

CHAPTER II LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 English Vowels

There are twenty vowels in English that can be divided into three types of vowels: monophthongs, diphthongs and/or triphthongs (Crystal, 1995:237), plus the vowel /ju/. To be consistent, the writer used Ladefoged's symbol to transcribe the English vowels.

A. Monophthongs

Monophthongs (or pure vowels) are vowels with a single perceived auditory quality, made by a movement of the tongue towards one position in the mouth. There are 12 English vowels for this type.

[i] is used for a high front vowel

[u] is used for a high back vowel

[ɛ] is used for a slightly lowered mid-front vowel

[ɪ] is used for a slightly lowered high-front vowel

[ɔ] is used for a slightly lowered high-back vowel

[e] is used for a mid-front vowel

[ə] is used for a mid-central vowel

[ɔ] is used for a slightly lowered mid-back vowel

[æ] is used for a low-front vowel

[ʌ] is used for a low-central vowel.

[ɑ] is used for a slightly lowered low-back vowel.

[ɒ] is used for a low-back vowel.

B. Diphthongs and/or Triphthongs

Diphthongs are vowels where two vowel qualities can be perceived.

While triphthongs are vowels in which three vowel qualities can be

perceived. The writer put the diphthongs and the triphthongs together due to the fact that in some books the triphthongs are considered as diphthongs for some reasons. It is dealing with rhotacized/retroflex vowels (influenced by the r-coloring).

There are 8 diphthongs in English: eɪ , oʊ , aɪ , aʊ , oʊ , iə , Eə , aə . While the examples of triphthongs we can see them as in the words *player, fire, royal, tower, and lower*.

Since the writer used Ladefoged symbols in which there are no triphthongs, the writer neglected the existence of the triphthongs.

C. The vowel /jʊ/

It is a special vowel because it is a combination between the semi consonant (glide) /j/ and the vowel /u/.

2.2 The Possibilities of How a Vowel Changes its Quality

Often in the history of English, a vowel has changed its quality. There are three chief possibilities: monophthongized, diphthongized, and triphthongized (Crystal, 1995:237)

A. monophthongized

When a diphthong becomes a monophthong, the sound is said to be monophthongized.

B. diphthongized

When a monophthong becomes a diphthong, the sound is said to be diphthongized.

C. triphthongized

When a diphthong becomes a triphthong, the sound is said to be triphthongized.

2.3 Javanese Vowels

There are two kinds of Javanese, which are used as references: Standard Javanese and Javanese with Surabaya Accent. Although Kecamatan Waru belongs to Kabupaten Sidoarjo, the accent used is, more or less, Surabaya accent. In Sidoarjo itself the accent is the same. There are some lexical differences, for example, the standard word for 'a particular call to a big brother' is *Mus*, Surabaya is *Cak*, and Sidoarjo is *Guk*. There is no particular Sidoarjo accent due to the fact that Kecamatan Waru, Kabupaten Sidoarjo, is surrounding Surabaya.

2.3.1 Standard Javanese Vowels

Javanese vowels According to Uhlenbeck (1949), which supported by Ras (1982) and Subroto (1985) Javanese has six vowels. They are /A/, /O/, /U/, /E/, /I/, and /Ē/ in Subroto (1991). The first five vowels are capitalized by Uhlenbeck because each has two allophones which exist systematically:

/A/ → /à/ as in *anak* 'child' and /á/ as in *ana* 'there'.

/O/ → /ò/ as in *bolong* 'has a hole' and /ó/ as in *loro* 'two'.

/U/ → /ù/ as in *bagus* 'handsome' and /ú/ as in *turu* 'sleep'.

/E/ → /è/ as in *leren* 'take a rest' and /é/ as in *tempe* 'typical Javanese soy bean cake'.

/I/ → /ì/ as in *keris* 'typical Javanese blade' and /í/ as in *lali* 'forget'

/Ē/ → as in *gendheng* 'crazy'.

In order to make it easier in typing, the writer replaced /à/ with /A/, /â/ with /a/, /ò/ with /O/, /ó/ with /o/, /ù/ with /U/, /ú/ with /u/, /è/ with /E/, /é/ with /e/, /i/ with /I/, /í/ with /i/.

2.3.2 Surabaya Javanese Vowels

Wijayanti (2001), in her thesis, stated:

“Standard Javanese has subtler pronunciation than Surabaya dialect. The speakers of Surabaya dialect have tendency to emphasize some certain words by glottalizing whereas standard Javanese do not. They also tend to make lower vowels located in front or middle position, while in Standard Javanese they are pronounced as high vowels.”

In her research, She found that the speakers of Surabaya tend to glottalize some particular words, for example, *áná* → *ánʔ* ‘exist’ and *orà* → *gaʔ* ‘no/not’.

Unlike Standard Javanese in which the open syllabic vowels are high or tense in the either initial or middle position (e.g. *buruh* /burUʰ/ ‘labour’, *kepiting* /kepItIng/ ‘crab’), Surabaya Javanese tends to lower or lax the vowels whose next syllable is closed syllable (e.g. *buruh* /bUrUʰ/ ‘labour’, *sepuluh* /sepUʰU(h)/, *kebujuk* /kebUjUk/, *kepiting* /kepItIng/ ‘crab’).

2.4 The Similarity Between Some English Vowels and Javanese Ones

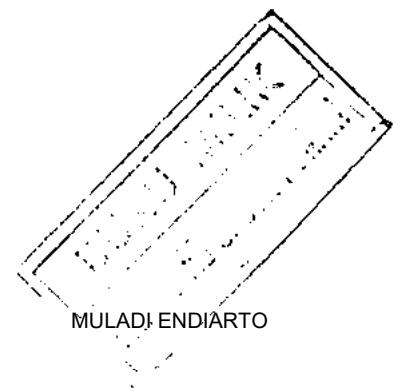
There are some vowels in English, which sound similar to the ones in Javanese. However, for vowel /e/ (which sounds similar to the Javanese vowel /é/) and vowel /o/ (which sounds similar to the Javanese vowel /ó/), each of which never occurs as a single vowel (monophthong) but occurs as a first vowel quality in the diphthong /eɪ/ and the diphthong /oʊ/ respectively. Therefore, the writer made the similarity between them, as seen on table 2.4

Javanese	English
/ə/	/ɑ /
/ə/	/ɔ /
/ə/	/ɒ /
/ə/	As in the first vowel quality of the diphthongs /oʊ / & /ou/
/i/	/ɑ /
/i/	/u/
/è/	/ɛ /
/è/	As in the first vowel quality of the diphthong /eɪ /
/i/	/ɪ /
/i/	/i /
/è/	/ə /

Table 2.4 the similarity of Javanese vowels and English ones

2.5 The Complexity of the Phonology of English

The phonology of English is known to be uniquely complex, much more complex than that of any other European Language (Wijk 1966, p.7 cited in Simo Bobda 2001). It is understandable that many English learners feel that English is difficult especially because of its inconsistency. For example the spelling 'oo' can



be pronounced /u/ as in food, boot, and root; /ʊ / as in foot, good, and hood; /ɔ / as in door and floor; etc.

2.6 The Changes of English Vowels in New Englishism

New Englishism (Simo Bobda 2001), a common strategy in African and Asian Englishes is the 'rectification' of English, in the sense that speakers of these Englishes not only regularize the language structurally, but straighten up semantic aspects, which can be considered abnormal.

Part of the Simo Bobda's study that is quite related to this study is about the regularization of English pronunciation in the New Englishes (as shown in the following table):

Table 2.6 Regularization of English Pronunciation in the New Englishes

Words	RP forms	Forms in many New Englishes
1. Appauce. peasant	app ɪ: sɛ, p e sant	app i sɛ, p i sant
2. County, country	c au ntɪ, c ʌ ntri	c au ntɪ, c au ntri
3. Convict, indict	conv ɪkt, ind ɪkt	conv fkt, ind fkt
4. Bilingual, binary, bigamy	b ɔ: lɪŋɡwəl, b ɔ: nəri, b ɪ ɡəmi	b ɛ: lɪŋɡwəl, b ɛ: nəri, b ɛ: ɡəmi
5. Dice, cowardice	d ɪ sɛ, coward ɪ sɛ	d ɛ: sɛ, coward ɛ: sɛ
6. Pays, says	p eɪ s, s eɪ s	p ɛ: s, s ɛ: s
7. Pay, quay	p eɪ , qu ɪ:	p ɛ: , qu ɛ:
8. James, Thames	ʃ eɪ mɛs, Th eɪ mɛs	ʃ ɛ: mɛs, Th ɛ: mɛs
9. Green, Greenwich	ɡr ɪ: n, Gr eɪ wɪtʃ	ɡr ɛ: n, Gr ɛ: wɪtʃ
10. Lemon, demon	l eɪ mɒn, d ɪ: mɒn	l ɛ: mɒn, d ɛ: mɒn
11. Thailand, Taiwan, Haiti, Jamaica	Th ɔ: lənd, T ɔ: wɑn, H eɪ ti, Jam eɪ kɑ	Th ɛ: lənd, T ɛ: wɑn, H ɛ: ti, Jam ɛ: kɑ
12. South, southern	s əʊ θ, s ʌ ðn	s ɔ: θ, s ɔ: ðn
13. Mouth, Plymouth, Portsmouth	m əʊ θ, -m ə θ, -m ə θ	m ɔ: θ, -m ɔ: θ, -m ɔ: θ

14. Vine, vineyard	v ə ne, v ɪ neyard	v aɪ ne, v aɪ neyard
15. Supreme, supremacy	supr i: me, supr e macy	supr i me, supr i macy
16. Zeal, zealous	z i: l, z e lous	z i l, z i lous
17. Tear (split), tear (water)	teə , tɪə	tiə , tɪə

*Note that /ei/ is monophthongised to /e/ or /e:/ in many New Englishes.

From the transcription you can see some differences between the sound systems of the non-native Englishes taken as examples here, and RP (Received Pronunciation). For example, RP /i:/ is realized in many New Englishes as a shorter /i/, and /aʊ, at, et / become /au, ai, ei/ because /ʊ / and /ʌ / are not found in these Englishes.

2.7 The Changes of English Vowels in Singapore Colloquial English (Singlish)

Since Singlish has grown and used in certain area and people, and also been documented academically, the writer thinks it is necessary to put it as the closest evidence of the changes of English that can be used as a comparison to this study.

Gupta wrote about Singapore Colloquial English. (Singlish) at <http://www.umc.edu.sg/langnet/singlish.htm>. Here she wrote the background, the vocabulary, the sounds (consonants, vowels, stress and intonation), and the grammar (morphology, the verb 'to be', particles, questions, and other grammatical feature).

Concerning the vowels, Singapore English does not have a distinction between short and long vowels. In this way it is rather like Hawai'i Creole English. By using the IPA symbols, Gupta tried to transcribe the Singapore

English vowels—the underlined words represents the similar pronunciation to the sound in the British accent, RP, and in reference varieties of US English, but they all are short.

KIT, FLEECE(/i/); FACE (/e/); TRAP, DRESS, SQUARE; FOOT, GOOSE (/u/); GOAT (/o/)(pronounced as in most varieties of US English); LOT, CLOTH, THOUGHT, NORTH, FORCE; NURSE, commA, lettER; STRUT, BATH, PALM, START.

There are diphthongs similar to those used in many varieties of English in England as follows:

PRICE; CHOICE; MOUTH; NEAR; CURE, POOR

2.8 Phonemes

Phonemes are the distinctive sounds in certain Language. Every language has its distinctive sounds (phonemes), which can give distinctive meanings (Fromkin & Rodman, 1988)

2.8.1 English Phonemes

The distinctive sounds occur in English are the consonants p, t, k, b, d, g, m, n, ŋ, f, v, θ, δ, s, z, ʃ, ʒ, l, w, r, j, h, tʃ, dʒ and the vowels i, ɪ, e, ɛ, æ, a, ɪ, ɔ, ɒ, oʊ, u, ɪ, ʌ, ɔ, ɪ, ɪr, er, aɪ, r, j u (Ladefoged, 1975).

2.8.1.1 Tense and Lax Vowels

The vowels of English can be divided into what may be called tense and lax sets. The terms are really just labels that are used to designate two groups of vowels that behave differently in English words. (Ladefoged, 1975:73)

The difference between the two sets can be discussed in terms of the different kinds of syllables in which they can occur: closed and open syllables. All of the vowels can occur in closed syllables—those that have a consonant at the end. On the other hand, there is only a restricted set of vowels can occur in open syllables.

None of the vowels [ɪ, ε, æ, ɔ, ʌ] as in “bid, bed, bad, good, and bud” can appear in stressed open syllables. For better understanding, we can look at the following description of the distribution of tense and lax vowels in stressed syllables in American English, which is summed up from Ladefoged (1975:74).

A) Tense Vowels

- 1) /i/ → occurs in most closed syllables (e.g. beat), open syllable (e.g. bee), syllables closed by [r] (e.g. beer), syllables closed by [ʃ] (e.g. leash → the only one).
- 2) /e ɪ / → occurs in most closed syllables (e.g. bait), open syllables (e.g. bay), syllables closed by [r] (e.g. bare).

- 3) /ɑ /→ occurs in most closed syllables (e.g. hot), open syllables (e.g. ah), syllables closed by [r] (e.g. bar), syllables closed by [ʃ] (e.g. slosh).
- 4) /ɔ /→ occurs in most closed syllables (e.g. bought), open syllables (e.g. saw), syllables closed by [r] (e.g. bore), syllables closed by [ɹ] (e.g. long), syllables closed by [ʃ] (e.g. wash).
- 5) /oʊ /→ occurs in most closed syllables (e.g. boat), open syllables (e.g. low), syllables closed by [r] (e.g. hoar).
- 6) /u/ → occurs in most closed syllables (e.g. boot), open syllables (e.g. boo), syllables closed by [r] (e.g. tour).
- 7) /aɪ /→ occurs in most closed syllables (e.g. bite), open syllables (e.g. buy), syllables closed by [r] (e.g. fire).
- 8) /aʊ /→ occurs in most closed syllables (e.g. bout), open syllables (e.g. bough), syllables closed by [r] (e.g. hour).
- 9) /ɔɪ /→ occurs in most closed syllables (e.g. void), open syllables (e.g. boy), syllables closed by [r] (e.g. coir→the only one).
- 10) /ju/ → occurs in most closed syllables (e.g. cute), open syllables (e.g. cue), syllables closed by [r] (e.g. pure).

B) Lax Vowels

1) /ɪ /→ occurs in most closed syllables (e.g. bit), syllables closed

by [ŋ] (e.g. sing), syllables closed by [ʃ] (e.g. wish).

2) /ɛ /→ occurs in most closed syllable (e.g. bet), syllables closed by

[ŋ] (e.g. length), syllables closed by [ʃ] (e.g. fresh).

3) /æ/→ occurs in most closed syllables (e.g. bat), syllables closed by

[ŋ] (e.g. hang), syllables closed by [ʃ] (e.g. crash).

4) /ʌ /→ occurs in most closed syllables (e.g. food), syllables closed

by [ʃ] (e.g. push).

5) /ʌ /→ occurs in most closed syllables (e.g. but), syllables closed

by [ɪŋ] (e.g. hung), syllables closed by [ʃ] (e.g. crush).

C) Reduced Vowel [ə]

In general, all the tense vowels can occur in syllables closed by /r/ in American English, but all the lax vowels have been replaced by the reduced vowel [ə] as in *purr*, *fur*, *sir*, etc.

2.8.1.2 Alternations among English Vowels

There are a number of circumstances in which one vowel alternates phonetically with another in a predictable way. There is a tense vowel in the stressed syllable in the stem when no suffix follows. In each case this same syllable has a lax vowel when there is a following suffix, as follows:

Table 2.8.1.2 Some Predictable alternations among English Vowels
(Ladefoged, 1975: 75)

[aɪ] ↔ [ɪ]		[aʊ] ↔ [ʌ]
divine	divinity	profound
derive	derivative	abound
reside	residual	south
		southern
[i] ↔ [ɛ]		[u] ↔ [ɒ] or [ɑ]
serene	serenity	school
supreme	supremacy	fool
redeem	redemption	goose
		gosling
[eɪ] ↔ [æ]		[oʊ] ↔ [ɔ] or [ɑ]
explain	explanatory	verbose
mania	maniac	deposit

2.8.2 Javanese Phonemes

According to Uhlenbeck (1949) which supported by Ras (1982) and Subroto (1985) Javanese has six vowels. They are /A/, /O/, /U/, /E/, /I/, and /ê/ in Subroto (1991). The first five vowels are capitalized by Uhlenbeck because each has two allophones which exist systematically: /A/→ /â/ as in *anak* ‘child’ and /á/ as in *ana* ‘there’.

/O/→ /ò/ as in *bolong* ‘has a hole’ and /ó/ as in *loro* ‘two’.

/U/→ /ù/ as in *bagus* ‘handsome’ and /ú/ as in *turu* ‘sleep’.

/E/→ /è/ as in *leren* ‘take a rest’ and /é/ as in *tempe* ‘typical Javanese soy bean cake’.

/I/→ /i/ as in *keris* ‘typical Javanese blade’ and /i/ as in *lali* ‘forget’

/ê/→ as in *gendheng* ‘crazy’.

In Javanese, the voiced quality is also followed by aspiration. In the initial position of word or syllable, this aspirant quality sounds clearer. For example, /b^huku/, ‘book’, /b^hAb^hu/, ‘servant’. Therefore, many linguists tend to have opinion that the aspirant quality stands out more than the voiced one (Subroto, 1991:18).

Unlike English, There are no diphthongs and suprasegmental phonemes in Javanese. Because some phonemes in English does not occur in Javanese and vice versa, there is ‘rectification’ or adaptation of English, in this case phonologically by the Javanese.

2.8.2.1 The Distribution of Javanese Vowels

According to its distribution, the five vowels in Javanese (i, e, u, o, a) can be in the initial, middle, or final position; while the vowel /ê/ can only be in the initial and in the middle position. (Subroto 1991: 19)

2.8.2.2 The Realization of Javanese Vowels

1) Vowel /i/

Vowel /i/ has two allophones: /i/ and /ɪ/

Allophone /i/ occurs in:

- b) open final syllable/ open *ultima* : *wani* 'brave, dare'; *tangi* 'get up';
- c) *paenultima* syllable (second syllable from final position) and *antepaenultima* syllable (third from final), either open or closed: *idu* 'saliva', *kiwa* 'left (the opposite of right)', and *pindha* 'as if'.

Allophone /ɪ/ occurs in:

- a) closed final syllable—except for some borrowing words, elativus category or the ones which have expressive-emotive value: *suglh* 'rich', *gurlh* 'delicious, yummy', *sedhlh* 'sad', (except: *kredhit* 'credit', *pailit* 'bankrupt', *sadhis* 'sadistic', *api?* 'very good/kind'.
- b) Some closed *paenultima* or *antepaenultima* syllable: *slksa* 'torture', *plrsa* (Krama Inggil) 'to see/ watch', *wlsma* (archaic) 'house', *dIgdaya* 'strong, powered'.

2) Vowel /e/

Vowel /e/ has two allophones: /e/ and /E/

Allophone /e/ occurs in:

- a) open ultima syllable: *sate* 'kebab', *gule* 'a kind of juicy and spicy food', *gedhe* 'big'
- c) either open or closed paenultima syllable: *tempe* 'soy bean cake', *rencang* (krama inggil) 'to assist;assistant', *rene* 'come here'.

Allophone /E/ occurs in:

- a) closed ultima syllable: *EIEk* 'ugly', *gEpEng* 'lat', *suwEk* 'tom'.
- b) Either open or closed paenultima / antepaenultima syllable: *dhl:ndhling* 'a kind of processed meat', *kl:sl:t* 'mat', *gEndhong* 'to carry on the back'.

3) Vowel /u/

Vowel /u/ has two allophones : /u/ and /U/

Allophone /u/ occurs in:

- a) open ultima syllable: *tuku* 'buy', *туру* 'sleep', *asu* 'dog'
- b) either open or closed paenultima/ antepaenultima: *suwita* 'devote', *kulina* 'be used to', *tunggal* 'one', *sungkawa* 'sad', *sundel holong* 'name of genie', *hunder* 'round'.

Allophone /U/ occurs in:

- a) closed ultima syllable (except for borrowing words, elativus category, or the ones which have emotive-ekspressive value):
bagUs 'handsome', *adUs* 'take a shower', *wedhUs* 'goat'
- b) closed paenultima/antepaenultima syllable: *pUrwa* 'beginning', *dUrjana* 'criminal', *mUrda* 'capitalized Javanese letters', *mUrca* 'disappear'.

4) Vowel /o/

Vowel /o/ has two allophones: /o/ and /O/

Allophone /o/ occurs in:

- a) open ultima syllable: *loyo* 'so weak', *karo* 'with', *loro* 'two', *jero* 'inside'.
- b) Either open or closed paenultima/antepaenultima syllable: *blondho* 'fried extract of non-fat coconut milk', *sore* 'afternoon', *boneka* 'doll', *kowe* 'you'.

Allophone /O/ occurs in:

- a) closed ultima syllable: *bOlOng* 'has a hole', *gOlOng* 'to lift', *genthOng* 'a big jug', *garOng* 'robber'.
- b) Either open or closed paenultima/ antepaenultima syllable: *bOrOng* 'buy all', *gOri* 'raw jackfruit', *lOnjOng* 'oval'.

5) Vowel /a/

Vowel /a/ has two allophones: /a/ and /A/

Allophone /a/ occurs in:

- a) open ultima syllable: *lara* 'sick', *dawa* 'long', *suda* 'reduced', *kutha* 'city', *sida* 'not canceled'.
- b) Either open or closed paenultima/ antepaenultima syllable: *para* 'plural definite article', *lara* 'sick', *dawa* 'long', *sentana* 'Kraton guard', *prAtandha* 'sign/ symbol', *tamba* 'cure', *Landa* 'Holland, Dutch', *Dasamuka* 'ten faces', *Rahwana* 'King of Alengka (Ramayana)'.

Allophone /A/ occurs in:

- a) closed ultima syllable: *bApA?* 'father', *gêA?* 'to threaten', *bocAh* 'kid', *sirAh* (Krama Inggil) 'head'.
- b) Either open or closed paenultima/ antepaenultima syllable: *tAnpa* 'without', *sAmbêl* 'hot spicy relish', *gAtêl* 'itchy', *prAsaja* 'modest', *prAhara* 'chaos'

(Subroto, 1991: 21- 23).

2.9 Standard Language

Actually language variety which would count as a 'proper language' (in the second sense of 'language'), is a standard language. The notion 'standard language' is somewhat imprecise, but a typical standard language will have passed through the following processes (Haugen 1966 in Hudson 1980).

1. Selection – somehow or other a particular variety must have been elected as the one to be developed into a standard language. It may be an existing variety,

such as the one used in an important political or commercial centre, but it could be an amalgam of various varieties. The choice is a matter of great social and political importance, as the chosen variety necessarily gains prestige and so the people who already speak it share in this prestige. However, in some cases the chosen variety has been one with no native speakers at all—for instance, Classical Hebrew in Israel and the two modern standards for Norwegian (Haugen 1994).

2. Codification – some agency such as an academy must have written dictionaries and grammar books to ‘fix’ the variety, so that everyone agrees on what is correct. Once codification has taken place, it becomes necessary for any ambitious citizen to learn the correct forms and not to use in writing any ‘incorrect’ forms that may exist in their native variety.

3. Elaboration of function – it must be possible to use the selected variety in all the functions associated with central government and with writing: for example, in parliament and law courts, in bureaucratic, educational and scientific documents of all kinds and, of course, in various forms of literature. This may require extra linguistic items to be added to the variety, especially technical words, but it is also necessary to develop new conventions for using existing forms – how to formulate examination questions, how to write formal letters and so on.

4. Acceptance – the variety has to be accepted by the relevant population as the variety of the community – usually, in fact, as the national language. Once this has happened, the standard language serves as a strong unifying force for the state, as a symbol of its independence of other states (assuming that its standard is

unique and not shared with others), and as a marker of its difference from other states. It is precisely this symbolic function that makes states go to some lengths to develop one.

The variety of language in English which has been learned in Indonesia is of course the standard one – concerning that most People in Indonesia has been learning English through some grammar books and dictionaries.

2.10 Dialect and Accent

For the lay people perhaps the two terms are mixed up. But of course it is obvious that dialect has greater extent than accent. ACCENT refers to nothing but pronunciation and DIALECT refers to every other aspect of language. This allows us to distinguish between the standard dialect and non-standard dialects, while making separate statements about pronunciation in terms of accents (Wells, 1982). Thus in Britain we may say that many people use a regional accent but standard dialect, and a select few use an RP accent with the same standard dialect. Great confusion results if the standard dialect, which is a matter of vocabulary, syntax and morphology, is referred to as 'RP' (Hudson, 1980).

CHAPTER III

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF THE DATA