

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter presents: (1) concept of error analysis, (2) concept of error, (3) concept of pronunciation, (4) concept of pronunciation error, and (5) plosive consonants, (6) previous related studies.

2.1 Concept of Error Analysis

2.1.1 Definition of Error Analysis

Some experts define what the error analysis is. Macharia (2013) defines that error analysis (EA) provides a methodology for investigating a learner's language. Moreover, Richard and Schmidt (2010) assume error analysis (EA) as the study and analysis of the errors made by the second language learners. Hasyim (2002) also explains that error analysis is an activity to reveal errors found in writing and speaking. Continuously, Crystal (2008) also gives the definition of error analysis. He explains that error analysis (EA) is as 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. As mentioned by Brown (1980), error analysis is the fact that learner do make errors and that these errors can be observed, analyzed, and classified to reveal something of the system operating within the learners (as cited in Hasyim, 2002, p. 43). Based on some definitions above, error analysis (EA) are some activities that are used

to analyze, observe, and classify the errors which are made by the students in writing and speaking.

Advantages in error analysis are very helpful for students and teachers in learning English as foreign language. Not only error analysis is considered bad, but also it is useful to know the weaknesses of students themselves and to make benchmarks for teachers whether the ways and methods they use effectively or not. It is in line to Hasyim (2002) stated that error analysis is advantageous for both learners and teachers. For learners, error analysis is needed to show them in what aspect in grammar which is difficult for them, whereas for teachers, it is required to evaluate themselves whether they are successful or not in teaching English. Ellis (1997) also adds the advantages of error. First, they are conspicuous features learner language, raising the important question "why do learners make error?". Second, it is useful for teachers to know what errors learner make. Third, paradoxically, it is possible that making error may actually help the learners to learn when they self-correct the errors they make. Erdogan (2005) also adds the contribution of error analysis as it enables the teachers to find out the sources of and take pedagogical precautions toward them.

2.2 Concept of Error

2.2.1 Differences between Error and Mistake

Errors and mistakes defined by some expert. Funder (1987)

states an error is a judgment of a laboratory stimulus that deviates from a model of how that judgment should be made. A mistake, by contrast, is an incorrect judgment in the real world, such as a misjudgment of a real person, and so must be determined by different criteria. Aligned with Jabeen, Kazemian, and Mustafai (2015) state errors are the result of incomplete learning and linguistic incompetency of the learners and errors cannot be self-corrected. While mistakes are the results of poor performance of language due to many factors like fatigue and carelessness on the part of learners etc. According to Ellis (1997) errors reflect gaps in a learners' knowledge. Mistakes reflect occasional lapses in performance. Brown (2007) adds a mistake refers to a performance error that is either a random guess or a "slip" in that it is a failure to utilize a known system correctly. Meanwhile, error is a noticeable deviation from the adult grammar of a native speaker, reflects the competence of the learner.

From some definitions above by experts, I concluded that errors and mistakes look similar but there are two different words with different meanings. Error are made due to the lack of knowledge. Whereas, mistakes are done by accidental. The subject know that it is wrong. Errors and mistakes are part of learning process which is not separated from its learning. It is the outcome of individually process and need strategy or method that appropriate with it.

2.2.2 Types of Error

Dulay, et. al, (1982) states that there are four taxonomies of errors. Each of them is classified into several categories errors.

1. Linguistic category taxonomy

The errors are classified according to the linguistic component, using linguistic terms, namely phonology, morphology, syntax, semantic.

- a. Language components include phonology (pronunciation), syntax and morphology (grammar), semantics and lexicon (meaning and vocabulary), and discourse (style).
- b. Constituents include the elements that comprise each language component. For example, within syntax one may ask whether the error is in the main or subordinate clause; and within a clause, which constituent is affected, e.g. the noun phrase, the auxiliary verb, the verb phrase, the preposition, the adverb, the adjectives, and so forth.

2. Surface strategy taxonomy

According to Dulay, Burt, and Krashen (1982) a surface strategy taxonomy highlights the ways surface structures are altered: learner may omit necessary items or add unnecessary one; they may misform items or misorder them. Therefore, Dulay, et al. divide the error based on surface strategy taxonomy in four categories: omission, addition, misformation,

and misordering.

a. Omission

Omission is characterized by the absence of one or more elements, which are needed in a phrase or a sentence construction. For example, the word 'test' [test] is pronounced as [tes].

b. Addition

Addition is characterized by the presence of one or more elements that are not needed. For example, the word 'car' [ka:] is pronounced as [kʌr].

c. Misformation

Misformation is characterized by the use of the wrong form of elements in a phrase or a sentence. For example, it is when the learner pronounced the word 'thin' [θin] as [tin].

d. Misordering

Misordering is characterized by the incorrect placement or order of one or more language elements in a phrase or a sentence. For example, the word 'ask' [a:sk] is pronounced as [a:ks].

3. Comparative category taxonomy

Dulay, et. al, (1982) states comparative taxonomy is a classification of errors based on comparisons between the structure of L2 errors and certain other types of constructions. Moreover, Dulay, et. al, (1982) state these comparisons have yielded the two major errors categories in this taxonomy: developmental errors and interlingual errors. Two other categories that have been used in comparative analysis taxonomies are derived from the first two: ambiguous errors, which are classifiable as either developmental or interlingual; and of course, the grab bag category, Other, which are neither. There are four categories of errors, as follows:

a. Developmental Errors

According to Kaweera (2013) explain developmental errors are errors similar to those made by children learning that target language as their first language. It occurs when the learners hypothesize about the target language based on their limited knowledge.

b. Interlingual Errors

Brown (2000) states that interlingual (Interference) errors are those errors that are traceable to learner's first language or mother tongue interference. These errors are attributable to negative interlingual transfer (as cited

in Sawalmeh 2013, p. 4).

c. Ambiguous Errors

Ambiguous errors are those that could be classified equally well as developmental or interlingual. It is because these errors reflect the learner's native language structure, and at the same time, they are of the type found in the speech of children acquiring a first language.

d. Other Errors

Few taxonomies are complete without a grab bag for items that do not fit into any other category. In this particular type of taxonomy, the grab bag errors should be of more than passing interest.

4. Communicative Effect Category Taxonomy

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 and those that do not. Errors that affect the overall organization of the sentence hinder successful communication, while errors that affect a single element of the sentence usually do not hinder communication. It consist of

two categories. They are as follows:

a. Local errors

Local errors are caused by the omission of one or more language elements in a sentence construction, which disturb the process of communication. An awkward sentence is usually the result of this kind of errors.

b. Global errors

Global errors are the errors, which cause the entire message conveyed not to be understandable for readers or listeners.

2.3 Concept of Pronunciation

Some experts assume what the pronunciation is. Gilakjani (2016) explains pronunciation is learnt by repeating sounds and correcting them when produced inaccurately. When learners start learning pronunciation they make new habits and overcome the difficulties resulting from the first language. Zapata adds (2007) that pronunciation is part of speech which includes word, intonation, and the sounds of language. Furthermore, Jam, Domakani, and Kasegari, (2014) also give definition of pronunciation in which pronunciation is a key element in learning a language without which comprehension would be hindered. Based on some definitions by experts above, pronunciation is the act of result of producing of speech sound,

including word, intonation and the sounds of language. It is the best thing in processing a new language.

Pronunciation has vital part in learning language. It is held by Shak, Lee, and Stephen (2016). They define that pronunciation plays a vital part in employability. Moreover, Gilakjani and Ahmadi (2011) explain pronunciation has a fundamental influence in learning language. It is important at this point in time to make a distinction between speaking and pronunciation as it is sometimes wrongly applied interchangeably. Pronunciation is viewed as a sub-skill of speaking. Generally, if we want to change the way a learner pronounces words, we have to change the way they think about the component sounds of those words. This goes not just for individual sounds, but for bigger elements of speech, such as syllables, stress patterns and rhythm. Despite this, the teaching of pronunciation remains largely neglected in the field of English language teaching. In many English language classrooms, teaching pronunciation is granted the least attention.

According to Joanne Kenworthy (2002), in pronunciation there are some factors that affect pronunciation learning as follow:

1. The native language: the native language is an important factor in learning to pronounce.
2. The age factor: someone pronounces a second language like a native, they probably started learning it as a child.

3. Amount of exposure: it is tempting to view this simply as a matter of whether the learner is living in English – speaking country or not.
4. Phonetic ability: it is commonly view that some people have a “better ear” for foreign languages than others. This skill has been variously termed aptitude for oral mimicry phonetic coding ability or auditory discrimination ability.
5. Attitude and identity: it has been claimed that factors such as a person’s “sense of identity” and feelings of group affiliation are strong determiners of the acquisition of accurate pronunciation of a foreign language.
6. Motivation and concern for good pronunciation some learners seem to be concerned about their pronunciation than others.

2.4 Concept of Pronunciation Error

2.4.1 Definition of Pronunciation Error

Eslami, Estaji, & Elyasi (2014) briefly states that mispronunciation or pronunciation errors are words that are pronounced in a wrong way. Djajaningrat (2011) states as consequence of all the difficulties provided by the English pronunciation, many English language learners as well as the Indonesian learners tend to generate errors in the articulation of the sounds (as cited in Mulansari, Basri, and Hastini, 2014, p. 2).

According to Brown (2007) mispronunciation can be a reason why sometimes a conversation leads to failure; hence, phonology which is considered a component of grammatical competence subcategorized within communicative competence (as cited in Fatemi, Sobhani, and Abolhassani, 2012, p. 69). It explains that pronunciation is neglected skills nowadays and caused failing in communications, teacher and curriculum designer take the pronunciation error for answered.

2.4.2 Classification of Pronunciation Error

This research framework for pronunciation error classification was mainly drawn from Keshavarz's (2008) pronunciation error taxonomy. According to Jam, Domakini, and Kasegari (2014), regarding pronunciation, the best category provided for distinguishing different sources of pronunciation errors was developed by Keshavarz (2008) who divided the pronunciation errors into two different groups.

a. Interlingual Errors

1. The Absence of Some Target Language Phoneme

It consists of errors which may be due to the absence of some target language phonemes (vowels or consonants) in the learners' first language. [p], [t], and [k] sounds with aspirated cannot be found in *Bahasa*

Indonesia. For example, consonant sound [p] will lead Indonesian EFL learners to pronounce the words *park* as [pa:k] with no aspirated and *clock* as [klak] with no aspirated.

2. The Differences which Exist between the First and Second language Syllable Structures

Yuliati (2014) asserts that *Bahasa Indonesia* do not have two or three consonants in the syllable onset position, two – five consonants in syllable coda position, and voiced stop consonant in the final position. As the reason Indonesian speakers of English may find some difficulties in pronouncing it. According to 'Asian Language Notes' uses contrastive analysis to seek to explain errors found in the English of Indonesian/Malay speakers, that errors occur with voiced stops because 'no voiced stops occur finally in BI [*Bahasa Indonesia*/Indonesian language]'. Indonesian stops in final position are unreleased and voiceless (as cited in Mathew, 1997, p. 63). For example, Final [d] was realized as [t], final [g] was substituted by [k], and final [b] was devoiced as [p].

b. Intralingual Errors

1. Spelling Pronunciation

The third group, which called spelling pronunciation, referred to the learners' tendency to pronounce words exactly the ways they were written. For example,

pronouncing *analysis* as *[analysis] instead of [ə'næləsis].

2. The Learner's Tendency to Pronounce the Silent Letters

This type of errors refers to the learners' tendency to pronounce the silent letters in words. Pronouncing the word *honest* as [hanes] instead of ['ɒnɪst].

Table 1. Classification of Pronunciation Errors based on Keshavarz (2008)

Taxonomy

Interlingual Error	Intralingual Error
<p>1. The absence of some target language phonemes</p> <p>[p]: paper ['peɪpə(r)]</p> <p>[t]: talk [tɔ:k]</p> <p>[k]: creaky ['kri:ki]</p> <p>[b]: baffle ['bæfl]</p> <p>[g]: greasy ['gri:si]</p>	<p>1. Spelling pronunciation</p> <p>Analysis [ə'næləsis]</p> <p>Blood [blʌd]</p> <p>Colon ['kɒlən]</p> <p>Hero ['hɪərəʊ]</p> <p>Lemon ['lemən]</p> <p>Pencil ['pensl]</p> <p>Lime [laɪm]</p>
<p>2. The differences which exist between the first and second language syllable structures</p> <p>Epenthesis (two or three consonants in the syllable onset position)</p> <p>Class [klæs]</p>	<p>2. The learners' tendency to pronounce the silent letter</p> <p>Silent B: tomb [tu:m]</p> <p>Silent C: truck [trʌk]</p> <p>Silent D: wednesday ['wenzdeɪ]</p> <p>Silent G: high [haɪ]</p>

Blue [blu:]

Play [plei]

Brick [brik]

Silent K: knot [nat]

Final consonant deletion (two
– five consonants in syllable
coda position)

Silent L: half [ha: f]

Silent N: column [kɒləm]

Silent P: psychology [saɪ'kɒlədʒi]

Test [ˈtest]

Silent S: aisle [aɪl]

Least [liːst]

Silent T: listen [ˈlɪsən]

Final consonant clusters
devoicing (voiced stop
consonant in the final
position)

Silent U: guide [gaɪd]

Silent W: answer [ˈɑ:nsə(r)]

Big [ˈbɪg]

Food [ˈfu:d]

2.5 Plosive Consonant

For the description of English consonant phonemes, we used the distinctive features: the intensity of articulation, the place of articulation,

and the manner of articulation. There were eight manners of articulation which plosive was one of them.

Plosive or stop means producing a consonant by stopping the air flow at some point and releasing it. It is held by Jiang, Chen, and Alwan (2000) explain that plosive consonants are produced by first forming a complete closure in the vocal tract, via a constriction at the place of articulation, during which there is either silence or a low-frequency hum (called *voicebar/prevoicing*). Moreover, Skandera and Burleigh (2005) explain that plosives, or stops [*Verschlusslaute*], are sounds for which the speaker makes a complete closure at some point in the vocal tract, builds up the air pressure while the closure is held, and then releases the air explosively through the mouth. Poort adds (1991) that in the English language, stop consonants are formed by making the constriction at a point between the lips and the velum.

English has 6 plosive consonants. It is produced at bilabial point of articulation [b, p,], at alveolar point of articulation [d, t,] and at velar point of articulation [g, k]. Plosives are divided into two types, voiced (b, d, g) and voiceless (p, t, k).

According to Henton, Ladefoged and Maddieson (1992) the formation of a stop consonant normally consist of three consecutive phases:

1. The onset of closure, when one articulator is approaching the other.
2. The closure, when the articulators are held together, completely

obstructing the airflow and creating a pressure buildup behind the constriction.

3. The offset of closure, when the articulators are moving apart again (as cited in Poort, 1991).

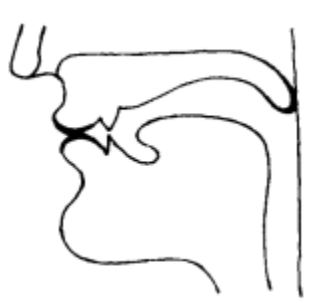
2.5.1 /p/ and /b/

/p/ is a strong stop consonant and /b/ is a weak stop consonant.

/p/ is voiceless bilabial stop and /b/ is voiced bilabial stop.

How to pronounce /p/ and /b/ according to O'Connor (1980):

1. The lips are closed firmly and the soft palate is raised so that the breath cannot get out of either the nose or the mouth but is trapped for a short time.
2. When the lips are opened suddenly the breath rushes out with a slight explosion or popping noise.
3. Before the lips are opened, the rest of the mouth takes up the position for the following sound, a vowel position if a vowel follows,



as in *play*.

Fig. 16 /p/ and /b/

Words for pronunciation practice. Now try the following pairs of words, and make the /p/ strong and aspirated and the /b/ weak and unaspirated.

p l:k	peak	b i:k	beak	p it	pit	b it	bit
p æk	pack	b æk	back	p a:k	park	b ɑ:k	bark
p ɔ:t	port	b ɔ:t	bought	p ʊl	pull	b ʊl	bull
p rɑ:d	pride	b rɑ:d	bride	p leɪz	plays	b leɪz	blaze

Some of the commonest words containing /p/ are: *page, pair, paper, pardon, part, pass, pay, people, perhaps, piece, place, plate, play, please, plenty, poor, possible, post, pound, pretty, price, pull, push, put, appear, April, company, compare, complain, complete, copy, expect, happen, happy, important, open, sleep, cheap, cup, drop, group, heap, help, hope, keep, map, rope, shape, sharp, shop, stop, step, top, up, wrap.*

Some of the commonest words containing /b/ are: *back, bad, bag, bath, be, beautiful, because, become, bed, before, begin, behind, believe, belong, below, besides, best, between, big, black, blue, both, boy, bread, break, break-fast, bring, but busy, buy, by, brown, able, about, above, September (etc.), February, habit, harbor, husband, neighbor, number, obey, possible, probable, public, remember, table, job, rub, rob, club, slab, grab.*

2.5.2 /t/ and /d/

/t/ is a strong stop consonant and /d/ is a weak stop consonant.
/t/ is voiceless alveolar stop and /d/ is voiced alveolar stop.

How to pronounce /t/ and /d/ according to O'Connor (1980):

1. The tip of the tongue (*not* the blade) is firmly against the middle of the alveolar ridge, not too near the teeth and not near the hard palate.
2. The soft palate is raised, so the breath cannot escape through either the nose or the mouth, but is trapped for a short time.
3. The sides of the tongue are firmly against the sides of the palate, so that the breath cannot pass over the sides of the tongue.
4. When the tongue-tip is lowered suddenly from the teeth ridge the breath rushes out with a slight explosion or popping noise.

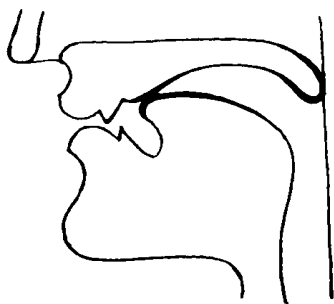


Fig. 17 /t/ and /d/

Words for pronunciation practice. the /t/ strong and aspirated and /d/ is short, weak and never aspirated; compare the following words:

tu:	two	du:	do	to:n	torn	do:n	dawn
ten	ten	den	den	tai	tie	dai	die
tʌn	ton	dʌn	done	taʊn	town	daʊn	down
tju:n	tune	dju:n	dune	twin	twin	dwind	dwindle

Some of the many common words containing /t/ are: *table, take, tell, ten, time, to, today, together, too, top, towards, town, Tuesday, turn, twelve, two, talk, taste, after, better, between, city, dirty, hotel, into, matter, notice, particular, protect, quarter, Saturday, water writer, about, at, beat, bite, boat, but, coat, eat, eight, fat, flat, gate, get, great, hot, it, let, lot, not, ought, might, put, what.* (Notice also the past tense of verbs ending with a strong consonant, e.g. *missed* **mɪst**, *laughed* **lɑ:ft**.)

Some of the many common words containing /d/ are: *day, dead, dear, December, decide, depend, different, difficult, do (etc.), dinner, dog, door, down, during, already, Monday (etc.), holiday, idea, lady, ladder, medicine, body, ready, shoulder, study, today, under, add, afraid, bad, bed, bird, could, would, end, friend, good, had, head, old, read, road, side.* (Notice also the past tense of verbs ending with a vowel, a weak consonant, and /t/, e.g. *owed* **əʊd**, *failed* **fi:ld**, *started* **stɑ:tɪd**).

2.5.3 /k/ and /g/

/k/ is a strong stop consonant and /g/ is a weak one. /k/ is voiceless velar stop and /g/ is voiced velar stop.

How to pronounce /t/ and /d/ according to O'Connor (1980):

1. The back of the tongue is in firm contact with the soft palate, and the soft palate, the breath rushes out of the mouth with a slight explosion or popping noise.
2. The strong stop /k/ is aspirated in the same way as /p/ and /t/, and this may be shown in a similar way, e.g. **k^hu:l** *cool*. Put the tongue in position for /k/ and let the breath burst out in a voiceless /u:/. Do this several times before adding a normal vowel /u:/ after the voiceless one, and be sure that the voiceless period, the aspiration, comes before the normal vowel each time. Then do the same thing with other vowels in: **k^hɔ:t**, **k^hɒ:t**, **k^hæt**, **k^hɪl**, **k^hi:p**. Now so the same thing with the following consonants in **kli:n**, **kri:m**, **kwi:n**, **kju:**, where the first part of the /l, r, w/ and /j/ comes out voiceless.

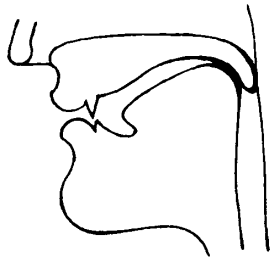


Fig. 18 /k/ and /g/

Words for pronunciation practice. the /k/ strong and aspirated and /g/ is short, weak and never aspirated; compare the following words:

keiv	cave	geiv	gave	ka:d	Card	ga:d	guard
kɜ:l	curl	gɜ:l	girl	kʊd	could	gʊd	good
kæp	cap	gæp	gap	kəʊl	coal	gəʊl	goal
kla:s	class	gla:s	glass	krəʊ	crow	grəʊ	grow

2.6 Previous Related Studies

I found out some previous studies which were related to the some present researchs First, "The Students' Mastery in Pronouncing English Plosive Consonant [p, t, k, b, d, g] (An Error Analysis of the Fifth Semester Students of English Department of UNNES in the Academic Year 2008/2009)" written by Andi Retna Jaya (2009). The population and sample chosen in his research were all the third semester students of English Department of UNNES in the Academic Years 2008/2009. Test and non-test instrument were used in this research. He counted the mean of the error proportion by dividing the percentage of the total errors, which were 1466 errors by the total number of the students that were 32 students. The mean proportion of the errors made by the 32 students in pronouncing. The whole English plosive consonants [p], [t], [k], [b], [d], and [g] was 48.3%. The similarities between this research and my research were: first, both researches focused on pronunciation errors in the six consonantal sounds. Second, both researches' samples were English department students in Indonesia.

Second, "An Analysis of Phonetics b, d, g, j, d³ and ð into English Pronunciation for Java Students (A Study on Java Students at English Department on STAIN Bengkulu Academic Year 2011-2012) written by Hakim (2012). This study was aimed to investigate the fact by conducting a research on 30 students from Java. There were 21 females and 11 males. Pronunciation accent test material with direct observation which

was done through record player. Record player was used to record students' pronunciation and accent when they pronounced the conversation text that given by the researcher and after that researcher would be analyzed student' pronunciation with a native speaker as a key instrument. The most important finding of this research was that from 6 phonetics. There were 2 phonetics that were difficult to be lost by Java students, such as: /d/ and /ð/. The similarity between this research and my research were: first, both researches focus on pronunciation errors in the analysis. Second, both researches used the same technique of collecting the data. The difference between this research and my research was on the phonetics sound, I was not analyze j, d³ and ð.

Third, "Stop consonant production of French immersion students in Western Canada: A study of voice onset time written by Netelenbos, Li and Rosen (2015). This research was conducted on stop consonant production of French immersion students in Western Canada. The focus of this research were to observe the stop consonant production pattern, and to determine whether interactions between the two language systems occur. Fifty-six students in grades 1, 3, and 5 participated in a speech production task administered in both English and French. For each language, they were asked to repeat a total of 54 words beginning with one of the six stop consonants, /p/, /t/, /k/, /b/, /d/, and /g/. In addition, 45 age-matched monolingual English-speaking children were tested to serve as a control group. Voice onset time (VOT) was the acoustic measure

analyzed for each language and for children of each grade. An analysis of variance was conducted for language- and experience-related effects. The first notable finding of their study was the stabilization of non-authentic VOT patterns across grades. The VOT values of /p/, /t/, and /k/ of children in grades 1, 3, and 5 was similar across all age groups. The similarity between this research and my research was both researches focus on the six stop consonants. The difference between this research and my research was on the design and technique of analyzing the data.