Chapter II

Review of Related Literature

This chapter presents review of related literature. In this chapter, the researcher would like to discuss about the problems in learning English pronunciation and the contrastive analysis of English and Korean. Also there would be some discussions about segmental aspects by Kreidler (2004) and phonemic speech errors by Nooteboom (1969).

2.1 Problems in learning English Pronunciation

Pronunciation refers to the production of sounds that we use to make meaning. It includes attention to the particular sounds of a language (segments), aspects of speech beyond the level of the individual sound, such as intonation, phrasing, stress, timing, rhythm (suprasegmental aspects), 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. But the researcher would like to discuss only about segmental aspects in this paper.

Whenever we think of language and language learning we usually think of mastering the vocabulary. In other words, we mostly think of learning the words. It is quite dangerous thoughts. Before learning any part of the grammar or assembling the most elementary vocabulary, the student must be able to recognize

the sounds of the language as uttered by native speaker. He must also be able to produce them himself in such a way that natives speaker is one of the steps in learning a foreign language. Actually it is quite natural that thinking about language should consider only vocabulary mastery. They tend to neglect the learning of the pronunciation.

In that sense, Charles C. Fries (1945) advised us as follows:

In learning a new language, the chief problem is not at first that of learning vocabulary items. It is, first, the mastery of the sound system- to understand the stream of speech to hear the distinctive sound features and to approximate their production. It is, second, the mastery of the features of arrangement that constitute the structure of the language.

As we know, we master the pronunciation of our language very early as small children. We learn to hear the significant sounds in sequences that become familiar, and then to produce these significant sounds. As usual, mastery of pronunciation of our native language has become entirely unconscious. It is true that we cannot remember the learning process. It is thoroughly unconscious habits in early childhood. To an adult learner he needs only the normal intelligence of a small child. By means of a scientific approach with satisfactorily selected and organized materials, most adults can be achieved. Namely, he can be achieved in a far shorter time by approaching the study of English phonetically. He needs some basic training in phonetics, and enough practice to get a set of speech habits. It is necessary to mimic not only the native speaker's production of separate

sounds or words but this complete manner of speaking. The mimicry is the first phase of learning a foreign language. The student must be willing to practice and use the new language constantly.

As mentioned above, the pronunciation teaching means not teaching vocabulary items but imitating the speech pattern through linguistic approach. Accordingly the mastery of the fundamentals of English must be through speech with a limited vocabulary. It is that because of the speech is the language. The student can get fulfillment with specific practice materials through which they may master the pronunciation of English.

It is concerned here exclusively with the sounds of speech, not with the system of writing. The first problem that confronts the student in studying a foreign language is its pronunciation. When the student has mastered the pronunciation, he may find it convenient or necessary to learn also the foreign system of writing. But until he has a thorough practical knowledge of the pronunciation, any preoccupation with the written form of the foreign language is to be confusing and ineffective.

According to Kreidler (2004), English today is the native language of nearly 400 million people and the second language of many others scattered all over the world. The use of English words by different backgrounds of people from one place to another, from one era to another, and from one occasion to another, will lead to a variety in the language itself. In line with the former

researcher, Kachru (1983), remarks the phenomenon in this famous scheme, the World English. He divides the world English into three concentric circle which inner, outer, and expanding circle. In the inner circle, English as a Native Language (ENL) is applied to countries such as the UK, USA, Canada, Australia, New Zealand. In the outer countries, as defined by Kachru, such as in India, Singapore, Bangladesh, and Nigeria, English is used as a Second Language (ESL). In ESL situations, English has official status because it is used widely in government, in the media, and education. In the expanding circle, in countries such as Korea, Indonesia, Japan and China, English has low official recognition and is used mainly for communication with foreigners rather than with locals. Therefore, English in those countries is applied as a Foreign Language (EFL).

Among the countries which are grouped in the expanding circle, English has its own particular role for its learners. English learners in those countries have a small quantity of time using in the language which merely appear when they make discourses with foreigners or in the language classroom context. However, Christopersen (1956), a phonetician, who states that language is the symbolization of thought, believes that, “language is a learned code, or system or rules that enables people to communicate their ideas and express their wants and needs.”

In line with Christophersen, Morley (1991) has stated that having an intelligible pronunciation in communicative competence is important in interpreting people needs. Similar to the idea above, Ladefoged (2005) also exposed language as a main point to convey information. He considered the

various forms of language as it is written, spoken, or signed, language can help people expressing their feelings.

According to Kreidler (2004), there are two major characteristics in pronunciation, to be exact, speech and language. On the other hand, a speech is known as an activity which people do when they communicate. On the other hand, a code which exists, handed down from the past with slight changes made by each generation, and is known by those who speak and understand it, is called a language.

However, Kreidler (2004) also states that, "speech is not the same as language." For more things, he believes that a voice has characteristics which may carry extra messages. People can often identify someone they know by his or her voice and determine something of the speaker's mood. More importantly, Kreidler declares speech as an activity which is carried on in numerous events and states language as knowledge, a code which is known and shared by people who use their knowledge for transmitting and interpreting messages in events. When someone is speaking, anyone who is close enough can hear the sound waves set up in the air by the speaker reach the eardrums of the hearer. Nevertheless, only the person who shares the same codes can understand what is said.

Similar to the former researcher, Ladefoged (2005) also makes a distinction between language and speech. He defines speech as an accent which someone uses in conveying information about what sort of person they are. Thus,

the information which is conveyed by the use of specific words is believed as a language.

Consequently, it is fundamental for language learners to master the system or codes of their target language and be familiar with the speech sounds of the language. Therefore, having a good skill in pronunciation seems vital to learners for expressing their thought appropriately. In fact, bad English pronunciation may confuse people even if one used advanced English grammar. One can use simple words and simple grammar structures that make people understand but one cannot use “simple pronunciation”. When a speaker tries to use simple pronunciation, there will be a tendency for him or her to make errors and his or her messages cannot be delivered successfully.

The example of errors in pronunciation is discussed in the following relevant literature. A respectable research concerning consonant features in speech errors has been done by two researchers from Phonetics Institute University of Utrecht, Broecke and Goldstein (1980). In their study, they discuss the speech errors in English, German, and Dutch using a barometer of phonological speech errors. The characteristics of phonological speech errors are classified into five categories, namely, spoonerisms or metatheses (for further reading see Mackay, 1973), perseverations, anticipations, elisions, and substitutions.

As the data, Broecke and Goldstein had collected three different sources. First, for English consonants, the researcher had 1057 consonant confusion which

were formed in a confusion – matrix. For English consonants, Broecke and Goldstein restrict the data into several categories, for instance, they should contain single consonant metatheses, anticipations, preservations, and substitutions. Second, for German consonants, Broecke and Goldstein had 542 confusions, and 235 confusions for Dutch consonants. In order to know how often speech errors occur at all in relation to the total number of phonemes uttered in a simple of speech and the frequency of occurrence of each phoneme, the researchers used an arbitrary probability.

In general, Broecke and Goldstein analyze the speech error data for two times. For the priori analysis, Broecke and Goldstein believe that Lad feature system which involves the places of articulations for consonants would be the best feature set to describe phenomena. In their posteriori analysis, they used multidimensional scaling which constrain the English and German consonants in systematic voiced – voiceless pairs and in terms of feature specifications. They perform the speech errors in a speech error feature set, but the findings were not satisfying since the feature of fricatives and approximant were absent.

Another related literature of this study would be a research from Hufnagel and Klatt (1980). In their research entitled How Single Phoneme Error Data Rule Out Two Models of Error Generation, it is of interest in which spontaneous speech containing errors are investigated. They believe that error units often take the form of changes in a small portion of a word. The changes of a target segment into a single intrusion segment of the same level of description or so called

"phonetic segment type" commonly happen in spontaneous speech. Hufnagel and Klatt differentiate three different types of errors, namely, an exchange, an anticipatory substitution, and a perseveratory substitution. It is stated on their research that there are three different views of ways in which normal error – free speech is produced. In addition, they decided to choose the nearly right theory by testing the three theories against a large corpus of segmental substitution errors.

In the first theory, there was a saying that one segment substitutes for any of the others segments in a random pattern without a constraint as to similarity between target and intrusion segments. On the contrary, the second theory stated that there would be a particular reason of the errors' appearance. The theory asserts that one set of "stronger" segments systematically replaces other "weaker" segments in errors. In the third theory, a target segment will be replaced by an intrusion segment only if the two are very similarly represented and simultaneously available during the planning process. The corpus of errors analyzed in their study are drawn from the MIT collection of spontaneous speech errors which involve normal adult native speakers of English from radio, television, public occasions, or from speakers who read aloud. Using the confusion matrix, the researchers are succeeded to prove 34 errors which represent the effect of a "strong ousts weak" theory. However, the researcher had summarized the overall target – intrusion for four segments which appear more often as intrusion than as targets. Therefore, Hufnagel and Klatt concluded

themselves that the second theory seemed to be the closer theory which supports the segmental substitution errors.

The next related literature entitled slips of the tongue in normal and pathological speech by Talo (1980) will be reviewed. Talo presents a study comparing speech errors in normal and pathological (aphasic) speech in Swedish. First, he differentiates the differences between normal and pathological speech where articulatory movements be a major disturbance among the two. For normal speech, people tend to have a slip of the tongue and for pathological speech; there are three types of brain damage, namely, dysarthria, paraxial, and literal paraphasia which mostly become intrusion.

As cited in Boomer and Laver (1989), Talo defines a slip of the tongue as a deviation from what the speaker had in mind to say because of a mistake which result a big surprise to the listener and the speaker himself. Oppositely, Dysarthria is caused by a bilateral cortical or subcortical damage which prevents people to produce a normal speech. People with dysarthria problem are able to know what they want to say and how to program the speech but they will fail in the final stage because of the motor program. Apraxia is caused by unilateral cortical damage. People with apraxia speech will have a difficulty in starting speech or in making articulatory gestures. They would feel the speech become laborious and errors will increase their anxiety. Literal paraphasia is caused by unilateral damage in cortex which leads patients to have a wrong judgment in choosing and

ordering phonemes. People with literal paraphasia might have a quite fluent speech but with regular phonemic substitution.

Talo takes 200 slips of the tongue as the corpus of normal errors while he only took 100 examples from the pathological speech errors. To analyze the data, Talo uses a classification table of speech errors which divide into two groups: syntagmatic errors and paradigmatic errors.

The syntagmatic errors may be further divided into three categories metathesis, anticipation, and duplication. In paradigmatic errors, the substitution of phoneme will be considered as errors in speech. As a conclusion of his study, Talo synthesizes that syntagmatic errors are more common in the normal utterances while paradigmatic errors prevail in the pathological speech.

2.2 Contrastive Analysis

Contrastive analysis is a language learning method which is advocated by structuralist linguists such as Fries (1945) and Lado (1957). The purpose of the contrastive analysis is to compare and contrast mother tongue and target language and find out the similarities and differences and also to predict the elements that are obstacles to language learning. The phonological analysis made by Stockwell & Bowen (1965) could be an example of Contrastive analysis.

The most important thing in language teaching is the comparison of native and foreign language. The comparison between native and foreign

language is the key to case or difficulty in foreign language learning. Then it will make teaching easier if we find the phonemes which are similar in both language and those which are different. In pronunciation, for example, most of the sounds are substituted for the Korean ones. There are only a few sounds which are similar to the English ones. It is difficult to teach English pronunciation to Koreans because the phonemes are different phonetically in English and Korean. But by using the results of phonemic comparison of English and Korean we can easily carry out the problem spots. The students who are in contact with English will find some features of it quite easy and others extremely difficult. Those elements which are similar to Korean will be simple and those elements that are different will be difficult. Since Korean students who are intend to learn it, have the preconception that it is very difficult language and they usually feel discouraged. In listening, if the sounds of English are physically similar to those of the Korean, learning the sound system is not difficult for the students. Otherwise, the problems are different. By means of comparison of two languages we can get an insight into the linguistic problems which cannot easily be achieved.

Many students are eager to acquire a good speaking knowledge of English in a relatively short time. It is more and more becoming necessary today for a Korean to acquire English, not only for a knowledge of English as a second language for higher education, but also for the present political situation which is the prime motivation for learning English.

Recently, there have been some vigorous and claims of the methods of teaching English upon the return of some students from study abroad so that, in the last few years, English teaching has improved immensely. Still, a thorough knowledge of skillful techniques is urgently necessary.

For further consideration, there are three methodological attitudes which are more effective and practical. The students most start form fundamental problems in linguistic methods and work out the system for himself. The methodological approaches are as follows in general:

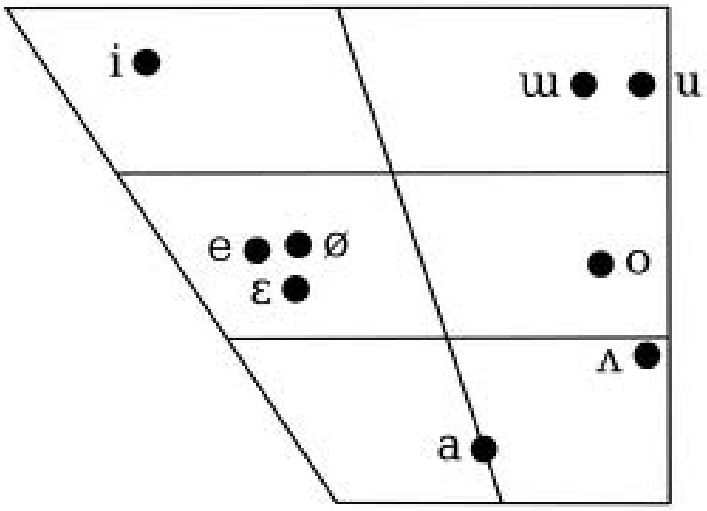
1. Oral method based on the speech pattern through linguistic approach. The mastery of the fundamentals of the language must be through speech with a limited vocabulary. It shortens the learning process and reduces the random method of learning.
2. A thorough mastery of English demands a systematic observation and recording of many features of the precise situation in which the varied sentences are used. And also the number of structural patterns should be carefully selected so as to represent patterns for receptive recognition cannot all be learned at once. The sequence of their presentation to a student demands careful planning in order to make that learning as efficient as possible.
3. The efficient advance in English teaching is through language laboratory. The object of the language laboratory is to train students to understand the

spoken language and eventually build the basic ability to use it fluently and intelligently. This can be achieved by giving the students full opportunity to listen to native speakers both in the classroom and in the laboratory session. The teacher must know something about the physical requirements that can be practiced only through laboratory, how to operate it, how to orient and train students to use it, and what preparation must be made for class use of laboratory.

2.2.1 Vowels

When one compare and contrasts sounds of any given two languages at a superficial level, one usually pays more attention to consonants than vowels, perhaps due to the acoustic prominence of consonants in relation to vowels. However, a close examination of vowel systems of English and Korean reveals that in reality more attention is needed for vowels contrasts than for consonants. Korean phonemic vowels are shown in the chart below.

Korean Phonemic Vowels



In the Korean vowel system, we have two front unrounded vowels; one is high and the other is non-high: /i/ and / ɛ/ respectively. There is one non-front (either mid or back) low vowel /a/. Two rounded vowels are found in high back position and mid back position: /u/ and /o/ respectively. Korean also has two unrounded vowels that are generally uncommon in other languages, namely the high back unrounded vowel /ɯ/, which in fact often ranges from central to back, and the mid back unrounded vowel / /. Lastly Korean has ten diphthongs all of which are combinations of a glide and a vowel: /ja/, /j□/, /jo/, /ju/, /jɛ/, /wɑ/, /w□/, /wɛ/, /wi/, /□i/.

English Phonemic Vowels

		Front (unrounded)	Central (unrounded)	Back (rounded)
high	tense	i		u
	lax	ɪ		ʊ
mid	tense	e	ə	o
	lax	ɛ	ʌ	ɔ
low		Q	a	ɑ

English phonemic vowels include a lot more fine-grained distinctions, compared to those of Korean. First of all, both high front and high back regions have two different vowels separated by the tense/lax distinction. Thus, although both are unrounded, high and front, /i/ is distinguished from /□/ in that the former is a tense version of the latter, as exemplified in the minimal pairs3 such as ‘beat’ vs. ‘bit.’ In the same way, /u/is the tense version of the lax counterpart /□/. Examples of the contrast can be found in pairs such as ‘pool’ vs. ‘pull.’ By the same token, mid front and mid back vowels have the tense and lax distinction. There are two mid front unrounded vowels, /ej/ as in ‘bait’ and /ɛ/ as in ‘bet,’ the former being tense and the latter lax. There are also two mid back rounded vowels, /ow/ as in ‘boat’ and /ɔ/ ‘as in ‘bore,’ where the former is tense and the latter also lax. But, note that the tense/lax distinction is not the only distinguishing factor for the mid front and mid back vowels in English. The tense versions of the mid front

and mid back vowels in English are all diphthongized. That is, /ej/ is not like a simple /e/ nor is /ow/ like /o/.

The mid central vowels in English have both /□/ as in ‘butt’ and schwa /ə/ as in the second syllable of ‘Rosa.’ The occurrences of the two mid central vowels are usually distinguished by the presence or absence of stress. The front low vowel /□/ is found in such words as ‘bat,’ and the low back vowel /ɑ/ in such words as ‘pot.’ The low central vowel /a/ is quite rare and it usually occurs only as the first part of diphthongs.

As for diphthongs, the English diphthongs are uniformly composed of the sequence of a vowel and a glide, exactly the opposite sequence from that of Korean. Besides /ej/ and /ow/, there are /aj/ as in ‘sigh,’ /aw/ as in ‘how’ and /ɔj/ as in ‘joy.’ Also, some phoneticians note that the high front and back unrounded tense vowels are slightly diphthongized. Thus, they transcribe them as /ij/ and /uw/.

2.2.2 Consonants

Korean Phonemic Consonants

	Bilabial	Labio-dental	Dental	Alveolar	Palato-alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Labio-velar	Glottal
Stop	p p^h p’			t t^h t’			k k^h k’		
Fricative				s s’					h
Affricate					tʃ $tʃ^h$ tʃ’				
Nasal	m			n			ŋ		
Approximant						j	ɯ	w	
Flap				ɾ					

There are four aspects of the inventory that we want to pay special attention to. First, Korean does not have voiced obstruents. All stops, fricatives and affricates are voiceless. They do not have voiced consonants, at least in the phonemic level. Second, for most obstruents, instead of the voicing contrast, there are other contrasts at phonemic level, namely, aspiration contrast and glottis constriction contrast. Third, Korean has a flap [ɾ], but no [l] or [ɹ]. Fourth, the number of fricatives is significantly small.

English Phonemic Consonants

	Bilabial	Labio-dental	Dental	Alveolar	Palato-alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Labio-velar	Glottal
Stop	p b			t d			k g		ʔ
Fricative		f v	θ ð	s z	ʃ ʒ				h
Affricate					tʃ dʒ				
Nasal	m			n			ŋ		
Approximant				l ɹ		j		w	

By contrast, we find that all obstruents in English, besides the ones produced at glottis, have voiced/voiceless counterparts. We also note that there are many fricatives in a variety of places of articulation.