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Research Article

Contrastive Analysis of Phonology (Sounds, Speech, Stress, and Intonation) of Arabic and Indonesian Languages

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Abstract. Phonology has a crucial role in the early stages of learning both native and foreign languages. This research aimed to analyze the phonological differences between Arabic and Indonesian, focusing on aspects such as sound systems, pronunciation, stress, and intonation. This study was classified as a literature review. The method employed was a descriptive contrastive analysis, comparing contrasting differences in Arabic and Indonesian through a pedagogical linguistic approach. The results showed that the vowel sounds in Arabic consist of *fathah, fathah thowilah, kasrah, kasrah thowilah, dhommah, dhommah and thowilah* which significantly impact the meaning of the language. On the other hand, Indonesian vowel sounds /i/, /u/, /e/, /ə/, /o/, and /a/ did not influence meaning and tended to remain

consistent in their speech functions. Regarding stress and intonation, Indonesian utilized these elements to differentiate meaning when spoken with flat, high, and low tones in delivering news or interrogative sentences. In contrast, Arabic stress and intonation patterns were based on the position of consonants, syllables, and the length of vowels.

Keywords: Contrastive Analysis, Phonology, Arabic, Indonesian

Abstrak. Pembelajaran bahasa ibu maupun bahasa asing. Penelitian ini bertujuan untuk menganalisis perbedaan fonologi bahasa Arab, dan bahasa Indonesia pada aspek sistem bunyi, ucapan, penekanan, dan intonasi. Penelitian ini termasuk dalam kategori penelitian pustaka. Metode yang dipakai berupa analisis kontrastif deskriptif dengan membandingkan perbedaan yang kontras dalam bahasa Arab dan bahasa Indonesia menggunakan pendekatan linguistik pedagogis. Hasil penelitian ini menunjukan perbedaan bahwa bunyi vokal dalam bahasa Arab terdiri dari, *fathah, fathah thowilah, kasrah, kasrah thowilah, dhommah, dhommah thowilah* yang berpengaruh sebagai pembeda makna bahasa, Sedangkan vokal bahasa Indonesia /i/, /u/, /e/, /ə/, /o/, dan /a/ yang tidak berpengaruh terhadap makna dan cenderung tetap dalam fungsi ujaran. Dalam aspek tekanan dan intonasi bahasa Indonesia dijadikan sebagai pembeda makna ketika diucapkan dengan nada datar, tinggi, dan rendah dalam penyampaian berita maupun kalimat tanya, sedangkan dalam bahasa Arab tekanan dan intonasi berpola berdasarkan posisi jumlah konsonan, suku kata, serta panjang pendeknya vokal.

Kata Kunci: Analisis Kontrastif, Fonologi, Bahasa Arab, Bahasa Indonesia

INTRODUCTION

Language is a tool for everyday communication. The language used as a means of communication in this process is created orally and then formed into symbols or sound symbols in the form of written language (Rohim, 2013).

Language is the key to knowledge and is also a window to the world. This is because various knowledge exists and is created because it is talked about and it exists because it is talked about. A people will explain their meaning to another people through language. Language is the pronunciation/words used by each individual (race) to convey their intentions/desires (Reflinaldi, 2018). Then it is similar to what was stated by Ibn Jinni that language is the sound that a people utters to express their aims and objectives.

Gorys Keraf also stated that language is a means of communication between members of the public in the form of sound symbols created by human speech organs. And based on this view, language is a very important mediation tool, inseparable from human life, capable of linking various similarities and differences (Keraf, 2004).

Then regarding the similarities and differences, Arabic and Indonesian are two different languages. However, it is also possible that the two have something in common. Arabic is an international language and in Indonesia, Arabic is one of the languages that an individual uses after his mother tongue. Like English, Arabic plays a crucial role in social life (Reflinaldi, 2018).

Arabic is very popular nowadays because Arabic is the language of religion, the language of unifying Muslims and the language of science. Fluency in Arabic is the main requirement in deepening the teachings of the Islamic religion. Because it is known that the source of Islamic teachings is the Al-Quran and Hadith in Arabic.

Likewise, when carrying out prayers, every Muslim prays using Arabic. So understanding and studying Arabic is very important, both for communication, knowledge and worship, especially for us Muslims.

And even though it is considered a foreign language in Indonesia, Arabic is not foreign to the ears, especially for Muslims. This was also expressed by Ahmad Muradi that Indonesian has religious and ideological ties. With most of the population adhering to Islamic teachings, Arabic has been studied for generations. Arabic is also closely related to the language of religious rituals such as prayers, prayers and Friday sermons. Thus, Arabic has become the language of the Islamic religion that cannot be separated from Muslims in Indonesia (Muradi, 2016).

Then Indonesian is the national language of the Indonesian people. This is different from Arabic which has become a global language. Indonesian is the identity of the Indonesian nation. And each language certainly shows the identity of each user. And the language will still exist if it is always used by its users. As stated by Abdul Mu'in, language develops based on the preferences of its users. The life or death of a language really depends on how well people use it in various aspects of life. A language is declared alive if people still use it in daily life and dead if otherwise (Mu'in, 2004).

Both Arabic and Indonesian have their own terms and conditions. Be it provisions in terms of structure, characteristics, sentence structure, word formation, how to express something, etc. From these provisions, there are several differences and similarities that can be analyzed. And although there are similarities and differences between the two, their use must be in accordance with their respective rules. One form of language use in question is the use of sentences. Both Indonesian and Arabic certainly have their own rules for using sentences. In essence, the use of sentences in every language is the same, namely consisting of a subject and a predicate. Iyo Mulyono said, based on traditional theory, which apparently is also used by adherents of structural theory, there are four functions of sentence parts, namely the function of subject, pedigree, object and information. Subject and predicate elements are the core elements in a sentence. And he also explains, according to traditional grammarians, especially st. Takdir Alisjahbana noted that the object and description elements are descriptions for the predicate elements. This means that objects and information have the same basic function, namely explaining the predicate of the sentence (Mulyono, 2012).

And talking about information is something that is no less important than the main elements of the sentence (subject and predicate) because information is something that can provide an explanation of what is mentioned in the sentence. As stated by Supriyadi, information is a sentence element that provides additional information about something in the form of a sentence, for example providing information about time, place, cause, method, purpose.

In Arabic, apart from the core elements of a sentence (musnad and musnad ilaihi), there are complementary words that function to explain a sentence, such as jar majrur, hal, na'at man'ut and zharaf. And dzaraf according to Nurul Huda is a formed word whose function is to state the place or time an action occurs. And this zharaf is divided into two types, zharaf for times and zharaf for eating. Meanwhile in Indonesian, the discussion regarding information about time and place is included in

the division of word groups, namely adverbials, but what is studied in the following article is limited to information about time in Indonesian and zharaf era in Arabic. In Arabic, Zharaf Zaman is defined as:

"االسم المنصوب الذي يدلعلى زمان حدوث الفعل".

That is the word mansub which shows the time when the work is carried out. Meanwhile, time information in Indonesian is a type of adverb that explains and provides information regarding the occurrence of a certain event at a certain time. Information about time or times in Indonesian does not record changes in verbs but rather indicates temporal nouns such as now, today, recently, etc (Rustanti, 2019).

In both there are similarities, namely between zaraf in Arabic and descriptions of place and time in Indonesian, namely that they both indicate time and place. From the introductory explanation, the author wants to Limit the discussion and analyze the differences and similarities between Zharaf Zaman in Arabic and Kala/time adverbs in Indonesian. So the title of this article is "Contrastive Analysis of Time/Descriptions of Time in Indonesian and Zharaf Zaman in Arabi The purpose of linguistics is to offer systematic explanations to support knowledge in the language itself. For instance, this is exemplified in linguistic phenomena, it can be scientifically explained without making hypotheses without empirical findings. Therefore, linguistics strives to maintain objective and consistent principles in providing explanations. Through linguistic studies, phenomena of a language can be systematized, making it easier to understand and learn.

Contrastive linguistics, also known as contrastive analysis, is a branch of micro-linguistics (Soeparno, 2002). The term "contrastive" is derived from the verb "to contrast," which means "to set in opposition in order to show unlikeness; compare by observing differences," as defined by Richards (1989). Therefore, contrastive linguistics is a model of language analysis with the hypothesis that languages can be compared synchronically. The motto in this synchronic approach is "Describe the facts, all the facts, and nothing but the facts" (Lafamane, 2020).

Contrastive linguistics can reveal contrasting aspects between the first and second languages, in this case, Arabic and Indonesian, particularly in terms of phonology as the uniqueness of each language.

Through contrastive analysis, we can discern contrasting aspects between two compared languages. Contrastive analysis aims to identify contrasting differences or salient dissimilarities between two or more languages being compared. There are two approaches to contrastive analysis: Applied Contrastive Analysis and Pure Contrastive Analysis (Ellis, 1986). Both approaches involve comparing two languages, the first and the second, but they differ in their objectives. Applied Contrastive Analysis aims to address pedagogical problems, providing valuable insights to enhance the learning of a second (foreign) language by understanding its distinctive features. Additionally, contrastive analysis is beneficial for advancing the field of linguistics itself and for gaining insights into the culture of another nation through language differences.

Arabic and Indonesian are different languages. Arabic belongs to the Semitic language family (Mustafa, 2019), while Indonesian belongs to the Austronesian

language family (Wahya, 2020). These two languages have distinct systems in terms of phonology, resulting in different sounds, pronunciations, stresses, and intonations with their respective characteristics. Arabic and Indonesian are phonologically very different from each other. While both languages may share some phonetic characteristics, they also exhibit unique differences (M. Ali, et al., 2022).

Phonology, referred to as 'Ilmu al-Ashwat' in Arabic, is a branch of linguistics that examines the symbols of sounds, addressing the formation, transition, and reception of language sounds (al-Khouli, 1982). The role of phonology in linguistic studies is foundational and serves as an essential prerequisite for mastering subsequent levels such as morphology, syntax, and semantics (Gani, 2018). General phonology is the study of sounds in various languages, while specific phonology focuses on the sounds within a particular language. In its exploration, the study of phonology can be divided into two fields: the study of phonetics and the study of phonemics. Phonetic analysis concentrates on the sounds of language without considering their relationship to word meaning, while phonemic analysis focuses on the function of each sound as a differentiator of word meaning (Akhyaruddin et al., 2020).

Formulation of the problem

Based on the theory above, the author focuses in this research to analyze What are the differences in the phonological aspects, specifically in terms of vowels, pronunciation, stress, and intonation, between Arabic and Indonesian languages?

Research purposes

Based on the statement of the problem, this research aims to compare the phonological structures of each language and conduct a contrastive analysis of the noticeable differences found in the phonological structures of Arabic and Indonesian, especially in terms of sound systems, pronunciation, stress, and intonation.

THEORETICAL BASIS

In studying phonology, there are two elements, namely phonetics and phonemics. Various types of sounds in phonetic studies include: (1) Segmental sounds, which are sounds that can be segmented or divided into segments. Segmental sounds are produced by breath, speech organs, and vocal cords. There are four types of segmental sounds: (a) Consonant, which is a sound obstructed by speech organs, (b) Vowel, which is a sound not obstructed by speech organs, (c) Diphthong, which is two vowels pronounced as a single sound, for example: /ai/ in "sungai" (river), /au/ in "kau" (you), (d) Cluster, which is two consonants pronounced as a single sound. (2) Suprasegmental sounds, which cannot be segmented into individual segments. There are three types of suprasegmental sounds: (a) Intonation: pauses, tempo, stress (pitch), tone, rhythm, (b) Expression (facial expressions/gestures), (c) Kinesics (body movements: eyes, hands, feet, head, and others). In written language, these are marked with ",;. !?" or other punctuation marks (Akhyaruddin et al., 2020).

Phonemics is the study of phonemes, examining the sounds of a language as differentiators of meaning. Phonemics can also be defined as the smallest functional units of language, meaning phonemic units serve the function of distinguishing

meaning. Phonemes can be limited to distinctive units or significant sound units. For example, the sounds [r] + [u] + [s] + [u] + [h] compared to [l] + [u] + [s] + [u] + [h], where the only difference lies in the first sound, [r] and [l]. Thus, it can be concluded that these two sounds are different phonemes in the Indonesian language, namely the phonemes // and /r/.

From a classification perspective, phonemes consist of vowel phonemes, consonants, and semivowels. To examine phonemic sounds, there are at least four premises: (1) Speech sounds mutually influence or are influenced by their environment; (2) Speech sounds form symmetric patterns; (3) Speech sounds that are phonetically similar must be classified into different phoneme classes; (4) Complementary speech sounds must be included in the same phoneme class.

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Arabic Phonology

The discussion on Arabic phonetics began with a figure named Abu al-Aswad al-Dualiy (d. 69 H/688 M), originally named Dzalim bin Amr bin Sufyan. Abu al-Aswad al-Dualiy studied under Caliph Ali bin Abi Thalib and was commissioned by the caliph to introduce vowel marks at the end of words in the transcription of the Quran (Singgih Kuswardono and Ahmad Miftahuddin, 2012). Linguists from earlier periods to contemporary times have provided various definitions for the term "bunyi" (sound) with different interpretations. Ibn Sina, categorized as an old linguist, argued that sound is the process of absorption and forceful expulsion of air from the existing sound features. On the other hand, Ibrahim Anis, classified as a modern linguist, stated that sound is a natural process with known results, regardless of its presence (Anis, 1971).

In Arabic, there are three words that mean "sound," namely lafaz, jahr, and shaut. From a phonological perspective, Arabic has specific characteristics (Rosyidi and Ni'mah, 2011).

a. The number of letters in the Arabic language is called "makharijul huruf," totaling 28 letters with distinct points of articulation (makharijul huruf) that differ from other languages.
b. The existence of letter "dhod," which does not exist in the articulation points (makhroj) of other languages, etc.
c. the non-existence of words with complex syllables that are difficult to read, such as "fi-u-la."
d. the non-existence of words that directly bring together two consecutive dead letters. There are very few words consisting of two letters (al alfadz al tsuna'iyyah), mostly three letters, and then additional one, two, three, up to four letters
e. the non-existence of four consecutive vowel letters, alongside other aspects included in the deep structure domain (al-bina' al-dahily) including metaphorical,

phonological, and lexical aspects. The Arabic language is highly flexible, adhering to an analogy system (qiyas), and is rich in derivation (isytiqoq) and vocabulary (mufradat).

The sounds in the Arabic language, like the sounds in general, are distinguished into vowels and consonants. In Arabic terminology, vowels are known as al-ashwat al-shaitah or al-harakat, while consonants are known as al-ashwat al-shamitah or letters.

a. Vowel

Vowels in the Arabic language are called صوائت or حركات. In the study of the phonetic aspects of the Arabic language, vowels have various designations. Such as الصوائت, المصوتات, أصوات العلة, الأصوات اللينة, الأصوات المتحركة, الأصوات الطليقة. However, most phonologists refer to it as حركات or صوائت. Vocal (صوائت/ حركات) which means the sounds of the language produced through the airflow from the lungs that, in their formation, do not undergo any constriction or obstruction. (Nasharuddin Idris, 2015). Called حركات because it marks a punctuation on a letter (consonant), making it possible to be pronounced. Simply put, vowels in the Arabic language are sound markers written above or below active-pattern consonants, including fathah for the sound (a), kasrah for the sound (i), and dhommah for the sound (u), as well as passive-pattern sukun, indicating the absence of a vowel sound. (Al-Khouli, 1982) and (Fatoni, 2013).

Vowel sounds in the Arabic language consist of three: fathah, kasrah, and dhommah. Each of these sounds is further distinguished into short vowels and long vowels. Therefore, it can be concluded that vowel sounds in the Arabic language consist of fathah, fathah thowilah, kasrah, kasrah thowilah, dhommah, and dhommah thowilah. This classification is based on the differentiating function of meaning carried by short and long vowels. Thus, these six vowels can be considered phonemes in the Arabic language. In Arabic, vowels can be divided into long vowels and short vowels as follows: (Anis, 1990).

1) Long Vowel

Long vowel or commonly referred to as "mad," is a vowel that, during its pronunciation, requires twice the tempo of pronouncing a short vowel. Arabic language scholars call this long vowel "mad," consisting of three (3) letters: alif preceded by fathah, such as قام، جاء، كما Then the wawu preceded by dhammah, for example كلوا لور، سرور and and the last is ya preceded by kasrah, such as قيل, أليما مؤمنين

2) Short Vowel

In short vowels of the Arabic language, they are subject to the same rules as long vowels, both receiving three (3) tempos, as stated by Ibn Jinni and agreed upon by Ibrahim Anis, that short vowels in the Arabic language are kasrah, dhammah, and fathah. If linguistic scholars refer to long vowels as "mad," then these short vowels are also referred to as "harakat."

b. Consonant

The phonemes of the Arabic language amount to 34, consisting of six vowels and 28 consonants. Suprasegmental elements are not included in the classification of Arabic phonemes, as they are not used to distinguish the meanings of words in

general. However, linguistic experts differ in their opinions on the number of letters in the Arabic language. Classical language experts argue that there are 29 letters, while others, like Abu al-Abbas al-Mubarrid, only include 28 primary letters. The difference in these opinions revolves around their treatment of the hamzah letter. The first opinion includes the hamzah letter, while the second does not include it among the primary letters. As for their forms, they are ا, ب, ت, ث, ج, ح, خ, د, ذ, ر, ز, س, ش, ص, ض, ط, ظ,ع غ, ف, ق, ك, ل, م,ن, و, هـ, ي and some include the hamzah letter (ء). The hamzah letter is the letter that has the most forms and changes in the Arabic script. The symbol for the hamzah letter is generally (ء), however, this letter has complex rules of writing, making its writing often problematic. Unlike the Latin alphabet, Arabic letters are written from right to left, while Latin letters are written from left to right. Arabic letters can also be arranged in several ways, either alphabetically, by Hijaiyah, or by Makhraj. The arrangement of letters is an influence that Arabic letters still carry from the Aramaic alphabet, the Hijaiyah arrangement was created by Najr Ibn Ashim during the Umayyad dynasty, and the Makhraj arrangement follows the sequence of Makhraj. (Dariyadi, 201).

In addition to the primary letters, Arabic letters still have several letters whose functions are modified, as well as other signs. These signs serve to recognize sound symbols that are not represented by their primary letters. Therefore, these signs can be considered complementary parts of the Arabic letters. The letters and signs include alif maqshurah, lam alif, ta marbutah, sukun, and shaddah. Most Arabic letters can be connected (Connector), while some symbols cannot be connected (Nonconnector).

The division of consonants or letters based on their articulation is the fundamental consideration in this classification. The level of obstruction that occurs against the airflow, whether total obstruction, partial obstruction, or distortion that occurs in the air's exit path due to the strength of the obstruction, causes the air to find its way out through the nasal cavities or through the gaps at the edges of the mouth. From this perspective, the classification of Arabic consonants is divided into three types, detailed as follows:

a) **Stop Consonants الأصوات الانفجارية**

Explosive consonants are sounds that when articulated encounter strong obstruction from the speech organs, and there is no outlet for air, either from the nose or from the sides of the mouth, so that the air is trapped behind these speech organs. Then, these speech organs quickly open the airway, resulting in a sound like an explosion. Consonants that occur in this way are referred to as explosive sounds. Those included in this category in Arabic are ب-ت-ط-د-ك-ق-ع-ء .

b) **Fricative Consonants الأصوات الاحتكاكية**

Fricative consonants are sounds that, when articulated, do not have a strong closure of the speech organs but allow air to pass freely in that area, even though it may result in some form of vibration. Consonants with such characteristics are referred to as fricative consonants. The fricative consonants in the Arabic language include: ف-ت-ذ ظ-ص-ش ز-خ- ع - ح – ع –ه.

c) Nasal Consonants الأصوات المركبة

Nasal consonants are sounds that, when articulated, the air coming from the lungs encounters strong obstruction from the speech organ. However, when the speech organ provides an opportunity for the air to pass through, it does not happen quickly, so there is no explosion-like sound. Explosive consonants in Arabic are only the letters .خ

c. Stress (nabr) and Intonation (tanghim)

Stress is the prominence of a syllable by elongating its pronunciation, raising the pitch, and increasing the intensity of energy in pronouncing that syllable. It is one of the suprasegmental elements acknowledged in the Arabic language, but it is not considered a meaning differentiator. This element can be interpreted as greater force in articulation on one of the syllables (maqtha'). (Hasan, 2000).

Stress in the Arabic language has four positions, with the popular one being on the syllable before the last word, summarized as follows: (Rosyidi, 2016).

a) To determine the stress position in Arabic vocabulary, first, look at the last syllable. If a word consists of four or five syllables, then the stress is on the last syllable.
b) If the word consists of two or three syllables, then look at the syllable before the last one to find the stress position of the sound.
c) If it is composed of only one syllable, then the stress is on the first letter.
d) Stress will never be on the fourth syllable counted from the end of the word, except in one case, namely when the three syllables before the last one is of the same type.

Therefore, the stress on syllables in a sentence is inseparable from the addition of stress to a particular word itself. According to the theory above, for example, in the word كتاب located in the syllable "تا" which is located in the syllable before the last of a word, and this provides the meaning of a statement. If the emphasis is placed at the end of the syllable, the meaning will change to a question. From here, we can understand that the placement of intonation in a word or expression in Arabic has an impact on the change in meaning.

Another example in the word شكرا, "In pronouncing this word, foreign speakers often do it by applying the intonation and stress of their native language, so that the word should be pronounced by placing the stress on the first maqtho', because this expression consists of two short maqtho.

In addition, intonation in the Arabic language is an essential element that cannot be separated when articulating sentences in Arabic, from beginning to end. A sentence can change meaning depending on variations in its intonation. Low intonation is usually used when the sentence is complete in both form and meaning, while high intonation is used to indicate that the sentence is not yet complete and is still related to the following sentence. Considering the significant function of intonation in Arabic speech. Suprasegmental elements in the Arabic language, including stress (Nabr) and intonation (Tanghim), have an impact on understanding the meaning of Arabic speech. In the Arabic language, there are several words and sentences that have different meanings when given different

stress and intonation. (Rosyidi, 2016)

Indonesian Phonology

Etymologically, the word "phonology" originates from the combination of the Ancient Greek words "phonē," meaning "sound" or "voice," and "logos," meaning "science" or "knowledge." Therefore, phonology can be interpreted as a branch of linguistic science that examines, discusses, and analyzes the sounds produced by the human speech organs in the context of language. (Chaer, 2015) and (Asnidar and Junaid, 2022).

As a whole, this explanation provides a solid and informative overview of phonology, in accordance with its etymological and conceptual framework. Additionally, the term "phonology" is generally used to refer to the description of sound systems in a language. Language fundamentally consists of a series of sounds that form language units, such as words, phrases, and sentences. (Marsono, 2016) and (Rafkahanun, 2021).

In Indonesian phonology, the study revolves around the sound systems in the Indonesian language, such as vowels, consonants, and the phonological rules that influence pronunciation and differentiate the meanings of words in the language. This includes rules regarding allophones, word stress, as well as sound variations that occur in various phonological contexts. Fromkin's perspective emphasizes that phonology is understood from two dimensions: first, phonology is a mental representation of linguistic knowledge, and second, phonology is a description of linguistic knowledge related to the patterns and systems of human language in general. In simpler terms, Kridalaksana asserts that phonology is a field in linguistics that investigates language sounds according to their functions. (Setyaningsih and Rahardi, 2014).

The development and structure of the phonology of the Indonesian language can also be influenced by social and historical factors, including the influence of other languages, social developments within the community, and changes over time. In the phonology of the Indonesian language, experts strive to describe and analyze this sound system to better understand how these sounds are used in everyday language.

a. Vowel

In the context of vowel sounds, there is no articulation involving sound obstruction in the vocal tract. Instead, the structure of vowel sounds is determined by the distance between the tongue and the palate. Based on these structural differences, vowels can be classified into several categories. (Rafkahanun, 2021).

1) Closed vowels are a type of vowel formed by bringing the tongue as close as possible to the palate. Examples in English include [i] as in the word "see" and [u] as in the word "food".
   In indonesian language, the example of closed vowel is:
   Vokal [i]: as in the word "mata" [mata] (eye).
   Vokal [u]: as in the word "kuku" [kuku] (nail).
2) Semi-closed vowels (vokal semitertutup) are a type of vowel formed by raising the tongue to a height approximately one-third below a closed vowel or two-thirds above an open vowel. Examples from different languages involving semi-

closed vowels include:

In Indonesian, semi-closed vowels can be found in words such as:

[e] in the word "seperti" [sɛpɛrti] (as).

[o] in the word "soto" [soto] (traditional Indonesian food).

In both examples, the vowels [e] and [o] can be considered semi-closed vowels because the tongue is raised to a height approximately one-third below a closed vowel or two-thirds above an open vowel. This variation provides a distinctive phonetic nuance in the Indonesian language.

3) Semi-open vowels (vokal semiterbuka) are a type of vowel formed by raising the tongue to a height approximately one-third above an open vowel or two-thirds below a closed vowel. Examples from various languages involving semi-open vowels include:

   In Indonesian, semi-open vowels can be found in words such as:

   [a]: in the word "satu" [satu] (one).

   [ɑ]: in the word "kata" [kɑta] (word).

   Open vowels have distinctive sound characteristics and play an important role in shaping the acoustics and phonemes of a language.

b. Consonants

In various languages, consonants are speech sounds produced by obstructing or restricting the airflow through the speech organs. Consonants are formed through articulation, which involves coordinating movements of speech organs such as the lips, tongue, teeth, palate, and vocal cords. (Marsono, 2016).

1) Stop consonants, or plosive consonants, occur with a complete obstruction of airflow in the oral cavity or vocal tract, followed by a sudden release, creating an explosive sound. Based on their place of articulation, stop consonants can be distinguished in various languages. Here are examples in several languages:
   a) In various languages, bilabial stop consonants occur when the active articulator is the lower lip, and the passive articulator is the upper lip. This sound can be produced in the form of [p] (voiceless plosive) and [b] (voiced plosive).
   b) The stop consonant apico-dental obstruction occurs when the active articulator is the tip of the tongue, and the passive articulator is the upper teeth. This sound commonly appears in the form of [t] (voiceless plosive) and [d] (voiced plosive).
   c) Apico-palatal stop consonant obstruction occurs when the active articulator is the tip of the tongue, and the passive articulator is the hard palate (upper palate). The resulting sounds are [ṭ] and [ḍ]. For example, [ṭ] is represented by 'th' in the word 'datang,' pronounced as [ḍaṭaŋ] in Balinese, and [ḍ] is represented by 'dh' in the word 'padi,' pronounced as [paḍi] in Balinese.
   d) Medio-palatal stop consonant obstruction occurs when the active articulator is the middle of the tongue, and the passive articulator is the hard palate. The resulting sounds are [c] and [j]. For example, [c] in 'cuci' is pronounced as [cuci], and [j] in 'janji' is pronounced as [janji].
   e) Dorso-velar stop consonant obstruction occurs when the active articulator is

the back of the tongue, and the passive articulator is the soft palate (velum). The resulting sounds are [k] and [g]. For example, [k] in 'kaki' is pronounced as [kaki], and [g] in 'gusi' is pronounced as [gusi].

f) Hamzah consonant occurs by bringing two structures close together in the vocal tract. The soft palate and the glottis are pressed together, momentarily obstructing the airflow. The resulting sound is [ʔ]. For example, [ʔ] in 'maaf' is pronounced as [maʔaf].

2) Nasal consonants, or nasalized consonants, occur when the airflow is blocked from exiting through the oral cavity and is instead redirected through the nasal cavity. This is achieved by closing off the oral cavity, involving a lowering of the soft palate and uvula. Based on their place of articulation, nasal consonants can be distinguished in various languages:
   a) Bilabial nasal consonant occurs when the active articulator is the lower lip and the passive articulator is the upper lip. The resulting nasal sound is [m]. For example, [m] in 'muka' is pronounced as [muka].
   b) Medio-palatal nasal consonant occurs when the active articulator is the middle of the tongue and the passive articulator is the hard palate. The resulting nasal sound is [ñ]. For example, [ñ] in 'menyanyi' is pronounced as [meñani], and 'sunyi' is pronounced as [suñi].
   c) Apico-alveolar nasal consonant occurs when the active articulator is the tip of the tongue and the passive articulator is the alveolar ridge (gum ridge). The resulting nasal sound is [n]. For example, [n] in 'nuri' is pronounced as [nuri].
   d) Dorso-velar nasal consonant occurs when the active articulator is the back of the tongue and the passive articulator is the soft palate (velum). The resulting nasal sound is [ŋ]. For example, [ŋ] in 'menggali' is pronounced as [meŋgali].
3) Affricates are a type of stop consonant that consists of two phases: the obstruction of airflow and a gradual release. Their place of articulation involves the tip of the tongue and the back of the gum ridge. Some languages use affricates such as [ts] and [dʒ].
4) Laterals are a type of consonant formed by obstructing the airflow in the middle of the oral cavity, allowing air to escape through one or both sides of the tongue. Their place of articulation involves the tip of the tongue and the gums. A common sound produced in this category is [l].
5) Fricative consonants are a type of consonant formed by narrowing the passage through which airflow is released from the lungs, resulting in the escape of air with friction or hissing. According to their place of articulation, fricative consonants can be classified into several types.
   a) Labiodental fricative consonants occur when the active articulator is the lower lip and the passive articulator is the upper teeth. The resulting sounds are [f] and [v]. For example, [f] in 'fotosintesis' is pronounced as [fotosintɛsis], and [v] in 'vibrasi' is pronounced as [vibrasi].
   b) Lamino-alveolar fricative consonants occur when the active articulators are the blade of the tongue (side of the tongue) and the tip of the tongue, while the passive articulator is the alveolar ridge (gum ridge). The resulting sounds are [s] and [z]. For example, [s] in 'susah' is pronounced as [susah], and [z] in

'zalim' is pronounced as [zalim].

c) Dorso-velar fricative consonants occur when the active articulator is the back of the tongue (dorsum) and the passive articulator is the soft palate (velum). The resulting sound is [x]. For example, [x] in 'taksi' is pronounced as [taxsi].
d) Laryngeal fricative consonants occur when the active articulators are the vocal folds (vocal cords) and the glottis is in an open position. The resulting sound is [h]. For example, [h] in 'hawa' is pronounced as [hawa].
e) Trill consonants, also known as vibratory or rolled consonants, are a type of consonant formed by obstructing the airflow from the lungs repeatedly and rapidly. According to their place of articulation, apico-alveolar trill consonants occur when the tip of the tongue vibrates against the gum ridge. The resulting sound is commonly represented by [r].

c. Stress

When segmental sounds are pronounced, they cannot be separated from the characteristics of the sound being either strong or weak. This is due to the involvement of muscle energy when the sound is articulated. This variation in pressure can be grouped into four categories: (Triadi and Emha, 2021).

[ˈ] Strong pressure
[-] Moderate pressure
[ˋ] Weak pressure
[ ] No pressure

In some languages, voice stress can be a significant difference in meaning. However, in Indonesian, voice stress more commonly occurs at the sentence level and is used to distinguish the meaning of sentences.

Example:
Saya membeli buku (yang membeli buku saya, bukan kamu)
I bought a book (the one who bought my book, not you).
Saya membeli buku (saya benar-benar membeli buku, bukan mencuri)
I bought a book (I really bought the book, not stole it).
Saya membeli buku (yang saya beli memang buku, bukan yang lain)
I bought a book (what I bought is indeed a book, not something else)

In terms of individual words, emphasis on syllables or syllabic stress does not have any impact on meaning differentiation; it does not provide different meanings. Stressing any syllable, whether it is in the first, second, third, and so on, does not have a significant effect. Therefore, it can be stated that syllabic stress is not phonemic in the Indonesian language.

Furthermore, sound stress is related to the dialect or idiolect possessed by the speaking community (sociolinguistic study). This explains that each person has their own language variation, known as an idiolect. Idiolect variations involve aspects such as voice nuances, word choices, language style, sentence structures, and so on (Chaer and Agustina, 1995) and (Triadi and Emha, 2021).

The analogy is, when we are familiar with someone and recognize their accent,

we can identify who that person is just by hearing their voice, even when communicating over the phone.

d. Intonation

When segmental sounds are pronounced, they always involve pitch, whether it is high, medium, or low. This is caused by factors such as vocal cord tension, airflow, and the position of the vocal cords when the sound is pronounced. The more tense the vocal cords, caused by an increase in airflow from the lungs, the higher the pitch of the sound tends to be. At the sentence level, pitch variations, commonly referred to as intonation, play a differentiating role.

Therefore, in terms of meaning differentiation, pitch in the Indonesian language is not phonemic. The following are symbols of graphemes/phonetic transcriptions for the high-low pitch in the Indonesian language (or in phonetic transcriptions, generally referred to as intonation punctuation).

The symbol [II] represents a falling level intonation. It is commonly found in news sentences.

The symbol [//] represents a rising level intonation. It is commonly found in interrogative sentences.

The symbol [==] represents a high-level intonation. It is typically found in imperative sentences.

The application of each punctuation symbol for high-low pitch is as follows:

Example:

[baksoII] indicates an announcement that there is meatball (bakso).

[bakso//] signifies asking about meatball (bakso).

[bakso==] is used for calling a meatball (bakso) seller.

METHOD

Research design

This study was classified as a literature review, which is synonymous with text or writing analysis (Amir, 2020). The approach used was a linguistic approach. The analysis method employed a descriptive contrastive analysis with the aimed of identifying contrasting differences or salient dissimilarities between two or more languages being compared. Through this contrastive approach, the distinctiveness of each language (between the first language and the foreign language) will be obtained, which implies differences in language phonology (Nur, 2016). There were four stages to be undertaken to contrast the components of the three compared languages, namely (1) collecting quotations from various literature as relevant data sources, (2) summarizing or processing the data to present their comparisons in the same linguistic units for the three languages under study, (3) identifying or analyzing existing contrasting variants, and (4) formulating contrasts with structured rules.

The working process or method used to achieve the research objectives or understand the differences in phonological structures between two languages

requires, first and foremost, the availability of descriptions or characterizations of the two compared languages. Ideally, these descriptions should encompass all supporting components, including the phonological structure covering aspects of sound, pronunciation, stress, and intonation. However, providing a comprehensive description of linguistic components for both languages seems impractical, ineffective, and inefficient. Therefore, some contrastive linguists, such as Hamp (1968), advocate for a Polysystemic approach based on the assumption that language is essentially a system of systems, and in this research, it applies to the phonological system. A similar suggestion is made by Richards et al. (1989), concerning the systems being compared, which involve sound systems, pronunciation, stress, and intonation.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The contrast between Arabic and Indonesian in terms of vowels, consonants, stress, and intonation results

1. **Vowel**
   a. Arabic language:
   - Utilizes diacritical (harakat) marks to represent vowels.
   - Has six vowels, including both long and short vowels.
   - Serves the function of distinguishing meaning between long and short vowels.
     Example:
     The word with long vowel: "مَدْرَسَةٌ" (madrasatun - school).
     The word with short vowel: "مَدْرَسِي" (madrasee – teacher).

   b. Indonesian Language:
   - Vowels are not always represented with diacritical marks.
   - Has six vowels, but the distinction in length is not always present.
   - Meaning differentiation relies less on vowel length.
     Example:
     Word with long vowel: "pulu" [pulu] - meaning sepuluh (ten).
     The word with short vowel "puluh" [puluh] - artinya puluh (ten).

2. **Consonants:**
   a. Arabic:
   - Uses Arabic letters to write consonants.
   - Consists of plosive, nasal, affricate, lateral, and fricative consonants.
     Example:
     Plosive Consonant: "كِتَابٌ" (kitaabun - book).
     Nasal Consonant: "نَفْسٌ" (nafsun – beath).
   b. Indonesian Language:
   - Uses Latin letters to write consonants.
   - Consists of plosive, nasal, and fricative consonants.
     Example:
     Plosive consonant: "kucing" [kucing] (cat).

Nasal consonant: "nasi" [nasi] (rice).

3. Stress:

a. Arabic:

- Stress depends on syllable structure and word length.
- Stress can occur at the beginning, middle, or end of a word.
  Example:
  The word with middle stress: "مَدِينَةٌ" (madiinatun - city).
  The word with beginning stress: "كِتَابٌ" (kitaabun - book).

b. Indonesian language:

- Sentence-level stress is more common.
- There is no significant meaning difference at the word level.
  Example:
  The sentence stess: "SAYA membeli buku" – underline the word of "saya" to give stress in that sentence

4. Intonation:

a. Arabic:

- Intonation plays a role in conveying nuances in sentences.
- Variations in intonation can alter meaning on a secondary level.
  Example:
  Imperative sentence: "اِقْرَأْ الْكِتَابَ!" (Iqra' al-kitaab – read the book!).
  Interrogative sentence: "هَلْ أَنْتَ ذَاهِبٌ؟" (Hal anta dzahibun? – do you leave?).

b. Indonesian language:

- Intonation is often used at the sentence level.
- It can provide an expressive nuance to the sentence.
  Example:
  Imperative sentence: "Makanlah makananmu!" – high intonation in the word "makanlah – Eat!".
  Interrogative sentence: "Apakah kamu tahu? – do you know?" - high intonation in the word "*tahu*-know".

This difference indicates that Arabic and Indonesian have unique sound characteristics and use different phonetic and phonemic elements in conveying meaning.

The contrasting results between Arabic and Indonesian in terms of vowels, consonants, stress, and intonation reflect significant differences in their phonology. In terms of vowels, Arabic uses diacritical marks to represent six vowels, including long and short vowels, which serve as distinctive features for meaning. On the other hand, Indonesian does not always use diacritics for vowels, and differences in vowel length may not always be a significant differentiating factor.

Concerning consonants, Arabic employs Arabic script to write various types of consonants, including stops, nasals, affricates, laterals, and fricatives. In contrast, Indonesian uses the Latin alphabet and has stops, nasals, and fricatives, but there are differences in the types of consonants present, those are

1. Sound "p": The sound "p" is present in Indonesian but absent in Arabic. For example, the word "pohon" in Indonesian has no equivalent in Arabic, and its pronunciation is unfamiliar to Arabic speakers.
2. Sound "v": The sound "v" is present in Indonesian but absent in Arabic. For instance, the word "vokal" in Indonesian has no equivalent in Arabic, and its pronunciation is unfamiliar to Arabic speakers.
3. Sound "g": The sound "g" in Indonesian is sometimes pronounced as "ng" in Arabic. For example, the word "guru" in Indonesian is pronounced as "nguru" in Arabic.
4. Sound "h": The sound "h" in Arabic is harder and heavier compared to the softer "h" sound in Indonesian. For example, the word "halo" in Indonesian is pronounced with a lighter "h" compared to the pronunciation of "halo" in Arabic.
5. Sound "kh": The sound "kh" is present in Arabic but absent in Indonesian. This sound can be challenging for Indonesian speakers as it involves producing a friction sound between the palate and the throat. For example, the word "khalifa" in Arabic has a distinctive and challenging "kh" sound for Indonesian speakers.

In terms of stress, Arabic determines stress based on the structure of syllables and the length of words, with the possibility of stress at the beginning, middle, or end of a word. Meanwhile, Indonesian tends to use stress at the sentence level, and there is not a significant difference in meaning at the word level based on stress.

Lastly, in terms of intonation, Arabic plays a crucial role in conveying nuances within sentences, with variations in intonation capable of altering meaning on a secondary level. Additionally, Indonesian also utilizes intonation, but it is more often applied at the sentence level, providing expressive nuances to the overall sentence.

Overall, this comparison illustrates striking phonological differences between Arabic and Indonesian, highlighting the complexity and uniqueness of each language in terms of sound structure and language usage.

CONCLUSION

Overall, the phonological comparison between Arabic and Indonesian leads us to a deeper understanding of fundamental differences in various linguistic aspects. In terms of vowels, Arabic stands out with the use of diacritical marks as a crucial element in distinguishing six vowels, while Indonesian tends to be simpler in the distinction of vowel length. Regarding consonants, differences in letter usage and types of consonants contribute to the unique characteristics of each language.

In determining stress, Arabic demonstrates flexibility in stress placement at the word level based on syllabic structure and word length, whereas Indonesian emphasizes stress more at the sentence level. Finally, the role of intonation in Arabic adds an additional dimension to convey nuances within sentences, while Indonesian more frequently uses intonation at the sentence level for expressive purposes.

With these differences, Arabic and Indonesian each reflect their own richness and complexity in phonological usage. Understanding these distinctions can provide

a strong foundation for language learners to delve deeper, appreciate the uniqueness of each language, and enrich their cross-cultural communication skills. *History: Educational Journal of History and Humanities, 6(4), 2023*

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