CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter focuses the discussion on some theories used in analyzing the data. For the discussion, the writer quotes some theories, views, and statements from some linguist he considered relevant to the study. The contents of this chapter are:

2.1 Onomatopoeia

Languages generally are arbitrary. It is because the words that are used only have meaning for other speakers of the same language. The animal which is called "frog" by English native speaker would be "grenouille" for a Frenchman and "katak" for an Indonesians, and none of these words would make sense for speaker of German. One exception to arbitrariness, however, is onomatopoeic words: they are imitations of natural sounds. A word that straightly reflects the concept it conveys is considered to be iconic. This is in line with Dofs (2008: 18) who highlighted that language is neither iconic nor arbitrary.

Onomatopoeia, the imitative making of words from natural sounds, is a common phenomenon found in all languages of the world. Bredin in Dofs (2008: 1) states that onomatopoeia is a universal possibility in all languages. In the sense of definition, Pharies in Sobkowiak (1990: 16) describes Onomatopoeia as a word that is considered by convention to be acoustically similar to the sound, or the sound produced by the thing to which it refers. In Dofs' thesis (2008: 4), *Onomatopoeia*

and Iconicity: A comparative study of English and Swedish animal sound, states that onomatopoeia divided into three types. The first is direct onomatopoeia, words which are similar to the actual sound they refer to. The examples are zoom, bang, moan, cluck, and hiss. The second type is words which are onomatopoeic because of associations, not because they resemble the object or the action they represent. In this sense, Dofs explains that *whip* is the sound made by a whip, and *cuckoo* is the bird's name but the resemblance refers to the song it produces and does not have anything to do with the bird itself. These words are classified as examples of associative onomatopoeia. The third type of onomatopoeia, exemplary onomatopoeia, is based on the amount and character of the physical work done by the speaker in uttering the word.

2.2 Definition of Phonetics and Phonology

There are two sub-disciplines in linguistics which deal with sound, namely phonetic and phonology (McMahon, 2002: 1). Phonology is a branch of linguistics closely associated with phonetics. Dealing with language hierarchy, 'Phonetics' comes first and it is followed by 'phonology'.

Discussing about phonology, Adetugbo (1993: 103) says that phonology takes phonetic fact, but goes further to study speech sounds as constituting a system in any language. Among the possible sounds capable of being produced by human beings, only a tiny number of them can be merged to bring about meaningful utterances in a language. Atolagbe (2000: 11) defines phonology as the sound system of a language, the speech sounds that are combined into meaningful and

acceptable patterns for communication purposes, in a specific language. This is in line with Collins and Mees (2013: 9) that describes phonology as the study of the selection and patterns of sounds in a single language (see also Clark and Yallop, 1995: 2). Discussing similar topic, Lass (1988: 1) writes that phonology refers broadly to the sub discipline of linguistics concerned with the sounds of language, while in more narrow terms, they argued that phonology is concerned with the function, behavior and organization of sounds as linguistic items.

Phonetics and phonology are closely related that they cannot be separated from each other. However, in term of linguistics, they are studied in different level because they constitute different levels of language structure. In a contrast, phonetic basically deals with all possible sounds produced by human beings including useful and useless sounds, while phonology deals with useful sounds of a specific language. Based on Ogden (2009: 1), phonetics is the systematic study of the sounds of speech, which is physical and directly observable. Also related to phonetic, Lass (1988: 1) says that phonetic concerns with the physical production, acoustic transmission, and perception of the sounds of speech (see also McMahon, 2001: 1).

In relation to the discussion above, speech sound can be symbolized using International Phonetic Alphabet. International Phonetic Association (1999: 3) states that IPA refers to a set of symbols which would be convenient to use, but comprehensive enough to cope with the wide variety of sounds found in the languages of the world in written form. Table 2.1 below lists speech sound symbols along with the example where the sound is used in a word.

Table 2.1
International Phonetic Alphabets and Examples in Words
and Their IPA Transcriptions.

Phonetics Symbols	Example in Ordinary Spelling	Phonetics Transcription
/eɪ/	Pay	/peɪ/
/ɑ:/	Arm	/ɑːm/
/æ/	Hat	/hæt/
/ɛə/	Hair	/heə(r)/
/ɪə/	Near	/nɪə(r)/
/i:/	See	/si:/
/ɜ:/	Fur	/fɜ:(r)/
/e/	Ten	/ten/
/aɪ/	Five	/faiv/
/əʊ/	Home	/həʊm/
/u:/	Too	/tu:/
/ʊ/	Put	/pʊt/
/ɒ/	Got	/gɒt/
/ɔ:/	Saw	/sɔ:/
/aʊ/	Now	/naʊ/
/ɔɪ/	Join	/dʒɔɪn/
/ʌ/	Cup	/kʌp/
/ɪ/	Sit	/sɪt/
/ə/	Ago	/əˈgəʊ/
/ʊə/	Pure	/pjʊə(r)/
/h/	How	/haʊ/

/s/	So	/səʊ/
/t/	Tea	/tiː/
/m/	Man	/mæn/
/n/	No	/nəʊ/
/d/	Did	/dɪd/
/k/	Cat	/kæt/
/l/	Leg	/leg/
/ʃ/	She	/ʃiː/
/θ/	Thin	/θɪn/
/ð/	Then	/ðen/
/ʒ/	Vision	/ˈvɪʒn/
/tʃ/	Chin	/tʃɪn/
/g/	Got	/gɒt/
/p/	Pen	/pen/
/r/	Red	/red/
/v/	Van	/væn/
/w/	Wet	/wet/
/ŋ/	Sing	/sɪŋ/
/z/	Zoo	/zuː/
/b/	Bad	/bæd/
/f/	Fall	/fɔːl/
/j/	Yes	/jes/
/dʒ/	June	/dʒuːn/

Source: Oxford Learners Pocket Dictionary Fourth Ed

Considering those definitions and explanations, the writer comes into conclusion that phonetics is the science of language that deals with the study and analysis of the speech sounds of languages in terms of articulation, transmission and perception. In the other hand, Phonology is a branch of linguistics that deals with useful sounds of a specific language. It studies the ways sounds of a language are organized into systems to encode meaning.

2.3 Speech Sounds

In term of phonetic, speech sound can be classified in to consonants and vowels. Based on Idris (2011: 7), Consonant is defined as a speech sound where the air stream from the lungs is either completely blocked (as in plosive or stop consonant /p/ or /t/), partially blocked (as in lateral consonant /l/) or where the opening is so narrow that the air escapes with audible friction (as in fricative /f/ or /z/). Further, according to Skandera and Burleigh (2005: 20), consonants are sounds that are produced by an obstruction of an air-stream either in the pharynx or in the vocal tract. Furthermore, in Widiati's *English Phonology* (1998:17), describes that consonants are sounds made by closure or narrowing in the vocal tract so that the airflow is either completely blocked, or so restricted that audible friction is produced; while vowels are sounds articulated without a complete closure in the mouth or a degree of narrowing which would produce audible friction, the air escapes evenly over the center of the tongue. Widiati (*Ibid*) also argues that the consonant type very often have a 'noise' component in the acoustic sense while the vowel type are having no 'noise' component.

English has two classes of consonant sound: one of the /t k s/ type with stronger and voiceless articulation named fortis and another of the /b d z/ type whose articulation is weaker and potentially voiced named lenis (see also Indriani, 2001: 8). In relation to above topic, there is a good way to know neither the sound is fortis nor lenis as stated by Skandera and Burleigh (2005: 16):

> Try saying the following pairs of word while holding your hand in front of your mouth, or placing a small, light, flat object, such as a dried leaf or a feather, on the palm of your hand held near your mouth: *bad/pad, van/fan, this/thin, zoo/shoe, gap/cap.* You will notice, by either feeling the air or seeing the object move, that with each of the pairs "extra" air is forced out at the underlined initial sound of one of the words compared with the other. Which ones are they? This difference can still be noticed even when you whisper the words. This exercise demonstrates the difference in the intensity of the articulation, i.e. the difference between lenis and fortis sounds.

Further, there are two important features used to describe speech sounds, they are place and manner of articulation as in the table 2.2. Discussing about place and manner of articulation, Collins and Mees (2013: 45-46) states that place of articulation tells us where the sound is produced while manner of articulation tells us how the sound is produced. In more detail, place of articulation names the speech organs that are primarily involved in the production of particular sound while manner of articulation refers to the type or degree of closure of the speech organs involved (Skandera and Burleigh, 2005: 13-14). Also similar to above, Ogden (2009: 12-16) argues that place of articulation describes where in the vocal tract a sound is made while manner of articulation refers to the way a sound is made.

Table 2.2
Phonetic Table
Chief English Consonantal Articulations

PLACE OF ARTICULATION

		BILABIAL	LABIO-DENTAL	DENTAL	ALVEOLAR	POST ALVEOLAR	PALATO-ALVEOLAR	PALATAL	VELAR	GLOTAL
COMPLETE ORAL CLOSURE	Plossive	p b			T d				k g	
	Affricative						tʃ dʒ			
	Nassal	m			n		-		ŋ	
INTERMITTENT CLOSURE	Roll					r				
PARTIAL CLOSURE	Lateral				l					

MANNER OF ARTICULATION

NARROWING Fricative		f	θ	s		ʃ			h
		v	ð	z		ʒ			
Glide Semi vowel	w						j		

Source: Indriani's "English Pronunciation: The English Speech Sounds Theory & Practice"
(2001: 11)

In accordance to the terms in the table above, the leftmost column is categorization on how speech sounds are produced based on the type of closure made by vocal organs while the first row is categorization on how speech sounds are produced based on where in the vocal apparatus a sound is produced. Further, based on Indriani's *English Pronunciation: The English Speech Sounds Theory and Practice* (2001: 8-11), the terms are explained respectively as below:

Manners of Articulation:

1. Complete Closure:

    a. Plosives/ stops : a complete closure at some point in the vocal tract, behind which the air pressure builds up and can be released explosively.

       e.g.: /p/, /b/, /t/, /d/, /k/, /g/.

    b. Affricative : a complete closure at some point in the mouth, behind which the air pressure builds up; the separation of the organs is slow compared with that of a plosive, so that friction is a characteristic second element of the sound.

e.g.: /tʃ/, /dʒ/.

c. Nasal   : a complete closure at some point in the mouth but the soft palate being lowered the air escapes through the nose.

e.g.: /m/, /n/, /ŋ/.

2. Intermittent Closure:

Roll   : a series of rapid intermittent closures or taps made by a flexible organ on a firmer surface.

e.g.: r (the tongue tip taps against the alveolar ridge).

3. Partial Closure:

Lateral   : a partial closure is made at some point in the mouth, the air stream being allowed to escape on one or both sides of the contact.

e.g.: /l/.

4. Narrowing:

Fricative   : two organs approximate to such an extent that the airstream passes through them with friction.

e.g.: /f/, /v/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/, /s/, /z/, /θ/, /ð/, /h/.

5. Glides:

Semi vowels : they are usually included in the consonantal category on functional grounds, but from the point of view of phonetic description they are more properly treated as vowel glides.

e.g.: /w/, /j/.

Places/ Point of Articulations:

1. Bilabial : the two lips are the primary articulations.

   e.g.: /b/, /p/, /m/, /w/.

2. Labio-dental : the lower lip articulates with the upper teeth.

   e.g.: /f/, /v/.

3. Dental : the tongue tip and rims articulate with the upper teeth.

   e.g.: /θ/, /ð/.

4. Alveolar : the blade, or tip and blade, of the tongue articulate with the alveolar ridge, e.g.: /t/, /d/, /l/, /n/, /s/, /z/.

5. Post-alveolar : the tip (and rims) of the tongue articulate with the rear part of the alveolar ridge, e.g.: /r/.

6. Palato-alveolar : the blade, or the tip and blade, of the tongue articulate with the alveolar ridge and there is at the same time a raising of the front of the tongue towards the hard palate, e.g.: /ʃ/, /ʒ/, /tʃ/, /dʒ/.

7. Palatal : the front of the tongue articulates with the hard palate, e.g.: /j/.

8. Velar : the back of the tongue articulates with the soft palate, e.g.: /k/, /g/, /ŋ/.

9. Glottal : an obstruction, or a narrowing causing fiction but not vibration, between the vocal cords, e.g.: /h/.

As opposed to Consonant, Idris (2011: 15) also describes vowel as a speech sound produced by which air-stream from the lungs is not blocked in any way in the mouth or throat, and which is usually pronounced with vibration of the vocal cords. Further, it can also be defined as any speech sound produced without any obstacle anywhere in the mouth or throat. This is in line with Ogden (2009: 56) that describes Vowels as syllabic sounds made with free passage of air down the mid-line of the vocal tract, usually with a convex tongue shape, and without friction.

Table 2.3
The Primary Cardinal Vowels
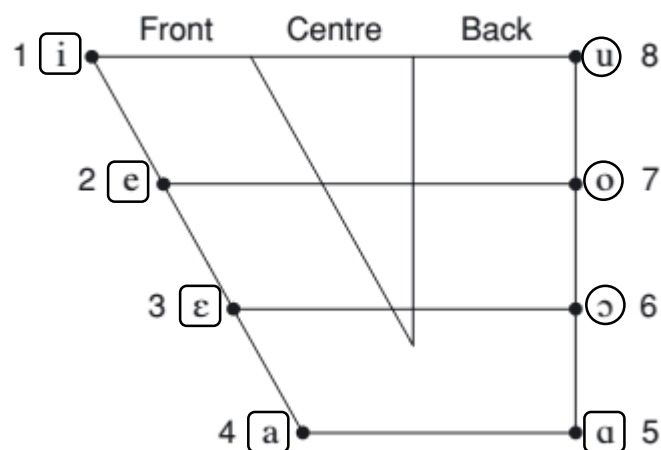
Source: Collin and Mees's "Practical Phonetics and Phonology: A Reource Book For Students" (2013: 67)

English generally have 12 vowels sound. The table 2.3 contains eight vowels classified based on the position of the tongue (Collin and Mees, 2013: 67) as in:

[/i/]:	Front close	[/u/]:	Back close
[/e/]:	Front close-mid	[/o/]:	Back close-mid
[/ɛ/]:	Front open-mid	[/ɔ/]:	Back open-mid
[/a/]:	Front open	[/ɑ/]:	Back open

Further, the rest of the vowels can be seen in the table 2.4 below:

Table 2.4
The Additional Vowels
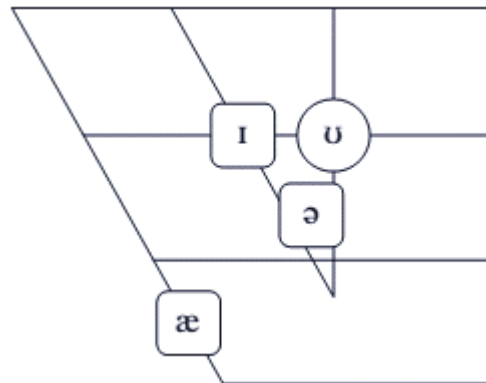
Source: Collin and Mees's "Practical Phonetics and Phonology: A Reource Book For
Students" (2013: 67)

In relation to additional vowel above, Widiati (1998: 23-24) describes the vowel as
follows:

[/ɪ/]:   Front half-close

[/ʊ/]:   Back half-close

[/ə/]:   Central vowel

Related to table 2.3 and 2.4, the square and rounded shapes represents the shape of
the lip when the sound is produced. Further, those individual sound of vowels
mentioned above is considered as monophthongs. Based on Collins and Mees
(2013: 305), monophthongs or steady-state vowel is a vowel articulated with tongue
and the lips held in one position. Also related to above, Widiati (1998: 25) describes
monophthong as individual vowel sound where there is no tongue movement during
the production of the vowel sound (see also McMahon, 2002: 73). It means that the
quality of the sound remains the same from beginning to the end of the production.

From the views above, the monophthong used to transcribe the data can be seen as follows:
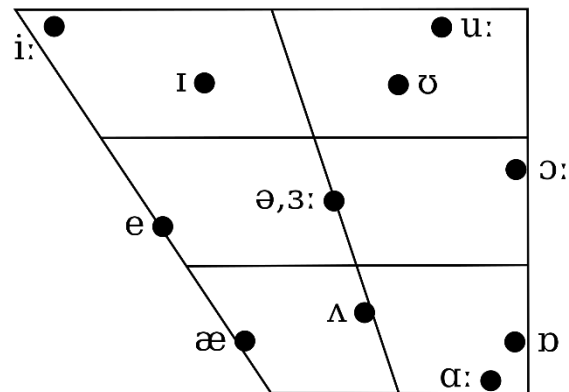
In addition to these monophthong, English vowel has 8 sequences consisting of two sounds. More precisely, Skandera and Burleigh (2005: 38-39) explains that the sequences start with a monophthong, and the quality then changes, but never quite reaches, another monophthong through a gliding movement of the tongue. Those vowel sequences are called diphthong. In this sense, some people say there are 9 in English, but some others say there are only 8, because the diphthongs / ɔə/ can be replaced by the vowel / ɔː/. Those 9 diphthongs are:

1. /aɪ/– like   4. /ɪə/– hear   7. /ɔə/– more

2. /eɪ/– day   5. /ʊə/– door   8. /ɒʊ/– down

3. /ɔɪ/– boy   6. /ɛə/– care   9. /əʊ/– show

Further, Skandera and Burleigh (2005: 40) says that English also has typical vowel sequences that consist of three sounds. They are called triphthong. So triphthong is start with monophthong, then glides to another monophthong, and glides to the third.

In relation to the consonants and vowels above, there are some sounds that are not found in English but they are used in Indonesians, and vice versa. These

phenomenon are known as phonotactics of English and Indonesian consonants and

vowels. Based on Pallawa (2007: 126), he displays the phonotatctics as seen in the

table below:

Table 2.5
Phonotactics of English and Indonesian
Consonants and Vowels

Consonant Phonemes	Initial Position		Medial Position		Final Position	
	English	Indonesian	English	Indonesian	English	Indonesian
p	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
b	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	-
t	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
d	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	-
k	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
g	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	-
f	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
v	✓	-	✓	-	✓	-
θ	✓	-	✓	-	✓	-
ð	✓	-	✓	-	✓	-
s	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
z	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	-
∫	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	-
ʒ	Rare	✓	✓	-	Rare	-
h	✓	✓	✓	✓	-	✓

	Initial Position		Medial Position		Final Position	
	English	Indonesian	English	Indonesian	English	Indonesian
tʃ	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	-
dʒ	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	-
m	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
n	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
ŋ	-	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
l	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
r	✓	✓	✓	✓	-	✓
j	✓	✓	✓	✓	-	-
w	✓	✓	✓	✓	-	-
Vowel Phonemes	**Initial Position**		**Medial Position**		**Final Position**	
	English	**Indonesian**	**English**	**Indonesian**	**English**	**Indonesian**
i	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
I	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
u	Rare	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
ʊ	Rare	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
ɛ	✓	✓	✓	✓	-	✓
æ	✓	-	✓	-	-	-
ə	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	-
e	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
ɜ	✓	-	✓	-	✓	-
a	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
ʌ	✓	-	✓	-	-	-

ɑ	✓	✓	✓	✓	-	-
o	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
ɔ	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓

note: ✓ means exist; **-** means does not exist

Source: Pallawa's "A Comparative Analysis between English and
Indonesian Phonological Systems" (2007: 126)

2.4 Theoretical Framework

As the topic suggests, it attempts to reveal possible factors that may affect the way Englishmen and Indonesians are differ in a sense of imitating animal sound. Therefore, the writer outlines the theory which is used to analyze the issue.

Language began as a system of emotive signs, grunts, moans, and cries. As the time pass by, different cultures were developed, as well as languages. The result is that the words from a specific language only have meaning for other speakers who share the same language. In that case indicates that language is arbitrary.

One exception to arbitrariness, however, is onomatopoeic words. Onomatopoeic words itself can be defined as a form of auditory icon sign, a name for an object which is made from an imitation of the sound it produces. For example, onomatopoeic word 'meow' represents a cat. Further, a word that directly reflects the concept it conveys is considered to be iconic. To be iconic, is when sound and meaning are identical.