those that reflect the learner's native language structure, and at the same time they are of the type found in speech of the children acquiring a first language.

4) Other errors

   This taxonomy proposes the grab bag errors that don't fit into those few taxonomies. In this particular type taxonomy, the grab bag errors should be of more than passing interest. Since they are not similar to those children make during first language development, they must be unique to second language learners.

d. Communicative effect

   The communicative effect classification deals with errors from the perspective of their effect on the listener or reader. It

focuses on distinguishing between errors that seem to cause miscommunication. Duly (1982) classifies this type errors inti two:

1) Global errors

Effect that affect overall sentences organization significantly hinder communication. Burt and Kiparsky (cited in Dulay, Burt, Karshen 1982: 191) labeled the most systematic global errors includes:

(a) Wrong order of constituent. For example: English language use many people

(b) Missing, wrong or misplace sentence connectors for example: (if) not take this bus, we late for school.

(c) Missing cues to signal obligatory exceptions to pervasive syntactic rules. For example: the students' proposal (was) looked into (by) principal.

(d) Regularization of pervasive syntactic rules to exception. For example: we amused that the movie very much (that the movie amused us very much)

2) Local errors

Errors that effect single elements (constituents) in a sentence do not usually hinder communication significantly. These include errors in noun and verb

infection, articles, auxiliaries, and the formation of quantifiers.

Corder (1974, cited in Ellis: 1994:56) distinguishes three types of errors based on systematically:

(a) Pre-systematic errors occur when learner is unaware of existence of a particular rule in the target language.

(b) Systematic errors occur when the learner has discovered a rule but it is the wrong one.

(c) Post-systematic errors occur when the learner knows the correct target language rules but uses it in constantly (makes a mistake.

In order to those different kinds of errors, however, it is necessary to interview the learner. Type (a) occur when the learner cannot give any account of way a particular from is chosen, (b) occurs when the learner is unable to correct the errors but can explain the target-language rule that is normally used.

For the four type of errors above, it can be conclude that linguistic category is classified based on language component and particular linguistic. While surface strategy taxonomies classified into omission, addition, misformation, and misordering. Comparative analysis proposes to developmental errors, interlingual error, and ambiguous error. Communicative effect is classified into global errors and local errors.

C. Source Of Errors

Kasper and Faerch proposed a model of speech production that involved a planning phase and a production phase. Communication strategies were seen as belonging to the planning phase; their use became necessary if the learner experienced a problem with the initial plan that they made. In addition to the strategies outlined above Kasper and Faerch also pointed to the possibility of using a reductive strategy such as switching to a completely different topic Ellis (1997: 60–61).

The errors can be seen from some perspective. Richards, et.al. (2009: 56) communication strategies are strategies that learners use to overcome these problems in order to convey their intended meaning. Brown (1980: 173-181) based on communicative strategies define it as the conscious employment of verbal mechanisms for communicating an idea when linguistic forms are not available to the learner for some reason, he also classifies errors into five number, namely:

1) Avoidance

Avoidance can be broken down into several subcategories, and thus distinguished from other types of strategies. The most common type of avoidance strategy is 'syntactic or lexical avoidance' within a semantic category. When a learner, for example, cannot say "I lost my way" he might avoid the use of way' and says "I lost my road" instead. "Phonological avoidance' is also common, as in the case of a learner of English who finds

initial /I/ difficult to pronounce and wants to say "he is a liar" may choose to say" He does not speak the truth". A more direct type of avoidance is "topic avoidance", in which a whole topic of conversation is entirely avoided. To avoid the topic, a learner may change the subject, pretend not to understand, or simply not respond at all.

Avoidance, which takes multiple forms, has been identified as a communication strategy. Learners of a second language may learn to avoid talking about topics for which they lack the necessary vocabulary or other language skills in the second language. Also, language learners sometimes start to try to talk about a topic, but abandon the effort in mid-utterance after discovering that they lack the language resources needed to complete their message Tarone (1981: 285–295).

2) Prefabricated patterns

Another common communication strategy is to memorize certain stock phrases or sentences without understanding the components of the phrases or sentences. "Tourist survival" language is full of prefabricated patterns, most of which can be found in pocket bilingual "phrase" books which list hundred of stock sentences for various occasions. The examples of these prefabricated patterns are "How much does it cost?", "Where is the toilet?". "I don't speak English" and "I don't understand you". Learners may avoid a problematic word by using a different one, for example

substituting the irregular verb *make* with the regular verb *ask*. The regularity of "ask" makes it easier to use correctly Ellis (1997: 60–61).

3) *Cognitive and personality style*

One's own personality style or style of thinking can be a source of error, highlighting the idiosyncratic nature of many learner errors. A reflective and conservative style might result in very careful but hesitant production of speech with perhaps fewer errors but errors indicative of the conscious application of rules. Such a person might also commit errors of over formality. A person with high self-esteem may be willing to risk more errors, in the interest of communication, because he does not feel as threatened by committing errors with a person with low self-esteem. Language errors can thus conceivably be traced to sources in certain personal or cognitive idiosyncrasies. Personality style seems Non-verbal strategies this can refer to strategies such as the use of gesture and mime to augment or replace verbal communication (Richards; 2009) & Tarone (1981: 285–295).

4) *Appeal to authority*

Another common strategy of communication is a direct appeal authority. The learner may directly ask a native speaker (the authority) if he gets stuck by saying, for example, "How do you say?" Or he might guess and then ask for verification from the native speaker of the

correctness of the attempt. He might also choose to look a word or structure up in a bilingual dictionary. The strategy of asking an interlocutor for the correct word or other help is a communication strategy VanPatten (2010: 73).

5) *Language Switch*

Finally, when all other strategies fail to produce a meaningful utterance, a learner may switch to the so-called language switch. That is, he may simply use his native language whether the hearer knows that native language or not. Usually, just a word or two are slipped in, in the hope that learner will get the gist of what is being communicated. Learners may insert a word from their first language into a sentence, and hope that their interlocutor will understand Selinker (1972: 209–241) & Tarone; (1981: 285–295).

D. Roles of Error in Pronunciation

The main purpose of this discussion is to explain how the errors can be useful in language teaching. Basically, errors put the same important contribution, although the points viewed are various. Bartarm and Walton (1991: 17) purpose "the mistake is the evidence of learning. Learning is progressive stage and learners do lot of things including making mistakes. In those stages, learners tend to make generalization by the correction toward mistakes". Corder in Richard (1997: 25) adds that learner's errors might provide evidence of the system of

learned language at the particular point in the course. Learners make progress, for instance by being able pronounce they have made.

1. Circumstance /ˈsir.kum.ten/ (students make an error)

2. Circumstance /ˈsɜː.kəm.stænts/ (students revise)

3. Death /det/ (students make others error)

4. Death /deθ/ (students revise)

The progress made by the learners can, then, be seen by looking by language constructions pronunciation they have made, specifically at the errors. If, then the fact is connected to the role of English transcription, it comes to conclusion that any errors in pronunciation are very significant for the need of student's pronunciation progress.

Nunan (1999: 58) also puts "making errors in language activities" as one of characteristics of good language learner. It is based on the fact that learners who make mistakes and receive treatment (toward their mistakes) could possibly perform understanding at the particular areas. Bartarm and Walton (1991: 19) again add that it is teacher's job to aid the process, including the making of errors.

E. Previous Study

Related to this research, there are some previous studies which are similar or related to this research. Here the researcher presents two of the studies. Those are presented blow:

The first research was conducted by Sanjaya (2014) at the NHK World The Newsline Reporters. The research entitles "Pronunciation Errors By NHK

World The Newsline Reporters". Research problem of this research were: 1. What kind of the errors of pronunciation in vowels and consonants? 2. What are the possible causes of the pronunciation errors in vowels and consonants that are made by NHK WORLD TV Newsline Reporters? Sanjaya (2014: 3).

This study employed descriptive qualitative approach and document analysis, moreover the researcher found 76 errors made by reporters in pronounce some words. The result in this study found that in vowels, there are 20 kinds of substitution, 6 kinds of addition and 1 omission and the vowel errors committed mostly are the substitution of vowel / / to /a/ that reaches 10 errors. Meanwhile, the consonant errors have 11 kinds of substitution, 4 kinds of omission and 1 addition and the error committed mostly is the substitution of /l/ to /r/ which has a total of 10 errors. In depth, the writer elaborates two possible causes of errors made by the reporters which the first is the Japanese language characteristic and the second is the aptitudes of the learner.

The second research was conducted by Puspita (2014) at the eleventh grade students of SMA Negeri I Sigaluh Banjarnegara in the Academic Year 2006/2007. The research entitles "An Analysis of Students' Errors in Pronouncing English Vowels (A case Study of the Eleventh Grade of SMA N I Sigaluh Banjarnegara in the Academic Year 2006/2007)". Research problem of this research were: 1. What kinds of errors are made by students in pronouncing English Vowels? 2. Why do these errors happen/ occur? Puspita (2007: 4).

In this researcher found the result of the analysis which show students are considered "Excellent" in pronouncing English vowels. The total percentage of

various errors in pronouncing English vowels is 23.33%. There are five types of dominant errors. There are vowel [i:] (5.31%), vowel [æ] (6.22%), vowel [a:] (6.67%), vowel [_:] (6.67%), and vowel [_] (0.76%).