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terhadap Organisasi dan Keluarga
(Permasalahan dan Solusinya)
Maya Malinda

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Pemertahanan Nilai-nilai Budaya
Lokal sebagai Pemerkukuh
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ERROR RECOGNITION AND SELF MONITORING IN SPEAKING: A COMPARISON OF FIRST AND SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

Henni

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Abstrak

Dalam berbicara, baik dalam bahasa ibu maupun dalam bahasa asing, seseorang akan sering membuat kesalahan. Kesalahan berbicara umumnya mencakup kesalahan dalam pelafalan bunyi bahasa, pemilihan kata dan kesalahan gramatikal. Artikel ini mengupas perbedaan antara kesalahan berbicara dalam bahasa ibu dan dalam bahasa asing. Kesalahan-kesalahan berbicara dalam bahasa ibu bukan disebabkan oleh kurang memadainya kemampuan penutur dalam berbahasa, tetapi karena adanya masalah yang terjadi di otak pada saat proses merangkai ucapan, sejak pembentukan konsep gagasan sampai penyampaian perintah pada alat ucap untuk menghasilkan ujaran. Oleh karena itu, kesalahan berbicara dalam bahasa ibu umumnya disadari oleh penutur dan dapat diperbaiki oleh penutur itu sendiri. Kesalahan jenis ini dapat pula terjadi pada waktu penutur berbicara dalam bahasa asing. Selain itu, penutur bahasa asing dapat melakukan kesalahan jenis lain, umumnya kesalahan gramatikal, akibat kurangnya pengetahuan gramatika bahasa asing yang digunakannya. Bentuk kesalahan seperti ini umumnya tidak disadari oleh penutur bahasa asing dan diperlukan orang lain untuk memberitahunya tentang kesalahan yang terjadi dan membantunya memperbaiki kesalahan tersebut.

Keywords: *error, mistake, first language acquisition, second language acquisition, self monitoring*

Introduction

When people speak, they try to make their spoken message accurately received by their listeners. However, there can be some disturbance in the process of uttering the speech so that errors occur. Lee (1990) explains that for native speakers, errors refer to 'what is known as a 'mistake', or 'a slip of the tongue' in spontaneous speech or writing, attributable to a malfunctioning of the brain' (55). As for people learning a second language, the term 'error' is related not only with such mistake as a slip of the tongue, but also with 'any deviation from the norm in the language system relating to the L2 learner's competence' (Lee 1990 : 56). According to Brown (2000), the sources of errors for a second language learner are interlingual transfer, which is the interference of L1 into the L2; intralingual transfer such as overgeneralization of grammatical rules; context of learning, in which

the teacher or textbook misleads the learners in the process of acquiring the language; and communication strategies, such as leaving a message unfinished or avoidance of speaking because of language difficulties.

According to Field (2003), all speakers 'monitor their own words to make sure they had not made errors' (190). Levelt (1997) proposes a theory on what speakers monitor when they are speaking. The first thing that a speaker monitors when he or she is speaking is the message they want to convey through the speech. Then, the speaker thinks of whether his or her utterance suits the way he or she wants to say it. Next, he or she thinks of whether what he or she is saying is appropriate with the social standards. Afterwards, the speaker monitors the semantic, syntactic, morphological and phonological elements of the utterance. Another thing that a speaker monitors when speaking is the speed, loudness, precision and fluency of his or her articulation, but this is usually not done spontaneously, only in the case when there are hindrances in the circumstance or the listener needs repetition of the utterance.

Based on the fact that there are differences of errors in first and second language production, I am trying to elaborate more on the issue in this paper. Some theories on how people acquire first and second languages are presented in the following. Furthermore, theories on the kinds of errors and how native speakers and second language speakers monitor the errors, together with how they tackle the errors are discussed respectively. Through the paper, I wish that I can enrich the readers' knowledge of error recognition and self monitoring in speaking.

First Language Acquisition and Self Monitoring in Speaking First Language

There are several theories which try to explain how children learn their mother tongue. The first is the behaviorism, which says that children learn their first language through imitation and habit formation. The environment is what matters most for children to be able to imitate and practice the sounds and patterns they hear. Besides, positive reinforcement from the people in the environment is also important in order that the children acquire the language successfully. In response to the behaviorists' view, Chomsky proposes another theory, the Innate Hypothesis. In his opinion, children are biologically programmed for language. According to Chomsky's theory, the process of a child learning language is the same as other biological process such as learning to walk. He speculates that there is a special language acquisition device in the human brain, which consists of principles universal to all human language that he calls Universal Grammar.

Chomsky proposes this theory as there are cases of children who are not nurtured in a language-rich environment; still, the children are able to catch up with the language ability of their peers after certain period of learning. The third theory is the Interactionist view, which claims that language development relies on the role of the linguistic environment in interaction with the children's innate capabilities. In this view, the role of the people who interact with the children in oral communication determines the success of the children in acquiring the language. As children's knowledge of the world and of the language is still limited, the interactionists propose that those interact with the children should modify the language used when talking to the children to suit the children's understanding (Lightbown and Spada 1993, Stewart and Vaillette 2001).

The linguistic process of children's in acquiring their first language starts from phonology. The early effort of speaking is through cooing continued by babbling, and in the age of around eighteen months the children start producing their first words. At the age of two years, the children can utter two-word expressions, and in this stage, they start to acquire the morphology, syntax and semantics of the first language. They start to be able to combine words in 'correct' word and make more meaningful utterances. They even are able to make use of intonation to make questions and using 'no' to make negative sentences. At the age of three years, the children have acquired eighty percent of adults' language competence. A year after, the children's language is well established and in the age of ten the children have acquired mature speech (Stewart and Vaillette 2001:265-280, Mitchell and Myles 1998:26-27).

When speaking, first language speakers may make errors as described by Corder (1981) as 'being induced by slips of the tongue, or lapses in memory, arising from physical states and psychological conditions which have little to do with language competence but rather more to do with performance.' (quoted in Lee 1990). Stewart and Valliette list several kinds of slips of the tongue as described in Table 1.

Table 1: Kinds of slips of the tongue

ERROR	EXPLANATION	EXAMPLE
Anticipations	Substitution or addition of one sound which comes later in an utterance for one which comes earlier	Splicing form one tape → splacing from one tape
Perseverations	Substitution or addition of a sound which has occurred earlier in the phrase being uttered	Pale sky → Pale skay

Metathesis	The switching of two sounds, each taking the place of the other. When a metathesis involves the first sounds of two separate words, it is called spoonerism	Dear old queen → Queer old dean
Additions and omissions	The addition of extra sounds and the omission of sounds, respectively	Spic and span → spic and splan Chrysanthemum plants → chrysanthemum pants
Other Speech Units	The errors in phonetic features	Clear blue sky → Glear plue sky
	Metathesis of morphemes	A floor full of holes → a hole full of floors
	Violation of phonotactic constraints	Freudian slip → Fleudian shrip
	Wrong placement of inflectional morphemes	Cooked a roast → roasted a cook
	Substitution of one word for another because of some semantic relationship between the words	My thesis is too long → my thesis is too short
	Substitution of one word for another because of phonological similarities	Equivalent → Equivocal

(adapted from Stewart and Valliatte 2001: 292-295)

The study on slips of the tongue produced by native speakers shows evidence on the process of how human beings speak. Field summarizes the findings into several levels:

- A level at which lexical access occurs, which provides a meaning code for a word and the appropriate syntactic structure for a main verb
- A level at which a syntactic frame is built, which is tagged with abstract information about inflections (such as + plural + past, etc) and definiteness (+/- definite)
- A buffer in which this plan can be stored
- A level at which concrete phonological information about a word is extracted from the lexicon and the word is inserted into the syntactic frame. At this level, the process of

assigning correct intonation and word stress into the utterance also happens

- A level at which the inflectional information and articles are put into concrete form
- A level at which the phonemes of a word are prepared so that the utterances can be made. This may involve the process of modifying the utterance into an easy-to-articulate chunk.

(Field 2003:81-82)

Based on the examples of slips of the tongue and the levels of speaking process, it is clear that slips of the tongue happen because of errors in the speakers' linguistic performance. Thus, when a native speaker makes errors in their speech, the errors do not show that the person lacks the ability or linguistic competence to produce accurate utterance; rather, as Corder states, the physical and psychological conditions are what count for the error. Lee (1990) characterizes the errors made by first language speakers as follows:

- Are in the forms of slips of the tongue
- Occur because of lapses of memory
- Errors are the speech condition from physical/mental state
- The speakers actually have knowledge of the language system
- The errors can be self-monitored/self corrected
- The errors are rarely corrected by others

Besides the slips of the tongue, first language speakers can also make errors in conveying their intended message. The errors are also not a sign of the speakers' lack of linguistic competence, but rather a result of a trouble in the brain when preparing the conceptual elements of the utterance. A recent study by Seyfeddinipur, et.al (2008) finds out that:

When speakers detect a problem in what they are saying, they decide whether or not to interrupt themselves and repair the problem, and if so, when. Speakers will maximize accuracy if they interrupt themselves as soon as they detect a problem, but they will maximize fluency if they go on speaking until they are ready to produce the repair. Speakers must choose between these options (837).

Seyfeddinipur, et al (2008) based their experiments on the Main Interruption Rule Hypothesis (MIR) and the Delayed Interruption for Planning Hypothesis (DIP). The MIR states that speakers interrupt their entire speech production upon detecting trouble so as to focus on

accuracy rather than fluency (Levelt, 1983, Levelt, 1989 and Nooteboom, 1980). The idea of MIR is that when speakers detect a problem, they initiate both the interruption process and replanning simultaneously (Seyfeddinipur, et al 2008). The process of interruption takes only about 150–200 milliseconds. However, some errors made by speakers can be major, such as the error of message conveyed in the utterance. In this case, speakers need more time to plan the repair because it is like doing a fresh start. The major repairs require the generation of entirely new conceptual and syntactic representations. Indefrey and Levelt (2004) mention that the production of a single word takes at least 600 ms from conceptualization to articulation; therefore, the 150–200 ms window for the interruption process is too short for the speaker to produce a completely new utterance (quoted in Seyfeddinipur, et al 2008). The Delayed Interruption for Planning Hypothesis (DIP) is the opposite of MIR. In DIP view, speakers prefer fluency over accuracy. According to DIP, speakers interrupt not at the moment they detect a problem, but when they have a solution for the problem (Blackmer & Mitton 1991, quoted in Seyfeddinipur, et al 2008). The result of the experiment done by Seyfeddinipur, et al (2008) to measure which hypothesis is preferred by speakers shows that ‘speakers interrupted themselves not at the moment they detected the problem but at the moment they were ready to produce the repair. Speakers preferred fluency over accuracy.’

Second Language Acquisition and Self Monitoring in Speaking Second Language

Some researchers on second language acquisition relate their theories to the theories of first language acquisition. However, the most noted work in the field is that of Stephen Krashen’s, *The Natural Approach* (Mitchell and Myles 1998). Krashen bases his theory on the five hypotheses: the Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis, the Monitor Hypothesis, the Natural Order Hypothesis, the Input Hypothesis and the Affective Filter Hypothesis. In the Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis, Krashen differentiates acquisition from learning. Acquisition refers to the ‘subconscious process identical in all important ways to the process children utilize in acquiring their first language’ (Krashen 1985:1) and learning refers to ‘the conscious process that results in “knowing about” the language’ (Krashen 1985:1). The Monitor hypothesis states that ‘conscious learning has an extremely limited function in adult second language performance: it can only be used as a *Monitor*, or an editor’ (Krashen and Terrell 2000:30). The Natural Order Hypothesis mentions that people ‘acquire the rules of language in a predictable order, some

rules tending to come early and others late' (Krashen 1985:1). However, 'not every acquirer will acquire grammatical structures in the exact same order (Krashen and Terrell 2000:28). The Input Hypothesis states that people 'acquire (not learn) language by understanding input that is a little beyond our current level of (acquired) competence' (Krashen and Terrell 2000:32). Krashen consider this hypothesis as the central idea of second language acquisition. The Affective Filter Hypothesis mentions that in order to make language acquisition take place, learners should let the input in. Krashen states that 'Those whose attitudes are not optimal for second language acquisition will not only tend to seek less input, but they will also have a high or strong affective filter – even if they understand the message, the input will not reach that part of the brain responsible for language acquisition' (1982:31).

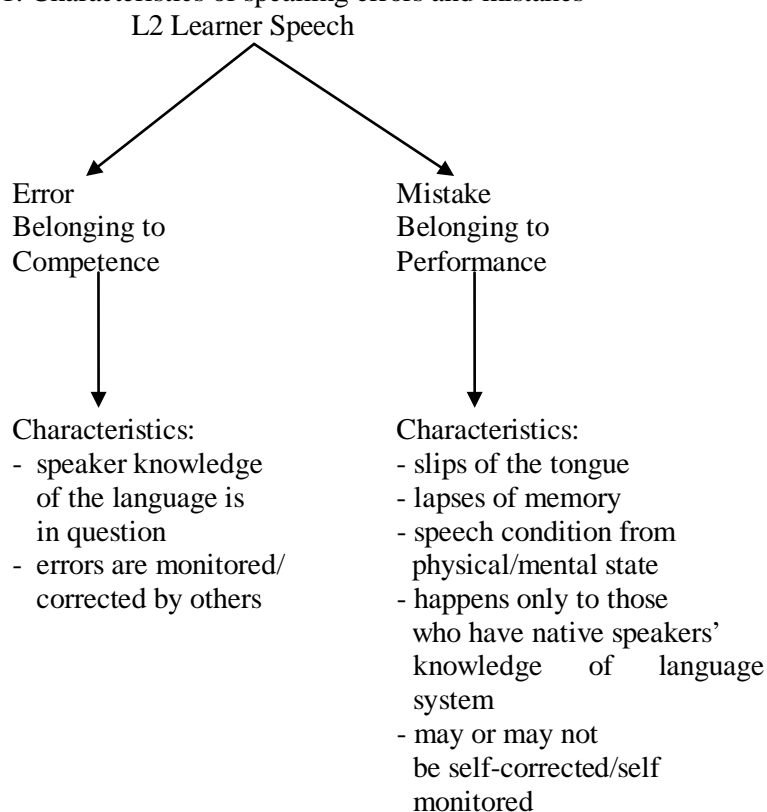
The linguistic acquisition order of second language learners are the same as the first language. Yet, there are differences as not everyone learn the first and second language at the same time. Some people even start learning a second language after they pass the critical period for language acquisition. This fact is what makes it difficult for people to master a second language (Brown 2000:53-54).

For second language speakers, the errors are 'indicative of both the state of the learner's knowledge and of the ways in which the second language is being learned. 'Error' in ELT is a mark of a learner's transitional competence as distinct from 'mistake' or performance error. Whilst 'error' would be characterized by any deviation from the norm in the language system relating to the L2 learner's competence, 'mistakes' are more closely connected in meaning to the NS (Native Speakers) term used in psycholinguistics to denote performance-related errors in spontaneous speech or writing' (Lee 1990:56). Lee further explains the kinds of errors second language speakers make. The first kind of error is the grammatical or morpho-syntactic errors. Next is the discourse errors, which can be divided into errors in the mode of discourse, such as the use of incomplete sentences in formal speech, and errors in the rules of discourse, such as changing the topic, coining new words and code-switching. Another kind of error is the phonologically-induced errors, which are errors in pronunciation and/or intonation. The last kind of error is the lexical errors.

Judging from the kinds of errors that second language speakers make, it is clear that they make mistakes when speaking because of problem in both their linguistic performance and competence. Problems with the linguistic performance is quite the same as those of the first language speakers, but the conscious grammar learning second language speakers go through seem to be the reason why they have problem with linguistic competence.

Lee differentiates the mistakes in linguistic performance as ‘mistake’ and those regarding the linguistic competence as ‘error’. She characterizes the errors and mistakes as follows:

Figure 1: Characteristics of speaking errors and mistakes



(adapted from Lee 1990:57)

It is clear from Lee’s description that for second language speakers, especially those at the beginning stage of acquiring the second language, errors produced deal with the speakers’ language competence and are mainly grammatical. In relation to Krashen’s Monitor Hypothesis, second language speakers do monitor their speech in terms of the prescriptive rules of the grammar. Therefore, to make the best use of self-monitoring in second language acquisition, Krashen suggests second language acquirers to be an ‘optimal monitor users’ who use the monitor ‘when it is appropriate, when it does not get in the way of communication’ (Krashen and Terrell 2000:45). It is then the challenge of language teachers to help their learners to be optimal monitor users.

Conclusion

Both first and second language acquirers make errors when speaking. The difference of the kind of errors they make is in the area of linguistic performance and competence. In first language acquisition, the errors are in the performance. Speakers are aware of the error, thus the errors are usually self-corrected and rarely corrected by others. On the other hand, in second language acquisition, the errors are both in competence and performance. The errors in performance are similar to those of the first language acquirers; however, different levels of language competence will result in different ways of second language acquirers tackling the errors. Second language speakers with low level of competence do not often make correction of their errors due to their low awareness of the errors, which thus puts them into the monitor under-users – ‘language performers who do not seem to use monitor to any extent’ (Krashen and Terrell 2000:44). The monitor under-users need others to help in monitoring and correcting the errors. Some second language performers are so cautious of making errors which make them become monitor over-users, ‘those who monitor all the time’ (Krashen and Terrell 2000:44). Monitor over-users are also not likely to be successful in their attempts to acquire the second language, as their being over cautious of making errors will prevent them from practicing the second language especially in speaking.

The understanding that not all second language speakers can do self-monitoring arises the idea that second language teachers should provide error corrections in teaching. However, some language educators object the idea that errors made by second language learners should always be immediately corrected due to the understanding that too much error correction may lead to learners’ having high anxiety in learning a language, which will result in unsuccessful mastery of the second language. Therefore, the most appropriate way to provide error correction without cultivating learners’ anxiety towards learning second language should be established to produce second language learners with the ability to do proper self monitoring and self correction.

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