

## CHAPTER II

### THEORETICAL REVIEW

#### A. History of English Language

English is a West Germanic language, belonging to the Indo-European language family, which originated from the Anglo-Frisian dialects spoken by people formerly living in the area of what is nowadays northwest Germany and the Northern Netherlands (Baugh & Camble, 2002, p. 16).

##### 1. Proto-English

The Germanic tribes, who later gave birth to the English language, were heavily influenced by Latin-speaking Romans during the process of their expansion to the West Europe from the East. Having to co-exist, to trade, and, occasionally, to fight with the Romans, the Germanic peoples adopted many of the words used by their competitors to their own languages, even before any of them overcome the English Channel. The words that entered Proto-English during this period include these ones: *camp, cheese, cook, fork, inch, kettle, kitchen, linen, mile, noon, pound, street, and wall* (Barber, 1993, p. 178). Actually, we do not have much information about this specific period in the history of the English people and language. The main source of serious information dealing with this epoch is the Tacitus' *Germania*. The rest are rather legends and myths invented and reedited according to specific political purposes during various times.

## 2. Old English

Based on Leith (1998, p. 179) during the three or four centuries after Tacitus wrote his *Germania*, the Germanic peoples were in a state of flux and movement. Although we know little of their history in this turbulent period of migration and expansion, we do know for sure that, towards the end of these centuries of the flux, the ancestors of the present-days English nation settled in England. Thanks to archaeological evidence we know that Saxons settled in England even during the period when England was still a Roman province, but the main settlements were made after the Roman legions had withdrawn from Britain in A.D. 410. The Anglo-Saxon settlement of Britain was not, as one might think, the arrival of a unified invading army, but it was rather the penetration of various uncoordinated bands of adventurers in different parts of the country. The process of the Anglo-Saxon penetration into the area started in the middle of the fifth century and it continued during whole the sixth century. The struggle with the native Romano-Celtic population was long and exhausting. The position of Anglo- Saxons was not assured until the end of the sixth century, when they occupied most of England (except to Cornwall, and an area in the North-West), and a considerable part of southern Scotland. Wales remained British.

The Anglo-Saxon conquest was not just the arrival of a ruling minority, but the settlement of a whole people. The language they spoke remained the dominant one. There are few traces of Celtic influence on

Old English. Indeed, the number of Celtic words taken into English is extremely small; it includes a few names of some English towns (e.g. London and Leeds), rivers (e.g. Thames - meaning 'dark diver'), county names (especially in the North-West), some topographical features, like *coomb* (OE *cumb* meaning 'narrow valley'), and a number of place-name elements of English derivation (e.g. Buckingham meaning 'the meadow of Bucca's people'). The failure of Celtic to influence Old English to any great extent does not mean that the Britons were all killed or driven out. Millward (1996, p. 231) said there is in fact evidence that a considerable number of Britons lived among the Anglo-Saxons, but they were a defeated people whose language had no prestige compared with that of the conquerors. It is quite surprising that the contribution of the Celtic language to French is nearly as poor as its contribution to English. One might think that the number of the words of the Celtic origin would be great in French, for the present-days Frenchmen are the Celts' descendants. On the contrary, we can find only about 70 words of the Celtic origin in the contemporary French, some of them being incomprehensible to young generation speakers. The majority of these words deal with the nature or agriculture (Walter, 1988, p. 41).

Based on Barber (1993, pp. 102-103) the piecemeal way in which the Anglo-Saxons conquered England led to an establishment of small kingdoms, and no doubt to dialect differentiation. As the invaders did not come from only one Germanic tribe, it is probable that there were dialect

differences from the start; the original land of Old Saxons was in North-West Germany, the Angles came from the Danish mainland and islands, the Jutes, whose origin is obscure a bit, are supposed to be originated in the Rhineland or to have some affinities with the Franks farther south. There is also evidence that, in addition to Angles, Saxons, and Jutes, the Germanic invaders included also Frisians. Whatever their exact origins, these groups were closely related in their culture and language, and they regarded themselves as one nation, using the common name of *Engle* ‘the Angles’.

Their political union came slowly, however. They formed a medley of small kingdoms, which by a process of conquest, were eventually reduced to seven, sometimes called the Heptarchy (however, some of the modern scientists have some serious doubts about the veracity of the Heptarchy’s existence). Different kings managed to establish their sovereignty over the other kingdoms at various times, but these dominations were often personal and temporary. In the ninth century, the leadership over the Anglo-Saxons kingdoms passed to Wessex, of which the kings finally unified the country. In the late ninth century, Alfred, the king of Wessex, saved the country from the Danes, and his successors reconquered the North and the East. In the second half of the tenth century, King Edgar ruled not only over all England, but he was also recognized as Overlord of Wales and Scotland. Barber (1993) said from this time, the unity of England was durable, no matter the nationality of the sovereign.

King Cnut was Danish, Edward the Confessor was half-English, William the Conqueror was Norman, but all of them ruled over a single country, populated by unified people.

Based on Skyes & Bryan (2006, p. 197) the fact that England was unified under the leadership of the West Saxon kings meant also the recognition of the West Saxon dialect as the literary standard. The majority of the literary works were written in this dialect by West Saxon scribes, and even the manuscripts that had been edited in another dialect were reedited and so they were put into West Saxon form. It is possible that the most important literary relic of the period - the Old English poem *Beowulf* - was written in an Anglian dialect, but the only surviving manuscript is in West Saxon. One might find interesting that, although West Saxon became the literary standard of the united England in the late Anglo-Saxon period, it is not the direct ancestor of the Modern English standard. It is proved that the Modern English forms are descended from Anglian (i.e. Mercian and Northumbrian dialects), not the West Saxon.

During this period, the Christianization of Anglo-Saxons took place. It started approximately in 600 and took a century to complete. The Christianity was spread from two directions, the Celtic church penetrating from the North-West and the Roman Church from the South-East. It is with Christianity that writing came (Baugh & Camble, 2002, p. 86).

Not only do we know little about the Anglo-Saxons before their conversion to Christianity, but there is not far more information about

them after their having been introduced to writing. As elsewhere in medieval Europe, writing was in the hands of clerics, who often had strong views about what is proper to record and what is not, so that we can learn very little about the ways of the heathen English from their own records. The English had already one form of writing, the runes, but these were used but for short inscriptions, not for texts of any considerable length. The runes can be found carved or scratched on stone, metal-work, or wood, and they were thought to have magical power. They go back ultimately to some form of the Greek alphabet, but owing to their way of use, they acquired an angular form. The alphabet that clerics introduced to England was a Celtic version of the Latin alphabet enriched with some runic symbols (Fennel, 2001, p. 140).

In his book (Knowles, 1997, p. 33) Old English shows certain phonological developments of its own compared with the other Germanic languages. A number of combinatory sound-changes took place. The first one is called *front mutation* or *i-umlaut*, which is the mutation that caused considerable changes in the pronunciation of English. Other combinatory changes in Old English caused the diphthongization of pure vowels, often with different results in different dialects. In the grammar, Old English underwent some simplifications of the Proto-Germanic system. The number of the cases was reduced to four: nominative, accusative, genitive, and dative. The number of declensions was reduced as well. In its verbal system, a two-tense system was inherited (past and present), and we can

also see the beginnings of a new tense-system using auxiliaries. Thanks to its inflectional system, Old English was freer in word-order than Modern English, but it does not mean that there were no rules or preferences about word-order.

Ruhlen & Merrit (1994, p. 109) Old English was quite self-sufficient as far as enlarging its vocabulary is concerned. It rather depended mostly on its own resources, forming new words by prefixes and suffixes. Another way used in order to new word formation was compounding. However, Old English did borrow only a small number of words from other languages, especially for the needs and the institutions of Christianity. The majority of the words borrowed in that period are of Greek and mostly of Latin origin. They include *apostol* ‘apostle’, *biscop* ‘bishop’, *munuc* ‘monk’, *mynster* ‘monastery’, as well as the words *abbot*, *disciple*, *nun*, *pilgrim*, *pope*, and *school*. But even in this field, Old English did not lack its own resources - some of the existing native words were simply adopted to Christian use, e.g. *hell*, *holy*, *Easter* (Eastre was the goddess of the rising sun or spring, her name was probably given to the Christian festival), or *godspell* ‘good message’ which is a calque for Latin *evangelium* (originally borrowed from Greek *euangelion*) giving the Modern English *gospel*.

### 3. Norsemen and Normans in England

During the later part of the Old English period, two different groups of non-English speakers invaded the country. Both groups were

Scandinavian in origin, but whereas the first had retained its Scandinavian speech, the second had settled in northern France and became French-speaking. Both of their languages, Old Norse and Old French, had a considerable influence on English (Barber, 1993, p. 127).

The Scandinavian Viking (Jones, 1984, p. 90) raids in Europe took place between about 750 and 1050. It was the last phase of the Germanic peoples' expansion process. Its primary cause was perhaps the overpopulation of their home area, poor in natural resources for a living, but it also had a number of secondary reasons, too, e.g. political conflicts driving many noblemen to exile, the primogeniture system forcing younger sons to find their heritage elsewhere, or destroying the Frisian maritime dominance in the North-West Europe by Charlemagne which made the sea secure for naval transport. The Vikings were great traders but they were also known for their predatory activities. Their attacks varied from single ship piratical expeditions to invasions by enormous fleets and armies. The Vikings consisted of Swedes, Norwegians, and Danes. While Swedes expanded to the East, the two latter went mostly westwards and southwards, including England. The Vikings almost conquered the whole England, but they were repulsed by King Alfred. Although the Viking territory was step by step re-conquered by Anglo-Saxons, the huge Scandinavian settlement remained in England.

Based on Crystal & David (1997, p. 143) the Scandinavians left their mark on English place-names, but their influence went much farther



than that. As the Scandinavian settlers did not exterminate the Englishmen from the territories they had conquered, they influenced the English language register a lot. Old English and Old Norse were still considerably similar, that is why the Scandinavians were able to understand each other without too much difficulty. Thus great “mixing” took place between the two languages. In the end, Old Norse died out in England, but not without having influenced English significantly. The final fusion of the Scandinavian and English languages and cultures took place in the twelfth century, especially after the Norman Conquest. The majority of the Scandinavian loan-words first appear in writing in the Middle English Period, which is caused by the fact that there was no literary tradition in the Danelaw. Most of the surviving texts were edited in the West Saxon dialect, scarcely influenced by the Scandinavian. Later, when the Vikings settled in England, a number of words were borrowed into English. As the Vikings had highly developed sense of law and government, the majority of these words relate to justice and administration, including the word *law* itself. The most impressive fact about the Scandinavian loan-words is that they are such ‘ordinary’ words, e.g. *sister, leg, neck, bag, cake, fellow, fog, knife, skill, skin, sky, window, flat, low, ugly, wrong, call, get, give, take, and want*. Moreover, some grammatical words are of Scandinavian origin, like *till, until, though, they, them, and their*. However, the total number of Scandinavian loans is rather small, compared with the huge amount of French or Latin borrowings (Barber, 1993, pp. 128-134). The influence of

the Norman Conquest and Norman French upon English shall be dealt with in the chapter Four, called 'The Contribution of French'.

#### 4. Middle English

According to Gelderen in her book (2006, p. 112) old English did not disappear overnight at the Norman Conquest, but the changes which had already begun to occur in pre-Conquest Old English continued at an increased speed in the years following the Conquest. In less than one hundred years after 1066, the Old English period was over, and the Middle English began. The Conquest, in fact, made the change from Old English to Middle English look more sudden than it really was, because the new spelling conventions were brought. These new conventions made the changes in the pronunciation that had not been reflected in Old English conservative spelling.

The process of great reduction in the inflectional system inherited from Old English took place during the period, so that Middle English is often referred to as the period of weakened inflections. This fact had two main causes. The first one was the mixing of Old English with Old Norse. Frequently, the Scandinavian and English words were sufficiently similar to be recognizable, but they had absolutely different sets of inflections; that is why speakers, in case of doubts, preferred to rely on other grammatical devices in order to avoid making mistakes, and, consequently, possible misunderstanding.

The second cause was phonological. Because of the loss and the

weakening of unstressed syllables at the ends of words, many endings now have become identical. This had a disastrous effect on the inflectional system. By the end of Middle English period, both the adjectives and the definite article had become indeclinable, which meant a major change in the structure of the language, for it meant also that the grammatical gender disappeared, and was replaced by the 'natural gender'. As the inflectional system decayed, some other devices were increasingly used to replace it. The word-order became more important, for the inflections were no longer able to differ the subject from the object of a sentence; this function was taken over by *S-V-O word-order*. The inflectional system decay also encouraged the use of separate words to perform the functions formerly carried out by the word-endings, e.g. 'die *of* hunger'. A similar tendency for the inflections, later to be replaced by more analytic devices, is also seen in the Middle English verb-system. A complicated system of tenses was built up by means of the primary auxiliaries (*be, have, do*) and the modal auxiliaries (*shall, should, will* etc.) in order to supersede the system of inflections that had been considerably reduced. The future tense with *shall* and *will* is established in this period, as well as the continuous tenses, formed with *be* and the present participle, however, the latter becoming more common during the Modern English period. The most important literary work of the period is Chaucer's *Canterbury Tales* (Brunner, Karl, 1990, p. 150).

## 5. Early Modern English

Although English triumphed over French in Britain during the late Middle Ages, it did not mean that English was without any other rival. Its most influential competitor of the period, enjoying great recognition and prestige, was Latin. Latin was the language of international learning, and under the influence of humanists, the grammar-school syllabus was centred on classical Latin, as well as it was the medium of instruction in the universities (Gelderen, 2006, p. 144). Latin was the language of science and philosophy. The final defeat of Latin and the triumph of English had several causes. The religious disputes raging from the fifteenth to the seventeenth century were one of them. As people engaged in religious controversy wanted to be read by as large a public as possible, they used English, instead of Latin, to write their pamphlets and polemics. The prestige of English raised also by introducing it in Church services, and by translating the Bible into English. Moreover, Latin was regarded by the extreme Protestants as a 'Popish' language designed to keep ordinary people in ignorance. Another cause of defeating Latin was the development of national feeling, instead of the medieval conviction that every human being was a part of Christendom. The last but not least factor in favour of English was the rise of social and occupational groups which had little or no knowledge of Latin and were not willing to study it; such people wanted to read books in English. On the other hand, there were some social groups that fought hard for retention of Latin, for their

professional monopoly depended on it (e.g. physicians). When English established its supremacy over Latin, surprisingly, it was at the same time more under its influence than at any time in its history. The Renaissance was the period of the classics rediscovery in Europe, and thus we can see the constant influence of Latin literature, Latin rhetorical theories, and the Latin language itself (Algeo, 2010, p. 143).

This Latin influence on English resulted in the introduction of a great number of Latin loan-words. As we have already mentioned, the influx of French loans the Norman Conquest made English quite hospitable for words borrowed from abroad. The peak period in the process of borrowing words from Latin was between 1580 and 1660. The Latin loans tended to be learned words, i.e. words dealing with science, mathematics or law; only a small number of them belonged to the general vocabulary. Many of the loans have come into English via French, and that is why they are sometimes slightly reshaped according to the French usage. The influx of Latin words also caused that the existing words of the Norman-French or of Latin origin had to be reshaped in accordance to their real or supposed etymology, e.g. the *b* was inserted into the word *dette* through the influence of Latin *debitum* resulting in the current form *debt* (Barber, 1993, p. 177).

Based on Roger & Fischer (1999, p. 163) although Latin was the major source of loan-words in the period, it was not the only one. A number of words were borrowed from French, Italian, and Spanish. (We

shall speak about the French loans in the next chapter.) The latter two included expressions dealing with commerce, warfare, clothes or the arts. Since the early exploration of America was largely carried out by the Spaniards and the Portuguese, many words for typically American things came into English via the two languages, e.g. *cannibal*, *potato*, *flamingo*, and *mosquito*. As England had had close commercial contacts with the Netherlands, a number of words dealing with seafaring and trade came into English from Dutch, e.g. *deck*, *dock*, *yacht*, or *brandy*.

Nevertheless, the borrowing was not the only method of the vocabulary expansion during the period. Words continued to be created from existing English material by traditional methods of word-formation, especially affixation, compounding, and conversion. The words formed by these methods tend to be more ordinary words, often dealing with everyday or practical affairs, while the Latin ones, by contrast, are more formal, scientific, and literary.

As for the grammar, the period's main change is the introduction of the widespread use of the dummy auxiliary *do*, as well as the invention of the pronoun-determiner *its*. In the pronunciation, great changes took place in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. The biggest changes occurred in the vowel-system, the main series of them being often called the Great Vowel Shift; however, the pronunciation of some consonant was changed, too. The most important writers of the Early Modern English period were Shakespeare, More, Milton, and Bacon (McArthur & Tom, 1998, p. 98).

## 6. Later Modern period, English in The Scientific Age

The massive introduction of printing in this period was a powerful tool to standardize the orthography. The spelling-system that was established at the end of Early Modern English period was an archaic one, not reflecting the changes in the pronunciation due to the Great Vowel Shift. That is why one can find many oddities in the present-day English spelling. In the second half of the eighteenth century we can find the most intense attempts to regulate the language, eventually by means of foundation of the *English Academy*. The idea to establish the Academy came to nothing, but this period saw the publication of the first grammar and dictionaries of English that were, regardless of the intentions of their authors, largely accepted as models of the correct usage (Barber, 1993, p. 201).

In the seventeenth century, the scientific outlook triumphed in England, and the sciences had a great influence on the language and the manner it was used in the past three centuries (Gelderen, 2006, p. 203). The increase of scientific writing helped to establish a simple referential kind of prose, as the other styles (i.e. rhetorical or poetical) ceased to be the norm. The influence of science on the language provoked the expansion of the scientific vocabulary, for the scientists needed technical terms for an enormous number of things. The present-day technical vocabulary of the natural sciences is now estimated to comprise several millions of items. To create this enormous vocabulary, the scientists relied

on various sources. Firstly, they used native every-day words to which they gave different scientific meanings, e.g. *salt*, *pollen*, *current*, or *force*. Secondly, they took over words from other languages, especially Latin and Greek, e.g. *abdomen*, *saliva*, *ion*, *iris*, or *thorax*. Thirdly, they invented new words using Greek and Latin material, sometimes mixed together; this was the most common way. The words having entered the English vocabulary in such a way include *anode*, *electron*, *zoology*, *atmosphere*, or *haemoglobin*. This expansion of the scientific vocabulary during the past three centuries has gone on at an ever-increasing pace. Although the majority of these words are known only by the scientists, some of them have also entered the language of non-specialists (Algeo, 2010, p. 185).

The expansion of the vocabulary was not, however, limited only to the domain of science. Compared to the Middle English and Early Modern English periods, the number of words borrowed was not too high. Thanks to the growth of the world trade, and Britain's large part in it, English borrowed words from many distant countries, e.g. Australia, Malaysia, China, Polynesia, or India. Nearer Britain, some words were also borrowed from French, Dutch, Italian, German or Russian. The main ways of expanding the general vocabulary in the period were, however, affixation, compounding, and conversion. Moreover, there were also some other minor ways of acquiring new words, such as shortening, blending, back-formation, and borrowing from regional dialects or from the language of specialized groups (internal loans). As a result of the lexical



growth, the total number of English words is enormous, running to several millions (Barber, 1993, p. 219).

## 7. Present-Day English

Today, the English language has become one of the major world-languages. The main causes of that fact are: the population expansion after the Industrial Revolution, the progressive penetration of English into the no-English-speaking rest of the British Isles, and especially its wide diffusion outside the United Kingdom, to all continents of the world, by trade, colonization, and conquest. It is perhaps above all the great growth of population in the United States, assisted by massive immigration in the nineteenth and the twentieth century, giving the English language its current majoring position in the world. This world-wide expansion of English means that it is now one of the most widely spoken languages in the world, with over four hundred million native speakers, and with roughly the same number of those who speak it as a second language. The way of its spread, however, also means that there are now many varieties of English. In the countries where the English-speaking settlers outnumbered the original inhabitants, dominated them politically and economically, the native languages had hardly any influence on the language of the settlers. That is why the English of the ancient 'White Commonwealth' and of the United States has remained relatively close to the standard British English. Elsewhere, the linguistic situation can be extremely different. The various forms of English when used as a second

language differ in a number of ways (phonology, grammar, vocabulary) from standard British or American English, often because of the influence of the speakers' first language (Gelderen, 2006, p. 210).

## **B. Vocabulary Expansion, The Role of Borrowing**

As the community of speaker changes, there is a constant demand for new words, in order to express new concepts or new attitudes, to denote new objects or new institutions. In the recent centuries the society has become increasingly complex along with its vocabulary needs. It can be suggested that the vocabulary expansion is a never-ending process, as all aspects of human life constitute a bottomless well to the new words' creation.

### 1. The principal means of the vocabulary enrichment

There are several ways to enlarge the number of the existing words in order to describe a new reality: First, new words can be added. Secondly, the meaning of the already existing ones can be changed. And thirdly, new words can enter a language through the operation of word formation rules.

#### a. Creating new words (Neologisms)

Speakers continually create new words using the processes listed below. Under the right conditions these can be adopted by a larger linguistic community and become part of the language.

- 1) ***Coining words***, i.e. inventing entirely new, previously non-existent words, e.g. *geek*, and *dweeb*.

- 2) **Acronyms**, the words of which each letter spelling them is the first letter (or letters) of some other complete word, e.g. *laser*, and *radar*.
- 3) **Alphabetic abbreviations** are common mostly among American English speakers. These one-time abbreviations entirely replace longer words in everyday speech, e.g. *PC* used for *personal computer*.
- 4) **Clippings**, the words of which the spelling has been shortened without having altered their pronunciation, e.g. *fax* for *facsimile*.
- 5) **Blends**, the words formed from parts of existing ones, e.g. *motel* has been blended from *motor hotel*.
- 6) **Generified words**, i.e. specific brand names of companies used as names for the products in general, e.g. *kleenex*, *xerox*.
- 7) **Proper nouns**. Sometimes, a trait, quality, act, or some behaviour associated with a person becomes identified with that person's name, e.g. *guillotine* is an execution instrument named after its inventor Dr. Guillotin.
- 8) **Direct** and **indirect borrowings**. This specific way of vocabulary expansion.

b. Changing the meaning of words

There are numerous ways how a new meaning can be associated with an existing word: the change of the grammatical category of the word, the extension of the vocabulary of one domain into a new one, the broadening and the narrowing of a word's meaning, the semantic drift, and the semantic reversal.

c. Derivational morphology

New vocabulary can be also added by following the word formation rules that incorporate specific derivational processes. English uses dozens of them, but the most common are compounding, backformation, and suffixation (Akmajian, Demers, Farmer, & Harnish, 2001, pp. 23-42).

### C. Borrowing

In the present study, we would like to concentrate more on the process of borrowing, adopting foreign words into the native vocabulary. *Borrowings*, or *loan-words*, are defined as words which originated in one language or in a dialect, but which have come into use in another language, even by people who do not speak the lending language. These borrowings are very often assimilated to the phonological and the morphological structure of the new host language (Radford, Atkinson, Britain, Clahsen, & Spencer, 1999, p. 256).

When borrowing new words, there are several options. The first one is to borrow a word from the native language itself. It means borrowing the expression that is not currently used in everyday speech, being either the archaic one, which is no longer used, or the regional one, that is not understood in the major part of the territory. In this case, the word can be given a new meaning, or the original meaning can be preserved. The words obtained by this process are called *internal-loans*.

The second and the more common way is to borrow a word from a

foreign language. According to Aitchison, the borrowing process has following features: Foreign elements do not infiltrate another language haphazardly. Individual words are taken over easily and frequently, since incorporating them does not involve any structural alternation in the borrowing language, whereas adopted items tend to be changed to fit in with the structure of the borrower's language. When the elements, which are less easily detachable from the donor language, are taken over, they tend to be ones which already exist in embryo in the language in question, or which can be accepted into the language with only minimal adjustment to the existing structure. Once one feature has been brought in, it prepares the language for the next, and so on. Overall, borrowing does not suddenly disrupt the basic structure of a language. Foreign elements make use of existing tendencies, and commonly accelerate changes which are already under way (Aitchison, 2001, pp. 142-145). The words resulting from this process are called *direct borrowings*, whereas we can also find *indirect borrowings*, or *calques*. The latter ones are an interesting type of borrowings that occurs when an expression in one language is translated literally into another language, e.g. *superman* from German *Übermensch* (Akmajian et al, 2001, p. 28).

There are two main reasons for borrowing new words from foreign languages. The first one, and the most obvious one, is sheer necessity, for people always need to develop words for new and unfamiliar concepts, such as new technologies, ideas and things, new plants and animals, or

new social reality. Often, foreign languages are already familiar with these new concepts, having already created suitable expressions to denote them, or they can offer a linguistic basis to create names for the concepts in question. The second reason is prestige. If certain cultures are associated with particular 'prestigious' activities, it is common for the words associated with that activity to come from the language of that culture. If some culture, itself, is regarded as 'prestigious', the vocabulary of the language spoken by that culture is borrowed for the simple reason of its origin (Radford et al, 1999, p. 255).

In Rudling's book (2012, p. 18) More than 60% of English words have silent letters in them, which can cause all sorts of problems spelling the word, pronouncing the word or looking for the word in a dictionary. One of the most useful strategies to improve spelling is knowing why spelling is the way it is, so knowing why we have so many words with silent letters in them will not only help your spelling, reading, and pronunciation, but stop you getting frustrated with spelling, especially if your language doesn't have silent letters.

English and spelling developed from the languages of the invaders that settled in England. Each time the country was invaded so too was English and spelling (Rudling, 2012, pp. 12-43).

1. 43 AD - the Romans from Italy (spoke Latin)
2. 410 AD - the Angles, Saxons, Jutes from Germany and Holland (spoke Dutch/Germanic)

3. 793 AD - the Vikings from Denmark and Norway (spoke Old Norse)
4. 1066 - the French (spoke Norman French).

a) **In 43AD The Romans**

The Roman invaded and colonized Britain. They spoke Latin. We still use some Roman Latin words likes *Scissors, salmon, debt, receipt, plumber* - they all contain silent letters which used to be pronounced, but are left in the word to show the history of the word and their Latin roots.

b) **410 AD, The Anglo-Saxons**

Romans withdrew from Britain because they needed to defend Rome and Italy from invaders. The Anglo-Saxons invaded from Germany & Holland. These Saxons, Angles and Jutes spoke a number of Germanic languages (west Germanic and Dutch) that eventually became Anglo-Saxon.

The 100 most common words in present day English are from Anglo-Saxon, including everyday words: *earth, house, food, sing, night, daughter, women, light, cough, sleep*. A lot of these old words have silent letters in them, especially the difficult -gh- pattern. *daughter* (dohtor), *night* (niht), *light* (liht), *bright* (beorht), *dough* (dag), *rough* (ruh).

The 'h' in the original spelling was a hard throaty sound like the Scottish sound in *loch*. Then around the 13th century 'g' was added to 'h' becoming 'gh' because of French influence to try to spell this throaty sound. Then in about the 17th century the 'gh' sound was either dropped

or became the 'f' sound: *enough, cough, though, through, plough, rough, borough, slaughter, laugh*.

*Enough, cough, rough, roughly, tough, toughen, laugh, laughter* - have the "f" sound because they were originally pronounced "f" in some regions of England.

#### c) **793AD, The Vikings**

The Vikings from Denmark and Norway with their Old Norse language invaded. After fighting the Anglo-Saxons they settled down together and gave English loads of words including the silent letter words: *knife, knock, knee, know, gnat, gnaw, gnash, gnarl*.

The silent 'k' and 'g' used to be pronounced, but we leave the letters in there to show the origin and history of the word. The Anglo-Saxon and Viking languages became Old English. Old English Letter Patterns Many modern English letter patterns with silent letters in them come from Old English: *igh, gh, wh, lk, wr*. According to spelling expert Johanna Stirling: If you learn these you'll be less likely to write -hg instead of -gh and you'll know why there are silent k and g in *knee, knock, gnaw* and *gnome*.

#### d) **1066, The French**

The Normans from Normandy, Northern France invaded. The Normans (the French) settled in Britain over the next three centuries. French and Latin became the language of the nobility (the kings, queens, lords, barons), as well as the language of law and government. But only 2% of the population spoke French. There was no bilingualism. French



and Latin became the language of the nobility (the kings, queens, lords, barons) and anyone wanting upward mobility. French was the language of law, government, fashion, education and literature. English was the ‘everyday, street’ language of the lower classes and peasants, and stopped being a written language. The surfs/peasants were the English-speaking Saxons and their movements were restricted. They were oppressed by the Norman landowners. A feudal system came into being. Thousands of French words became English: *crown, castle, parliament, army, mansion, romance, chess, colour/color, servant, peasant, traitor, governor.* and spelled the French way but spoken the English way.

#### e) **The Letter Q**

The French replaced several Old English spellings including, *cw* to *qu*. In Anglo-Saxon/Old English the sound ‘*qu*’ as in ‘*queen*’ was spelt ‘*cw*’ – *cwene, cwen* Say these words: *cwic, cwifer, becweth, cwell.* ‘*qu*’ had the same sound as *cw*. (Some say it was a pointless change!) *cwen or cwene "queen, cwic " quick, cwifer " quiver, becweth " bequeath, cwell" quell* But many *qu* words are originally French – *quality, question, tranquil, queasy.* French included many words where the sound ‘*k*’ was represented by ‘*qu*’ – as in *quay* and *picturesque*.

#### f) **The Letter G**

The French put a silent ‘*u*’ in words like *guess* because in French *g* followed by ‘*e*’ would sound like ‘*j*’. So ‘*gu*’ made it a /*k*/ sound: *guide, guess, guilty, guard, dialogue. Gest* (Old English) – *guest, tunge* (Old

English) – *tongue, vage* (Old English) – *vague, voge* (Old English) – *vogue*.

#### g) **The Letter H**

By the 18th century ‘h’ began to be pronounced in some words but not others. Words that still have a silent ‘h’ is of French origin: *heir, honest, honour, hour, herb* (in American and some British accents) This is useful to know because when you write the article ‘a’ or ‘an’ we add "an" for silent ‘h’ for voiced 'h' we have: a *historical* event, an *honest* mistake, in an *hour's* time.

#### h) **The Great Vowel Shift**

Unfortunately, printing and dictionaries were published during a period known as the Great Vowel Shift. Between 1450 and 1750 many vowel and consonant sounds changed or disappeared. No one seems to know why this happened. A lot of letters became silent but the spellings were already fixed. The ‘l’ in should and would used to be said. Then people eventually stopped saying it. But an ‘l’ was added to coude (could), although it didn’t have one before, so it matched would and should.

1. The ‘l’ in words like *half* and *calf* became silent.
2. The final ‘n’ in *damn, hymn, autumn* became silent.
3. The ‘gh’ guttural sound in *right, light, cough* changed to f or became silent.
4. The ‘w’ in ‘wr’- words *write, wrist, wrath, wreak...* became silent.
5. The ‘g’ and ‘k’ in *knee, know, gnat* became silent.

The pronunciation of 'e' at the end of some words like *name*, *stone*, *fine* stopped and became silent. 'Name' used to be pronounced as two syllables to rhyme with farmer. *Life* used to be pronounced like *leaf*. *Police* and *polite* don't have the same 'i' sound because polite is an old word and its 'i' sound changed in the Vowel Shift. But *police* is a new word so never changed sounds.

i) **The Modern Pronunciation of Latin**

The manner in which speakers of English pronounce medical terms and other words borrowed from classical Greek and Latin is neither fully standardized nor internally consistent. Moreover, it is at best a rough approximation to the way in which those words were said in classical times. At least three distinct systems of pronunciation have been used in teaching Latin in Great Britain and the United States during the past century. None of them is believed to match the classical sounds exactly. Modern usage is a hodge-podge of contributions from all three systems, and in addition British and American usage differ on many points.

Many medical terms, while retaining their classical spelling, are pronounced in part as if they were English. Thus, although the final e of a Greek noun is usually pronounced, as in syncope and systole, it is sometimes silenced, as in hydrocele and syndrome. The Latin vowel sequence ie is often pronounced as a diphthong, as in English brief: caries, scabies. The following remarks are intended as general guidelines to

current usage. They should not be taken as fixed principles of universal acceptance (Dirckx, 1992, p. 9).

The consonant sounds represented by the letters b, d, f, h, j, k, l, m, n, p, q, r, v, x, and z are pronounced as in English. Initial x is pronounced like z (as in xylophone). In the romanized spelling of Greek words, the diphthong *ch*, representing the Greek letter X (chi), is pronounced like k; *ph*, representing O (phi), is pronounced like *f* and *th*, representing O (theta), is pronounced as in thing.

The consonant sounds represented by the letters c, g, n, s, and t vary, as the following examples show.

1. c before a, o, u, or another consonant is pronounced like k: calculus, sacrum
2. c before ae, e, i, oe, or y is pronounced like s: africae, acinus, pancytopenia
3. c + e or i before another vowel is pronounced as in ocean, facial: rosacea [ro-sa'sha], Providencia [pro-vi-den'sha]
4. cc before e, i, or y is pronounced like x (ks): coccygeus, succedaneum
5. g before a, o, u, or another consonant is pronounced as in go: galea, gumma
6. g before ae, e, i, oe, or y is pronounced like j: agenesis, gyrus
7. n before ch, k, hard c, or hard g is pronounced like ng: syncope, meningocele
8. n before j, soft c, or soft g is pronounced n: conjugata, lymphangitis

9. s is generally pronounced as in sister and joyous, but: s following e at the end of a word is pronounced like z: ascites, varices
10. s + i before another vowel may be pronounced as in leisure: atresia [a-tre'zha]
11. sc + e or i before another vowel is pronounced sh: fascia [fash'a]
12. t is generally pronounced as in take and late, but: t + i before another vowel may be pronounced as in nation: abruptio [ab-rup'sho], syncytium [sin-sish'um]

Based on Frede & Nielsen (1989, p. 163) in words of Greek origin, p is silent (not pronounced) when it stands immediately before n, s, or t (th) at the beginning of a word: pneusis [noo'sis], psoas [so'as], ptosis [to'sis]. When the combination *pn*, *ps*, or *pt* occurs within a word, the p is usually pronounced, as in apnea, hemoptysis. When *cn*, *ct*, or *gn* stands at the beginning of a word, the first consonant in the pair is silent: cnidocyst [nido-sist], Ctenocephalides [teno-se-fali-dez], gnathoschisis [a-tho-ski-sis]. When these combinations occur within a word, both consonants are usually pronounced, as in anticnemion, polyctenid, and prognathism.

The greatest inconsistency in the modern pronunciation of classical words appears in the sounds given to vowels and diphthongs. Accordingly the following should be taken as only a general description of current usage. For each vowel, a long and a short pronunciation are distinguished, as follows.

1. a — long as in baby, short as in hand e — long as in be, short as in bed  
i — long as in lie, short as in lip o — long as in go, short as in got
2. u — long as in juvenile (oo) or cube (yoo), short as in gum y — long as in fly, short as in gym The choice of vowel length depends on complex patterns of usage, which are somewhat inadequately represented by the rules usually quoted:

- A word has as many syllables as it has vowel and diphthongs.
- A single consonant standing between two vowels is pronounced with the following vowel (a\*la na\*si).
- Of two or more consonants standing between vowels, as many are joined with the following vowel as can be pronounced with it (en\*do\*me\*tri\*um, phihtrum).
- The vowel of an open syllable (one not ending in a consonant) is long.
- The vowel of a closed syllable (one ending in a consonant) is short.

*Important exceptions to these rules are as follows:*

- Final a (and often unstressed a within a word) is given a neutral \*uh sound, as in lig\*a\*men\*tum, ve\*na.
- Before another vowel, unstressed i is often pronounced e: brachium [bra'ke-um].
- Double consonants are separated (la\*mel\*la).
- Compound words are often divided according to semantic rather than phonetic components: hy\*per\*a\*cu\*sis, path\*o\*gen\*e\*sis.
- A vowel in a stressed syllable often attracts to itself a following single

consonant: thalwmus, tib\*i\*a (Dirckx, 1992, p. 10).

#### **D. Languages That Enriched The English Vocabulary**

It is often suggested that the lexicon of the English language is the largest in the world. However, it is practically impossible to either approve or disapprove this statement, for we encounter many obstacles when trying to count the total of English words. It is hard to decide what counts as a word, as well as to decide what counts as an 'English' word.

Regardless of all these difficulties, it seems probable that English has more words than any other comparable world languages. The reason for this is historical. English was originally a Germanic language, related to Dutch and German, and so it shares much of their grammar and basic vocabulary.

Nevertheless, after the Norman Conquest it was hugely influenced by Norman French, which became the language of the ruling class for a considerable period, and by Latin, which was the language of scholarship and of the Church. Very large numbers of French and Latin words entered the language. Consequently, English has much a larger vocabulary than any other of the Germanic languages or the members of the Romance language family.

English is traditionally quite well-disposed to accommodate foreign words, and as it has become an international language spoken by people of many cultures and a number of mother tongues, it has absorbed vocabulary from a large quantity of other sources. Nevertheless, it is very

hard to estimate, what is the exact proportion of English words borrowed from each particular language, as well as what is the exact number of the languages that have somehow contributed to the English lexicon during its long history (Minkova & Stockwell, 2001, p. 52).

More light on this question might be shed by a modern, computerized survey. The origins of roughly 80,000 English words were examined by Thomas Finkenstaedt and Dieter Wolff, who published the results of their study in *Ordered Profusion* in 1973. The proportions they reckoned are as follows:

1. French, including Old French and early Anglo-French: 28.3%
2. Latin, including both classical and modern scientific and technical Latin: 28.24%
3. Old and Middle English, Old Norse, and Dutch: 25%
4. Classical Greek: 5.32%
5. Words with no etymology given: 4.03% Words derived from proper names: 3.28% All other languages: less than 1%

The above data are for better evidence visualized in a Figure 2.1 you can see in the next page.



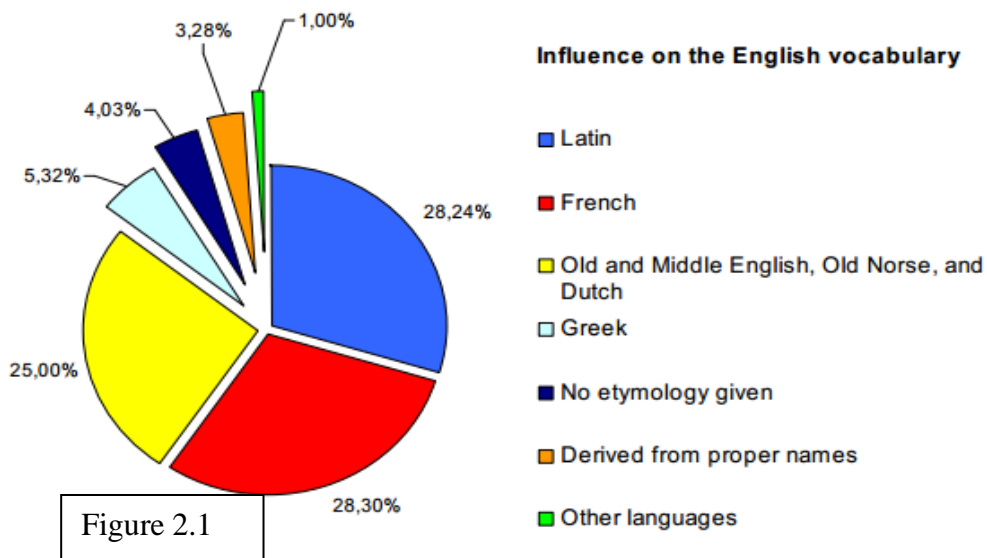


Figure 2.1

The Figure 2.2 below shows the timeline of the English language history. You can easily see what languages contributed to the English vocabulary, as well as the approximate time period when the words started to be adopted from a language (Short & Daniel, 2015)

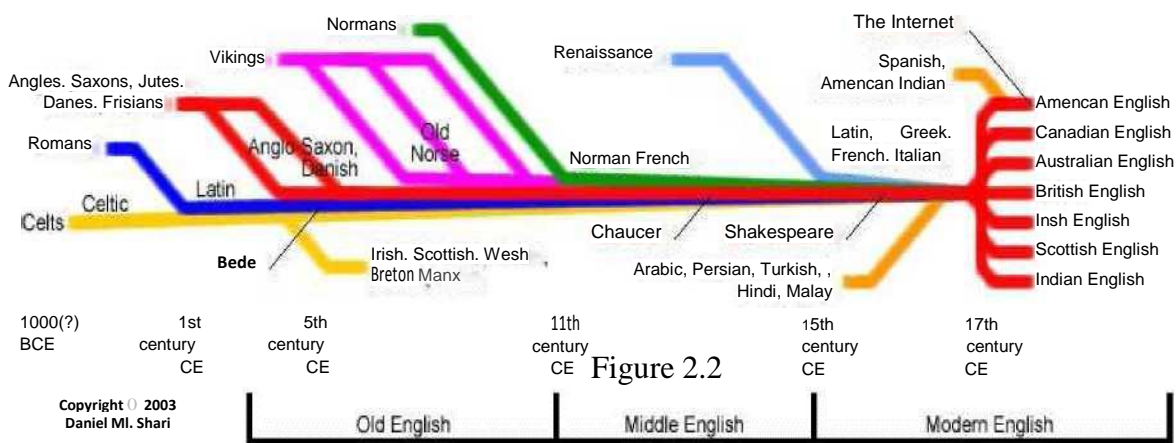


Figure 2.2

**E. Definition of Error**

Dulay et al (1982, p.189) said error is any deviation from a selected norm of language performance, no matter what the characteristics of causes of

the deviation might be. Error deals with producing or making inappropriate words, phrases, or sentences of the learner's speech or writing. The process of language learning involves the making of errors. Errors are the flawed side of learners' speech or writing (1982, p. 138). The learners tend to produce inappropriate sentences. This phenomenon is actually something which is normal that anyone cannot learn language without first systematically committing errors. Therefore, it is possible that every student ever make errors in pronunciation when they learn about the English language.

According to Brown (1994, p. 259) 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, lead to a surge of study of learner's errors, called error analysis.

The students commonly pronounce English incorrectly, because English is not their native language. The study of error is part of investigation of the process of language learning. It provides us the picture of linguistic development of a learner and may give us indication to learning strategies.

Richards proposes a three-way classification of errors, namely interference, intra-lingual, and developmental errors. Furthermore, he describes that the interference are those caused by the influence of the learner's mother tongue on his production of the target language in presumably those areas where the language clearly differ. The intra-lingual errors are those originating within the structure of English itself. The developmental errors reflect the strategies by which the learner acquires the language (Richards, 1973, p. 157).

The important role in the class to minimize the errors of pronunciation is the English teacher. The teacher should always remind the students when they make errors in pronouncing English words. The teacher can ask the students to look to the dictionary to know what the correct pronunciation is.

The role of teachers is to help learners perceive sounds. Correcting the error in the class is much needed, because if the teacher does not show the students the right pronunciation, it can become their habit. Some teachers correct the pronunciation directly, and sometimes give feedback in the last material. There is some teachers' role that should be done when correcting pronunciation error, those are: (Kenworthy, 1987, pp. 1-2)

1. Providing feedback

In order to make students know about the error they made, the teacher should give the students feedback from the error in the learning process.

The teacher should tell them the information from their performance.

2. Helping learners make sounds

Some sounds do not occur in other languages, so the teacher can show the students the right sound first. Sometimes, the students can imitate a new sound, but if they can't, the teacher needs to show them how to sound it.

3. Pointing out what's going on

Students need to know what to pay attention and work on. Because reading or speaking are the most unconsciously controlled, students may make the error in the important things. For example, when they make conversation, they pronounce incorrectly in some words, so the teacher

should point the error and make the students aware of the potential of pronunciation.

An important consideration is the aim of the activity. There are sometimes when the teacher corrects the students based on the fluency and accuracy. The distinction between accuracy and fluency is important. To correct the accuracy, the teacher can immediately corrects the students, because it will be useful for students. While to correct fluency, immediate correction that diverts from the flow of speaking is less appropriate. We either need to correct briefly and unobtrusively as we go or save any correction for after the activity has finished or later. One strategy used by many teachers during fluency activities is listening to directly and collecting a list of overheard error (Scrivener, 2007, p. 299).

## **F. Pronunciation**

According to Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary (2005), pronunciation is defined as the way in which a language is spoken. It means by pronouncing some words we can make communication with another person around our environment, because pronunciation is the way of the language is spoken. Pronunciation is the production of significant sound used by a particular language as part of the code of the language, and used to achieve meaning in context (Dalton & Seidlhofer, 1994, p. 3). Pronunciation is the speech production of word that makes a meaning. Pronunciation is probably one of the hardest in English to learn it, because learning

pronunciation takes a lot of time and effort to improve understanding how to pronounce correctly.

In speaking English, the communication between the speaker and the listener has mutual relationship, so it affects each other. It means that in order that the listener can comprehend the meaning of what is said, the speaker has to speak clearly. Speaking clear involves clear pronunciation. For this reason, pronunciation is one of the important aspects of language to be learned. If the students speak with incorrect pronunciation, it can make misunderstanding in meaning.

In learning English pronunciation, there might be some aspects that make the learner of foreign language make an error. The effect is not only because English is not their native language but also because of some factors. In book Kenworthy (1987, p. 4), it is mentioned six main factors affecting pronunciation learning are:

1. The native language

The first factor is because English is not their native language. So, it is possible that students cannot learn English well. Students might be difficult to pronounce English words because it is different from their native language.

2. The age factors

Adults may not be able to master pronunciation well, because they have some problems that might affect them in learning pronunciation. It is different from children, they have some effort to master English

pronunciation, and they have a lot of time to learn it. Generally, the adults have not enough time to study foreign language and they have developed a strong sense of the sound system of their first language.

### 3. Amount of exposure

Another factor is amount of exposure to English the learners receive. It is tempting to view this simply as matter of whether the learners are living in the English speaking country or not. Many people live in the English speaking country but they do not use English language for the communication. In other hand, many people do not live in the English speaking country but they speak and learn English as well. It seems that amount of exposure though clearly a contributory factor, is not a necessary factor for development of pronunciation ability.

### 4. Phonetic ability

Most of the students make errors in the phonetic ability, because there is no special lesson learning about how to pronounce as well. The ability among the students is different. Some students have a better ear for foreign language than the other. In English there are much phonetic ability that might lead them to make an error, such as the intonation, the sounds of the phone, stress, and the other factors.

### 5. Attitude and Identity

The attitude and identity sometimes lead learners to consciously or unconsciously resist making changes to their pronunciation because their accent is an important way of signaling their social and ethnic identity.

They may use various markers of their ethnicity in their spoken English quite unconsciously. Building sensitivity to the fact that we all speak in different ways to different interlocutors may help learners become more comfortable with the idea that they can change their accent in different situations.

#### 6. Motivation and Concern for good pronunciation

The learners generally less motivated to learn English pronunciation correctly. The learners sometimes are lazy in learning pronunciation. Native language also gives affect the motivation of students to pronounce English well. Pronunciation has two main features; there are segmental and super segmental features (Roach, 2000, p. 2). Segmental feature includes phoneme that consist of vowel and consonant. And super segmental includes stressing and intonation.

Based on Algeo (2010, p. 86) Our knowledge of the pronunciation of Old English can be only approximate. The precise quality of any older speech sound from the era before sound recordings cannot be determined with absolute certainty. Moreover, in Old English times, as today, there were regional and individual differences, and doubtless social differences as well. At no time do all members of any linguistic community, especially an entire nation, speak exactly alike. Whatever were its variations, however, Old English differed in some striking ways from our English, and those ways are noted below.

a. Vowels

One striking difference between the Anglo-Saxons' pronunciation and ours is that vowel length was a significant distinction in Old English. Corresponding long and short vowels probably differed also in quality, but the length of time it took to say them seems to have been of primary importance. We conventionally mark the spellings of Old English long vowels with a macron and leave short vowels unmarked, thus: *god* 'good' versus *god* 'god.' In phonetic transcriptions, different vowel symbols will be used where we believe different qualities occurred, but vowel length will be indicated by a colon, thus for the same two words: [go:d] versus [gndj].

The vowel letters in Old English were *a*, *x*, *e*, *i*, *o*, *u*, and *y*. They represented either long or short sounds, though sometimes scribes wrote a slanting line above long vowels, particularly where confusion was likely, for example, *god* for [go:d] 'good,' but that practice was not consistent. The five vowel letters *a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, and *u* represented what are sometimes referred to as "Continental" values—approximately those of Italian, Spanish, German, and to some extent of French as well. The letter *x* represented the same sound for which we use it in phonetic transcriptions: [x]. The letter *y*, used exclusively as a vowel symbol in Old English, usually indicated a rounded front vowel, long as in German *Buhne*, short as in *funf*. This sound, which has not survived in Modern English, was made with the tongue position of [i] (long) or [i] (short) but with the lips rounded as for [u] or [u] respectively. The sounds are represented phonetically as [u:] and [u].



Late West Saxon had two long diphthongs, *ea* and *eo*, the first elements of which were respectively [x:] and [e:]. The second elements of both, once differentiated, had been reduced to unstressed [a]. In the course of the eleventh century the [a] was lost; consequently these long diphthongs became monophthongs that continued to be differentiated, at least in the standard pronunciation, until well into the Modern English period but ultimately fell together as [i:], as in *beat* from Old English *beatan* and *creep* from *creopan*.

Short [ea] and [eo] in such words as *eall* ‘all,’ *geard* ‘yard,’ *seah* ‘saw’ and *eoh* ‘horse,’ *meolc* ‘milk,’ *weorc* ‘work’ indicated short diphthongs of similar quality to the identically written long ones, approximately [xa] and [ea]. In early Old English, there were other diphthongs written *ie* and *io*, but they had disappeared by the time of classical Old English, being replaced usually by *y* and *eo*, respectively.

#### b. Consonant

The consonant letters in Old English were *b, c, d, f, g, h, k, l, m, n, p, r, s, t,* or *d, w, x,* and *z*. (The letters *j, q,* and *v* were not used for writing Old English, and *y* was always a vowel.) The symbols *b, d, k* (rarely used), *l, m, n, p, t, w* (which had a much different shape, namely, *p*), and *x* had the values these letters typically represent in Modern English (2010, p. 87).

The sound represented by *c* depended on contiguous sounds. Before another consonant, *c* was always [k], as in *cnawan* ‘to know,’ *crxt* ‘cart,’ and *cwellan* ‘to kill.’ If *c* was next to a back vowel, it was also [k], as in *camp*

‘battle,’ *corn* ‘corn,’ *cud* ‘known,’ *lucan* ‘to lock,’ *acan* ‘to ache,’ *boc* ‘book.’ If it was next to a front vowel (or one that had been front in early Old English), the sound indicated was [c], as in *cild* ‘child,’ *ceosan* ‘to choose,’ *ic* ‘I,’ *lxce* ‘physician,’ *rice* ‘kingdom,’ *mece* ‘sword.’

To be sure of the pronunciation of Old English *c*, it is often necessary to know the history of the word in which it appears. In *cepan* ‘to keep,’ *cynn* ‘race, kin,’ and a number of other words, the first vowels were originally back ones (Germanic *\*kopyan*, *\*kunyo*), so the original [k] did not palatalize into [c], as it did before front vowels. Later, these originally back vowels mutated into front ones under the influence of the following *y*, but that was after the time of the palatalization of [k] to [c].

Mutation is a change in a vowel sound caused by a sound in the following syllable. The mutation of a vowel by a following *i* or *y* (as in the examples above) is called *i*-mutation or *i*-umlaut. In *bec* ‘books’ from prehistoric Old English *boci* and *secan* ‘to seek’ from prehistoric Old English *socyan*, the immediately following *i* and *y* brought about both palatalization of the original [k] (written *c* in Old English) and mutation of the original vowel. Thus, they were pronounced [be:c] and [se:can]. For the latter word, Old English scribes frequently wrote *secean*, the extra *e* functioning merely as a diacritic to indicate that the preceding *c* symbolized [c] rather than [k]. Compare the Italian use of *i* after *c* preceding *a*, *o*, or *u* to indicate precisely the same thing, as in *ciao* ‘goodbye’ and *cioccolata* ‘chocolate’.

In *swylc* ‘such,’ *aslc* ‘each,’ and *hwylc* ‘which,’ an earlier *i* before the

c has been lost; but even without this information, we have a guide in the pronunciation of the modern forms cited as definitions. Similarly we may know from modern *keep* and *kin* that the Old English initial sound was [k]. Unfortunately for easy tests, the mutated plural of *book* has not survived (it would be “beech”). Also the [k] in modern *seek* probably comes from the Old Norse verb, in which palatalization of [k] did not happen; the native English form continues in *besech*.

The Old English digraphs *cg* and *sc* were later replaced by *dg* and *sh*, respectively—spellings that indicate to the modern reader exactly the sounds the older spellings represented, [j] and [s]—for example, *ecg* ‘edge,’ *scir* ‘shire,’ *scacan* ‘to shake,’ and *fisc* ‘fish’. The pronunciation of ‘g’ (usually written with a form like ‘g’) also depended on neighboring sounds. In late Old English the symbol indicated the voiced velar stop [g] before consonants (*gnead* ‘niggardly,’ *glxd* ‘glad, gracious’), initially before back vowels (*galan* ‘to sing,’ *gos* ‘goose,’ *gud* ‘war’), and initially before front vowels that had resulted from the mutation of back vowels (*ges* ‘geese’ from prehistoric Old English *gosi*, *gxst* ‘goest’ from *gais*). In the combination *ng* (as in *bringan* ‘to bring’ and *hring* ‘ring’), the letter *g* indicated the same [g] sound—that of Modern English *linger* as contrasted with *ringer*. Consequently, [q] was not a phoneme in Old English, but merely an allophone of *n*. There were no contrastive pairs like *sin-sing* and *thin-thing*, nor were there to be any until the Modern English loss of [g] in what had previously been a consonant sequence [qg].

The letter *g* indicated the semivowel [y] initially before *e*, *i*, and the vowel *y* that was usual in late West Saxon for earlier *ie* (*gecoren* ‘chosen’, *gear* ‘year’, *giftian* ‘to give a woman in marriage’, *gydd* ‘song’), medially between front vowels (*slxgen* ‘slain,’ *twegen* ‘twain’), and after a front vowel at the end of a syllable (*dxg* ‘day,’ *mxgden* ‘maiden,’ *legde* ‘laid,’ *stigrap* ‘stirrup,’ *manig* ‘many’).

In practically all other circumstances [g] indicated the voiced velar fricative [ɣ] referred as the earliest Germanic development of Indo-European *gh*—a sound difficult for English-speaking people nowadays. It is made like [g] except that the back of the tongue does not quite touch the velum (*dragan* ‘to draw’ *lagu* ‘law’ *hogu* ‘care’ *folgian* ‘to follow’ *sorgian* ‘to sorrow’ *swelgan* ‘to swallow’). It later became [w], as in Middle English *drawen*, *lawe*, *howe*, and so on.

In Old English, [v], [z], and [d] were not phonemes; they occurred only between voiced sounds. There were thus no contrastive pairs like *feel-veal*, *leaf-leave*, *thigh-thy*, *mouth (n.)-mouth (v.)*, *seal-zeal*, *face-phase*, and hence there were no distinctive symbols for the voiceless and voiced sounds. The symbols *f*, *s*, and *fr* (or *d*, the two used more or less interchangeably) thus indicated both the voiceless fricatives [f], [s], [θ] (as in *foda* ‘food’ *lof* ‘praise’, *sunu* ‘son’, *mus* ‘mouse’; *fromn* ‘thorn’, *pxd* ‘path’) and the corresponding voiced fricatives [v], [z], [ð] (between voiced sounds, as in *cnafa* ‘boy,’ *hxfd* ‘had’; *leosn* ‘to lose,’ *husl* ‘Holy Communion’; *brodor* ‘brother’, *fxdm* ‘fathom’).

Some scribes in late Old English times preferred to write *fr* initially and *d* elsewhere, but generally the letters were interchangeable. (Note that, although the Old English letter *d* could represent either the voiceless or voiced fricative, the phonetic symbol [d] represents the voiced sound only).

At the beginning of words, [r] may have been a trill, but after vowels in West Saxon it was probably similar to the so-called retroflex r that is usual in American English. Initial *h* was about as in Modern English, but elsewhere *h* stood for the velar fricative [x] or the palatal fricative [<j], depending on the neighboring vowel. Thus *h* was [x] after back vowels in *seah* ‘saw,’ *frurh* ‘through,’ and *frohte* ‘thought’ (verb), but was [<j] after front vowels in *syhd* ‘sees,’ *miht* ‘might,’ and *fehd* ‘takes.’ Of the sequences *hl* (*hlaf* ‘loaf’), *hn* (*hnitu* ‘nit’), *hr* (*hrxfn* ‘raven’), and *hw* (*hwxl* ‘whale’), only the last survives, now less accurately spelled *wh*, and even in that combination, the [h] has been lost in the pronunciation of many present-day English speakers. In Old English, both consonants were pronounced in all these combinations. The letter *z* was rare but when used, it had the value [ts], as indicated by the variant spellings *miltse* and *milze* ‘mercy.’

The doubling of consonant symbols between vowels indicated a double or long consonant; thus the two *t*’s of *sittan* indicated the double or long [t] sound in hot *tamale*, in contrast to the single consonant [t] in Modern English *hotter*. Similarly *ll* in *fyllan* indicated the lengthened medial *l* of *full-length*, in contrast to the single or short *l* of *fully*. The *cc* in *racca* ‘part of a ship’s rigging’ was a long [k], as in *bookkeeper*, in contrast to *beekeeper*, and

hence *racca* was distinguished from *raca* 'rake,' and so on (2010, p. 89).

### **G. Pronunciation Problems**

Willing (cited in Riadi, 2013, p. 2) said, "Mastering the sounds and pronunciation of the target language is a high priority for the speaker of English". One of the reasons is, as suggested by Morley (in Pardede, 2007, p. 4), "Intelligible pronunciation is an essential component of communication competence". Richard (in Yuniarti, 2009, p. 2) stated that pronunciation is the way a certain speech sounds in the mouth, pronunciation stresses more on the way of sounds are produced by the hearer. Pronunciation is important in English because mispronunciations will make hearer misunderstand about the meaning of utterance. Pronunciation is clearly a central factor in people's success in making themselves understood.

Many cases of misunderstanding in communication were caused by mispronouncing of some words or improper intonation of the words. If someone pronounces the words *fit* and *feet*, *cut* and *cot*, *pull* and *pool*, for example, with relatively no differences, in some cases can lead to a misunderstanding. Even when the non-native speakers' vocabulary and grammar are excellent, but their pronunciation is bad, they are unable to communicate efficiently and effectively.

During the process of developing their spoken English, students may find problems in their pronunciation. For example, the problems can be on the differences between the spelling and the pronunciation of the words. One of the problems is when the students want to pronounce English words like

“she” [ʃi:] and “thin” [θɪn], they tend to say [sɪ] and [tɪn]. “A genuine pronunciation problem exists when the learners have difficulties in making the required sounds to imitate” (Yuniarti, 2009, p. 2). Some problems that may appear in pronouncing are like the sound [u] as in “full”, comparing to the sound [ʊ] as in “fool”, or sound [ɪ] as in “hit” and [i:] as in “heat”. It is clear that pronunciation problems faced by foreign language learners are caused by differences found between the learners' language and the target language.

An Indonesian learner may have problem to pronounce English words, although he gets an English subject at his school and he cannot master the English pronunciation well. In school, he learns the English subject for understanding only. So he does not know how to pronounce every English word exactly, whereas he is expected to speak English fluently outside the classroom. In this case, one alternative way to learn English pronunciation is through imitation. Moreover, he can learn the English pronunciation from his teacher, someone else, or ideally from native speakers. He will try to imitate and have more practice to pronounce many foreign sounds correctly as native speakers do. Then, the secret of all language learning is imitation (Crishtopersen, 1965, p. 5). In this case, he should imitate a native speaker as he imitates his mother tongue in order to get better pronunciation. Besides imitation, he can also practice a language by repetition of countless correct words, he can learn how to pronounce words correctly.

As one of language components, pronunciation needs to be known by the students. But, the reality Indonesian learners could not produce English words correctly. They get confused when producing English words. It is because there are differences between Bahasa Indonesia and English. The first is differences in the number of vowel sounds. Bahasa Indonesia have six vowel sounds namely /i/, /u/, /o/, /a/, /e/, and /ə/ while English has twelve vowel sounds; /i:/, /ɪ/, /e/, /æ/, /ʌ/, /ɑ:/, /ɒ/, /ɔ:/, /ʊ/, /u:/, /ɜ:/, and /ə/. The second is English is known as inconsistent language. For example words *good* this word should be pronounced as /gʊd/. Contrary, Bahasa Indonesia is consistent language. The way words were spelling is the way to be pronounced. For example *kemarin* it should be pronounced /kemarin/.

Another reason of the mistake done by the students is due to the slip of the tongue. As the definition from Boomer and Laver (1973, cited in Ska & Dziekonska, 2013, p. 3) a slip of the tongue is “an involuntary deviation in performance from the speaker’s current phonological, grammatical or lexical intention”. The mistake done by the students is unintended pronounce due to the incorrect selection of the words. This case is usually due to the influence of the word which follows the exact word even before or after the word.

## **H. Silent Letters**

Silent letter is a letter that in a particular word does not correspond to any sound in the pronunciation of words. Silent letters create problems for both native and non-native speakers of a language, as they make it more



difficult to guess the spellings of spoken words. Phonetic transcriptions that depict pronunciation and which note changes due to grammar and proximity of other words require a symbol to show that the letter is mute. Many English letters happen to be silent in certain words when they are immediately preceded or followed by another consonant in the same syllable, for example the silence of [n] in *autumn* /'ɔ:təm/ and its pronunciation in *autumnal* /ɔ:'tʌm.nəl/ (Kelly, 2010).

Numerous words in English have silent letters. There are 20 letters from 26 letters in English words that potential to be silent that is (a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, I, k, l, m, n, o, p, r, s, w, x, and z). Silent letters are letters that you cannot hear when you say the word but they are there when you write the word. The letters in English words are not always silent. The silent letters are generally the letters that do not correspond to the other sound in the words. For example, the letter [h] in the words *hour* /'əʊə(r)/ and *high* /hai/ (Hornby, 1995).

It has different pronunciation, the letter [h] in *hour* is silent and in *high* is not silent, and the cause that makes the two words different is the letter that follows them. Another example is the letter [k]. If it stands before [n] in one word must be silent, usually it takes initial letter, e.g. *knife* /naɪf/ and *knock* /nɒk/. Some vowels and consonants are silent if they stand in one syllable that can create them silent. We can analyze them by looking for the phonetic in the dictionaries.

These silent words make the students difficult to pronounce correctly.

To know the correct pronunciation of silent letters, the students have to look at the dictionaries. This will be rather difficult to ask the students if they always look for the transcript in the dictionaries. Teacher should teach them how to pronounce the word correctly, especially the silent letter.

We have to consider the way language users deal with spelling system in different situation, the first when we read and the second when we write. The problems of the reader and the writer are not the same. In English, the reader's problem is actually simpler than the users. For instance, some letters are sometimes silent in a small set of words. In *knowledge*, the letter [k] is not pronounced, in *gnostic* the letter [g] is not pronounced, nor are the [m] or [p] in *mnemonics* and *pneumonia* (Kenworthy, 1987, p. 96). Note that all those silent letters occur before the letter [n], the letter [k] in *knowledge* comes before [n]. All the readers have to remember when they are reading aloud and come across these words are that the letters before [n] is silent.

### **I. Types of Silent Letters**

The letter that is categorized as a silent letter is not only the word that we cannot read, but also some of the words that have different sound. The letter [gh] in word *enough* the pronunciation is not /I'nʌgh/ but /I'nʌf/, the letter [gh] changed into the sound /f/. The researcher categorizes some different letters in the explanation below. Different kinds of silent letters, which present different degrees of difficulty to readers and writers, such as: (Carney, 1994, p. 39).

1. **Auxiliary Letters:** which with another letter constitute digraph, two letters combined which represent a single phoneme. These may further be categorized as:
  - a. **Exocentric digraph:** where the sound of the digraph is different from that of either of its constituent letters. These are rarely considered silent. There are examples:
    - 1) Where standard single-letter representation uses another letter, as with [gh] in *enough* /ɪˈnʌf/ or [ph] in *physical* /ˈfɪzɪkl/ instead of [f]. These are irregular for writers but may be less difficult for readers.
  - b. **Endocentric digraph:** where the sound of the digraph is the same as that of one of its constituent letters. These include:
    - 1) Most double consonants, as [bb] in *clubbed* /klʌbˈbed/ though not geminate consonants, as [ss] in *misspell* /misˈspel/. Doubling due to suffixation or inflection is regular; otherwise it may present difficulty to writers (e.g. *accommodate* /əˈkɒmədeɪt/ is often misspell) but not to readers.
    - 2) Others such as [gu] as in *guard* /gɑːd/, *vogue* /vʊɡ/; [ea] as in *bread* /bred/, *heavy* /ˈhevi /, etc. These are difficult for writers and sometimes for readers.
2. **Dummy Letters:** With no relation to neighbouring letters and no correspondence in pronunciation:
  - a. **Inert letters:** Which are sounded in a cognate word: e.g. [n] in *damn*

/dæm/ (*damnation* /dæm'neɪʃn/); [g] in *phlegm* /flem/ *phlegmatic* /fleg'mætɪk/. (Hornby, 1995, p. 867) if the cognate is obvious, it may aid writers in spelling, but mislead readers in pronunciation

- b. Empty letters: Which never have a sound, e.g. [w] in *answer* /ɑ:nsə(r)/, [h] in *hour* /'əʊə(r)/, [s] in *island* /'aɪlənd/, [b] in *subtle* /'sʌtl/, the [t] in *ballet* /'bæleɪ/ (1995, p 78). These present the greatest difficulty to writers and often to readers.

Some pairs of letters associated with a particular sound, as in the link between [ph] and the sound /f/, as in *photo* /fəʊtəʊ/ and *phone* /fəʊn/. Such letter pairs known as Diagraph (Kelly, 2010, p. 123). In certain cases, a diagraph can have two or three different sound associations, depending on the words in question : [ch] for example, can be pronounced as [tʃ] /chip/ /tʃɪp/, bunch /bʌntʃ/, /k/ (*character* /kærəktə(r)/, *technique* /tek'ni:k/. With vowel diagraph, it is possible to identify primary and secondary values of particular pairings.

## J. Previous Studies

In this part, the writer reviews some previous studies related to the topic in analyzing pronunciation errors of silent letters in English words made by the students.

The first by Wardana (2014) in his research entitled “*Students’ Ability in Pronouncing Voiced and Voiceless consonant*”. The result shows that some students’ difficulties in pronouncing voiced and voiceless consonants for each

type are different. There are 11,37% students' difficulties in pronouncing voiced and voiceless consonants in the begin of the words worth frequency 20 of 15 questions from 38 respondents, 51,13 % students' difficulties in pronouncing voiced and voiceless in the last of the words, with frequency 90 of 15 questions from 38 respondents in pronouncing voiced and voiceless in isolations. Therefore, voiced and voiceless in the last of words is the students' most difficult type in pronouncing voiced and voiceless consonants by the Seventh Semester of English department of IAIN Antasari Banjarmasin

The second by Fitriyah Riski Wahyuni who conducted a research under the title "*Error Analysis of English Students' Pronunciation at SMPN Pamekasan*". This research is aimed to find out what types of errors made by the students on pronouncing English words and to find out the most dominant errors made by the students in pronouncing English words. This research is conducted at SMPN 1 Pamekasan and 52 students are taken as the sample in which it is used random sampling as the technique of sampling. From the research, it can be concluded that the most dominant in making errors is in pronouncing vowel sounds.

The third is by Etik Khusnul Khotimah in her research entitled "*The Correlation between the ability of Phonemic Transcription mastery and the English Pronunciation at PBI, IAIN Sunan Ampel Surabaya, 2012*". In her research, she finds the correlation between pronunciation and phonemic transcription. She finds out that 70% of the students are in the level of average in English pronunciation. It means that the students' mastery of pronunciation

is in average category. While she finds out that 46% of the students are in bad qualification. It means that most of the students are in bad level. Based on the Likert scale, the range of bad level is between the score 21 - 40. It is concluded that there is a correlation between pronunciation and phonetic transcription. It means that the better students master the phonemic transcription, the better they are in English pronunciation.

The last is a research by Akitsugu Nogita entitled "*Do Japanese EFL learners' pronunciation errors come from inability to articulate or misconceptions about target sounds?*" This paper aims to examine whether Japanese English as a Second-Language (ESL) learners' pronunciation errors are due to their inability to articulate, or to misunderstandings of target phonemes and the English phonological system. The result of her experiment, the participants' errors regarding vowels or vowels followed by /i/ were due to misguided intentions 93.9% of the time. Japanese ESL learners' misconceptions are likely due to their often not having been taught the basics of English phonological and orthographical systems.