

# CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1. The Background of the Study

Language is used as a tool of communication. It is a tool of communication to express thoughts, ideas, feelings, attitudes, and experiences to our fellow people. It means that language is used to communicate to each other. It is also considered as a very important aspect in communicating. People must learn not only their mother tongue which only roles in the area where they lives, but also an international language, that is, English. In Indonesia, English is regarded as a foreign language, which has still to be learnt as a subject in the school from kindergarten until university level. That's why many people in Indonesia still cann't speak in English because they do not use English in daily life, whereas English is very important language that has to be known because English is an international language where people from one country use English to communicate to other people with other countries.

Learning English as a foreign language is a complex matter because it is related with its own writing and speaking system. Therefore, when learners are learning English they will meet the new segment of writing and speaking system which both of those have peculiarly difference with the native system. Of course, it will raise errors when they find difficulties to learn the new sounds system, the new vocabulary items, and the difference of arranging a sentence. Concerning the statement above, the writer doestn't agree if the error is judged to learners only, and it needs analysis. Errors and mistake are part of learning process which are not to be separated from learning. Those are the result of process based on individual condition and need a method or

strategy that is appropriate with its condition. According to Corder, cited from Brown (2000: 217), errors by the foreign learners are a very significant thing because it can be a source of information about the way how language is learnt and a procedure or strategy which is used by learners to learn the language. Error in pronunciation sometimes called 'lapses' (slip of the mother tongue) or 'mistake'. However, on this case, the discussion will focus on the problems concerned with pronunciation.

Learning and errors are unity packaging that takes place naturally in learning process of foreign language. It is influenced by learners who has different language background depends on where they were born. Every background can influence their first language which since they were child they have been speaking as their mother tongue. Usually, their old habit of speaking has been deeply rooted in them until they are adult. Moreover, that it has set their speech organ to produce the speech sound of native language. The learners, afterwards, take less care of their background speech organ which it is commonly become the main reason of errors in pronunciation.

Errors in learners' pronunciation also can be identified from the phonemes they produced. When the learners produce the phonemes inappropriately, they will automatically make mispronunciation. Their errors of producing phonemes can be classified into some parts. According to Carl (1998: 139), there are three types of errors of the phonemes sequencing, namely segmental, combinatorial and suprasegmental.

The learner common errors that take place are a slightly mispronounced of phonemes or sequence of phonemes. For example, the word '*man*' is pronounced with a first segment (phoneme) /m/, second segment /æ/ and third segment /n/. It is not always easy to decide on the number of segments. When the learners substituted the second segment to the other segment, it

will make different meaning. In other case, if we substitute phoneme /æ/ for /e/ in the word 'bed' we get a different word 'bad'. A common learner tends to say 'bouk' for 'bought', 'straik' for 'straight', 'brouk' for 'brought', etc. Learner often mispronounce the simple words, such as the learner might pronounce 'bit' for 'bite', 'sur' for 'sure', 'no' for 'now'. Despite of both English and Indonesia use the same alphabet, but there are phonemes which represent two different sounds in the two language. Moreover, when the learner said 'no' for 'now', those sounds become ambiguous to be heard.

In this research, the writer will analyze the English oral of several students in English Department of University HKBP Nommensen Medan, especially fourth semester students. Concerning to the topic, most of the fourth semester students still pronounce English words inappropriately, even, make an error. There are some phonemes that were pronounced not clear, sometimes adding, omitting, or replacing. This phenomenon needs an analysis to reveal the factors which may be influencing them. The most important meaning of this result of analysis is through the errors analysis the writer will inform the classification of errors and the features of errors.

Regarding to the discussion above the writer proposes a research which is entitled; "An Error Analysis Of The Use Of Phonemes Sequencing Made by The Fourth Semester Students Of The English Department Of Teacher's Training Faculty Of HKBP Nommensen University Medan."

## **1.2. The Problems of the Study**

In accordance with the reason presented above, the problems of the study are formulated as the following:

1. What are the the types of errors of the phonemes sequencing made by the fourth semester students of HKBP Nommensen Medan ?
2. What is the most dominant type of errors of the phonemes sequencing made by the fourth semester students of HKBP Nommensen Medan?

### **1.3. The Objectives of the study**

The objectives of the study are stated briefly as follows:

1. To analyze the types of errors of phonemes sequencing made by the fourth semester students of HKBP Nommensen Medan.
2. To find out the most dominant type of errors of the phonemes sequencing made by the fourth semesterstudents of HKBP Nommensen Medan.

### **1.4. The Scope of the Study**

In this research, the writer limited the discussion only in the analysis of phonemes sequencing errors which are found among the students in the fourth semester of HKBP Nommensen University in pronouncing list of vocabuaries; it is list of verbs which consists of 30 items. In this thesis, the focus of analysis concerns with the types of phonemes sequencing errors and the most dominant type of phonemes errors made by the students. The writer chose the students as the object of the study because this research has not been conducted forthese students before.In addition, learning material about phonologyhas been studied by students offourth semester so it is considered more appropriate to be analyzed through this research.

### **1.5. The Significances of the Study**

The result of study will be useful:

1. For the students

This research is expected to help the students to be aware of the errors that they make. It is also expected that they will find the correct construction in pronunciation and they use the language correctly especially in speaking. So they don't make the same errors in the future.

2. For the reader

The result of this study is able to become reference to study pronunciation errors and it can be used as additional knowledge in linguistics.

3. For other researcher

The result of this research can be used as one of the references and information for further research related with the field.

## **CHAPTER II**

### **REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

## 2.1 Theoretical Framework

In conducting a research, theories are needed to explain some concepts or terms applied in the research concerned. Some terms are used in the study and they need to be the theoretical explained. In following parts, theoretical elaboration on the terms used will be presented.

## 2.2 English Consonants

According to Laurel and Donna ( 2010:23 ), a consonant is defined as a speech sound which is articulated with some kind of stricture, or closure, of the air stream.

Consonants are classified according to four features:

1. the state of the glottis: in vibration (voiced) or open (voiceless);
2. the state of the velum: lowered (nasal) or raised (oral);
3. the place of articulation: the location where the stricture or place of maximum interference occurs and what articulators are involved;
4. the manner of articulation: the amount of stricture, whether it is complete, partial ( close approximation ), or relatively ( open approximation).

The term “approximation” refers to the two articulators approaching (or approximating) one another.

In describing the place of articulation for consonants, it is traditional to list the active and then the passive articulator. Consonants involve a rather large number of discrete places of articulation:

1. bilabial: the lips are brought together (the lower lip is active); the tongue is not involved but remains in the “rest position” (its position when you say ah for the doctor) – e.g. the sound of “b” in English;

2. labiodental: the lower lip is brought up against the upper front teeth; again the tongue is in rest position – e.g. the sound of “f” in English;
3. dental: the tip of the tongue ( apex) protrudes between the teeth or touches the back of the upper teeth – e.g. the sound of “t” in Spanish or “th” in English;
4. alveolar: the tip of the tongue makes contact with or is in close approximation to the alveolar ridge – e.g. the sound of “d” in English;
5. alveolopalatal: the front, or blade, of the tongue is raised to an area between the alveolar ridge and the palate – e.g. the sound of “sh” in English;
6. palatal: the front of the tongue is brought up against the palate – e.g. the sound of “y” in English;
7. velar: the back, or dorsum, of the tongue is brought into contact with the velum e.g. The sound of “g” in English;
8. uvular: the back of the tongue touches the uvula;
9. pharyngeal: the root of the tongue (specifically, the epiglottis) is moved backwards against the wall of the pharynx;
10. glottal: the vocal cords, functioning as articulators, make a brief closure.

While the uvular and pharyngeal places are not used for the articulation of English consonants, they are used in other languages: e.g. the uvular for German “r” and a French fricative and the pharyngeal for a fricative in Arabic.

Each of the various places of articulation just examined may combine with a number of different manners of articulation to produce consonant sounds:

1. stop: (“oral stop”) involving complete closure of two articulators with the velum raised (velic closure) – e.g. the sound of “p” in English;

2. nasal: (“nasal stop”) involving complete closure of two articulators with the velum lowered (“velic opening”) – e.g. the sound of “n” in English; for every stop position in English, there is a nasal articulated in the same position (homorganic);
3. fricative: (or “spirant”) involving close approximation of two articulators; the airstream is partially obstructed so that a turbulent airflow is produced, resulting in a hissing or rubbing sound – e.g. the sound of “s” in English;
4. affricate: consisting of a stop released into a homorganic fricative – e.g. the sound of “ch” in English; this sound is analyzed either as a complex or a simple sound;
5. trill: (“roll”) involving complete closure alternating intermittently with open approximation, that is, a rapid vibration of the active articulator against the passive articulator (this sound is not common in English except for the Scottish “r” made with an apical trill);
6. flap: (or “tap”) involving momentary complete closure in which the active articulator strikes the passive articulator only once; it is one strike of a trill and similar to a stop except that the tongue is more tense and controlled than in a stop;
7. approximant: one articulator approaches another but generally not to the extent that a turbulent air stream is produced.

### 2.2.2. The Consonant of English

#### Place of Articulation

Manner of Articulation		Bilabial	Labio Dental	Dental	Alveo lar	Alveolar Palatal	Palata l	Velar	Glottal
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Stop	Voiceless	p			t			k	ʔ
	Voiced	b			d			g	
Nasal		m			n			ŋ	
Flap					r				
Fricative	Voiceless		f	θ	s	ʃ			h
	Voiced		v	ð	z	ʒ			
Africative	Voiceless					tʃ			
	Voiced					dʒ			
Approximant	Lateral				l				
	Retroflex				r				
	Glide						ɹ		h
	Semi-vowel								

### 2.3 English Vowels

According to Laurel and Donna (2010:35), vowels are sounds articulated with no obstruction of the air stream, that is, with open articulation.

The place of articulation of vowels is understood rather differently than it is for consonants. Instead of determining which articulators are used and where stricture occurs, we determine where the highest point of the tongue is during the production of the vowel sound. In articulating vowels, the tongue is primary, though other articulators may change the size and shape of the resonating chamber: the larynx can move up and down slightly, the velum can be raised or lowered (giving one or two resonating chambers), the lower jaw is also raised or lowered in conjunction with the tongue position (moving through the close, half-close, half-open, and open

positions as the tongue is lowered). The lips, also in conjunction with the tongue position, can be open and closed, as well as rounded (pursed) or unrounded (spread). The rounding of the lips has the double effect of changing the shape of the opening and lengthening the resonating chamber. In classifying vowels, however, it is generally sufficient to talk about the position of tongue. The tongue is convex, with the front and back humped and the tip hanging down. The high point is measured on two axes: a horizontal, or front-back axis, and a vertical, or high-low axis. The front-back axis is divided into three positions, front, central, and back, which range from the center of the palate to the back of the velum. The high-low axis is divided into from four to six positions, either the four positions of the jaw noted above or two positions in each of three sections, high, mid, and low. There are thus 36 possible vowel positions, including the choice between rounded and unrounded vowels in each position.

There are two kinds of vowels namely:

1. A monophthong is a single or simple vowel sound constituting the nucleus of a syllable. The position of the tongue is more or less static, and there is a relatively constant acoustic property, or pitch, to the sound.

IPA (O'Connor)	Examples
i:	see /si:/ unique /ju:'ni:k / feel /fi:l/
ɪ	wit/wɪt/, mystic/mɪstɪk/, little /lɪtl/
e	set/set/ meant/mɛnt/, bet/bɛt/
æ	pat/pæt/ cash/kæʃ/ bad/bæd/
ɑ:	half/hɑ:f/ part/pɑ:t/, father/fɑ:ðə/
ɒ	not/nɒt/ what/wɒt/ cost/kɒst /

ɔ:	port/pɔ:t/ caught/kɔ:t/ all/ɔ:l/
ʊ	wood/wʊd/ could/kʊd/ put/pʊt/
u:	you/ju:/ music/mju:zɪk/ rude/ru:d/
ʌ	bus/bʌs/ come/kʌm/ but /bʌt/
ɜ:	beard/bɪəd/ word/wɜ:d/ fur/fɜ:/
ə	alone/ə'leɪn/ butter/bʌtə /

2. A diphthong is a glide from one vowel to another, and whole glide acts like on of the come, simple vowel; so we have bi:, ba:, bɔ:, and also beɪ, bæu, bai, bau, bɔi, biə, beə, buə. The diphthong of english are in three groups, those which end in /u/, /əu/, /au/, those which end in /i/, /ei/, /ai/, /oi/ and which end in /ə/, /iə/, /eə/, /uə/.

## 2.4 International Phonetics Alphabet (IPA)

Alphabets are the sign which represent the signal sound of a language. However, the writer does not define phonemes as alphabets. When people are speaking they will produce sequence of sounds or sequence of phonemes. The speaker of a language is easily indentifying the sequence of sounds into words by the phonemes. In the language study it needs a consistent way of representing the sounds of language in written form. On the discussion the writer uses The International Phonetics Alphabet (IPA) as the foundation of analysis. The International Phonetics Alphabet (IPA) is the association has been concerned since 1886 to develop a set of symbol which would be convenient to use, but comprehensive enough to cope with the wide variety of sounds found in the languages of the world.

## 2.5 Standard Pronunciation

According to Daniel Jones (1941:1) states, “No two persons pronounce exactly alike. The differences may arise from a variety of causes, such as locality, early influences, social surroundings, individual peculiarities, and the like. For the purposes of the present it is necessary to set up a standard, and the standard selected is the pronunciation which appears to be most usually employed. The form of standard pronunciation will be denoted by the abbreviation StP. StP is intended to be represented, unless the contrary is stated.” Based on standard Pronunciation, classification of sounds is divided into two main parts. They are consonants and vowels.

### 2.5.1 Consonants

Consonant is defined as a speech sound which is articulated with some kind of stricture or closure of the air stream. Consonants are classified into some categories.

/p/. Breathed bilabial plosive. Example pipe, paip. When p is followed by a vowel in a stressed syllable (as in apart, apait), a slight puff of breath, i.e. a slight h is heard after the explosion of the p and before the beginning of the vowel. In StP this h sound is so slight that it is not necessary to indicate it specially in a practical phonetic transcription. With some speakers, however, this h sound is very marked, sufficiently so to require a separate symbol in the phonetic transcription, thus əpha:t.

/b/. Voiced bilabial plosive. Example babe, beib.

/t/. Breathed dental plosive. Articulated in StP by the tip of the tongue against the upper gums. Example tough, tʌtʃ. A slight h sound is inserted in StP between t and a following vowel in stressed syllables, as in target, ta:git, but this is not sufficient to require marking in an ordinary phonetic transcription. The exaggerated pronunciation ta:git is not recommended. In some N

dialects when t is followed by r as in true, tru:, it is articulated against the upper teeth instead of the upper gums. This produces a very peculiar effect, which sounds rather as if a θ were inserted (tθru:). In many dialects t between two vowels is replaced in certain cases by a kind of semi-rolled r, Saturday, sætədi, becoming særədi. In L get out of the way is often pronounced giræərədəwai. In Sc and L, t is often replaced by the glottal plosive ʔ. Saturday in Glasgow dialect is pronounced sapədi, water, wɔʔr (StP wɔ:tə). In L the expression haven't got one (StP ai hævnt gɔt wʌn) becomes aaɪŋʔwan. In StP the sound t is very often dropped when it occurs in the middle of a group of consonants, especially when preceded by s. This is regular in words like listen, castle, mustn't (lisn, ka:sl, məsnt). There are, however, many cases in which it is dropped in conversational pronunciation though it might be retained in very careful speaking. Examples: next Christmas, nekskrisməs; postman, pousmən; most people, mouspi:pl. Note the word often, eight different pronunciations of which may be heard from educated people, viz. ɔftən, ɔftn, ɔfən, ɔfn, ɔ:ftən, ɔftn, ɔ:fən, ɔ:fn. ɔ:ftən is the pronunciation generally recommended by teachers, but many people consider this affected, ɔ:fn and ɔ:ftən are on the whole the pronunciations most frequently heard from educated people. Some speakers often drop t before d. Pronunciations like sidaun, wɔdju:wənt for sitdaun (sit down), (h) wɔtdju:wənt (what do you want?) may not infrequently be heard from educated people, but they are not pronunciations to be recommended for teaching purposes. t is often inserted in fifth, fif(t)θ; sixth, siks(t)θ and always in eighth, eitθ.

/d/. Voiced dental plosive. Articulated in StP by the tip of the tongue against the upper gums. Example deed, di:d. In some N dialects it is articulated against the upper teeth when followed by r, as in drop, drɒp. This gives rather the effect of an inserted ɖ (ɖrɒp). The sound d is frequently dropped in conversational pronunciation when it occurs in the middle of a group of consonants,

especially when preceded or followed by a nasal. Kindness, grandmother, are very commonly, if not usually, pronounced *kainnis*, *grænmlaðə*. (These are really cases of Assimilation. A very common case is the word *and* when unstressed. *Bread and butter* is generally pronounced *brednbatə* (not *bredændbatə*), and *two-and-six* is usually *tu:ənsiks* in conversational pronunciation.

*/k/*. Breathed velar plosive. Example *cake*, *keik*. A slight *h* sound is inserted in StP between *k* and a following vowel in stressed syllables (as in *cupboard*, *kʌbəd*), but this is not sufficient to require marking in an ordinary phonetic transcription. The exaggerated pronunciation *khʌbəd* is not recommended. Note the common mispronunciation *a:st* for *a:skt* (*asked*). It is no doubt due to this that the word *ask* itself is so frequently pronounced *a:st* in L (*a:la:stim* for *aila:sk(h)im*, *I'll ask him*). As regard *nlθiŋk* for *nlθiŋ*.

*/g/*. Voiced velar plosive. Example *go*, *gou*. Note the common mispronunciation of *recognise* (StP *rekənaiz*) as *rekənaiz*. As regards *g* after *ŋ* when not required in StP. The old-fashioned use of the breathed and voiced palatal plosives (phonetic symbols *c*, *j*), instead of *k*, *g* before *a* and *ai* (and *ə:* in the single word *girl*), is rapidly dying out but is still heard occasionally in the words *kind*, *sky*, *girl* (*caind*, *scai*, *jə:l*; StP *kaind*, *skai*, *gə:l*). These palatal sounds are frequently heard in I, e.g. *count*, *cæunt* (StP *kaunt* or *kaunt*), *catch*, *cæt/f* (StP *kæt/f*). In StP the sound is sometimes heard at the beginning of a syllable which normally begins with a vowel, when that vowel is very strongly stressed, e.g. *It wəs ði ʔounli wei tə du: it and even* (*weʔevər ai gou ðeə*, *hi:z aut*). Some use it also to avoid a sequence of two vowels in such expressions as *the India Office*, *indjə ʔəfis*. This is no doubt due to a reaction against the pronunciation *indjərəfis* which is frequently heard even from educated people. Some speakers have a tendency to insert the sound at the beginning of all words which normally begin with a vowel, whether strongly stressed or not: examples,

Westminster Abbey, wes(t)minstə pæbi, the ends of the earth, ði pendz əv ði pə:θ (StP wes(t)minstəræbi, ðiendzəvðiə:θ); ; this pronunciation is, however, not to be recommended. The sound ʔ should in fact be avoided as much as possible. It is not a pleasant sound in itself, and is never necessary for the sense. The second syllable of (h)wenevə can be made quite prominent enough without inserting ʔ. India Office may very well be pronounced indjəʊfis.

/m/. Voiced bilabial nasal. Example move, mu:v. The corresponding breathed sound (phonetic symbol m) only occurs in interjections such as mm, mmm (generally written hm, ahem), and occasionally in rapid conversational pronunciation, e.g. ai doumn maind, for StP ai dount maind. In words like prism, chasm, prizm, kæzm, the m is syllabic. Many speakers insert a vowel of some kind, usually ə, between the z and m in such words (prizəm, etc.); this pronunciation is not recommended. These words are frequently regarded in poetry as constituting only one syllable. In such cases the m should be -pronounced as lightly as possible. m sometimes occurs in careless speech instead of syllabic n, when preceded by p or b, e.g. open, StP oup(ə)n becoming oupm, cup and saucer, StP kʌp ən(d) sɔ:sə becoming kʌpmsɔ:sə. Such forms should be avoided. Note the following forms heard in L, sebm, ilebm, ebm, aipmi, grɛmfʌ:və, for StP sevn, ilevn, hevvn, heipəni, græn(d)fa:ðə.

/n/. Voiced dental nasal. Articulated by the tip of the tongue against the upper gums. Example now, nau. n is frequently syllabic, especially in syllables beginning with other dental consonants, thus, mutton, ridden, person, are usually pronounced mʌtn, ridn, pə:sn (not mʌtən, etc.). In such cases the n must be pronounced as lightly as possible. In uneducated speech n is sometimes omitted from the beginning of words which ought to begin with it. The commonest case is the pronunciation of nought, nɔ:t (zero) as ɔ:t. This is due to the fact that the word is usually preceded by the indefinite article a, an (ə, ən), and the group ə nɔ:t is almost

indistinguishable from ən ɔ:t. Conversely in some dialects an initial n is sometimes inserted where not required, e.g. nληkl for ληkl (due to main ληkl).

/ŋ/. Voiced velar nasal. Examples song, son, ink, iŋk. Many speakers use syllabic ŋ instead of (ə) n when preceded by k or g, e.g. bacon, beikŋ, better beik(ə) n. The mispronunciation of "dropping one's g's is simply a substitution of n for ŋ, e.g. k^min for k^miŋ (coming). In L k is often inserted after ŋ in nothing, anything, the words being pronounced nafiŋk, enifiŋk (StP nλθiŋ, eniθiŋ). In some dialects, especially in N.Mid., g is added after ŋ where it is not inserted in StP, e.g. Iɔŋg for Iɔŋ (long), siŋgiŋg for siŋiŋ (singing). Note the uneducated pronunciation kitʃiŋ for kitʃin (kitchen).

/l/. Voiced dental lateral. Example laugh, la:f The l sound produced with a given vowel position of the main part of the tongue, always has a noticeable resemblance to the vowel in question. Thus the l sound heard in StP people very much resembles the vowel u, the reason being that though the sound is primarily articulated by the tip of the tongue against the upper gums, yet the back of the tongue is simultaneously raised in the direction of the soft palate into the u position. In StP when the l sound is final or followed by a consonant, it usually has the value l<sup>ɹ</sup>; when followed by a vowel it has the value l<sup>u</sup> which tends towards l<sup>i</sup> when the following vowel is i: or i (compare feel, fi:l<sup>u</sup>, with feeling fi:l<sup>i</sup>iŋ, and the two ls in little, l<sup>i</sup>itl<sup>u</sup>). Some speakers use l<sup>o</sup> in all cases, and this pronunciation is usually recommended by elocutionists. Pronunciations like pi:p<sup>o</sup> are however very often found difficult to acquire by those who are accustomed to pronounce piip<sup>o</sup>. In L the l sound when final or followed by a consonant, has the value l<sup>ɹ</sup>, e.g. field, fil<sup>ɹ</sup>d (StP fi:l<sup>u</sup>d or fi:l<sup>o</sup>d). It is sometimes even replaced by a vowel resembling ɔ, e.g. raiɔwai for reilwei (railway). In the N and in Ireland the l sound when final or followed by a consonant is often pronounced l<sup>i</sup> (pi:p<sup>i</sup>l<sup>i</sup>, bells, bel<sup>i</sup>z). Pronunciations such as fil<sup>ɹ</sup>d may be

corrected by putting the tip of the tongue against the upper gums in the lateral position, and trying to pronounce simultaneously different vowels (a, e, ə, u:, i:) one after the other ; with a little practice students will be able to produce readily the various varieties of l (l<sup>a</sup>, l<sup>o</sup>, l<sup>o</sup>), and will therefore be able in particular to pronounce the l<sup>u</sup>, l<sup>o</sup> of StP. l is sometimes dropped in careless speech, e.g. wɛəf(ə) wigou for (h) wɛəfəlwi:gou (where shall we go ?), ə:rait for əilrait (all right). Breathed l sounds do not exist regularly in English.

/r/. Voiced dental rolled. Formed by a rapid succession of taps made by the tip of the tongue against the upper gums. Examples right, write, rait. In StP a semi-rolled r, i.e. one which is formed like the fully-rolled sound, but consists of one single tap of the tongue is commonly used between two vowels, as in period, piəriəd, arrive, əraiv. It is also frequently used after θ, ð, as in three, θri: . In other cases, and notably when preceded by a dental consonant, the r sound is a voiced dental fricative consonant, which may be represented when necessary by ɹ. Examples : try, tʃai, draw, djɔ:, Henry, henji, shrink, ʃɹɪŋk (usually written trai, etc. for convenience). When final or followed by a consonant, the letter r is not pronounced as a consonant at all in StP, e.g. farm, fa:m; purse, pɜ:s; nor, nɔ: (gnaw) ; poor, puə; pair, pɛə; fire, faɪə. In Sc a consonantal r sound (i.e. r fully or semi-rolled, or j) is used in this position, thus farm, pɑ:rs, pu:r. The modification of vowels is found not only in N but also in W (where it is very marked) and many other parts, including L. Examples: heard, hɜ:d, there, ðɛə, or ðɛ:, farm., fa:m, for StP hɜ:d, ðɛ:, fa:m for StP hɜ:d, ðɛə, fa:m. This inversion can be corrected by keeping the tip of the tongue firmly pressed against the lower teeth during the pronunciation of the vowel, holding it down mechanically if necessary, say with the end of a pencil. Many speakers, including educated speakers, insert a consonantal r sound in such phrases as the idea of it, the India Office, where there is no r in the spelling, so as to avoid the succession of vowels əə, əə, etc., thus : ði aidiə r əv

it, indjər əfɪs, hi: put ɪz ʌmbrelər ʌp, ə soudər ən milk ənd ə vənɪlər aɪs, instead of aɪdɪə əv, etc. This is considered incorrect by most teachers. In L it is done not only after ə as in the above examples but also after stressed vowels, e.g. ðə lɔ:r əv ɪŋɡlənd land (law of), sɔ:rɪn (sawing), and also where in StP there is an unstressed ou, e.g. swələrɪn (swallowing, StP swəlouɪŋ). Note the incorrect insertion of ə before the r sound in Henry, umbrella, L enəri, ʌmbərələ, StP henri, ʌmbrelə. When there are two consecutive weak syllables beginning with the r sound in StP, one of the rs is dropped in L, e.g. lʌmɪb(ə)rɪ, febjʊəri or febjʊəri for StP laɪbrəri, (library), febjʊəri (February). Servants who go out by the week generally call themselves tempərɪz (temporaries, StP tempərərɪz). A common fault is the substitution of a semivocalic v for r (for the meaning of "semi-vocalic"). This peculiarity is usually represented in print by w (vewy for very, etc.). The sound is, however, not w but a very weak kind of v, which may be represented by v<sup>w</sup> (vev<sup>w</sup>i for StP veri).

/w/. Voiced bilabial fricative. The back of the tongue is simultaneously raised in the direction of the soft palate. The consonant is therefore very like the vowel u. Some phoneticians prefer to regard it as a consonantal u, and represent it ũ fi. Example want, wɒnt. The corresponding breathless consonant (phonetic symbol ʌ) is used by many speakers in words spelt with wh (what, wɒt). This is regular in Sc and N.Eng., but w is the more usual in S. Eng. (wɒt). Some use hw instead of this ʌ. The pronunciation ʌ or hw is generally recommended by teachers as correct in words beginning with wh. These words may be conveniently transcribed with (h) ʌ, this being taken to mean that either w, ʌ or hw may be used. For other cases in which ʌ is occasionally heard. Note that w is often omitted in the words will, would, e.g. that will do, ðætdu: .

/f/. Breathed labio-dental fricative. Example foot, fut. Note the faulty pronunciations of diphthong, naphtha, etc. as dipθoŋ, næpθə, etc. (StP difθoŋ, næfθə, etc.). Note also the dialectal pronunciation of nephew (StP nevjʊ:) as nefju:

/v/. Voiced labio-dental fricative. Examples vain, vein, vein. In L and other dialects, v has become b in words ending in v(ə)n in StP, e.g. sebm, ilebm, ebm, for StP sevn, ilevn, hevvn. In L the v of unstressed of and have (əv) is regularly dropped before consonants (e.g. eio:tə-danit, StP hi:ɔ:ttuəvdanit, he ought to have done it). This may sometimes be heard even from educated speakers, e.g. ən autəðəwei pleis, instead of autəvdəwei.

/θ/. A breathed dental fricative. Articulated by the tip of the tongue against the upper teeth, the main part of the tongue being more or less flat. Example thin, θin. In careless speaking θ is sometimes weakened to a kind of h between two vowels, e.g. nohæŋkju: for nouθæŋkju: . There is also a tendency to drop θ or change it into t in combinations such as nθs, sθs, e.g. sikss for siks(t) θs (sixths), mʌns or mʌnts for mʌnθs (months). Such contractions should be avoided. In L the sound θ is frequently replaced by f, e.g. frei, nafɪŋk for θri:, Ηλθiŋ).

/ð/. voiced dental fricative. It is the voiced form of θ. Example then, ðen. In L this sound is frequently replaced by v, e.g. fʌ:və for fa:ðə. Note the old-fashioned pronunciation of klouðz as klouz, which is now considered a vulgarism.

/s/. A breathed dental fricative. Articulated by the tip of the tongue against the upper gums, the front part of the tongue being slightly raised towards the hard palate . Example cease, si:s. As regards sj becoming ʃ.

/z/. A voiced dental fricative. It is the voiced form of s . Examples zeal, zi:l, has, hæz. As regards zj becoming ʒ .

/ʃ/. A breathed dental fricative. Articulated by the tip of the tongue against the upper gums, the front of the tongue being considerably raised towards the hard palate. Many speakers add some lip-rounding to this consonant. Examples shoe, ʃuː, church, tʃəːtʃ. As regards tj becoming tʃ.

/ʒ/. A voiced dental fricative. It is the voiced form of ʃ. Many speakers use lip-rounding. Examples measure, meʒə, judge, dʒʌdʒ. As regards dj becoming dʒ.

/ɹ/. Voiced dental fricative. Articulated by the tip of the tongue against the upper gums, the front part of the tongue being rather hollowed. It is the r sound regularly used in StP when the preceding sound is a dental consonant, e.g. draw, drɔː, Henry, henɹi (usually written drɔː, henri to avoid unnecessary complication). It is also very commonly used initially, and when preceded by consonants other than dentals. When intervocalic the r sound is usually semirolled. There are, however, many who use j in all cases. In some dialects ɹ is replaced by the inverted consonant ɻ, i.e. a fricative r sound pronounced with the tip of the tongue turned back towards the hard palate. As regards partial devocalisation of ɹ.

/j/. Voiced palatal fricative. Example young, jʌŋ. The tongue-position is very similar to that which produces the vowel i, but the tongue is slightly higher. Some phoneticians prefer to regard the sound as a consonantal i, and represent it by ĭ. The corresponding breathed sound (phonetic symbol ç) is occasionally heard instead of initial hj, e.g. çuːdʒ for hjuːdʒ (huge). Note the lectal pronunciation of ear (StP iə) as jiə or Jə. J is often omitted in beyond, bi(j)ɔnd. In L and other dialects, StP sj, zj often become ʃ, ʒ, e.g. ĭʃuː, ðɪʃjə, ɪzəbɔksreɪ, for isjuː (issue), ðɪsjə (this year), ɪzjɔːksreɪ (Is your box ready?). This change is due to assimilation. Former sj, zj have become ʃ, ʒ in StP in many cases, e.g. nation, neɪʃ(ə)n (Shakespearian pronunciation nəːsjən or nəːɪsjən), but in the best pronunciation this assimilation has not been made, except

where the following sound is ə or a syllabic consonant, as in neɪʃ(ə)n, ocean, ouʃ(ə)n, special, speɪʃ(ə)l. Exceptional cases : sure, ʃuə, sugar, ʃʊgə, usual, ju:ʒʊəl (sometimes contracted in rapid familiar speech to Ju:ʒʊl, ju:ʒ(ə)l). In casual the pronunciations kæzjuəl, kæzuəl, kæzjuəl may all be heard from educated people. In L and other dialects, StP tj, dj often become tʃ, dʒ, by assimilation, e.g. tʃi: (for i: see for tju:b, indʒi: for indju:s. Former tj, j have become tʃ, dʒ in StP in many cases, e.g. nature, neɪtʃə, grandeur, grændʒə (Shakespearian næ:tʃʊr, grændʃʊr). In the best pronunciation tʃ, dʒ are not used in such words unless the following sound is a or a syllabic consonant. In very careful speaking a compromise is often made between tj, dj and tʃ, dʒ, in words of this kind. This compromise may be represented when necessary by tʃ, dʒ. In recitation nature would be pronounced neɪtʃuə rather than neɪtʃə, grandeur, grændʒuə or even grændjuə rather than grændʒə.

/h/. Breathed glottal fricative. Examples hard, ha:d, who, hu: , hit, hit. This is the fricative sound heard as the air passes through the open glottis, the other organs being in position, for the following vowels. In StP h is frequently dropped in unimportant words such as him, her, have, when unstressed, e.g. i should have thought so, aɪ ʃəd əv θɔ:t sou, but in deliberate speaking (recitation, etc.) it should be inserted.

### 2.5.2 Vowels

A Vowel (in normal speech<sup>^</sup>) is defined as a voiced sound in which the air has a free passage through the mouth, and does not produce any audible friction. Vowels are classified into some categories

/i:/ . Close front tense unrounded. Example meet, mi:t. Many speakers slightly diphthongise the sound, especially when final (for the meaning of the term diphthong. This diphthong may be

represented by i;j or ij, e.g. sea, si: or si:j (sj). Pure i: is, however, preferable. In L the vowel is regularly diphthongised, and the diphthongisation is much more marked than in St P. One form is a diphthong beginning with a very lax I, and finishing with a tenser i or j. Another form is eɪ, e.g. əkaətei for StP əkʌpəvti:. When followed by l the vowel is reduced to simple i or e, e.g. field, fiɫd or feɫd, for StP fi:lɫd or fi:lɔd. Some use i: as the first element of the diphthong in hear, thus hi:ə. i is however preferable (hiə).

/i/. Close front lax unrounded. Example, fit. In StP the sound tends towards e when unstressed, e.g. the second vowel in very, veri, is not very different from the first. The two vowels in pity, piti, are noticeably different. When great accuracy is required this lowered i may be represented by i (ven). This sound I is also heard in words like basket, ba:skit, language, læŋwidʒ (usually written for convenience ba:skit, læŋwidʒ). In L i sometimes tends to become e even when stressed, and when final it is diphthongised, e.g. sing, StP siŋ), in L frequently seŋ; twenty, L twentei, StP twenti. In some dialects, e.g. Australian English, i is replaced by the corresponding tense vowel when final (as in very, veri). Note the artificial pronunciation of England as eŋglənd (StP iŋglənd). i also occurs in StP as the first element of the diphthong iə (for the definition of the term diphthong. Examples : here, hear, hiə. This diphthong is often pronounced i:ə (in N and W etc., i:ə, i:ɪ, but iə is preferable. In affected pronunciation the diphthong often becomes iʌ or ia (for ʌ, a), oh dear being pronounced öüdia, StP being oudiə. Note the frequent omission of i in year, jiə or jəi. i also occurs in the diphthongs ei, ai, əi.

/e/. Half-close front lax unrounded. Examples: pen, pen, head, hed. In L this vowel is often replaced by i, e.g. git, indʒin for get (get), endʒin (engine). In many dialects it is replaced by the opener ε, thus, pen, bed. In L this vowel is often replaced by i, e.g. git, indʒin for get (get), endʒin (engine). In many dialects it is replaced by the opener e thus, pen, bed. Besides occurring

independently, the sound e occurs in StP as the first element of the diphthong ei, e.g. day, dei. With many speakers, especially in N.Eng. this diphthong is tense, i.e. the two elements are the tense vowels corresponding to the lax e, i. In Sc the diphthong is not generally used, a pure tense vowel (phonetic symbol e:) being substituted (de:). In L the first element of the diphthong ei is much opener than in StP, becoming ε, æ, a, or even α, thus dai, daBi, dai, dai. In L e sometimes occurs instead of ʌ. Note the faulty pronunciation of aerate (StP eiəreit or eəreit) as εəreit or iəreit. The words again, always are often pronounced agen, ɔ:lwiz, ɔ:lwəz, but the forms əgein, ɔ:lweiz are preferable.

/ε/. Half-open front unrounded. This sound only occurs in StP in the diphthong εə. Examples there, their, ðεə. In the pronunciation of many S.Eng. speakers, the first element of this diphthong is more open than ε, being in fact practically æ (ðæə). The form εə is preferable. In L the first element of this diphthong is the half-close tense vowel e: (ðe:ə). In many dialects, especially N and W, the diphthong becomes εə, ε:, ei, etc.

/æ/. A vowel intermediate between half-open front unrounded, and open front unrounded. Example man, mæn. In N the sound tends towards the fully open vowel a (man). In L the sound generally tends towards ε or e, e.g. kεb or keb for kæb (cab).

/a/. Open front unrounded. This vowel only occurs in StP as the first element of the diphthong ai. Example fly, flai. In L the first element of this diphthong is retracted to ʌ, a or even ɔ (flat, flʌi, floi). The pronunciation æi is sometimes heard, especially in N.Eng. In the best pronunciation of ai, the a should err on the side of æ rather than on the side of a. Note the pronunciation a:l for I'll, as in I'll ask him, a:lɑ:skim, not unfrequently heard from educated people in rapid familiar conversation.

/ai/ sometimes forms a triphthong with a following ə, e.g. fire, faɪə. In pronouncing this triphthong, the tongue does not usually reach the full i position; aeə or aɛə would be a nearer representation of the pronunciation usually heard. Sometimes the assimilation is carried so far that the triphthong becomes simply a lengthened a (represented phonetically by a:), e.g. fire, fa: (distinct from far, fa:). This is especially frequent in unstressed syllables, e.g. irate, a:'reit for aɪə'reit, aɛə'reit. When it is desired to bring out this distinction we can write aɪə and aɛə, thus higher, haɪə; buyer, baɪə; but hire, haɛə; irony, aɛərəni. This is, however, not usually necessary. In many dialects, especially N and W, the triphthong becomes aɪə, aɛ, a:, aɪ, etc. a is sometimes used for ʌ, but this is not to be recommended.

/ɑ/ (written ɑ: when long). Open advanced-back unrounded. Examples father, farther, fa:ðə. In L this sound is retracted to the full back position. This retracted vowel has a much deeper sound than the ɑ: of StP, and may be represented if desired by ʌ: (fʌðə). Sometimes lip-rounding is added, the sound becoming a lengthened ɔ or even ɔ: . Some speakers use a or æ instead of StP ɑ: in many words spelt with a followed by n, f, or s, followed in turn by a consonant letter, e.g. plant, plʌnt, plænt; ash, ʌʃ; master, mæstə, etc. for StP pla:nt, a:sk, ma:stə. This is regularly done in N. It is also heard in S.Eng. but sounds rather affected. Some elocutionists, however, recommend the use of ɑ in these cases. Many speakers slightly diphthongise ɑ: especially when final, e.g. far, fa:ə, StP fa: . Some make a distinction between words which are and are not spelt with the letter r, by diphthongising the former, e.g. afar, əfʌr, but pʌpə, pəpə: . The sound ɑ also occurs as the first element of the diphthong written au. Example how, hau. This first element is strictly ɑ vowel intermediate between ɑ and a. In L this diphthong is treated in two ways, becoming either ɑ: (broad Cockney), or æu, æə or even eu, eə, e.g. get out, gɪtɑ:t, gɪtæut, etc., StP getaut; and it is sometimes even reduced to æ or ε, e.g. how are you getting on? L æjəgɪtnɔn,

StP hauəju:geɪŋən. The StP diphthong is usually transcribed au, and there is no great objection to this, if it is clearly understood that the a is with most speakers not quite the same a as in ai, but a retracted variety rather like ɑ. Pure a is not unfrequently heard in this diphthong from educated people, but any variety of a that tends towards æ is not good : it is better to err on the side of a than on that of a (æ), and for this reason the transcription au is used in this book in preference to au.

/au/ often forms a triphthong with a following ə. This triphthong auə is treated similarly to the triphthong aiə. Triphthong auə often does not form a triphthong, but is pronounced as two separate syllables, compare tower, taua with hour, aua, which are both pronounced as one syllable in ordinary speech.

/ɔ/. Open back, with slight lip-rounding. Example hot, hɔt. In many dialects the sound is pronounced without lip-rounding. It thus becomes the sound ʌ. In L ɔ is often replaced by ɔ: thus want, dog, StP wɔnt, dɔg often become in L wo:nt, do:g. In some dialects the sound is replaced by ɑ or even a, e.g. in America, where for instance Oxford (StP ɔksfəd) is pronounced aksfəd. A kind of o occurs as the first element of the diphthong oi.

/o:/ . A vowel intermediate between open back rounded and half-open back rounded. Examples saw, sore, soar, so: . Many speakers diphthongise this sound, especially when final, e.g. four, fɔ:ə, StP fɔ: . Some make a distinction between words which are and are not spelt with the letter r, by diphthongising the former, e.g. soar, sore, so:ə, but saw, so:. ɔ:ə is often used in one or two words spelt with our, e.g. mourns pour, by people who do not diphthongise the sound ɔ: in other cases. In L ɔ: is often replaced by o: and when final by ɔ:wə, e.g. fo:wə for fɔ:. In many words spelt with of or os followed by a consonant letter, there is hesitation in StP between ɔ: and o, e.g. often, off, cross, lost, ɔ: (ɔ:f(tə)n, krɔ:s, etc.) is perhaps the most common, but ɔ,

(ɔf(tə)n etc.) is generally considered more elegant. Many good speakers use an intermediate vowel in these words. The same applies to salt, sɔlt or sɔ:lt, gone, gɔn or gɔ:n. Because is usually pronounced bikɔz, but many teachers recommend bikɔ:z as more correct. Some make a compromise in this word and use ɔ, as in hot, lengthened, which gives the effect of a sound intermediate between ɔ and ɔ: .

/ʌ/. Half-open back unrounded. Example rʌg, Fg. In some words there is hesitation in StP between ʌ and ɔ, e.g. hovel, hʌv(ə)l or hɔv(ə)l; dromedary, drʌmədəri or drɔmədəri. ' In such cases ʌ is generally preferable. Wont is now usually pronounced wount, like wont.

/o/. Half-close back lax rounded. In StP this vowel generally occurs as the first element of the diphthong ou, as in no, nou. It sometimes occurs by itself in unstressed positions, e.g. November, novembə (also pronounced nouvembə or nəvembə). Many varieties of the standard diphthong ou are found in L, e.g. ɔu, ʌu, au, əu, au ; oh no (StP ou nou) being pronounced ou nou, ɔu nou, etc.

/u:/ Close back tense rounded. Example food, fu:d. Many speakers slightly diphthongise the sound, especially when final. This diphthong may be represented by u:w or uw, e.g. too, tu:w (tuw). Pure u: is, however, preferable. Some use u: as the first element of the diphthong heard in poor, puə, thus pu:d. u is, however, preferable. The sound u: when represented by the letters u, eUj ew, ui is often preceded by J in StP, e.g. tune, tju:i:n, suit, sjui:t. In many dialects, including L, this j is often omitted (tüwn, smüt, etc.). The rule relating to insertion of this j in StP is as follows, j is not inserted when the preceding consonant is r, ʃ, or ʒ, or when the preceding consonant is l preceded in turn by a consonant, e.g. rule, chew, June, blue, ru:l, tʃu:, dʒu:n, blu:, not rju:l, tʃju:, etc. When the preceding consonant is l not preceded in turn by a consonant, usage varies, e.g. lute, lju:t or lu:t.

/ə/. Half-open mixed lax unrounded. Examples : over, ʊvə, əlaɪt. This sound varies slightly in quality according to its position. When final, the tongue is rather lower than in other cases; compare the ə sounds in the above two examples. It is not generally necessary to mark these variations in practical phonetic transcriptions. Some speakers actually replace ə when final by ʌ, thus making the two vowels in butter (StP bʌtə) identical (bʌtʌ).

## 2.6 Phonemes Sequencing and Phonemes Sequencing Errors Catagories

Peter Roach (1991: 36) states that phonemes sequencing is the smallest pieces of phonology, that we call segments. In addition, phoneme is significant unit of a language because of the whole of phonemes can form the word of language distinguish utterances , because to change a phoneme will form the particular difference word of a language. It has convention based on the language. The phonemes are represented by phonetics transcription that is always uses slant line to describe the word into sound. For example the English word *ball*. It consists of four phonemes, that is, /b/, /a/, /l/, /l/. As a significant unit the phonemes are continuously form the word *ball*. Furthermore, it will be distinguish if the writer omits the initial phoneme /b/ into *all*, or replace the final phoneme /l/ with /d/ it will form the new word into *bald*, and in English these have different meaning. Thus, by the International Phonetics Alphabet (IPA), the English word previously *ball* then transcribed by phonetics transcription into /bɔ:l/, moreover, the writer could separate it into /b/, /ɔ:/, and /l/. Comparing the separating phonemes, /ɔ:/ is a phoneme because in the word *ball* if that is substituted by /e/ will form the word *bell*. While According to Adriana Vizental (2008: 12), phonemes are the minimal phonological unit of the language of the basic speech sounds.of the three broad types: segmental, combinatorial and suprasegmental. According

to Carl (1998: 139), there are three types of errors of the phonemes sequencing, namely segmental, combinatorial and suprasegmental.

### 1. Segmental

In Segmental, we identify problems with segmental consonants. Note the problem with the intersental frdicatives [θ] and [ð] : [θ] in *Arthur* becomes [t], while in with it becomes [s]. [ð] in *the* is [d], as it is in *there, them* and *either*.

### 2. Combinatorial

The learners are difficult to pronounce consonant classter, especially in the word-final position, and tend to omit (θ) the second of two consonants, so that [wɒns] one → \*[wɒnθ] and [neimd] named → \*[neimθ]. In fluent English speech the utterance ‘do it and see it’ would be said [duwitsijit] while a foreign learner would tend to say[ du:it ænd si:it], perhaps even inserting glottal stops[ʔ] to yield [du:ʔitændsi:ʔit], and another misses the consonant linkage with [d] in [wu(d)ounli] would only. Also contributing to fluency in English is the systematic use of reduced or weak forms, increasing with the casualness of the speech. Article is usually [də] and not the stressed [ði], but some full forms are used where a weak form would be more fluent: [ei] for [ə] in a young, [tu] for [tə] to, and [ænd] for [ən] and.

### 3. Suprasegmental

Suprasegmental, this domain of pronouncation comprises the phenomena of stress(word stress and sentence stress) rhythm and intonation, for example for sentence’ go out with \* them (go< out with them) and \* I don’t know ( I don’t know).

## 2.7 Error Analysis

Crystal in Hasyim (2000: 2), states that in language teaching and learning, error analysis is a technique for identifying, classifying and systematically interpreting the mistakes made by someone learning a foreign language, using any of the principles and procedures provided by linguistics. Error analysis is a type of linguistic analysis that focuses on the errors learners make. It consists of a comparison between the errors made in the Target Language (TL) and that TL itself. The investigation of errors can be at the same time diagnostic and prognostic. It is diagnostic because it can tell us the learner's state of the language at a given point during the learning process and prognostic because it can tell course organizers to reorient language learning materials on the basis of the learners' current problems (Corder cited by Falhasiri, 2011: 3).

Corder (1967: 70), identified a model for error analysis which included three stages:

### a. Data collection

Errors identification of samples is done after the samples are accumulated.

### b. Description

Classify the result of errors identification based on the sources.

### c. Explanation

Explain the evaluation the errors based on comparison of standard features.

Corder added that, error analysis has two objects; one theoretical and another applied. According to Corder (1974 :70), the theoretical object serves to “elucidate what and how a learner learns when he studies a second language.” And the applied object serves to enable the

learner “to learn more efficiently by exploiting our knowledge of his dialect for pedagogical purposes”.

## **CHAPTER III**

### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

#### **3.1 Research Design**

In this study, the writer used descriptive method to analyze the students’ errors. The descriptive method was employed since it is used to describe phenomena as objectively as possible based on the data obtained. It is the most suitable type for this study. This method describes what actually happen to procedures about method which are useful in research. In this chapter, the writer explained the methodology of this research.

According to Selinger and Shohamy (1989: 117), the descriptive qualitative research is a type or category of research refers to investigation, which utilizes already existing data or nonexperimental research. Based on this view, this type of the study will be used to describe the errors made by the students in pronouncing the phonemes.

### **3.2 Population and Sample**

The population and sample of this research are the students of the fourth semester of the English Department of Teacher's Training Faculty, HKBP Nommensen University in the academic year 2014/2015.

#### **3.2.1 Population**

The population of this research is the fourth semester students of HKBP Nommensen Medan. There are three parallel classes and each class consists of 20-30 students.

#### **3.2.2 Sample**

The writer selected one class of the three parallel classes as a sample randomly. One of the class that was selected is group A which consisted of 20 students.

### **3.3 Instruments of Collecting Data**

There are many ways to collect the data such as documentation, observation, test, interview and questionnaire. In this case the writer used documentation as the way to collect the data. In this research, the writer used a tape recorder as a media for recording the students' voice in collecting the data.

### **3.4 Technique of Collecting the Data**

To collect the data, the writer used students' voice recording as the technique of data collection. The writer collected the data by asking the students to pronounce list of vocabularies which consist of 30 items of verbs. The list of vocabuaries were taken from a book. the writer put the list of vocabuaries in pieces of paper. In addition, the writer also provided a tape recorder to record their voice.

There are 20 students as the sample in this research. First of all, the writer gave the pieces of paper in which the writer put the list of words to all of the students. He had to determine the list of words that would be pronounced by the students before the recording process. Then, the writer asked whole students to read all of the verbs once. After that, the writer asked the students one by one to start pronoucing them. For example, the writer asked student 1 to start pronoucing the verbs and the writer directly recorded his or her voice while he/she's pronoucing the words, and so on until student 20. The recording process was conducted in a quiet room and take approximately two minutes for each students.

### **3.5 The Technique of Analyzing Data**

In doing analysis the writer used procedures as follows:

#### **1. Data collection**

Through this step the writer listened to the recording of the vocabularies list and transcribe them as the data.

#### **2. Identification**

After collecting the data the writer identified the appropriate and inappropriate data.

### 3. Classification

The writer then classified the data based on the category of errors. According to Carl (1998: 139), there are three types of errors of the phonemes sequencing, namely segmental, combinatorial and suprasegmental. In this study the writer used this category.

### 4. Data Analysis

After classifying, the writer analyzed the students' errors of producing phonemes. The steps of analyzing data are; listening to the recording of vocabularies list, selecting words that are mispronounced in the recording of the vocabularies list, writing down and collecting the data from the recording, listing the data and classifying the data based on category of segmental, combinatorial and suprasegmental.