

## **CHAPTER I**

### **INTRODUCTION**

#### **1.1.The Background of The Study**

Every human being has a language. It is used to convey messages to other people and without a language the people feel difficult to communicate and express their ideas, thoughts and wishes. According to James (2010:5) Language is a system that connects thoughts, which cannot be heard, seen, or touched, with sounds, letters, manual signs, or tactile symbols (e.g., Braille) which can. In this way, one person's private ideas may be communicated to another person.

Linguistics is the study of language. Linguistics discusses many different facets of language, such as form, meaning, structure and context. Linguistics aims at providing theories of natural language. Natural language is a human written or spoken language used by community. The various sub-branches of linguistics concern with how languages are structured, what they have in common, how they are acquired and used, how they change. In linguistics field, there are many branches. One of it branches is phonetics.

The part of linguistics, phonetics has crucial part in linguistics domain. Phonetics discusses sounds of speech, which physical and directly observable. Phonetics discusses how the sound is produced from the speech organ, but phonetics does not discuss about the sound function in which it can distinguish a meaning. Phonetics is sometimes seen as not properly linguistics because it is the outward, physical manifestation of the main object of linguistics research which is language (not speech): and language is abstract. In phonetics field, there is a part in which this

part discusses about how the sound formed when it is written. The part is phonetic transcription.

Phonetic transcription is a part of phonetics study. In phonetics transcription, every symbol stands for one sound and one sound only. There are no silent letters, nor are there any spoken sounds that are not represented in the transcription. In writing phonetic transcription, it is not an easy thing, because there are many symbols of phonetic that have to be remembered when the students want to write phonetic transcription.

Phonetics also discusses about classification of sounds, one of them is vowel. Vowel is one of important element in transcribing English. Vowels are syllabic sounds made with free passage of air down the mid-line of the vocal tract, usually with a convex tongue shape, and without friction. They are normally voiced; and they are normally oral. As the writer will see, there are exceptions to this generalization. The vowels of English vary enormously by variety. There are 20 vowels in English, including 12 monophthongs and 8 diphthongs. Vocal folds vibrate, and oral airflow is unimpeded when vowel sounds; the changes of back-front of tongue position and lips rounded-non-rounded, which adjust speech respectively, and then the acoustic characteristics of each vowel are different.

Other sources which have contribution of error include overgeneralization, ignorance of rule restriction and incomplete application of rule. Sometimes as the students, they are less of awareness in learning English, which is bring false understanding. For instance, in pronunciation of book /bʊk/.foot /fʊt/, food /fu:d/ and boot/bu:t/, they may pronounce /bʊk/ for book /fʊt/ for foot, /fod/ for food, and /bʊt/ for boot they may not pay attention to the length of the vowels.

**Table 1.1**  
**Student's Score on Preliminary Observation Second Semester of English**  
**Department At HKBP Nommensen Medan**

No.	Name	Register Number	Pronunciation score
1.	BenedictusWiliamNainggolan	18120041	60
2.	Surya KelanaTampubolon	18120043	43
3.	MitraGusmeniHia	18120061	47
4.	Marcella Sihombing	18120058	60
5.	Dian Jessica NoventySigalingging	18120059	40
6.	Windi YB Butar-Butar	18120060	48
7.	PutriDaudSimanjuntak	18120040	42
8.	MetariaRajagukguk	18120057	50
9.	ArniRosaliaSimatupang	18120044	45
10.	NissiWuntariSinaga	18120053	40
11.	EniJulithaMunthe	18120053	48
12.	Roita Angel Isabella Silaban	18120055	43
13.	ChristantiManullang	18120067	34
14.	Sarah GresiaSiburian	18120066	38
15.	WantiSugestiSimbolon	18120074	41
16.	Elisabeth Melisa Sagala	18120039	52
17.	Diana Sihombing	18120051	45
18.	Lena Wydiawanti	18120052	40
19.	RirisRomauliPasaribu	18120052	68
20.	Laura Manalu	18120047	40
21.	EviHotfridaMalau	18120056	30
22.	Windajosefinasimamora	18120064	70
23.	PirngaditaPurba	18120056	30
24.	Marisa Yunita Br Depari	18120045	38
25.	Dian Simanungkalit	18120063	40
26.	Helga Harianja	18120069	50
27.	AtalisiZalukhu	18120042	45
28.	Gita MoriskaSitanggung	18120048	38
29.	SupriadiSihotang	18120070	50
30.	YohanaTampubolon	18120073	40
Total score			1355
Mean Score			45.17

In the test, the total score of the students was and the total number of the students was 30. So the mean score was:

$$X = \frac{\sum X}{N}$$

$$X = \frac{1355}{30}$$

$$X = 45.17$$

Where :  $\bar{X}$  : Mean Score

$\sum X$  : Total Score of Students

$N$  : Total Number of Students

Based on the result, the writer concluded that the students still error in transcribing vowel because there were a lot of mistakes made by students in transcribing vowels because they did not understand the using of each vowel that one of the difficulties with describing ‘ the vowel of English’ is that English speakers don’t all have the same ones.

Therefore; the writer chooses the topic of Students’ error toward transcribing English vowels for the reason that error is very important to be known in determining student’s success or failure in language training because if they know the way to pronounce especially to transcribe each vowels and if the students know their errors, they will be more careful in pronouncing words, especially speaking English, so they may get good mark and more satisfied in learning English, and they also will be more motivated to learn English.

From explanation above, the writer formulates the title research : **ERRORS ANALYSIS IN TRANSCRIBING VOWELS AT FOURTH SEMESTER STUDENTS OF ENGLISH DEPARTMENT AT HKBP NOMMENSEN.**

## **1.2. The Problem of The Study**

From the background of the study above the problem of the study is :

What are types of errors in transcribing vowels at second semester of English department at HKBP Nommensen Medan?

## **1.3.Objectives of The Study**

From the background of the study above the objectives of the study is:

To identify errors in transcribing English vowel of the fourth semester students of English Education Department university of HKBP Nommensen.

## **1.4.The Significances of The Study**

The significances of this study are divided into two, as follow :

### 1. Theoretically

The result of the research can give a description about errors which are occurred and errors caused in transcribing of English vowel of the fourth semester students of English Education Department University of HKBP Nommensen.

### 2. Practically

The practical of this research are :

- a) For other writers, this research result may help them in finding references for further research.
- b) For students, it is able to develop understanding about pronunciation.

- c) For teachers to give them more information about the use of English vowel.

### **1.5 The Scope of The study**

The scope of the study will be limited on the classification of error vowel in omission, addition, misinformation and misordering made by students in transcribing vowels on second semester students of English Education Department University of HKBP Nommensen.

## **CHAPTER II THEORETICAL REVIEW**

## **2.1 Linguistics**

Linguistics is the study of language. Linguistics discusses many facets of language such as structure, meaning, form and context, but the facets is divided into some domain of linguistics. According to Ogden (2009: 1),

Linguistics is the formal study of language. Its main sub-disciplines are: syntax, the study of sentence structure; semantics, the study of meaning; pragmatics, the study of meaning in context; morphology, the study of word structure; sociolinguistics, the study of language in its social context; phonology, the study of sound systems; phonetics, the study of the sounds of speech.

According to Akmajian, et all. inHulu's thesis (2001 : 10) stated that "linguistics is concerned with the nature of language and communication". From the explanation above, it can be concluded that linguistic is the study about communication.

The writer takes the conclusion that Linguistics is study scientific study of human language and linguistics can be broadly broken into three categories or subfields study language from, language meaning, and language in context.

### **2.1.1 Phonetics**

Phonetics is the study of speech sound. It discusses how the speech sound is produced from the speech organ, but phonetics domain the does not discuss the

function of the speech in which it acts to differentiate a meaning. According to Davenport and Hannahs (2005:2), “Phonetics deals with speech sound themselves, how they are made (articulatory phonetics), how they are perceived (auditory phonetics), and the physics involved (acoustic phonetics)”.

According Ogden (2009: 1), Phonetics is the systematic study of the sounds of speech, which physical and directly observable. Phonetic is sometimes seen as not properly linguistics because it is the outward, physical manifestation of the main object of linguistic research which is language (not speech): and language is abstract.

Meanwhile, Birjandi and Ali (2005: 1) stated “Phonetic is branch of linguistics which is concerned with the production, physical nature, and perception of speech sound”. Phonetics can be studied in a number of different ways:

1. Articulatory phonetics (how speech sounds are made in the body).
2. Acoustic phonetics (the physical properties of the sounds that are made).
3. Auditory phonetics (the examination of how speech sounds are perceived by the human ear).

The writer takes the conclusion that phonetic is the study and systematic classification of the sounds made in spoken utterance and how to practical application of this science to language study.

#### **2.1.1.1 Vowel**



Several examples in the last chapter involved vowels: for instance, we found that there is free variation for some speakers between [i] and [ɛ] in economic, but that these two vowels nonetheless contrast, as shown by minimal pairs like pet – peat, or hell – heal. The writer saw that the usual contrast of /e/, /ɛ/ is neutralised before /r/ for many General American speakers, who pronounce Mary, merry and marry homophonously.

It follows that the central ideas of phonemic contrast, with minimal pairs determining the members of the phoneme system, and rules showing allophonic variation in different contexts, apply equally to vowels and to consonants; free variation, phonetic similarity and neutralisation affect both classes of sounds too. A more detailed demonstration of these issues for vowels, and the establishment of vowel phoneme systems for different varieties of English.

However, when The writer turn to the physical description of actual vowel sounds, it is not possible simply to reuse the parameters and features already introduced for consonants. Vowels and consonants are all speech sounds; and in English at least, they are all produced using the same pulmonic aggressive airstream. In almost all other respects, however, the features which allow to classify and understand consonants are less than helpful in distinguishing between vowels the value for each of these allowed us to describe English consonants unambiguously, and would extend to further consonants found in other languages.

To describe a consonant in articulatory terms, we needed to know the airstream mechanism involved; the state of the glottis, determining whether the sound is voiced or voiceless; the position of the velum, which either allows or stops airflow

through the nose, making the consonant nasal or oral; the manner of articulation, namely stop, affricate, fricative or approximant; whether airflow is central or lateral; and finally, the place of articulation, and consequently the identity and position of the active and passive articulators.

Unfortunately, almost none of these help us in classifying vowels. All vowels, universally, are produced on a pulmonic aggressive airstream, with central airflow: there is no contrast between central and lateral vowels. It is possible, but rare, for vowels to be voiceless or nasal; in English, however, all vowel phonemes are voiced and oral, and voiceless and nasal allophones appear only in very specific circumstances, as we shall see later.

Vowels are all continuants: that is, airflow through the oral tract is not significantly obstructed during their production, so they are all approximants on the consonant manner classification: there are no stop, fricative or affricate vowels. Finally, although the writer shall distinguish between vowels in terms of place of articulation, the range of options is much more restricted than for consonants, where places from labial to glottal are distinguished in English alone.

All vowels are produced in a very limited 'vowel space' in the centre of the oral tract, roughly between palatal and velar in consonantal terms; and the place of articulation will also be much more difficult to ascertain from self-observation, since the tongue never moves close enough to the roof of the mouth in vowel production to make its position easy to feel. It follows that an adequate vowel classification requires new features and descriptive parameters which are better designed to capture the ways in which vowels do vary.

This kind of situation, where two classes of objects or concepts share some essential unity, but need different descriptors, is not unique to vowels and consonants.

For instance, plants and animals are both categories of living things; they both populate the world widely, and are mutually necessary in terms of their complementary roles in gas exchange, for instance. They both require the same basic nutrients, operate according to the same chemical principles, and have common structures, including identical cell types. However, there is just as little point in classifying plants according to whether or not they are mammals, or have feathers, or are carnivores or herbivores, as there is in categorising animals as being evergreen or dropping their leaves, bearing cones or flowers, or producing fruit or not.

At that lower classificatory level, it is simply necessary to recognize the divergence of the two categories by using different distinguishing features. Equally, vowels and consonants are both speech sounds, and are both necessary for language, since they play complementary roles in structuring syllables and words. Both are formed by modifications of a moving airstream, carried out by the actions of the vocal folds and articulatory organs. However, below this very general, common level, consonants and vowels.

### **2.1.1.2 Vowel classifications**

The labels outlined in the previous section are helpful, but may leave questions unresolved when used in comparisons between different languages or different accents of the same language. Thus, French [u\_] in rouge is very close in quality to

English [u\_] in goose, but not identical; the French vowel is a little more peripheral, slightly higher and more back. Similarly, [o\_] in rose for a GA speaker is slightly lower and more centralised than ‘the same’ vowel for a speaker of Scottish English. None of the descriptors introduced so far would allow us to make these distinctions clear, since in the systems of the languages or accents concerned, these pairs of vowels would quite appropriately be described as long, high, back and rounded, or long, high-mid, back and rounded respectively. Furthermore, a classification of this sort, based essentially on articulation, is arguably less appropriate for vowels than for consonants. In uttering a vowel, the important thing is to produce a particular sort of auditory impression, so that someone listening understands which vowel in the system you are aiming at; but it does not especially matter which articulatory strategies you use to convey that auditory impression.

If you were asked to produce an [u\_], but not allowed to round your lips, then with a certain amount of practice you could make at least something very similar; and yet it would not be a rounded vowel in the articulatory sense, although you would have modified the shape of your vocal tract to make it sound like one.

This is not possible with most consonants, where the auditory impression depends on the particular articulators used, and how close they get, not just the overall shape of the vocal tract and the effect that has on a passing airstream. It is true that the whole oral tract is a continuum, but it is easier to see the places for consonants as definite ‘stopping off places’ along that continuum, helped by the fact that most consonants are obstruents, and we can feel what articulators are involved.

### **2.1.1.3 The Vowel space and Cardinal Vowels**

For the moment, we will concentrate on the major classification just outlined. The dimensions of high vs. low and front vs. back allow us to establish a limit to vowel articulation, known as the vowel space, outside which we are no longer talking about vowels. If the tongue is any higher than for the highest high vowel, or further back than for the furthest back vowel, the articulation isn't a vowel, but a consonant, since there will no longer be open approximation.

To illustrate the vowel space, produce the vowel sound in English 'see' or 'we' then gradually lower and retract the tongue while still producing sound. You should move from the vowel 'see' through a series of other vowel sounds, including ones something like those in English 'say' 'set' and 'sat' for example, finally reaching the vowel sound in 'car' what you have done is started with a high front unround vowel [i] and moved.

Gradually through high-mid, low-mid and low front vowels like [e], [ɛ] and [a] respectively, ending up at a low back unround vowel [ɔ]. if you know start with the 'car' vowel and raise the tongue while gradually rounding the lips. you should move through another series of vowels including something like the low-mid back round vowel of 'sort' [ɔ]. to the high back round vowel of 'sue' [u].

if we plotted a graph showing the highest points of the tongue along these two trajectories. we would come up with a visual representation of the vowel space like that in figure 4.1. and we could indicate the positions of any other vowel within the space.

The most common way of representing the vowel space, however is rather more stylized, being in terms of a quadrilateral, shown in figure 4.2. This Figure, known as the cardinal vowel chart .was first proposed by the linguist Daniel Jones

in the 1920s, and has been the basis for vowel classification ever since. It shows the tongue position for the highest, furthest forward vowel [i] and the lowest, furthest back vowel [ɑ], with six other approximately equidistant divisions indicated, giving a series of 'cardinal' vowels, numbered one to eight moving anti-clockwise round the chart 1 [i] 2[e] 3[ɛ] 4[a] 5[ɑ] 6[ɔ] 7[o] 8[μ]. Cardinals (C) 1-5 are all unround vowels C6-8 are round. The consideration of lip rounding allows for a further eight 'secondary cardinals' which have the same height.

#### **2.1.1.4 Further Classification**

As was suggested in section 4.2, factors other than the classifications given so far are relevant to a full description of vowel sounds. Consider the English words 'sit' and 'seat' you should be able to hear that the vowel in 'seat' [i:] is considerably longer lasting than that in 'sit'[i], while there are other differences between the vowels [i] is also lower and more central than [i:] one of the most obvious differences is their length: [i] is a short vowel. [i:] is long (the colon indicates a long vowel). Long vowels are typically 50-100 percent longer than short vowels, and are sometimes represented by doubling the symbol (rather than using a colon) to indicate this; thus, [ii] for the vowel in 'see'. This notation also represents long vowels as being in some ways similar to diphthongs.

So as well as differing in terms of 'quality' (height, backness, etc.) vowels can also differ in terms of 'quantity'. While length in most kinds of English is never the sole factor distinguishing between vowels (as in 'sit' vs 'seat'), this is not always the case for all languages, for example, Danish *lasse* 'to load' is distinguished from *lese* 'to read' purely by the length of the first vowel:

Finally, as with consonant it is possible to distinguish between vowels by considering the state of the velum: vowels produced with a lowered velum are known as nasal vowels and those produced with raised velum are known as oral vowels. French contrasts the two types in pairs such as banc [bɑ̃] ‘bench’ vs bas [ba] ‘low’ where a diacritic indicates a nasal vowel. English doesn’t make contrast of this sort but does have nasalized vowels : a vowel preceding nasal stop will be produced with the velum lowered in anticipation of the following consonant as in ‘bean’ [bi:n]. That is the vowel assimilates to the nasality of the following stop.

#### **2.1.1.5 The Vowel of English**

One of the difficulties with describing ‘ the vowel of English’ is that English speakers don’t all have the same ones. We have already pointed out considerable variation with respect to consonant in different types of English, but there is much more variation when it comes to vowels. As with the consonants such variation is in part to do with the regional origins of the speaker. and in part to do with sociolinguistics factors like social class and age.

For instance, not all speakers have the same vowel in any particular word. take a word like ‘book’ if you look this up in a pronunciation dictionary .it will give the vowel as the high back round [ʊ]:this is the RP ( Received Pronunciation: [bʊk] . But by no means all English speakers pronounce ‘book’ in this way. For many speakers in part of Northern England Northern England, it has a longer, higher vowel [u:]: in Scotland. it may well have a high central [ɯ] : many younger southern English speakers have a high-mid back unround vowel [Y] : a number of North American varieties also have an unround vowel.

Similarly different types of English may well have different numbers of vowels in their inventories: RP is usually considered to have 19 or 21 distinct vowel sounds, but many varieties of Scottish English have only 10-14 for example Scottish English typically does not distinguish between 'pool' and 'pull' both having [ʊ] ( as opposed to RP and other varieties with [u:] in 'pool' and [ʊ] in 'pull' see section 4.5.4.

The distribution of vowels among words sets also differs from one variety to another so while both Northern and Southern English have [ɑ:] in 'car' or 'father' and both have a low front vowel ( Northern [a]). Southern [æ] in words like 'cat' and 'ladder' Northern varieties ( in common with most other kinds of English ) have [a] in words like 'pass' 'laugh' and 'dance' while Southern varieties have [ɑ:].

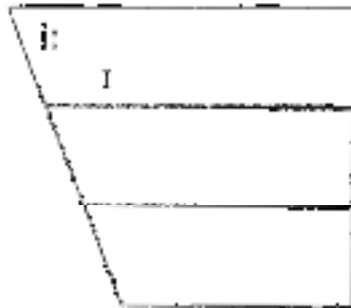
In the following section we will look at the various 'cells' or divisions of the Cardinal Vowel chart and discuss the vowel found in a number of the major varieties of English Diphthongs will be treated under their starting point so RP [eɪ] as in 'day' will be found under mid front vowels [ɔɪ] as in 'boy' under mid back vowels.

### **1) High Front vowels**

Most English have to high front vowels the long monophthong [i:] as in 'see' and the short monophthong [ɪ] as in 'sit' As well as differing in length, the two vowels are also different in quality, with [ɪ] being somewhat lower and more centralized than [i:]. This distinction is often referred to as tense [i:] versus lax [ɪ]. Although [i:] is classified as a long vowel. it is in fact often not a pure monophthong the highest point of the tongue may well start lower and more centralized, raising and fronting during the articulation, giving something like [Ii]. Many kinds of Southern English



as well as Australian, English welsh English and Northern English varieties like Liverpool (Scouse) and



Many non rhotic English also have a diphthong [iə] words like ‘beer’ and ‘fear’ where the schwa is a remnant of the original ‘r’ sound Rhotic accents have [ɪ] or [i] plus some kind of rhotic in these words e.g Scottish English [bɪr] ‘beer’.

English has no high front round vowels while such vowel are rare in the language of the world, they do occur in a number of European Languages, French, German. Swedish, Norwegian and Danish for example have high front round [y] e.g French tu [ty] ‘you Danish sy[sy] ‘to sew’.

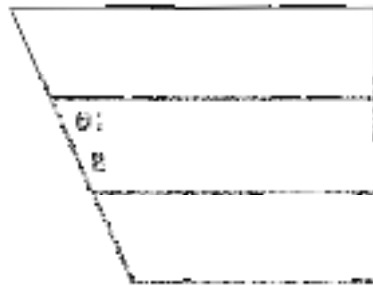
## 2) Mid Front Vowels

All varieties of English have a short mid front unround [ɛ] (sometimes transcribed [e]), as in ‘bed’ the actual quality of the vowel varies- many English varieties have a vowel midway between cardinals 2 and 3, but in North American Varieties the vowels tends to be lower, while Southern Hemisphere English ( South African, Australian, New Zealand ) typically have a higher vowel. closer to [ɪ].

Many varieties such as Scottish, Irish, and Northern English Englishes, have a mid or high- mid front vowel [e:] in words such as ‘day’ this vowel is long in all varieties except Scottish English ( and some Northern Irish English) including RP

Southern English Englishes, words like ‘day’ have a diphthong [eɪ] . in most forms of North American English the distinction between [eɪ] and [ɛ] is lost before a rhotic: ‘Mary’ and ‘merry’ are thus homophones. [mɛri]. See Section for further section.

Some forms of non- rhotic varieties of English, such as Australian English, Cockney or RP, have the diphthong [eə] in words like ‘chair’ where the schwa is the remnant of the historical ‘r’ but for many English varieties this is no longer a diphthong. but rather a long low-mid vowel [ɛ:] so that the difference between ‘bed’ and ‘bared’ in these



varieties is largely only in terms of vowel length. in some Northern English varieties ( e.g Liverpool, Manchester) the vowel maybe amid central [ɜ:] in rhotic accents of course words like ‘chair’ have a short front mid vowel followed by some kind of ‘r’ so GenAM [tʃɛr] ( where following a vowel symbol indicates rhoticisation. or ‘r- colouring’).Again, as with the high front vowels, English does not usually have mid front round vowels, though the rounded equivalent of [e] – [ø] – is found in some broad Scots accents in words like ‘ boot’ both [ø] and [æ] occur in French, German and the Scandinavian languages; French bleu [blø] peur [pæʁ] ‘fear’ Danish hons [høns].

### 3) Low Front vowel

English has one short low front vowel, found in words like ‘rat’ the RP and GenAm vowel is represented as [æ], midway between cardinals 3 and 4 (C3 and C4 ). Many other kinds of British English, including Welsh, Scottish and Northern English varieties, have a lower vowel, closer to C, transcribed as [a]: [Iat]. This lower vowel is also heard in some new England varieties of US English ( e.g Boston). on the other hand, Cockney some RP and Southern Hemisphere varieties have a noticeably higher vowel which might be transcribed like C3 [Iæt] .

Most kinds of English have a diphthong which starts at a low front position and raises toward [t]: RP and GenAm [at]as in ‘buy’ ‘die’ ‘cry’etc. The starting position for this diphthong varies somewhat, from near C3 [ε] in George low central [Λ] in East Anglia

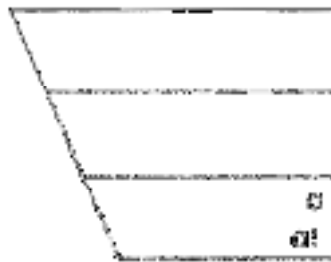


and Scotland, low back unround [ɑ] in London to low back and round [ɒ]in the English West Midlands ( Where ‘pint’ may sound something like the ‘point’ of other varieties ). In some varieties of Southern US English, the sound in these words is a monophthong [æ] .

### 4) Low Back vowels

There are two common low back vowel in English: Long low back around [ɑ] as in the stressed vowel in RP and GenAm ‘father’ and short low back round [ɒ] as in many British varieties ( though only rarely in North American outside Canada ) in the vowel in ‘dog’

For most kinds of English words like ‘father’ ‘farm’ and ‘calm’ have the low back [ɑ] vowel either long for all these ( in rhotic accents ) or followed by a rhotic ( as in GenAm ) for words like ‘farm’ However a number of varieties have a very much fronted variant in these words which may or may not contrast with the low front vowel in ‘rat’ in terms of quality and, quantity.



in South Eastern English varieties and in RP the [ɑ:] vowel also has a somewhat wider distribution than in most other kinds of English in that appears in roughly 150 words which elsewhere have a short low front vowel [a] [æ].

In many Scottish and North American so that cot and caught are homophones often with a vowel somewhere between the two in Scottish varieties or a raised and unrounded [ɑ] in cardinal accents.

### 5) Mid Back vowels

Most kinds of English have a low mid back round vowel [ɔ] in words like ‘bought’ ‘cause’ ‘paw’ or without a following rhotic ‘horse’ in many varieties of English this is a long vowel [ɔ:] though in North American varieties it is usually shorter the vowel [ɔ:] is also increasingly common in non-rhotic accents for earlier [əɔ] in

words like ‘door’ ‘shore’ ‘four’ ( though the older form is still heard in many accents in e.g London or Northern England ). it is also heard for [ʊə] in words like ‘poor’ ‘moor’ ‘your’ So while some speakers may distinguish between ‘paw’ [pə] ‘pour’ [pɔə] and ‘poor’ [pʊə] for others they may be homophones: [pɔ:]

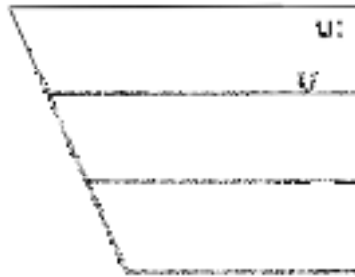


English has diphthong starting at mid back round position moving forward and up, and unrounding: [ɔɪ] as in ‘boy’ ‘join’ ‘voice’ again starting point may vary typically being higher [or] in e.g East Anglia and the South West of England and lower in the English Midlands and Scotland [ɒɪ] for some Irish and Scottish varieties there may be little distinction between words that elsewhere have [ɔɪ] vs [at] like ‘boil’ vs ‘bile’ or ‘voice’ vs ‘vice’ all with [ʌɪ] or [æɪ] in e.g Glasgow English.

Non- low back unround vowels are typically rare, though mid back unround vowels do occur in languages like Vietnamese. Some forms of English have high mid unround [ɤ] where varieties like RP and GenAm have [ɜ].

### 6) High Back vowels

Most kinds of English have two high back vowels : long [u:] as in ‘shoe’ and short [ʊ] as in put as with [i:] and [ɪ] the difference is in quality and quantity [ʊ] is lower and more central as well as shorter than [u] again parallel to the high front vowel [i:] [ɪ] is often



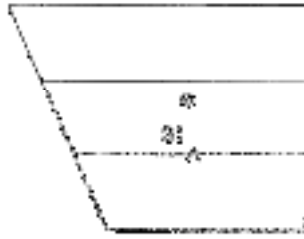
diphthongized starting out lower and more central [oʊ] for some varieties such as London and East Anglia as well as Scottish English, the articulation of this vowel is central: [ɤ]. As mentioned above [ɤ] is also found in Northern English varieties in words ending 'ook' such as 'book' 'cook' 'look' etc.

Older RP and many other non-rhotic accents (Welsh English Cockney, Northern English ) have a diphthong [oə] in words which historically ended in a rhotic. like 'cure' 'pure' 'poor' 'tour' etc. though as mentioned above, these are increasingly becoming [ɔ:] in many varieties of English. Rhotic accents retain [ɤ] or [ɔ] followed by some kind of 'r' in these words.

High back around vowels are not found in English but high back around [ɯ] does occur in Japanese.

### 7) Central vowels

For most speakers of English, vowels like 'cup' 'luck' 'fuss' etc. have a vowel usually represented by the symbol [ʌ]. Although this represents a low mid unround back vowel in the cardinal vowels system its articulation is typically further forward than back. being at least central for most speakers and forward of central for many Older RP speakers may still use a centralized back vowel however North American versions tend to be fairly central and many British English varieties ( including RP) have a forward of centre vowel.



The remaining central vowel is schwa [ə]. This is typically found as the first vowel in 'about' or the last vowel in 'puma'. That is it is commonest vowel in syllables which do not carry stress. Indeed in accents like RP and GenAm it does not occur at all in stressed syllables.

For a number of non- rhotic accents in of English [ə] can appear after any of the ( non-schwa final) diphthongs when these would be followed by a rhotic in rhotic varieties thus (RP) 'tower' |taʊə| 'layer' |lerə| 'mire' |maɪə|.

### 8) Distribution

Vowels in English have a few restriction in terms of which consonant may precede or follow them. The major restriction concerns short monophthongs vs long monophthongs and diphthongs short vowels may not occur finally in stressed monosyllabic words. while long vowels and diphthongs may. So while [bi:] or [bɑ] are not ( the asterisk indicates a form not found in the language under discussion) short vowels can only occur in stressed monosyllables when these are consonant final like [bit] or [bɒg] That is short vowels are restricted to closed syllables in stressed monosyllabic words. While long vowels and diphthongs may occur in both open (as above) and closed syllables ([bi:t][bɔit].

### 9) The Primary Cardinal Vowels

In truth, the only way of learning the Cardinal Vowels properly, and ensuring that they can act as a fixed set of reference points as they were designed to do, is to learn them from someone who already knows the system, and do a considerable amount of practice (various tapes and videos are available if you wish to do this).

For the moment, what matters is to have an idea of what the Cardinal Vowels are, and what the theoretical justification for such a system is, in terms of describing the vowels of an unfamiliar language, or giving a principled account of the differences between the vowels of English and some other language, or different accents of English. We turn to such differences, as well as a more detailed outline of English vowel phonemes and allophones, in the next two chapters.

## **2.2. Transcribing**

It is a method of writing down speech sounds in a systematic and consistent way – also known as a ‘notation’ or ‘script’. Two main kinds of transcription are recognized: Phonetic and phonemic. Square brackets enclose phonetic transcription (notation / script); oblique lines enclose phonemic transcription (notation/ script). In the former, sounds are symbolized on the basis of their articulatory/ auditory identity, regardless of their function in a language. In latter, the only units to be symbolized are those which have a linguistic function i.e. the phonemes.

A phonemic transcription looks simplest of all, as in this only the units which account for differences of meaning will be represented, e.g. /pin/, /pen/, /pæn/. In a phonetic transcription, on the other hand, the aim is not to judge the functional significance of sounds, in the context of some language, but to identify the sounds as such.



A phonetic transcription of the English word pen, for example, might be [p<sup>h</sup>ɛn]: this indicates some quite subtle features of pronunciation, such as the aspiration following the plosive, and the slight nasalization of the vowels – features which are not phonemes in their own right. If necessary, such a transcription could be made more detailed still, to incorporate any other articulatory or auditory features found in the pronunciation. For Roach transcription is, in present day usage, is the writing down of a spoken utterance using a suitable set of symbols? In its original meaning the word implied converting from one representation (e.g. written text) into another (e.g. phonetic symbols). Transcription exercises are long – established exercise for teaching phonetics.

There are different types of transcription: the most functional division that can be made is between phonemic and phonetic transcription. In the case of the former, the only symbols that may be used are those which represent one of the phonemes of the language, and extra symbols are excluded. In a phonetic transcription the transcriber may use the full range of phonetic symbols if these are required; a narrow phonetic transcription is one which carries a lot of fine detail about the precise phonetic quality of sounds, while a broad phonetic transcription gives a more limited phonetic information.

Many different types of phonemic transcription have been discussed: many of the issues are too complex to go into here, but the fundamental question is whether a phonemic transcription should only represent what can be heard, or whether it should also include sounds that the native speaker feels belong to the words heard, even if those sounds are not physically present. Take the word ‘football’, which every native speaker of English can see is made from ‘foot’ and ‘ball’ in ordinary

speech it is likely that no /t/ will be pronounced, though there will say that the word is still phonetically /fʊtbɔ:l/.

**Types of Phonetic Transcription** The traditional terms ‘broad’ and ‘narrow’ for types of phonetic transcription are said to be vague and ambiguous. And a more carefully defined set of terms is desirable for occasions when greater precision is needed in classifying transcriptions and describing their characteristics. It is possible to transcribe phonetically any utterance, in any language, in several different ways, all of them using the alphabet and conventions of the IPA. The difference between these various ways of transcribing may lie in the shape of the letters chosen to represent the sounds, or in the number of different letters employed in the transcription. There are, thus, several types of phonetic transcription, they can be classified on the basis of these two points of difference.

The classification will apply to transcription of all languages. English phonetic books are written by BBC accent (RP) speakers or by people taught to speak BBC accent. Abercrombie suggests an alternative set of terms to replace the older traditional terms ‘broad’ and ‘narrow’. He proposes that the first distinction to be made is between systematic and non-systematic (or impressionistic) transcriptions. By systematic transcription it is meant “transcription made by drawing on a limited stock of symbols, assembled in the advanced for the particular purpose of representing the form of speech to be transcribed. This stock or system of symbols must be based on knowledge of the structure of the language”. Systematic transcriptions differ according to the number of different symbols used, and according to the shapes of the symbols used.

There are four general types of systematic transcription: a-Simple Phonemic; b- (Simple) Allophonic; c- Comparative (Phonemic); and d- Comparative Allophonic.

A simple phonemic transcription is based on using the minimum number of different symbols of the simplest possible and most familiar shapes. It makes use of lesser number of symbols as well as familiarity of their shapes. On the other hand, the transcription that uses more than the minimum number of different symbols is called allophonic. The phoneme / *l* / and / *ɫ* / to refer to ‘clear’ l and ‘dark’ l respectively .

A comparative transcription is the one in which all the symbols are not of the most simple and familiar shapes. It uses symbols some of which are more specific in their reference than those of a simple transcription. The most familiar, the most typographically satisfactory letter shapes of all, are the completely Romanic ones – those, that is to say, of the Roman alphabet as we know it today.

Every systematic transcription really consists of two parts, the text and the conventions. Conventions may either identify the value of the symbols or be concerned with contextual modifications of these values. The various types of systematic transcription differ in the relative amount of information contained in the conventions as compared with the text . Non – systematic (impressionistic) transcriptions are made on a general phonetic basis rather than on a structural one. They are made by drawing on a theoretically unlimited number of symbols, which are defined with reference to the total range of human speech sounds, and not with reference to the structure of a particular language. No conventions accompany them, for they are made on the same basis for every language. An impressionistic

transcription is used either when the structure of the language is not known, or when it is convenient for some reasons to ignore the structure.

The term broad can, then, stand for the type of transcription which is systematic, phonemic as well as simple; whereas the term 'narrow' can stand for impressionistic, allophonic and comparative transcription. However, in general, it is convenient to use 'broad' as an equivalent of 'simple phonemic', and 'narrow' for any kind of departure from this.

### **2.3 Error Analysis**

Error analysis is a technique for identifying, classifying and systematically interpreting the unacceptable forms produced by someone learning a foreign language. using any of the principles and procedures provided by linguistics (Crystal, 1985:112). It is a type of comparative linguistics study, which compares a learner's interlanguage at a certain point in time with the target language. It should ideally be carried out on a spontaneous speech sample (Corder, 1973:269,273). It is the first approach to the study of SLA which includes an internal focus on learner's creative ability to construct language.

And error is a term referring to a performance that takes place when the deviation arises as a result of lack of knowledge (Brown, 2007:258). James Fauziati (2000:139) noted that an error arises only when there was no intention to commit one. Errors are systematic, consistent deviations which are characteristics of the learner's linguistic system at a given stage of learning.

According to Hornby (1987:29), error is something done wrong or condition of being wrong in beliefs or conduct. The term error also means the flawed side of learners' speech or writing. They those part of conversation or composition that deviate from selected norm of mature language performance (Dulay, Burt, Krashen, 1982:138) Richards et.al. (In Masari, 1999:17) states that error in speech or writing as second or foreign language learners is the use of linguistic item (e.g. a word, a grammatical item, a speech act. etc.) in a way in which a fluent or native speaker of the language regards as showing faulty or incomplete learning.

There are two factors cause errors: the native language interferences or first language and the target language being learned. The error that is caused by the interferences or reflects the native language structure is called interlingual error. The other error caused by the target language and do not reflect native language structure but usually caused by overgeneralization because of the lack of target language competence. it is called intralingual error.

Slinker, 1972 ( in Richard,1974 : 37) repeated five sources of errors:

1. Language transfer
2. Transfer of training
3. strategies of second language learning
4. strategies second language communication and
5. Overgeneralization of target language linguistic material.

Significance of error

1. The nature of error

Human learning is fundamentally a process that involves the making mistakes Brown (1987:69). Mistake, Misjudgments, miscalculation and erroneous assumption form an important aspect of learning virtually any skills or acquiring information. This principle also prevails in language learning. Making errors is an inevitably part of learning. Hence, people can't learn a language without first systematically comity errors.

Errors Have played on important role in the study of language acquisition in general and in examining second and foreign language acquisition on particular. Errors are believed to contain valuable information on the strategies that associated with strategies that people employ to communicate in a language.

According to the facts, errors analysis has become an important thing to do. Error analysis is a type of linguistics analysis that focuses on errors learners make. By doing error analysis, one can determine the learners mastery level of language system from the errors that the learners commit, besides determining the kinds of errors and construct for remedial teaching. This statement is suitable to Richard and sampsons's (1974:15) " At the level of pragmatic classroom experience, error analysis will continue to provide one means by the teachers assesses learning and teaching and determine priorities for future effort.

## 2. kinds of errors

there are four taxonomies of errors. Each of them is classified into several categories errors.

### 1. Linguistic category taxonomy

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

## 2. Surface strategy taxonomy

### 1. Omission

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

### 2. Addition

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

### 3. Misinformation

Misinformation is characterized by the use the wrong of elements in a phrase or a sentence. For example is when the learner transcribe the word 'thin' [ðin] as [tin].

### 4. Misordering

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

## 3. comparative category taxonomy

There are two categories of errors, as follows:

### 1. Interlingual error

The errors are caused by negative transfer or interference of the learner's mother tongue in the language. For example,

### 2. Intralingual error

The errors are caused by interference within the target language itself.

4. Communicative effect categories. They are as follows:

It consist of two categories. They are as follows:

1. Local errors

Local errors are caused by the omission of one or more language elements in a sentence construction, which disturb the process of communication.

2. Global errors

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

## 2.4 THE INTERNATIONAL PHONETIC ALPHABET

CONSONANTS(PULMONIC)© 2018IPA

	Bilabial	Labiodental	Dental	Alveolar	Postalveolar	Retroflex	Palatal	Velar	Uvular	Pharyngeal	Glottal
Plosive	p b		t d			ʈ ɖ	c ɟ	k ɡ	q ɢ		ʔ
Nasal	m	ɱ	N			ɳ	ɲ	ŋ	ɴ		
Trill	ʙ		R						ʀ		
Tap or Flap		ɸ	ɾ			ɽ					
Fricative	ɸ β	f v	θ ð	s z	ʃ ʒ	ʂ ʐ	ç ʝ	x ɣ	χ ʁ	ħ ʕ	h ɦ
Lateral Fricative			ɬ ɮ								
Approximant		ʋ	ɹ			ɻ	ɻ	ɰ			
Lateral approximant			L			ɭ	ʎ	ʟ			

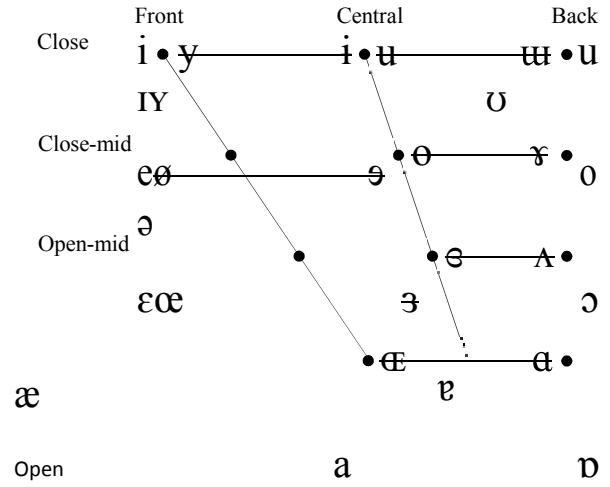
Symbols to the right in a cell are voiced, to the left are voiceless. Shaded areas denote articulations judged impossible.



CONSONANTS (NON-PULMONIC)

Clicks	Voiced implosives	Ejectives
<b>◌</b> Bilabial	<b>ɓ</b> Bilabial	' Examples:
<b>◌</b> Dental	<b>ɗ</b> Dental/alveolar	<b>p'</b> Bilabial
<b>!</b> (Post)alveolar	<b>ɟ</b> Palatal	<b>t'</b> Dental/alveolar
<b>◌</b> Palatoalveolar	<b>ɠ</b> Velar	<b>k'</b> Velar
<b>◌</b> Alveolar lateral	<b>ɠ</b> Uvular	<b>s'</b> Alveolar fricative

VOWELS



OTHER SYMBOLS

- ʌ** Voiceless labial-velar fricative
- ʃ ʒ** Alveolo-palatal fricatives
- ʋ** Voiced labial-velar approximant
- ɹ** Voiced alveolar lateral flap
- ɥ** Voiced labial-palatal approximant
- ɥ** Simultaneous **ʃ** and **x**
- ɦ** Voiceless epiglottal fricative
- ʕ** Affricates and double articulations
- ʕ** Voiced epiglottal fricative
- ʕ** can be represented by two symbols **ʕ**
- ʕ** Epiglottal plosive
- ʕ** joined by a tie bar if necessary.

Where symbols appear in pairs, the one to the right represents a rounded vowel.

SUPRASEGMENTALS

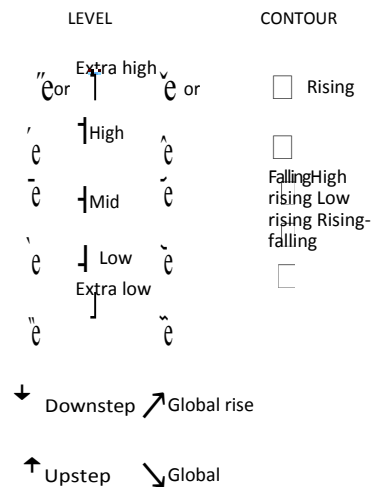
- ' Primary stress **founə' tʃən**
- , Secondary stress
- : Long **e:**
- ˑ Half-long **eˑ**

DIACRITICS Some diacritics may be placed above a symbol with a descender, e.g. <sup>◌</sup>ɲ

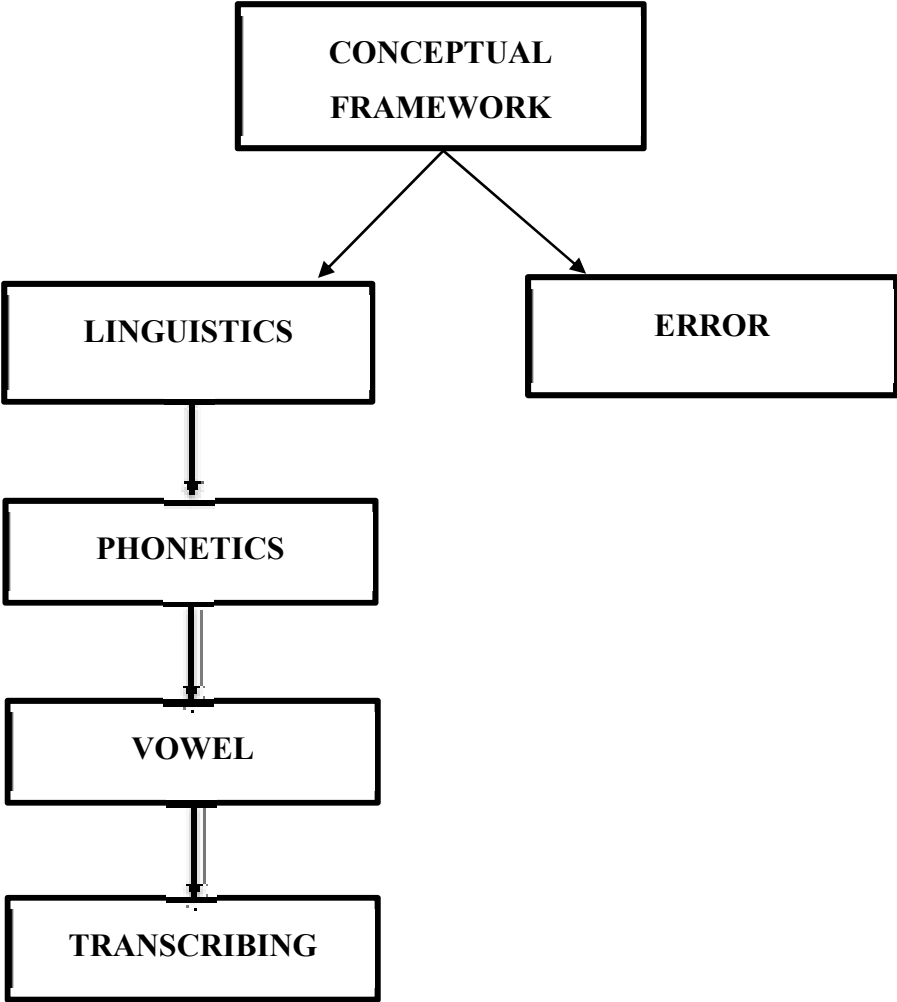
Voiceless	<b>n d</b>	Breathy voiced	<b>b a</b>	Dental	<b>td</b>
Voiced	<b>ɲ ɳ</b>	Creaky voiced	<b>ɓ ɗ</b>	Apical	<b>td</b>
<sup>h</sup> Aspirated	<b>t<sup>h</sup>d<sup>h</sup></b>	Linguolabial	<b>t<sup>w</sup>d<sup>w</sup></b>	Laminal	<b>td</b>
More rounded	<b>ɔ</b>	Labialized	<b>t<sup>w</sup>d<sup>w</sup></b>	Nasalized	<b>e</b>
Less rounded	<b>ɔ</b>	Palatalized	<b>t<sup>j</sup>d<sup>j</sup></b>	Nasal release	<b>d<sup>n</sup></b>
Advanced	<b>u</b>	Velarized	<b>t<sup>v</sup>d<sup>v</sup></b>	Lateral release	<b>d<sup>l</sup></b>
Retracted	<b>e</b>	Pharyngealized	<b>t<sup>s</sup>d<sup>s</sup></b>	No audible release	<b>d</b>
Centralized	<b>e</b>	Velarized or pharyngealized	<b>ɟ</b>		
Mid-centralized	<b>e</b>	Raised	<b>ɛ̥</b> (=voiced alveolar fricative)		
Syllabic	<b>n</b>	Lowered	<b>ɛ̞</b> (=voiced bilabial approximant)		
Non-syllabic	<b>e</b>	Advanced Tongue Root	<b>e</b>		
<sup>◌</sup> Rhoticity	<b>ɹ a<sup>◌</sup></b>	Retracted Tongue Root	<b>e</b>		

Extra-short **ẽ**

- | Minor (foot) group
- || Major (intonation) group
- . Syllable break **ii.ækt**



2.5 The Conceptual Framework



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## 2.5 Oxford English Dictionary

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This article is about the multi-volume historical dictionary. For other, smaller, dictionaries published by Oxford, including the one-volume Concise Oxford English Dictionary, see Category:Oxford dictionaries.

"OED" redirects here. For other uses, see OED (disambiguation).

The **Oxford English Dictionary (OED)** is the principal historical dictionary of the English language, published by Oxford University Press (OUP). It traces the historical development of the English language, providing a comprehensive resource to scholars and academic researchers, as well as describing usage in its many variations throughout the world.<sup>[2][3]</sup> The second edition, comprising 21,728 pages in 20 volumes, was published in 1989.

Work began on the dictionary in 1857, but it was only in 1884 that it began to be published in unbound fascicles as work continued on the project, under the name of *A New English Dictionary on Historical Principles; Founded Mainly on the Materials Collected by The Philological Society*.

In 1895, the title *The Oxford English Dictionary* was first used unofficially on the covers of the series, and in 1928 the full dictionary was republished in ten bound volumes. In 1933, the title *The Oxford English Dictionary* fully replaced the former name in all occurrences in its reprinting as twelve volumes with a one-volume supplement. More supplements came over the years until 1989, when the second edition was published. Since 2000, compilation of a third edition of the dictionary has been underway, approximately half of which is complete.

The first electronic version of the dictionary was made available in 1988. The online version has been available since 2000, and as of April 2014 was receiving over two million visits per month. The third edition of the dictionary will most likely only appear in electronic form: the Chief Executive of Oxford University Press has stated that it is unlikely that it will ever be printed.

## CHAPTER III

### RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

In this chapter, the writer was presented the determination of the research design, subject of study, instrument of collecting data, the technique of collecting data, and the technique of analyzing data.

#### 3.1 Research Design

Qualitative research also begins with a problem, but they state it much more broadly than in quantitative research. A qualitative problem statement or question indicates the general purpose of the study. Formulation of a qualitative problem begins with the identification of a general topic or an area you want to know more about. This general topic of interest sometimes refers to qualitative research as the focus of inquiry.

In this study the writer uses qualitative descriptive method. Thus, the writer was known types of errors made by students in transcribing vowel. According to Polkinghorne (2005: 137),” Qualitative research is inquiry aimed at describing and clarifying human experience as it appears in people’s lives and writer using qualitative methods was gathered data that serve as evidence for their distilled description”. It means qualitative is a research design where the research presenting the data with using description. Moreover, the purpose of qualitative is to help the writer to find the solution of the phenomenon happened in society with doing investigation to the object research.

Based on Sarwono’s statement (2006:193)”, Qualitative research develops the writer blend with object research, the purpose of this way is the writer can understand the phenomenon that they

studied.” From the explanation above the writer concludes that if the writer uses qualitative research, they should be objective to give opinion in their research. Moreover, the writer should be consistent to give opinion because the result of qualitative is static.

### **3.2 The Subject of Research**

In this study, the population of the study that was taken by the writer are the students of HKBP Nommensen University especially the second semester students of English department teachers’ training faculty of HKBP Nommensen University. In this study, there were three groups those are group A, B and group C. Each group consist of 30 students, so there was taken 90 students as the population. The sample of this study, the writer takes 4 students from each group, thus there are 12 students from the sample of the study.

### **3.3 Instrument of Collecting the Data**

Research instrument has an important role to obtain the result of the research. It is a set of methods which is used to collect the data. Sugiyono (2009:222) states that the qualitative research is the primary instrument for data collection and analyzing the data, and to make the conclusion. Therefore, the main instrument in analyzing the data in this study is the writer herself through Provide the detail of information for the writer to do her research.

In collecting the data of a research, there are many ways that was done such as giving test, observation, interview, survey, and questionnaire but the writer just focus on observation, documentation and giving test to the students.

Documentation A valuable source of information in qualitative research can be documentation. Sugiyono (2008: 240) stated that documentation can be written and picture by someone that can

be used to obtain information. In conducting documentation method, the researcher can provide magazines, books, documents, etc. The function of documentation method is to make credible the result of observation or interview. In this research, the documentation guide is subjects' grade transcript.

According to Ary ,et al, (2010 : 476) “ Observation is the basic method for obtaining data in qualitative research”. Observation is committed to acquire the data of the strategy that teacher use in overcoming student's difficulties in writing descriptive text and it will collect the data by using tape recorder and camera to record the teachers' utterances while teaching and learning process.

In this study, the writer uses test especially written test as the instrument to collect the data. In this study, the writer provides a test that consists of 10 data. In the test the writer asks the students to write the English vowels phonetic transcription of each item.

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

Technique of collecting data is the main step in conducting research, sounds is the main objective of the research is to get the data. The writer uses observation technique in collecting the data (Sugiyono, 2010:308). In this research, the data was collected once through writing transcription test.

In collecting data, the writer was done some steps. The steps explain in detail as follow:

1. Giving the test to the students about English vowel phonetic transcription.
2. Collecting the students' answer sheet about English vowels phonetic transcription.
3. Checking the students' answer about vowels phonetic transcription

### **3.5 Collecting of the Data Analysis**

In analyzing the data, the writer takes some steps. The first is finding out the error. To find out the error, the writer checks to the transcription of each vowel. After collecting the data, the next step are classifying the data and analyzing the data. In analyzing the data, the following techniques are conducted.

1. Firstly, the writer analyzes the students' error in transcribing vowel
2. Secondly, the writer makes category the students' error based on the right and wrong transcription.
3. The writer was found the dominant error of the students' Transcription produce by the students.
4. The writer makes the conclusion and suggestion based on the data analysis.