CHAPTER II

RELATED OF LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter reviews the underlying theories of the study; they are pragmatics, language production, speech error, and slip of tongue, and the previous study.

A. Pragmatics

Atikson, et al. (as cited in Grundy, 2000:3) define pragmatics as being concerned with the distinction between what a speaker's word (literally) mean and what speaker means by his words. It concerns the relationship between the speaker and the utterances which are produced by the speaker. It studies how the transmission of meaning depends not only on the linguistic knowledge such as grammar and lexicon of the speaker and listener, but also on the context of the utterances, knowledge about the status of those involved, the inferred intent of the speaker, and so on. In this case, pragmatics expands how language users are able to overcome apparent ambiguity, since meaning relies on the manner, place, or time of an utterance. The ability to understand another speaker intended meaning is called pragmatic competence.

Furthermore, Yule (2006, p. 127) states that when we read a text, we normally try to understand not only what the words mean, but what the writer mean or speaker of those words intended to convey. Pragmatics refers to the study of intended speaker meaning. It is clear that how to understand an utterance or a sentence does not only need an understanding about the literal

word. We also have to understand what the speaker or writer means. We have to understand the knowledge out of the linguistics.

Language is the core or the means of communications. We always use language to communicate, to convey messages to other people through speech or writing. Sometimes a speaker has an implied meaning beyond what the speaker meant in her or his speech. The study of invisible meaning or how we recognize what is meant when it is not actually said or written is pragmatics.

B. Language Production

Language is an instrument to stimulate our mind. For the first time, it has born as an action from which is used to produce the strong feeling unconsciously, then this feeling handled by the brain and produced the language. Language production refers to the process involved in creating and expressing meaning through language. In linguistics, language production is the production of spoken or written language. It describes all of stages between having a concept, and translating the concept into linguistic form (Levelt, 1989).

Levelt also argued the production of spoken language involves three levels of processing. The first is conceptualization. The speaker must decide the message to be extended. The second is formulation. In this stage, the speaker must extend their message into a linguistic form. The third is articulation/execution. The speaker must plan the motor movement needed to

extend the message.

Taylor (1990:363) describes that process of the language can be selectively impaired in brain damage. When the language is impaired, linguistics items acquired early in childhood tend to be preserved better than those acquired late. Itqiana (as cited in Taylor, 1990) said that language is a code that one learns to use in order to communicate ideas and express any wants and needs. The main topics in language production concern of the lexicalization process, the generation of syntactic structure (grammatical encoding), phonological encoding, the production of referential pronouns, and the computation of dependencies in sentence.We sometimes still make some mistakes while we want to produce the language in our mind. Some people argue that speech production is more difficult than speech comprehension. When we are producing language we have to experienced language production and the mental process happen when we are speaking, listening, understanding and remembering something. It can be explained more clearly in the human‟s cognitive system (Taylor, 1980).

C. Speech Error

Speech errors are made by speakers unintentionally. They are very common and occur in everyday speaking. In formulation speech, we are often influenced by the sound system of language. Speech errors occur only infrequently, but they provide us with important information on how our brain operates.
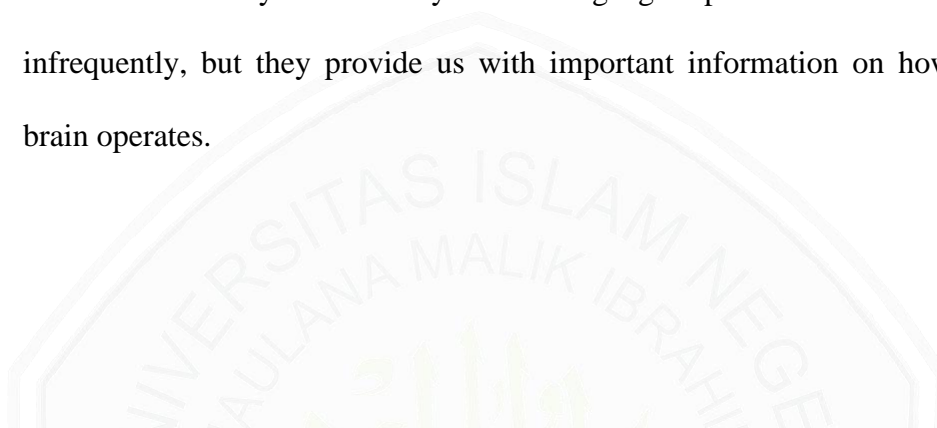
Freud theory explained that speech errors are appeared from oppressed thoughts which are showed by the particular errors which a speaker makes. Freud (as cited in Fromkin, 1986) claimed that the object of linguistic study is unbroken successions of unrelated yet grammatical utterances generated by a system of rules. Actual speech is categorized by ungrammatical utterances, fragments, restarts, and errors.

There are eight types of speech error as mentioned below:

1. *Silent Pause*

    According to Clark (1977:262), silent pauses are a period of no speech between words speed of talking is almost entirely determined by the amount of such pausing. People who speak slowly they do hesitation a lot, and when they speed up their rat of words (Clark, 1977).For example: Turn on the // heater switch. On the other side, Gleason and Ratner (1986) explained that silent pauses or unfilled pauses occurs roughly every five words while people describe pictures.

2. *Filled Pause*

    According to Clark (1977:264), filled pause is a gap filled by *ah, er, uh, hmm,* or *the like.* The fast speakers are fluent because they do not hesitate much, and slow speaker are not fluent because they hesitate a great deal in filled pauses. The slow speakers filled their pauses by saying the words *ah, er, uh, hmm,* or *the like.* For Example: Turn on, *uh,*

the heater switch. Pauses are happened commonly when the speaker is hesitation (Dardjowidjojo, 2003: 144).

3. *Repeats*

Repeats are repetitions of one or more words in a row. The speakers intend to utter something. Yet they make speech error. They make repetition of one or more words in row. For example: Those/those dirty cups. Almost 90 percent of all words repeated were function words, like articles (the/the neighbor), prepositions (in/in the garden), conjunction (and/and the neighbor), and pronouns (he/he didn"t go) (Clark, 1977:265).

4. False Start (unretraced)

False starts (unretraced) corrections of a word is included. When the speakers have speech error, they make corrections of a word but they do not repeat on or more words before the corrected words. For example: These/those dirty cups

5. False Start (retraced)

False starts (retraced) are corrections a word also included the repeating of one or more words before the correct word (Clark, 1977). When the speakers realize that they make speech error, they make correction of their word. They make repetitions of one or more words before they correct the words. For example: Turn on the stove / the

heater switch. Repeats, false starts, and corrections, provide excellent that speakers consider the constituents a basic unit of execution (Clark, 1977:264).

6. Correction

There are many reasons why speakers may stop in the middle of the sentence. They may have forgotten something they wanted to refer to, they may be searching for just the right word, or they may be selecting which of several examples they could mention. English has two remarkable devices by which speakers can signal just why there are stopping, the interjections (*oh, ah, well, say,* etc.) and the correction (I mean, that is, well, etc.). For example: Turn on the stove, I mean the heater switch. Moreover, these two devices provide further evidence that the constituent is an important unit of planning (Clark, 1977:265).

7. Interjection

Interjections, hesitation pauses, indicate that speakers have to stop to think about what to say next. They select a particular interjection to signal why they have to stop. The interjections *oh, ah, well,* and *say* are illustrated in the following sentences: Bambang would like, oh, carrots >*oh: referent selection*. It indicates the speakers stop to pick out carrots as just one of several possibilities he could mention.

8. Shutters

Chaer (2003) states that stutter are speeches or utterances that are choked of again, after several second the speaker can finish the utterances that s/he wants to say (intended utterances). The speakers can utter the first syllable repeatedly but difficult to continue the next syllable so s/he only says the first letter of the next syllable. For example: Turn on the h-h-h-h heater switch.

D. Slip of The Tongue

Other type of speech error is commonly described as a slip of tongue. A slip of tongue is a type of speech error in which sounds or entire words are rearranged between two or more different words. Dell (1986) argues that when you are formulating a sentence you start at the word-meaning level. Then you start to represent the sentence at the sound level. When you are preparing to say words you active the sounds of the words you want to say and sometimes a similar sound is activated and said instead of the correct sound.

Dell (1986) also proposed that there are three common types of slips of tongue. The first one is s*ound errors* which occurred when sounds in nearby words are exchanged. For example: "*red flowers* becomes *fled rowers*". The letter "f" and "r" are interchanged. The second one is m*orpheme error which* occurred when morphemes or the smallest meaningful units of language, are exchanged in nearby words. For example:

"*self-destruct instruction'* becomes „*self-instruct destruction*". The last one is w*ord errors* which occurred when words are exchanged. For example: „*buying a plate for my kitchen'* becomes „*buying a kitchen for my plate*".

Most everyday slips of tongue, however, are not as entertaining. They are often simply the result of a sound being carried over from one word to the next or a sound used in one word in anticipation of its happen in the next word. It has been argued that slips of tongue are never random, that they never produce a phonologically unacceptable sequence, and that they show the existence of different stages in the articulation of linguistic expression. Even the slips are mostly related to errors of articulation, it has been suggested that they may result from „slips of the brain" (Yule, 2006).

The commonest types of slips of tongue are listed below:

1. *Anticipations*

    Anticipations occur in the right place and earlier in the utterance. A unit occurs when a later segment takes the place of an earlier segment. Jaeger (2005) proposed that some items planned for earlier in the utterance is anticipated and effects a unit planned for earlier in the utterance. They differ from shifts in that intrudes on another also remains in its correct location and thus is use twice (Carroll, 1986: 254).

    For example:

    a. Take my bike > bake my bike

    b. Also share > alsho share

    c. Tab stops > tap stobs ([^Voiced])

Consider anticipations, for example *take my bike > bake my bike*, the speaker intended to say *take my bike,* but said instead *bake my bike,* "anticipating" the b at the beginning of bike in his pronunciation of take, (the arrow means "was mispronounced as"). In this example take is said to be the target word, and bike is said to be the origin of the error (since that is where the b came from). For anticipations the tongue-slip comes before the origin (based on Fromkin, 1973 cited in Clark, 1977)

2. *Perseverations*

Perseverations occur when an earlier segment replaces a later item or it comes after the origin (Carroll, 1986). It means that some linguistics unit planned for and executed earlier in the utterance perseverates and effects a unit planned for a later in the utterance.

For example:

- He pulled a tantrum > He pulled a pantrum

- John gave the boy a ball > John gave the goy a ball

    The speaker intended to say „pulled a tantrum", but he said instead

"pulled a pantrum", the speaker has perseveration the "p" at the beginning of "pulled" in his pronunciation of "tantrum". In this example "pulled" is said to be the target word and „tantrum" is said to be the origin of the error since that is where the "p" of "pantrum" came after the origin ("tantrum" >"pantrum") (an earlier segment that is "pulled" replaces a later item)

3. *Reveals/Exchange*

For reversals, two segments are interchanged, and so the origin of one error is the target for the other. These errors are also known as spoonerism, after William A. Spooner, an English clergyman who is reported to have made such errors often, wittily, but probably deliberately. According Carroll (1986), exchange is, in effect, double shifts, in which two linguistic units exchange places.

For example:

- Katz and Fodor > Fats and Kodor

- Fancy getting your model remosed > getting your nose remodeled

- Do you feel really bad? > do you *reel feally* bad?

    (phoneme/onset exchange)

In the second example shows that there are two phonemes which exchanged places. In this example, the word „feel" exchange into the word „really". So the words become „reel feally bad" (Carroll, 1986).

4. *Blends/Haplologies*

There are two linguistics units that combined into one item. As Carroll (1986), proposes that blends apparently occurs when more than one word is being considered and the two intended items "fuse" or "blend" into a single item.

For example:

The children / young of today > The *chung* of today (word blend)

The speaker intends to utter "the children young" bu t unintentionally s/he blends the word „children" and "young" become one item "chung" which are blended from phoneme "ch" and "ung".

Other examples of blend

- Grizzy + ghastly > grastly

- Post Toasties > Posties

- Breakfast and lunch > brunch

5. *Misderivations*

Misderivations are one speech segment disappears from its appropriate action and appears somewhere else (Taylor, 1990). It can be occurred when the speaker somehow attaches the wrong suffix or prefix to the word.

For example:

- That's so shell be ready in case she decide to hits it (decides to *hit* it)

- I haven't satten down and writ it (I haven't *sat* down and *written* it)

The speaker puts the suffix in the wrong place. In the example above, the suffix „s" is put in the "hit" which become wrong grammatical since after to infinitive should be put verb 1 or bare infinitive (Azar, 1989). It is not allowed to put suffix "s".

6. *Substitutions*

According to Carroll (1986), substitutions occur when one

segment is replaced by an intruder and differ from previously described slips in that the source of the intrusion may not be in the sentence.

For example:

- Before the place opens > before the place close

- At low speeds it"s too light > at low speeds it"s too heavy

- Give me a spoon > give me a fork

Fromkin 1973 (cited in Clark, 1977), states that in word substitutions, the speakers produces a word that is wrong, but typically related either semantically or phonologically to the word intended. Slips of tongue also tell us a great deal about the structure and organization of the mental dictionary.

Substitutions are semantically motivated. There are some kinds of substitutions from semantics descriptions, oppositeness of meaning and incompatibility of meaning. Those are substitutions by synonym (same meaning), hyponym (included meaning) and substitutions by the same initial/final linguistics materials, syllable structure, stress pattern and grammatical class (Fay and Culter as cited in Michael, 1990) called malapropism.

7. *Additions*

According Carroll (1986), addition is additional linguistic material. The speaker intended to utter the intended utterance;

occasionally s/he adds linguistic material in his/her intended utterance becomes slip. It is typically related to phonemes, morphemic affixes (prefix and suffix), articles, prepositions, conjunction, whole words, or even phrases.

For example:

- I didn't explain this clarefully enough (carefully enough)

- Wittch out the snack in front of you (watch out)

- She is preatty woman (pretty woman)

Additions deals with phonemes, prefix and suffix, article, prepositions, conjunction, whole words or even phrases. These additions are comments on why speakers happened to say what they said and are not part of the direct message itself. Speakers know a good deal about how they select the words they are going to say

8. *Deletion*

Deletion is whereas leave something out. The speakers wanted to utter the intended sentences, yet incidentally she/he leaved out linguistic material. It can be typically related to phonemes, morphemic affixes (prefix and suffix), article, prepositions, conjunctions,, whole words, or even in saying his/her intended utterance.

For example:
- I"ll just gets up and mutters intelligibly (unintelligibility)

- The chimney catch<u>es</u> fire > the chimney catch…. fire (affix deletion)

In genetics, a deletion (also called gene deletion, deficiency, or deletion mutation) I a mutation (a genetic aberration) in which a part of a chromosome or a sequence of DNA is missing. Deletion is the loss of genetic material. Any number of nucleotides can be deleted, from a single base to an entire piece of chromosome Deletions can be caused by errors in chromosomal crossover during meiosis. This causes several serious genetic diseases (Carroll, 1986).

E. Previous Studies

There are many researchers that have conducted in slips of tongue. Thus far, researchers have investigated about slips of tongue in a variety context, such as Warren (1986) has observed about slips of tongue in very young children. His research has investigated the difference in the frequency with which adult and young children make slips of tongue. The slips analysed were taken from two corpora of speeches. The first consists of the speech of one child in interaction with her mother. The second consists of the speech of eight children in interaction with her teacher. The result suggests that young children make significantly fewer slips than do adults. This finding is consistent with a psychoanalytic understanding of slips

Rahmah (2005), observed about the slips of tongue on news presenters of Liputan 6 Surya Citra Televisi (SCTV). She focused on the slips of tongue as the part of speech errors. She classified the slips of tongue which were found in Liputan 6 SCTV into six categories, they were anticipation, deletion, addition,

blend, shift, and substitution. The result suggested that slips of tongue on news presenters of Liputan 6 SCTV mostly used reversals/exchange, perseverations and blend.

From the previous study which is done by Rahmah, there are some types of slip of tongue appeared in the utterances of the news presenters of Liputan 6 Surya Citra Televisi (SCTV). There are also some aspects that support the slips, for example the condition of the news anchor itself. Besides, the relationship between the news anchor as the speakers and audience also influence the made of slips of tongue. However, the difference between the research done by Rahmah and this research is the about the language used by the news anchor as the object of this study. In Rahmah‟s study, she researched the types of slips of tongue and the factors or aspect through the habitual in bahasa Indonesia because of her subject is in bahasa. Moreover, in this study examines the types of slips of tongue produced by the news anchor in Great Britain where English as their first language, also the linguistic features and surrounding supported the use of slip of tongue generally.

Therefore, in this research the analysis concerns slips of tongue happened in the news anchor compilation videos. Based on the previous studies above, this study is significant to get more empirical finding on slips of tongue.