

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter will present some theories that the writer is going to apply to do the analysis on the following chapter. It concerns about pronunciation errors. It will be discussed more clearly from many references.

A. Contrastive Analysis (CA) and Error Analysis (EA)

1. Contrastive Analysis

Contrastive Analysis (CA) is used to compare two language especially native languages to target language. It focuses on the identify points of similarity and difference between particular native language (NL) and target language (TL). Charles fries, one of the leading applied linguistic stated that “the most efficient materials are those that are based upon a scientific description of the language to be learned, carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner⁸

Contrastive Analysis originally developed by Charles Fries (1945) and expanded and clarified by Robert Lado (1957), systematically compares the similarities and differences between the native languages and the target languages systems and predicts the difficulties that learners might encounter when learning a new language. Lado claimed that “those elements that are similar to his native language will be simple for him, those element that are different will be

⁸ Diane Larsen-Freeman and Michael H.Long, *An Introduction To Second Language acquisition Research* (USA : Longman Group UK limited 1991). 52

difficult⁹." Wardraugh (1970) proposed distinction between strong version and weak version of the contrastive analysis hypothesis. The strong version involved predicting errors in second language learning based upon an a priori contrastive analysis of the L1 and L2. In the weak version the researchers start with learner errors and explain at least a subset of them by pointing to the similarities and differences between the two languages¹⁰. If two languages have similarity, positive transfer would occur and if two languages have differences, negative transfer or interference would be as a result.

2. Error Analysis

Another part of second language pedagogy had been developed known as Error Analysis (EA). EA in terms of SLA was established in the 1960s by Stephen Pit Corder and colleagues. EA was an alternative to CA, an approach influenced by behaviorism through which applied linguists sought to use the differences between the learners' native and target languages to predict errors. Corder made a distinction between mistake and error. Mistake is a random performance slip caused by fatigue, excitement, etc and therefore can be readily self-corrected, an error is a systematic deviation made by learner who have not yet mastered the rules of target language. A learner can not self-correct an error because it is a product reflective of his or her current stage of L2 development¹¹. A further and a more controversial, classification of errors was proposed by Selinker (1972). Referring to principally to Corder,s systematic error, he mentioned nine different types of systematic error in a list that was not supposed to be exhaustive. These

⁹ Diane Larsen-Freeman and Michael H.Long. 53

¹⁰ Ibid. 57

¹¹ Ibid. 59

nine types of error are assumed to be related to nine process of learning process or strategy¹².

The nine types of systematic error suggested by Selinger are as follows:

1. Language transfer, items and rules in the learner's version of the new language are directly traceable to the native language. For example, the frequent inability of Arabs to distinguish between /b/ and /p/ or of Japanese between /l/ and /r/
2. Transfer of training. The error is directly traceable to some element in the teaching received. Richards (1971) gives the example of an exercise contrasting *permit, allow* and *cause something to do something with make something do something* whose effect was to convince a majority of the students that *make something to do something* was the correct form.
3. L2 learning strategy, Selinger suggests that there is frequently a tendency on the part of learner to reduce the TL to a simpler system, and that this is learning strategy.
4. L2 communication strategies. A learner may resist the effort of incorporating some of the fine distinction that native speaker make because he discovers he can either be understood perfectly well without them. Or he finds his speech is unacceptably slow and hesitating if he endeavors to produce them exactly. A possible example is the frequent lack of reversion to normal word-order in reported wh – (which, what ,who) questions

¹² Steven H.McDonough, *Psychology in Foreign Language Teaching* (George Allen & Unwin LTD, 1981), 113

Q : What is he doing?

Reported Q: she asks what is he doing?

5. Overgeneralization of rules. This process also referred to as ignorance of rule restrictions' (Richards, 1971) is widespread, and an example could be the use of past tense – ed morphemes on irregular verb *standed, eated*.
6. Spelling pronunciations, for example, the presence of final /r/ on *farmer*, or medial /l/ in *half*.
7. Cognate pronunciations, for example French *athlete* /a/t/l/e/t/. This is however more likely to be language transfer.
8. Holophrase learning, for example, the classic 'Good morning, sir' to a lady teacher
9. Hypercorrection, for example, the German learner's probable over-correction of English /eu/ as in go to /eue/.

B. Error in Vowels and Phonological Errors

1. Error in Vowels

Vowel change¹³ is the change of vowel sounds of the words to another vowel sounds. Commonly there are three types of vowel change.

a. Vowel shortening

Vowel shortening is the shortening of long vowel. For example, the word 'please' often pronounced [pliz] instead of [pli:z]

¹³ <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Deletion,epenthesis,metathesis%28phonology%29> . (accessed on 13 Mei 2013 at 19.15)

b. Vowel lengthening

Vowel lengthening is making long sound of the short vowel. For example, the word 'shook' often pronounced [ʃu:k] instead of [ʃʊk].

c. Vowel substitution

Vowel substitution is the substitution of vowel in a word to another vowel. For example, the word 'of' must be pronounced [əv] however often pronounced as [ev].

2. Phonological Errors¹⁴

According the contrastive analysis theory language has differences. Contrastive analysis (CA) is used to compare two language especially native languages to target language. It focuses on the identify points of similarity and difference between particular native language (NL) and target language (TL). The contrastive analysis hypothesis held that where the structures in the L1 differed from those in the L2, error that reflected the structure of L1 would be produced. Phonology is one of the domains in which transfer error mostly occur.

a. Inter-language transfer

When a language learner attempts to produce an L2 sound their relative success at approaching the target is reliant on their ability to disassociate their L2 utterance from their repertoire of L1 phonemes and allophones. Disassociation is often necessary because two languages may contain sounds which seem to be the

¹⁴ Toyyibah, "fossilized phonological errors made by the student of English department STAIN Kediri", *Realita*, 1(January, 2012), 129.

same but are produced by differing articulatory motions. They are therefore acoustically different and may be perceived to be divergent from the target by the listener.

While it is possible for adult speakers to learn to produce acoustically acceptable approximations of targets such as the troublesome /l/ and /r/ distinction over time (Flege, 1995) the level of success varies between individual speakers. It is a common remark that the more successful producers of near-native sounding pronunciation are *rare, gifted or talented*. Their success could be more reasonably attributed to their ability to disassociate phonological aspects of the L1 and L2 and thus minimize the transfer of phonological features from one language to the other.

Assumptions regarding the variable success of learners' L2 also concern the relative difficulty different *nationalities* encounter in their production of acceptable English pronunciation. As discussed previously, a very useful observation to consider in the contrastive analysis of various language groups and their L2 English production is that nationalities with a vastly different phonetic inventory to that of English, often find it easier to learn to produce an acceptable phonetic target in the L2 than a nationality whose L1 contains contrasting sounds (Flege's Speech learning model 1987, 1995). For example, Japanese students have an advantage over Koreans when it comes to the production of English vowels. As Japanese only contains five simple monophthongal vowels to Korean's ten, Japanese English speakers only have five vowels to interfere with the twelve monophthongs present in (Australian) English.

Therefore, it may be assumed that it is a simpler task to learn totally foreign sounds than sounds which bear a resemblance to sounds found in the L1. Furthermore, fossilized errors, which are attributable to the negative transfer of L1 to L2, may more easily be *unlearned* when they are of the foreign rather than the familiar variety. For example, English /v/, which is totally foreign to Korean and often approximated by /b/, is less of a problem to *unlearn* than the negatively transferred Korean high front vowel /i/ which typically replaces the similar but durationally longer English high front vowel /i:/.

Each language has its own pattern relating to the length of vowels. Languages vary widely as to *whether* and how *much* vowel duration is affected by the following consonant. English has extremely exaggerated pre-consonantal vowel duration when preceding voiced consonants. (Takahashi, 1987).

There are however some *universal* (inter-lingual) consistencies in vowel length. Low vowels are always longer than high vowels, and back vowels tend to be longer than front vowels. For this reason vowel duration is often regarded to be a *universal*. More of this phenomenon of universals and their significance to inter-language transfer is discussed in the following section.

b. Phonological universals

Phonological Universals are phonological patterns which are common to all known languages. They are also referred to as being *unmarked*, (common and regularly occurring phenomena), or inversely, as being *marked* (distinctive and unique phenomena). In English for example, /s/ is unmarked and /θ/ is marked.

Another notion, *implicational universals*, is that the presence of a marked segment /θ/ in a language implies the presence of an unmarked segment /s/, but the reverse is not true. (Greenberg, 1966).

Many studies have been undertaken to determine the degree of difficulty in acquisition of the various elements of L2 phonology (Altenberg and Vago, 1983; Broselow 1984; Ferguson, 1984; Payne, 1976) based on markedness theory of universals. Takahashi (1987) concluded from an analysis of their studies: "Those less *marked* phonetic or phonological characteristics of L1 are harder to unlearn. That is, those characteristics which are acquired early in L1 acquisition and are important (yet commonly occurring) characteristics of L1 are easily carried over in the production of the L2 phonological system and remain persistently as the L2 learner's foreign accent." The development of an absolute hierarchy of markedness in and between languages is an almost impossible task given the enormous number and diversity of languages. Markedness theory has however contributed to a general understanding of the tendencies of simplification adopted by L2 learners.

c. Avoidance

Avoidance is a general tendency for learners to avoid those aspects of production that they know to be problematic for them. (Schachter, 1974). Avoidance strategies may be employed at the grammatical as well as at the phonemic level. At the grammatical level an article (a/an, the) may be left out of the utterance when the student suspects an article is necessary and yet chooses to avoid using one rather than running the risk of selecting the wrong one. The above

newspaper clipping is a clear example of a grammatical avoidance strategy. The source of misperception of the Korean speaker's message could easily be misdiagnosed as a deviance from the L2 target phonemes /æ/ and /p/. However, any English language teacher worth their salt would tell you that L2 learners of English often avoid articles because the internalization of the rules for correct article use are almost an impossibility. In the above story (if the quotation is accurate) the Korean speaker has avoided the indefinite article *an* and has produced the grammatical utterance "Yes, I need adaptor" *not* "Yes I need a dapter." The speaker may have mispronounced /æ/ as something resembling /ɒ/ but this is unlikely, the Korean transfer strategy would produce something closer to /ɛ/ or /ʌ/. However, /p/ could easily be misperceived as /k/ over the telephone's narrow bandwidth. Yet, it is unlikely that *redundancy* would fail to intervene. The listener could have searched their mental lexicon for an appropriate word candidate (or asked for clarification) if the speaker had used the article and said *I need a dopter*. So clearly the salient source of this misunderstanding is grammatical avoidance, not phonemic error.

At the phonemic level a typical example of avoidance is the avoidance of using words which contain *difficult to pronounce* phonemes such as /z/ for Koreans. Therefore, the speaker may give a false impression of the extent of their phonemic pronunciation errors by avoiding the use of words such as *zoo*.

d. Over-generalization and over-elaboration

Over-generalization is described by Richards (1973) as the application of a newly learnt target language rule to an inappropriate form or context. For

example, pitch, duration and intensity as features of stress being used too often to highlight every content word in an utterance.

Over-elaboration is usually caused by exposure to language acquisition strategies that are heavily reliant on reading and writing, to the detriment of speaking. In an attempt to produce accurate target language utterances, the learner produces un-native like stilted and formal speech which may be syntactically accurate but unnatural (Tarone et. al, 1983).

e. Hypercorrection or overcompensation

This phenomenon can be found to occur after students have become aware of a negative transfer effect and arises from the strategy they employ to deal with this. (Wardhaugh, 1986). For example, Japanese does not possess the CV /si:/ (see) but does contain the CV /ʃi:/ (she), so the expected negative transfer effect is the production of /ʃi:/ (she) for the word *see*. A Japanese English learner may realize that the sounds /s/ and /ʃ/ must be distinguished before the vowel /i:/ in the L2 but has not learnt exactly when to do this. The learner therefore acquires the notion of /ʃ/ + /i:/ is not allowed in English and applies it even when it is necessary in the production of the word *she*. Thus the learner overcompensates and produces /si:/ instead of /ʃi:/.

f. Elision and epenthesis

Elision is the non-articulation of a sound and epenthesis is the addition of a sound to a word in the L2. Both are a negative transfer effect of phonotactic constraints in the L1.

g. Stylistic variation

Variations in style of speech occur according to psycholinguistic factors such as the situation, the context, the addressee(s) and the location. (Bolinger (1975). In the gathering of speech data, factors which may effect the authenticity of the data are: the self consciousness felt by the subject and the pressure to perform in the situation of a studio recording; unfamiliarity with the context or lexis of the test sentences; the pressure to achieve a 'good result' for the addressee (the tester); and the artificial environment and discomforts associated with remaining still in a recording studio.

h. Letter to sound rule confusion

Learners of English, whose L1 contains a phonemic orthography, often learn to speak English through reading and writing and consequently attempt to interpret English pronunciation from the orthography. The inconsistent letter to sound rules of English lexis may result in mispronunciation, not because of an inability to produce the phonemes, but due to the interference of spelling.

i. The developmental model

This model of language acquisition suggests that there are significant parallels between the replacement strategies employed by infant L1 learners of English and infant - adult L2 learners of English. Various studies (Flege and Davidian, 1984; Hecht and Mulford, 1982; Wode, 1981) across a variety of nationalities of L2 English learners have revealed replacement strategies for the production of new phones in L2 which are similar to the substitution strategies

found in the L1 speech of infants. For example, in German speaking children Wode found that retroflex [ɰ] is first replaced by /w/ which is the same substitution which occurs in the speech of L1 infant speakers of English. In a study of adult L2 acquisition Flege & Davidian found that Chinese, Spanish and Polish speakers showed two developmental processes, word final stop deletion and devoicing, which are typically found in the speech of L1 English speaking infants. This model therefore suggests there is a hierarchy for substitution of new phonemes (consonants) which is sequential and consistent (perhaps universal) across all languages.

j. Significant error: current views

In an issue of *Speak Out!* (1996) Jennifer Jenkins outlines the need for a change in pronunciation modification priorities from systems based on a *native model* of pronunciation towards a system that modifies the errors which impede communication across an *international context*. The motivation for this new system of priorities stems from the assumption that non-native speakers will spend more time speaking to other non-native speakers of English, than to native speakers owing to the fact that there are now far more non-native speakers of English in the world than native speakers. This is particularly the case for EFL learners who usually return to their own countries after studying abroad. Jenkins' list of priorities was built upon the work of Jenner (1989) who sought to establish a *common core* of English phonology:

"Jenner recently advocated the need to "establish what all native speakers of all varieties (of English) have in common which enables them to

communicate effectively with native speakers of other varieties other than their own."

Jenkins has adapted Jenner's list of priorities from a list designed to "offer the learner a guarantee of intelligibility and acceptability to native speakers anywhere in the world" (Jenner 1989), to a list of priorities which also takes the listener intelligibility of non-native speakers into account. The following is a summary of her list of nine significant aspects of pronunciation to be focused on for pronunciation error elimination.

C. English Vowels

Vowel is defined as a voiced sound in forming which the air issues in a continuous stream through the pharynx and mouth, there being no obstruction and no narrowing such as would cause audible friction¹⁵.

1. Pure Vowels

1) [i:]

Articulatory definition:

[i:] is an unrounded close front vowel

Articulatory description:

- a. In producing [i:] the front of the tongue is raised.
- b. It is raised almost to the close position;
- c. The lip position is unrounded or spread, it may even be neutral.
- d. The jaws are slightly apart from each other.

¹⁵ Daniel Jones, *An Outline of English phonetics* (Cambridge University, 1918), 23.

- e. The organs of speech are relatively forties or tense, which can be felt by putting the fingertips on the muscles bellow the jaws.

The example of words:

Bead [bi:d]

Key [ki:]

Cheese [tʃi:z]

Scene [si:n]

People [pi:pl]

2) [I]

Articulatory definition:

[I] is an unrounded half close to close front vowel

Articulatory definition:

- a. In producing [I] the front of the tongue is raised; the raising is somewhat retracted so that it is not really a front vowel.
- b. The tongue is raised to a point slightly above the half close position; the tongue position is clearly lower than that for [i:];
- c. The lips are spread or neutral;
- d. The jaws are a bit wider than for [i:].

The example of words:

Sin [sIn]

Sit [sIt]

Fill [fIl]

Bid [bId]

Live [lIv]

3) [U]

Articulatory definition:

[U] is a rounded half close to close back vowel.

Articulatory description:

- a. In producing [U] the back of the tongue is raised; this raising is advanced from the true back position.
- b. It is raised to the point slightly above the half-close position.
- c. The lips are fairly closely rounded, and slightly protruded, with no tension of the muscles.
- d. The jaws are little bit apart from each other.

The example of words:

Could [kUd]

Put [pUt]

Cook [kUk]

Fully [fUli]

4) [u:]

Articulatory definition:

[u:] is a rounded close back vowel

Articulatory description:

- a. In producing [u:] the back of the tongue is raised;
- b. It is raised to a point very near the close position.
- c. The lips are closely rounded with little protrusion.
- d. The jaws are only slightly separated.

The example of words

Fool [fu:l]

Pool [pu:l]

Food [fu:d]

5) [e]

Articulatory definition:

[e] is an unrounded half close to half open front vowel

Articulatory description:

- a. In producing [e] the front of the tongue is raised.
- b. The front of the tongue is raised to a point half way between the half open and half close position.
- c. The lips position is spread or neutral;
- d. The opening between the jaws is medium, a bit wider than for [ɪ]

The example of words:

Head [hed]

Fell [fel]

Set [set]

Bed [bed]

6) [ə]

Articulatory definition:

[ə] is an unrounded half open to half close central vowel.

Articulatory description:

- a. In producing [ə] the central part of the tongue is raised.
- b. It is raised to the half position, or even lower.
- c. The lip position is spread or neutral.

- d. The opening between the jaws is medium.

The example of words:

Statement [steitmənt]

Sofa [soufə]

Colder [kouləd]

7) [ɜ:]

Articulatory definition

[ɜ:] is an unrounded half close to half open central vowel

Articulatory description

- a. In producing [ɜ:] the central part of the tongue is raised; the central part of the tongue is that part of the tongue between the front and the back.
- b. It is raised to a point between half close and half open position;
- c. The lips are rounded or neutral as for [ɪ];
- d. The jaws are slightly separated from each other.

The example of words:

Lurk [lɜ:k]

Curt [kɜ:t]

Hurt [hɜ:t]

Burn [bɜ:n]

8) [ɔ:]

Articulatory definition:

[ɔ:] is a rounded half open back vowel.

Articulatory description:

- a. In producing [ɔ:] the back of the tongue is raised

- b. This raising almost reaches the half open position.
- c. The lips are more closely rounded than for [ɔ:], that is, in between open lip rounding.
- d. The jaws are fairly wide apart from each other.

The example of words:

Caught [kɔ:t]

Dawn [dɔ:n]

Stalk [stɔ:k]

Port [pɔ:t]

9) [æ]

Articulatory definition:

[æ] is an unrounded open to half open front vowel.

Articulatory description:

- a. In producing [æ] the front of the tongue is raised;
- b. The front of the tongue is raised a little bit to a point midway between the open and the half open position.
- c. The lip position is spread or neutral;
- d. The jaws are rather widely opened.

The example of words:

Band [bænd]

Land [lænd]

Bad [bæd]

Bat [bæt]

10) [ʌ]

Articulatory definition

[ʌ] is an unrounded half open centro back vowel. (or an unrounded open to half open centro back vowel)

Articulatory description:

- a. In [ʌ] some part between the front and the back of the tongue, almost the central part of the tongue, is raised; (thus centro back vowel).
- b. It is raised to the half open position, or slightly to a point between the half open and open position;
- c. The lip position is unrounded or neutral;
- d. The jaws are wide apart.

The example of words:

Bud [bʌd]

Tusk [tʌsk]

Lust [lʌst]

Cud [kʌd]

11) [ɑ:]

Articulatory definition:

[ɑ:] is an unrounded open back vowel

Articulatory description;

- a. In producing [ɑ:] the back of the tongue is raised;
- b. The raising is somewhat advanced from the real back position.
- c. The raising of the tongue is only slight so that the tongue can be said to be very low in the mouth, and is then at the fully open position.

- d. Though classed as a back vowel, the lips for the production of [ɑ:] are not rounded, but they are neutral;
- e. The jaws are fairly wide apart.

The example of words:

Harm [hɑ:m]

Hard [hɑ:d]

Heart [hɑ:t]

Barn [bɑ:n]

12) [ɒ]

Articulatory definition:

[ɒ] is a rounded open back vowel

Articulatory description:

- a. For the production of [ɒ] the back of the tongue is slightly raised.
- b. The raising of the back of the tongue is so slight that it is almost near the fully open position; thus the tongue is very low in the mouth.
- c. The lips are slightly rounded, but not protruded.
- d. The jaws are rather wide apart.

The example of words:

Hot [hɒt]

Cot [kɒt]

Pot [pɒt]

Dog dɒg]

2. Diphthong¹⁶

a. [ɪə]

The glide begins in the position for /ɪ/, moving down and back towards /ə/.

The lips are neutral, but with small movement from spread to open.

The example of words:

Beer [bɪə(r)]

Beard [bɪəd]

Fear [fɪər]

Pierce [pɪəɜ]

Here [hɪə(r)]

b. [ʊə]

The glide begins in the position for /ʊ/, moving forward and down towards /ə/. The lips are loosely rounded, becoming neutrally spread.

The example of the word:

Pure [pjʊə(r)]

Tour [tʊə(r)]

Obscure [ɒb'skjʊə(r)]

c. [eə]

The glide begins in the position for /e/, moving back towards /ə/.

The lips remain naturally open.

The example of the words:

Wear [weər]

Chair [tʃeər]

¹⁶ Gerrald Kelly, *How to Teach Pronunciation*, 35.

Dare [deə(r)]

Stare [steə(r)]

d. [eɪ]

The glide begins in the position for /e/, moving up and slightly back towards /ɪ/.

The lips are spread.

The example of the words:

Cake [keɪk]

Way [weɪ]

Pain [peɪn]

Date [deɪt]

e. [ɔɪ]

The glide begins in the position for /ɔ:/, moving up and forward towards /ɪ/.

The lips start open and rounded, and change to neutral.

The example of the words:

Avoid [əvɔɪd]

Toy [tɔɪ]

Voice [vɔɪs]

Enjoy [enjɔɪ]

f. [aɪ]

The glide begins in an open position, between front and centre, moving up and slightly forward towards /ɪ/.

The lips move from neutral, to loosely spread.

The example of the words:

High [haɪ]

Tie [taɪ]

Buy [baɪ]

Kite [kaɪt]

g. [əʊ]

The glide begins in the position for /ə/, moving up and back towards /ʊ/.

The lips are neutral, but change to loosely rounded.

The example of the word:

Go [gəʊ]

Snow [snəʊ]

Toast [təʊst]

Hello [hə'ləʊ]

h. [aʊ]

The glide begins in the position quite similar to /ɑ:/, moving up towards /ʊ/.

The lips start neutral, with a movement to loosely rounded. The glide is not always completed, as the movement involved is extensive.

The example of the word:

House [haʊs]

Loud [laʊd]

Down [daʊn]

Lousy [laʊzi]