

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter deals with the review of related literature. It is important to elaborate on some theories, which are used in this research to have an understanding of certain concepts. There were many related theories as to the basis of the research.

#### **A. Previous Related Research Findings**

The previous related finding present some related information topic with the recent study. It is intended to provide some theoretical concepts which could support this research, some of the researchers findings are anted concisely below.

Yatriani conducted a research entitle “ An Analysis Of Students Error In Pronouncing Fricatives Sounds For The Sixth Semester Students Of English Program At IAIN Parepare”. In her research, she found that the sixth semester students of English program at IAIN Parepare are still having some errors and trouble in their pronunciation. Based on the findings and discussion, the most fricatives errors made by the students in the /v/ sounds, from the analysis it shows about 34% of errors was made in this voiced labiodentals fricative, while in voiceless dental fricative /θ/ sound, it was about 18% of errors occurs and about 16% of errors found in voiceless plate-alveolar /s/ sound and 12% errors made in voiced Plato-alveolar /z/ sound. In fact, fricatives sound changing not the only errors that occurs in students’ pronunciation but also happened in both consonants and vowels sound changing. <sup>1</sup>

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<sup>1</sup> Yatriani, “An Analysis Of Students’ Error in Pronouncing Fricatives Sounds for the Sixth Semester Students of English Program at IAIN Parepare”(unpublished Skripsi IAIN Parepare,2020),p.52

Ipunk sugiarti conducted a researcher entitle “An Analysis Producing Of Sound After Studying Aspiration At the Fifth Semester Of English Program Of Stain Parepare” in his research, the fifth semester learners of English program had very low ability in pronouncing aspiration sound. It was proved by the mean score obtained through the test, 24.4 which categorized in very poor score. It shows that the learners were not able pronounce aspiration sounds.<sup>2</sup>

Andi Retna Jaya conducted a researcher entitle “The Students Mastery In Pronouncing English Plosives Consonant” in her research she found that the fifth semester students of English Departement of UNNES are good in pronouncing plosive consonant [p], [t], [b] and [g]. but they are fair in pronouncing English plosive consonant [k] and [d].<sup>3</sup>

Based on some statement above, the researcher can conclude that pronunciation ability the learners poor. Because of it the researcher interest to do this research, the researcher want to know the dominant errors and the causes of the errors in pronouncing plosive consonant sound.

## **B. Some pertinent ideas**

### **1. Defenition of Error**

- a. Errors is the condition of erring, or going astray from the truth, especially in matters of opinion or belief; also deviation from a right standard of judgment or conduct, as through ignorance or inadvertence.<sup>4</sup>

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<sup>2</sup> Ipunk Sugarti, “An Analysis in Producing of Sound after Studying Aspiration at the Fifth Semester of English Program of Stain Parepare” (unpublished Skripsi IAIN Parepare,2020),p.43

<sup>3</sup> Andi Retna Jaya, “The Students’ Mastery in Pronouncing English Plosive Consonant [p,t,k,b,d,g]”.(unpublished; English Department: Semarang, 2009),p.12.

<sup>4</sup> Webster, *Webster’s Comprehensive Dictionary*, (Columbia: 2003), p.431.

- b. An error is typically produced by people who do not yet fully command some institution a listed a language system.<sup>5</sup>
- c. Errors are described by the application of linguistic theory to the data erroneous utterance produced by a learner or of a group of learners. Errors are still classified on a superficial basis as errors of omission where some element is omitted which should be present which should not be there; errors of selection where the wrong item has been chosen in place of the right one; and errors of ordering where the elements presented are correct but wrongly sequenced.<sup>6</sup>

### 1. Mistake and Error

Sometimes, people are confused about error and mistake, some of us think that error and mistake are the same meaning and some of us both are the different meaning. But the fact, error and mistake have been different meaning.

#### a. Mistake

A mistake refers to a performance errors that is either to random guess or a “slip,” in that is failure to utilize a known system correctly. All people make mistake, in both native and second language situations. Native speakers are normally capable of recognizing and correcting such us “lapses” or mistakes, which are not the result of a deficiency in competence but the result or some sort of breakdown or imperfection in the process of producing speech. These

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<sup>5</sup> Kinsela, *Language Teaching and Linguistic Survey*, (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1978.),p.63

<sup>6</sup> S. P. Corder, *Error Analysis and Interlanguage*, (Oxford University Press 1981), p. 36

hesitation, slip of the tongue, random ungrammaticalities, and other performance lapses in native speaker production also occur in second language speech.<sup>7</sup>

Ellis says “A mistake occurs when learners fail to perform their competence,<sup>8</sup> while Corder state “mistake is a random performance slip caused by fatigue, excitement, etc and therefore can be readily selfcorrected”. Corder explain “Mistake to refer to memory lapse, slips of the tongue and other instances of performance errors, that second language learner can often correct their own mistake.<sup>9</sup>

b. Error

The learners sometimes make errors they learn foreign language, like English. Then, it is important to describe the definition or error. Brown states “Error is noticeable deviation from the adult grammar of a native speaker, reflecting the inter language competence of the learner.<sup>10</sup>

such mistake must be carefully distinguished from errors of second language learner, idiosyncrasies in the intelanguage of the learner that are direct manifestations of a system within which a learner is operating at the time. Dulay and Burt (1972) reffered to errors as “goofs” defined in an earlier work, The Gooficon (Burt and Kiparsky 1972) as “an error... for which no blame is implied. Put in another way, An error is a noticeable deviation from the adult grammar of a native speaker, reflecting the interlanguage competence of the learner. If a learner

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<sup>7</sup> H. Douglas Brown, *Principle of Language Learning and Teaching*, vol 3 (San Francisco State University,1994), p. 205.

<sup>8</sup> Ellis, *The Study of Second Language Aquisition*, (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1994), p. 51

<sup>9</sup> Corder, *Introducing Applied Linguistic*, (England Pinguin Book,2000),p. 257

<sup>10</sup> H. Douglas Brown, *Principle of Language Learning and Teaching*, vol 3 (San Francisco State University, 1994), p. 165.

of English asks, "Does John can sing?" he is probably reflecting a competence level in which all verb require a pre-posed do auxiliary for question formation. He has committed an error, most likely not a mistake, and an error which reveals a portion of his competence in the target language.<sup>11</sup>

From those definition above, the researcher can also conclude that a mistake is commonly by performance factors, and error is related to the competence factor. Or mistake, just one form of mistakes that students make because they forget the correct, and the students can remember their mistake and correct them. While, error is deviation made by students because they do not know the rules and do it repeatedly.

## 2. Error analysis

The fact that learners do make errors and that these errors can be observed, analyzed, and classified to reveal something of the system operating within the learner, led to a surge of the study of learners' errors, called error analysis. Error analysis become distinguished from contrastive analysis by its examination of errors attributable to all possible sources. Not just those which result from negative transfer of the native language. Error analysis easily superseded contractive analysis, as we discovered that only some of the errors a learner makes are attributable the mother tongue, that that learners do not actually make the errors that contrastive analysis predicted they should, and that learners from disparate language backgrounds tend to make similar errors in learning one target language. Errors overt manifestations of leaners system arise from several possible general sources: interlingual errors of

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<sup>11</sup> H. Douglas Brown, *Principle of Language Learning and Teaching*, vol 3 (San Francisco State University, 1994), p. 205

interference from the native language, intralingual errors within the target language, the sociolinguistic context of communication, psycholinguistic or cognitive strategies, and no doubt countless affective variable.<sup>12</sup>

Human learning is fundamentally a process that involves the making of mistake, misjudgment, miscalculations, and erroneous assumptions form an important aspect of learning virtually any skill and acquiring information.<sup>13</sup>

Error analysis (EA) has been famous since 1965s. This theory had been researched deeply for all or errors who was found in learning language and find out course of errors.<sup>14</sup>

### 3. **Phonetics and Phonology**

#### a. Phonetics

A phonetic study tells how the sounds of language are made and what their acoustic properties are. A phonological study tells how these sounds are used to convey meaning. While it may be the case that phonetic explanations readily account for the relative frequency of sounds, there many issues in the study of speech sounds which cannot be resolved by reference to phonetic alone. Because speech sounds function to convey meaning, speakers sometimes have internal or mental representations of sounds which are not identical with their physical

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<sup>12</sup> H. Douglas Brown, *Principle of Language Learning and Teaching*, vol 3 (San Francisco State University, 1994), p. 204.

<sup>13</sup> H. Douglas Brown, *Principle of Language Learning and Teaching*, vol 3 (San Francisco State University, 1994), p. 205

<sup>14</sup> Suarti, "Error Analysis In Using Verbal and Nonverbal Question in Speaking Ability" (unpublished Skripsi IAIN Parepare,2020),p. 9

properties. That is, there is a psychological as well as a physical (phonetic) side to speech sounds.<sup>15</sup>

Phonetics is a science that deals with the sounds of human language. It is normally divided into three sub-branches, namely acoustic phonetic, auditory phonetics and articulatory phonetics.

- 1) Acoustic phonetics deals with the study of physical properties of sounds in the form of sound waves that result from the production of the sounds. As one speaks, the sounds that he produces create air waves that travel from the speaker's mouth to the hearer's ear. This is what makes the listener hear what the speaker says.
- 2) Auditory phonetics deals with how sounds are perceived by our brains. As just stated, when one speaks, the sounds that he produces create sound waves. These sound waves strike the ears of the listener. He will then send what he hears to the brain for analysis to determine, for instance, whether the sound is [p] or [b].
- 3) Articulatory phonetics also deals with sounds of language, but it focuses on how the sounds are produced. The focus on sound production necessarily means that this branch of phonetics must handle the speech mechanism that is involved in sound production. In articulatory phonetics we discuss things such as the role and the functions of our lungs, the parts of the mouth that play a role in the formation of sounds, and the ways the sounds are

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<sup>15</sup> Larry M. Hyman, *Phonology Theory and Analysis*, (University of California), Los Angeles  
p. 2

released. This is the kind of phonetics which we will emphasize in this book.<sup>16</sup>

b. Phonology

Phonology is description of the system and patterns of sounds that occur in a language. It involves studying a language to determine its distinctive sounds and to establish a set of rules that describe the set of changes that take place in these sounds when they occur in different relationships with other sounds. The smallest of sounds that can be distinguished by their contrast within words can be grouped together into phonemes.<sup>17</sup>

Phonology is differentiated from phonetics in that the focus of the study is different. If in phonetics we deal with the formation, production, and perfection of sounds, in phonology we talk about how the sounds are realized and arranged when used in actual speech. As an example, the vowel [o] as in *gone* is phonetically speaking an oral sound. From the point of view of phonology, however, this sound is nasalized, that is, it picks up the nasal feature, when it is followed by nasal such as [n]. In other words, in the sound system of English the vowel becomes nasalized [õ].<sup>18</sup>

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<sup>16</sup> Soenjono Dardjowidjojo and Unika Atma Jaya, *English Phonetic and Phonology* (Yayasan Obor Indonesia Publisher, 2009), p. 12.

<sup>17</sup> Peter Ladefoged, *A Course in Phonetics*, Vol. 2 (University of California, Los Angeles) p.23.

<sup>18</sup> Soenjono Dardjowidjojo and Unika Atma Jaya, *English Phonetic and Phonology* (Yayasan Obor Indonesia Publisher, 2009), p. 14



The goals of phonology is, then, to study the properties of the sounds system which speakers must learn or internalize in order to use their language for the purpose of communication.<sup>19</sup>

#### 4. Pronunciation

Pronunciation is how to say word a word in which it is made up of sound, stress and intonation. Sound deals only with sound and can be meaningless, but if we put some together in certain order, that will hear a meaning about something, stress is emphasis of the words then they are pronounced and indicated in writing.<sup>20</sup>

Pronunciation is act or manner of pronouncing words; the utterance of speech, a way of speaking a word, especially a way that is accepted or generally understood, and a graphic representation of the way a word spoken, using phonetic symbols. According to Hornby Pronunciation is a way in which a language or particular word or sound is spoken.<sup>21</sup>

Pronunciation is the way a word or a language is spoken, or the manner in which someone utters a word. If one is said to have “correct pronunciation”, then it refers to both within a particular dialect.<sup>22</sup>

<sup>19</sup> Larry M. Hyman, *Phonology Theory and Analysis*, (University of California, Los Angeles), p. 1

<sup>20</sup> Ipunk Sugarti, “An Analysis In Producing Of Sound After Studying Aspiration At The Fifth Semester Of English Program Of Stain Parepare” (unpublished Skripsi IAIN Parepare,2020),p.43

<sup>21</sup> Yatriani, “An Analysis of Students’ Error in Pronouncing Fricatives Sounds for the Sixth Semester Students of English Program at IAIN Parepare”(unpublished Skripsi IAIN Parepare,2020),p.52

<sup>22</sup> Wikipedia, Pronunciation, <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Pronunciation> (Accessed on Friday, 4 march 2016)

## 5. Component of Pronunciation

### a. Sounds

Sounds can be categorized into various groups depending on the criteria we use. If we look at sounds from the passage through which the airstream from the lungs goes out, we can categorize them into two groups, namely, oral and nasal. Oral sounds are those that are produced through our mouths. Sounds like [p], [s], and [a] are oral as they are produced by having the airstream pass through the oral cavity. Meanwhile, sounds like [m], [n], and [ŋ] are nasals: they are produced with the airstream going out through the nose.

### b. Stress

In linguistics, stress is the relative emphasis that may be given to certain syllable in a word, or to certain words in a phrase or sentence. Stress is typically signaled by such properties as increased loudness and vowels length, full articulation of the vowel, and changes in pitch. The stress placed on syllables within words is called word stress or lexical stress. Some language have fixed stress, meaning that the stress on virtually any multi syllable word falls on a particular syllable, such as the first or the penultimate. Other language, like English, have variable stress, where the position of the stress in a word is not predictable in that way. Sometimes more than one level of stress, such as primary stress and secondary stress, may be identified. However, some languages are

considered to lack lexical stress entirely. Pitch, length and loudness are components of stress.<sup>23</sup>

c. Length

According to Ramelan (1994 : 29) length refers to the period of the time during which a sound is produced in a given utterance. When the of the sound is measured comparatively in relation to the other sounds in same utterance for instance the sound /a:/is longer than /A / in **mother**.

d. Pitch

Pitch is the rise and fall of our voice when we speak, sometimes called “highness” or “lowness” we use pitch is called intonation, but the words “pitch” and “intonation” are often used interchangeably.

Pitch is directly related to word and syllable stress. Content words—the words that given us the picture of what is happening – are stressed more during speech than function words—the grammatical words of the sentence. With pitch, one or more of the stressed content words of our speech will have a more dramatic rise of pitch than the other content words, and that pitch change falls mostly on the stressed syllable of that content word.

e. Intonation

Intonation is the rise and fall of pitches when we produce sentences in a natural situation. It is probably the most important element in language. The same

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<sup>23</sup> Hendra Suwito, “Error Analysis on the Students’ pronunciation in Speaking English at Second Semester of English Education Students’ of STAIN Parepare (unpublished Skripsi IAIN Parepare,2015),p.16.

sentence may mean different things depending on the intonation we use.<sup>24</sup> More specially, it combination of musical tones (pitch) with which we pronounce the syllable that makes up our speech. Intonation may also be called the melody of speech.

## 6. English Consonants

According to Fromkin, Rodman, and Hymas (2014), consonants are produced from the result of obstructing the flow of air from the lungs through the vocal tract. Consonants are produced by having one part of the mouth contact with the other part. The parts of the mouth that included in production of consonants are the tongue, the lips, the teeth, the tooth ridge, the palate, the velum and uvula.<sup>25</sup>

Consonant sound is as the solid blocks with we construct words, phrases, and sentence. These blocks are connected or held together by a more malleable or fluid material – the vowels of the language. Together, they provide the basic building materials needed to create the architecture of language.<sup>26</sup>

The complete articulation of plosive, or stop consonant consist of three stages:

- a. The closing stage, during which the articulating organs move together in order to form the obstruction; in this case, there is often transition audible in a preceding sound segment and visible in an acoustic analysis as a characteristic curve of the formants of the preceding sound.

<sup>24</sup> Soenjono Dardjowidjojo and Unika Atma Jaya “English Phonetic and Phonology”. Yayasan Obor Indonesia 2009.p.189.

<sup>25</sup> Jelin Indah Nilwananda “The Stop Aspiration and Unaspiration Mas tery Among Batch 2014 Students of English Department Universitas Sanata Dharma (Unplished Universitas Sanata Dharma Yogyakarta,2019),p.10

<sup>26</sup> Novalina Sembiring and Fiber Yun Almanda Ginting “An Analysis of Pronunciation Errors Made by the Fourth Semester Students of English Education Study Program at Unika”

- b. The hold or compression stages, during which lung action compresses the air behind the closure; this stage can or cannot be accompanied by voice, i.e. vibration of the vocal cords.
- c. The release or compression stage, during which the organs forming the obstruction part rapidly, allowing the compressed air to escape abruptly. <sup>27</sup>

The RP Plosive phonemes comprise three pairs: /p, b/ /t, d/ /f, g/. the following words illustrates opposition in word initial , medial, and final positions:

	/p/	/b/	/t/	/d/	/k/	/g/
Initial –	<b>pen</b>	<b>bowl</b>	<b>tall</b>	<b>drum</b>	<b>cool</b>	<b>goal</b>
Medial –	<b>riper</b>	<b>rubber</b>	<b>bitter</b>	<b>rider</b>	<b>bicker</b>	<b>bigger</b>
Final –	<b>rip</b>	<b>dumb</b>	<b>writ</b>	<b>rid</b>	<b>rick</b>	<b>ring</b>

There are three characteristics to classify English Consonants. The characteristic are Manner of articulation (how the airflow is affected), place of articulation (where the sound is made), and voicing (are the vocal cords vibrating or not)

- a. Manner of articulation

Picture. 2.1 distribution of Manner of articulations.

plosives	p b			t d		k g	
fricatives		f v	θ ð	s z	ʃ ʒ		h
affricates					tʃ dʒ		
nasals	m			n		ŋ	
lateral				l			
glides (approximants)	w				r	j	(w)

<sup>27</sup> A.C. Gimson 1970 “An Introduction to the Pronunciation of English” LTD.London

Plosive sound, when the airstream is blocked or stopped completely before its release, the resulting explosion of sound is referred to as a stop. A stop involves a completely closure such that no air passes out of the mouth. Stop or plosive consonant are made by the stoppage of the air passage at some point. The air compressed behind the stop rushes out with a slight explosion when the stop is released. Thus a plosive consist of (a) a stop, (b) a release and (c) some sound which allows the release.

In English / p t k b d g/ are stops. In making each of these, a complete closure is made, at the lips, the alveolar ridge, or the velum, such that no air can escape through the mouth. In forming p and b, the stop is made by the two lips; in t and d by the tip of the tongue against the teeth ridge; in k and g by the back of the tongue against the soft palate. For example, the consonants /p/ and /b/ as in Pie and Buy are formed when the airstream is stopped by the two lips, causing pressure to build slightly before being released through the mouth.<sup>28</sup>

Plosive consonants include of stops, stops are sounds which are produced by stopping the air somewhere in the mouth or vocal passage and releasing it suddenly. When saying /p/ and /b/ the lips are closed together for a moment, stopping the air flow.<sup>29</sup>

English has 6 plosive consonants, produced respectively at bilabial point of articulation [b p] at alveolar point of articulation [d t] and at velar point of

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<sup>28</sup> Novalina Sembiring and Fiber Yun Almada Ginting “An Analysis of Pronunciation Errors Made by the Fourth Semester Students Of English Education Study Program At UNIKA” 3, no. 1, 2016), h. 44

<sup>29</sup> Febby Pratama Putra “An Error Analysis of English Plosive and Fricative Consonants at Vocational High Schools.” 11, no. 2, 2019), h 4

articulation [g k]. we can identify the consonants that have a shortening effect on the preceding vowel as ‘voice-less’-sounds such as [p], [t], [k] and those that trigger lengthening as ‘voiced’ – for instance [b], [d], [g].

Specially the sound [p], [t], [k] have a rule to pronounce which is called aspiration. Aspiration is primarily a matter of timing, an aspirated consonant having its structure released before the onset of voice on a following voiced segment, giving a period of voiceless.<sup>30</sup> Generally, aspiration is a rule of pronunciation in English which is a segment is followed by a puff or air. For example *pin* (p<sup>h</sup>in), the aspiration may be felt by holding the back of the hand close to the mouth while saying the word. So voiceless plosives are aspirated at the beginning of a stressed syllable.

b. Place of articulation

All the sound we make when we speak is the result of muscles contracting. The muscles in the chest that we use for breathing produce the flow air that is needed for almost all speech sounds.<sup>31</sup>

Place of articulation refers to the location in which consonantal construction or closure are produced. Ten regions are defined on vocal tract contour: labial (upper lip area), dental (upper incisor area), alveolar (area at the alveolar ridge), post-alveolar (area posterior to the alveolar ridge, in many speakers it has a large inclination angle of the hard palate), retroflex (between post-alveolar and palatal),

<sup>30</sup> Roger Lass, *Phonology: an introduction*, (Ujung Pandang: UIN Alauddin, 1989), p.82-84

<sup>31</sup> Peter Roach, *English Phonetic and Phonology: a Practical Course* (UK: Cambridge university press, 1983), p.8.

palatal (refers to the hard palate posterior to the post-alveolar place of

	<i>bi-labial</i>	<i>labio-dental</i>	<i>dental</i>	<i>alveolar</i>	<i>post-alveolar</i>	<i>palatal</i>	<i>velar</i>	<i>glottal</i>
plosives	p b			t d			k g	
fricatives		f v	θ ð	s z	ʃ ʒ			h
affricates					tʃ dʒ			
nasals	m			n			ŋ	
lateral				l				
glides (approximants)	w				r	j	(w)	

articulation), velar (area between end of the hard palate and uvula = soft palate), uvular (area at the uvula), pharyngeal (area of the back pharyngeal wall), and glottal (area between the two vocals folds in the laryngeal region).<sup>32</sup>

Picture 2:2 Distribution of Place of articulations.

As shown above, the plosive consonant consist of three places of articulation, namely bilabial, alveolar and velar.

1) Bilabial

The bilabial sounds of English include /p b m/, as in the initial sounds of the words *pea*, *bee*, *me*. The lower lip articulates against the upper lip. The sounds /p b m/ are made by completely closing the lips. The sound /p/ is voiceless; /b m/ are voiced.

<sup>32</sup> Susanne Fuchs and Peter Birkholz “Phonetic of Consonants” Berlin, Germany, 2019. P.7



## 2) Alveolar

The alveolar includes more consonants in English than any other place articulation: /t d s z n l/. When the sounds produced are /t d/, the parts of the mouth which are in contact are tip of the tongue and the ridge just behind the upper teeth.

## 3) Velar

Velar sounds are dorso-velar, with the back of the tongue articulating against in the velum. In English the velars are /k g/. These are the final consonants in the words *sick, egg, and sing*.

### c. Voicing

Although English consonants are classified as phonemically voiced and voiceless, it was usually found that the so called voiced obstruent, the stop, fricatives, and affricates, are partially voiceless when they occur at the beginning or end of a word.

#### 1) [p] Is a voiceless bilabial stop



Figure 2:1 voiceless bilabial stop

Example: pay, put, play, price, speak, spring, slept, maps. Jump, help.

Producing /p/

- (a) First press your lips together, to stop the flow of air.
- (b) Then open your lips and produce the sound with a strong puff of air.
- (c) Your vocal cords do not vibrate
- (d) Hold a piece of paper in front of your lips. It should move when you produce the sound. Or hold your hand in front of your lips to feel the puff of air.

2) [t] Is a voiceless Alveolar stop.

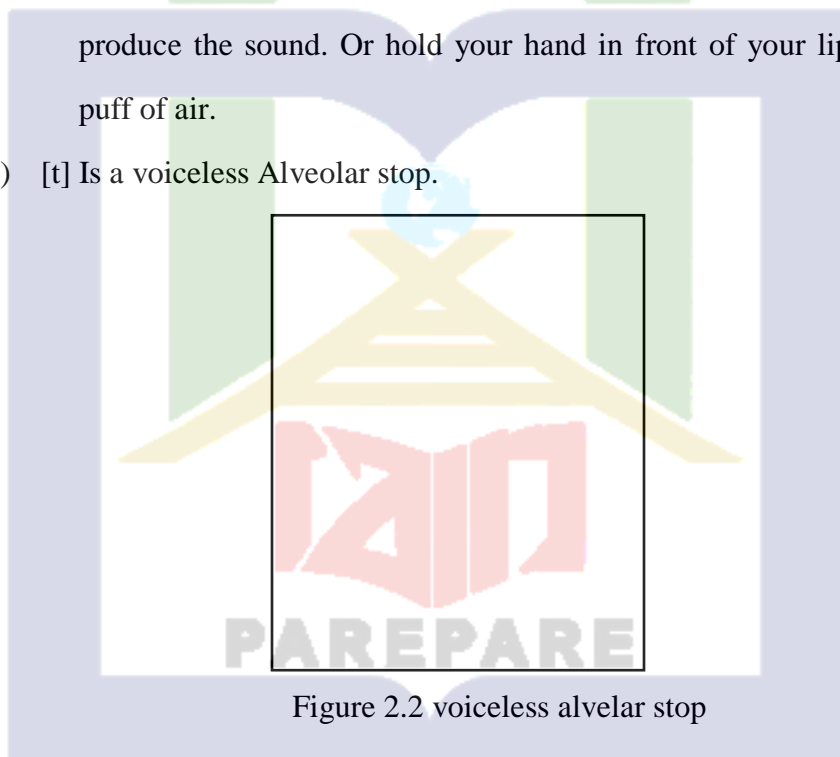


Figure 2.2 voiceless alveolar stop

Example: to, time, stop, little, auto, ate, walked

Producing /t/

- (a) First press the tip of your tongue on your upper gum ridge, to stop the flow of air.

- (b) Then quickly drop the tongue tip to produce the sound with a strong puff of air.
- (c) Your vocal cords do not vibrate.
- (d) Hold a piece of paper in front of your lips. It should move when you produce the sound. Or hold your hand in front of your lips to feel the puff of air.

3) [k] Is a voiceless velar stop



Figure 2.3 voiceless velar stop

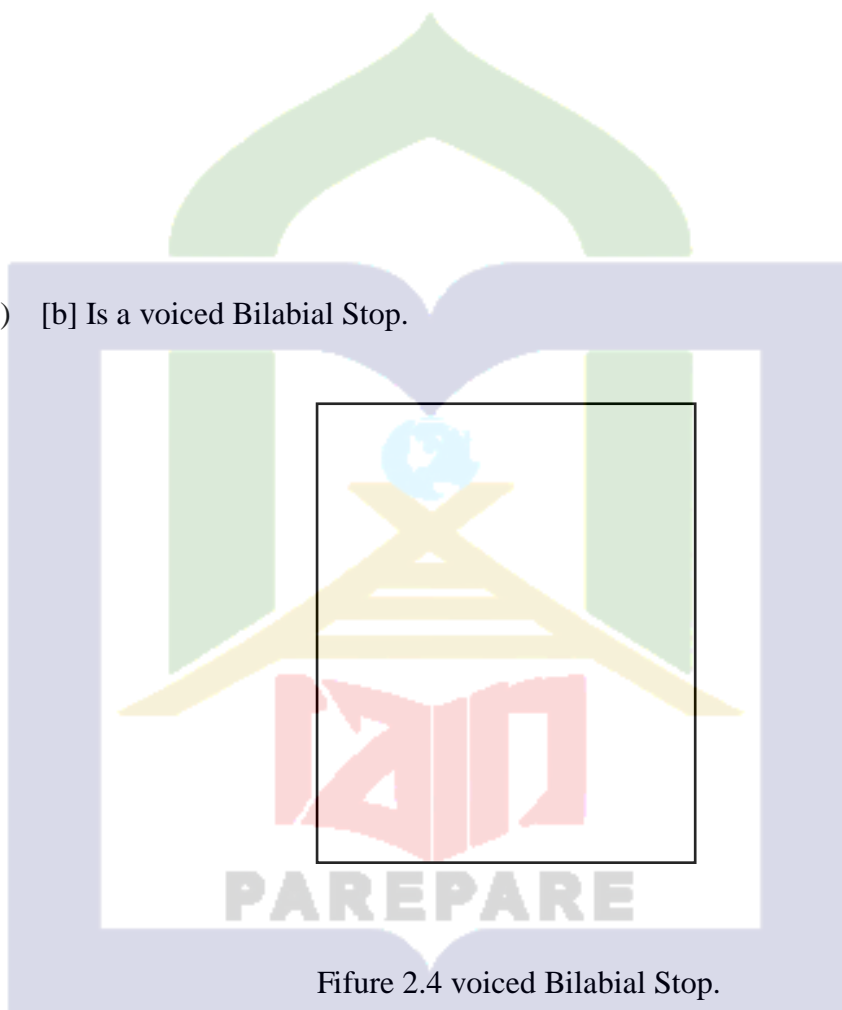
Example: kiss, came, key, character, quiet, liquid, picture, chicken.

Producing /k/

- (a) First press the back part of your tongue to the back of the roof of your mouth (soft palate). This stop the flow of air.
- (b) Then quickly lower the back of your tongue. Produce the sound with a strong puff of air.
- (c) Your vocal cords do not vibrate.

- (d) Hold a piece of paper in front of your lips. It should move when you produce the sound. Or hold your hand in front your lips to feel the puff of air.

- 4) [b] Is a voiced Bilabial Stop.



Example: be, best, brain, black, about, obey, able, job, trible.

Producing /b/

- (a) This sound is produced the same way as /p/, except that /b/ is voiced and the puff of air is not as strong.

- (b) First press your lips together, to stop the flow of air.
  - (c) Then open your lips and produce the sound with a puff of air
  - (d) Your vocal cord should vibrate.
  - (e) Use a piece of paper of your hand to make sure of puff of air is released.
- 5) [d] Is a voiced Alveolar Stop

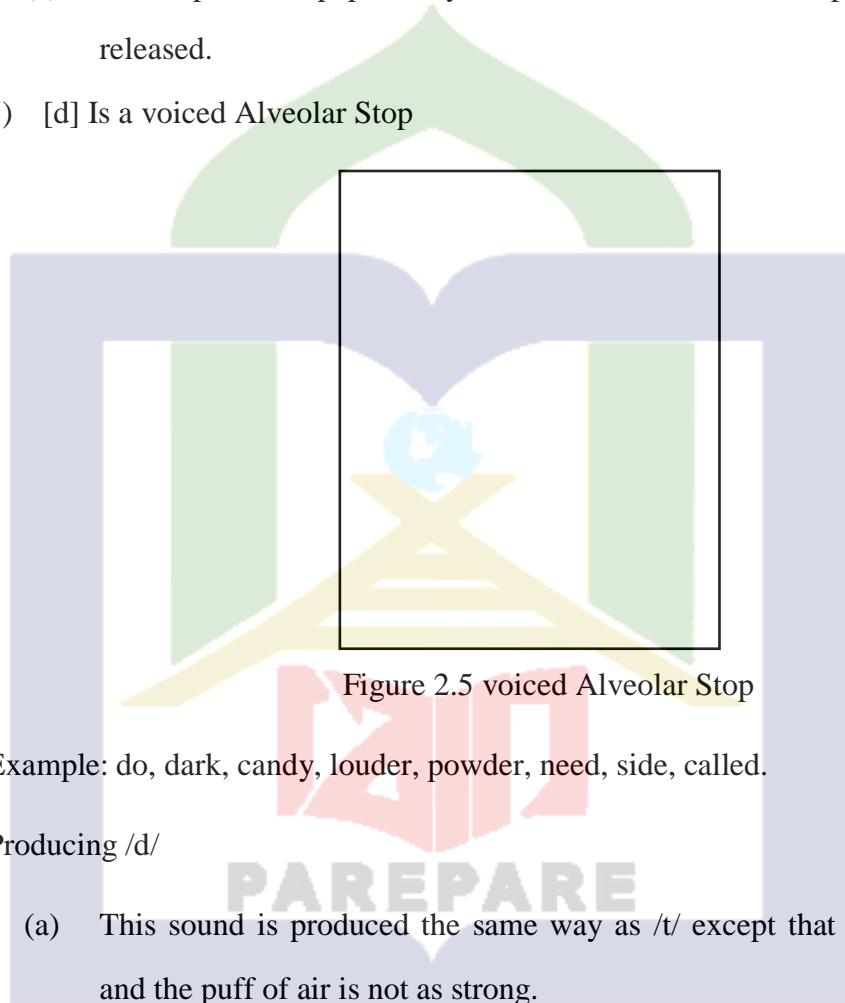


Figure 2.5 voiced Alveolar Stop

Example: do, dark, candy, louder, powder, need, side, called.

Producing /d/

- (a) This sound is produced the same way as /t/ except that /d/ is voiced and the puff of air is not as strong.
- (b) First press your tongue tip on your upper gum ridge, to stop the flow of air.
- (c) Then drip your tongue tip and produce the sound with the puff of air.
- (d) Your vocal cords should vibrate.

6) [g] Is a voiced velar stop

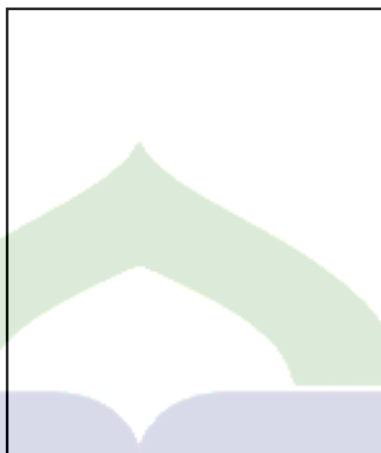


Figure 2.6 voiced Velar Stop

Example: get, ghost, guest, forget, began, bag, egg.

Producing /g/

- (a) This sound is produced the same way as /k/, except that /g/ is voiced and the puff of air is not as strong.
- (b) First press the back part of your tongue to the back of the roof of your mouth (soft palate) this stop the flow of air.
- (c) Then quickly lower the back of your tongue. Produced the sound with a puff of air.
- (d) Your vocal cords should vibrate.<sup>33</sup>

<sup>33</sup> Getrude F. Orion, *pronouncing American English* 1988, (Queensborough Community College The City University of New York), p.23

### C. Conceptual Framework

The schematic framework below to explain the variable studies, thus the conceptual framework that the researcher describe as follow:

