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The Applicative Constructions in Javanese Dialect of Kudus

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A B S T R A C T

This paper presents applicative constructions in Javanese Dialect of Kudus (or JDK for short). For Kudus people, Indonesian has become the favored language and JDK is considered inferior. This situation discourages the study of dialect. Therefore, a corpus was constructed in a fieldwork, sampling three genres: spontaneous conversation, elicited spoken narratives, and newspaper articles. The results indicate the existence of two constructions, one marked by *–i* and one marked by either standard *–(a)ke* or dialectal *–na*. Generally*–i* occurs more frequently than *–na* and *–(a)ke*, but the relative prominence of the other two markers *–na*and *–(a)ke* is not consistent. This might be a genre effect that occurs in these corpora. There appears to be a conscious selection of the dialect-marked form *–na* by the writer of the articles who ignores the use of *–(a)ke*.This study also demonstrates that adult speakers use *–n*a twice as frequently as do the youngers. By contrast *–(a)ke* is used more frequently by younger speakers than adults. The marker *–i* is used with approximately the same frequency by both groups. However, the preference of the younger for the standard variant is highly suggestive despite not being significant.

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1. Introduction

The focus of this study is the grammar of the Javanese dialect of Kudus (or JDK for short), Central Java, Indonesia. The native speakers of JDK, like most Javanese in Indonesia, are largely bilingual in Indonesian and Javanese. However, they prefer to speaking Indonesian to JDK since JDK is considered inferior [1]; [2], a mark of a lack of education [3] and of a lower status in society [2]. This situation does not encourage the study of the dialect and may ultimately lead to the disappearance of JDK. For this reason, it is necessary to study this form of the Javanese language while it is still possible to do so, to preserve knowledge of its structure.

The other reason that JDK is worthy of study is that it has some distinctive features that set it apart from both Standard Javanese and other Javanese dialects. Some non-standard dialects show evidence of grammatical phenomena which have been rarely, or not at all, investigated and described in more general studies [4]. The distinctive features of a language or dialect can be found in the lexicon, phonology, morphology, and syntax. The lexical and phonological features are easily identified [5], but the morphological and syntactic features need more investigation since the distinctions are less straightforwardly observable (see e.g. [6]).

In this study, my primary goal is to make a contribution to the description of Javanese dialect. I will approach this question using the methods of sociolinguistic dialectology and of corpus-based linguistics. I have two specific research questions. Firstly, I would like to investigate the distribution across genres of these applicative constructions of JDK applicative constructions. As my secondary research question, I intend to investigate one aspect of the sociolinguistics of how the use of these constructions varies, specifically how the use of these constructions is affected by the age of the speaker.

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In this research, I overview, in turn, some underlying theories including the concept of functional-typological grammar and dialectology, the concept of applicative constructions and the Javanese applicative constructions.

Looking at the position of Javanese among other languages, functional-typological grammar can be used as a perspective to analyze. According to [7], the basic syntactic strategy, such as the morphological properties of groups of words and syntactic distributional criteria, is used differently in each language. However, he points out that although those properties are specific to particular languages, it is still possible to look at the similarities among them in a comparative analysis. Dealing with functional-typological grammar, Croft notes that this framework is able to show how close the integration between form and function is. Similarly, [8] views that the typological approach to cross-linguistic grammatical variation has been historically associated with a functionalist perspective on grammar. In a more specific statement, [8], then, states that functional-typological grammar is 'the study of the diversity of structure that can perform the same type of function'. From these two scholars, it can be concluded that functional-typological grammar can be used to look at the relationship between structure and function in a specific construction of languages.

According to [9], a language may vary. A study about language variation, especially on its lexical and structural component is called dialectology. There are two important terms in dialectology: accent and dialect. Accent refers to differences in phonetics or phonology. In other words, accents concerns with variation in pronunciation. On the other hand, dialects deal with variation in either grammar including lexicon or phonology. According to [10], a dialect is actually the subdivision of a particular language and as a non-standard varieties of language. They provide examples of English sentences showing difference between accent and dialect as (i) I done it last night; and (ii) I did it last night. If these two examples are spoken by two speakers, they might demonstrate two different dialects with variation in grammar. However, if the two speakers pronounce example (ii) differently, they might speak different accents.

Dialects can be identified into regional dialects and social dialect [11]; [12]. Varieties which are distinguished across regional space are known as regional dialects of the language. However, [13] state that there is actually no obvious border between dialect areas. In this issue, Wardhaugh introduces the concept of a dialect continuum. A dialect continuum refers to "a succession of geographically-adjacent dialects", according to [14]. In contrast to regional dialect, there is also dialect variation across different social classes which are known as social dialects. Social classes are grouped based on sociolinguistic factors. Sociolinguistic factors that can be used to consider are socio-economic criteria including education and occupation, sex or gender [12], age [15]; [12].

There have been several works which integrate the functional-typological grammar and dialectology.[16] has conducted a research to look at the non-standard varieties of English across the world, especially for the West Germanic language family. In this work, he distinguishes the varieties of English spoken in the British Isle and the varieties of English across the world. His findings show that "there are many fascinating things going on in spoken non-standard varieties of languages which are unknown in the relevant written standard varieties...". Another work is done by [6]. They have conducted a research to look at the intersection between dialectology and theoretical linguistics on the Lancashire dialect in the United Kingdom. The purpose of their research is to describe the features of the Lancashire dialect, especially to explore the Lancashire dialect grammar. They mainly compared the ditransitive constructions of Lancashire dialect and of the standard British English. They found that all three English ditransitive constructions occur; the non-standard construction is actually more frequent that the standard form. Their study also demonstrates that a study on syntactic variation needs a big number of data. This becomes one reason why a study on the dialect grammar is often neglected. Different from Siewierska and Holmann, [16] argue that in across dialects, one particular pattern may exist in one dialect but is absent in the standard language. Also, he reports that it is possible that one speaker may produce several patterns or construction expressing the same meaning. Kortmann and Haser's finding motivates typologists to work more on the study of dialect grammar.

In this study, I use the intersection of functional-typological grammar and dialectology to investigate between the non-standard variation, the Javanese dialect of Kudus (JDK), and the standard Javanese. As it is a dialect study, I look at the grammar of the dialect, that is the applicative construction. I also take into my account the speakers' age as the sociolinguitic factor that might affect the speakers' selection of one grammatical construction over another.

According to [17], an applicative construction as a valency-increasing phenomenon where a direct object is added to a verb. Applicative constructions give the status of a direct object to oblique noun phrases of different kinds. Likewise, applicative is a morphological process in which a participant is added to the core arguments

[18]. Thus, in the applicativization, there is a process of transitivity because it changes the intransitive into transitive and the transitive into ditransitive forms [19]. In English, it is like an English dative shift as illustrated in (1) below.

(1) English
   a. Oblique Dative : John gave a book to Marry.
   b. Double Object Construction : John gave Marry a book.

In the Oblique Dative form, the verb take a noun phrase *a book* and a prepositional phrase *to Marry* which is *not* an argument. On the other hand in the Double Object Construction, the verb take two noun phrases *Marry* and *a book;* and both are arguments. Compared to the applicative, Peterson adds that applicative constructions are marked overtly with verbal morphological marker. Examples of applicativization showing overt verbal morphology are given by Chung (1976, cited in [17]) with Indonesian as seen in (2) below.

(2) Indonesian (after [20])
   a. *Orang itu me-masak ikan*
   man DET ACT-cook fish
   'The man cooked fish.'

   b. *Orang itu me-masak-kan perempuan itu ikan.*
   man DET ACT-cook-APPL woman DET fish
   'The man cooked fish for the woman.'

The presence of applicative marker *–kan* in (2b) shows the added argument *perempuan itu* 'the woman' which does not exist in (2a). Therefore, *perempuan itu* has the status of a direct object in (2b).

Relating to Javanese language, [21] discusses an applicative construction as a three-place clause which fits to what Haspelmath and Bardey have discussed above. Oglobin demonstrates that the argument added to the verb is an object and not an oblique (or prepositional phrase). He mentions one Javanese applicative marker *–i* but he does not discuss further about applicative in his works.

Unlike Oglobin, [22] discusses further about the Standard Javanese applicative using the terminology of relational grammar. He defines an applicative as "a constructon where an underlying indirect object or oblique is realized as a core argument". An applicative is said as a '3-2 advancement', which in the transformational tradition is called a *dative movement*. By this he means that oblique phrases are promoted to objects or indirect objects through applicativization with an overt morphological marker. The existence of an overt marker in an applicative fits to what Peterson (2007) has argued in the previous section. Sofwan (2010) in his examples demonstrates that an applicative can be derived from a non applicative with either intransitive or transitive verbs. He mentions two Standard Javanese applicative markers: *–ke* and *–i*. Each of these two markers has two allomorphs: *−ke* and *–ake; −i* and *–ni* (also in [23]; cf. [24]). *–(a)ke* and *−i* appear when the root ends with a consonant, while *–ke* and *–ni* are used when the root ends with a vowel. Sofwan actually proposes the standard Javanese Applicative markers based on semantic roles which promotes locatoins, instruments, benefatives, recipiemts and destinations. However, in this study, these semantic roles are discussed further but will be a potential area for further research. Suhandono illustrates the applicative and the corresponding non-applicative construction in sentence (3).

(3) After [23]
   a. *Bambang ng-ajar basa Inggris marang Sri*
   Bambang ACT-teach language English to Sri
   'Bambang taught English to Sri'

   b. *Bambang ng-ajar-i Sri basa Inggris*
   Bambang ACT-teach-APPL Sri language English
   'Bambang taught Sri English.'

On the other hand, working on Tengger Javanese, [25] divides Tengger Javanese applicative constructions into two main groups: the *applicative I* (suffix *–i/–ni*) and the *applicative II* (suffix *–en/–na*); the former suffix is

shared with Standard Javanese but the latter suffix is not. Conners illustrates the use of applicative I with a location argument as shown in (4) below.

(4) Tengger Javanese (after [25])

a.	*Dhek*	*wingi*	*eyang*	*manja-ni*	*gaga*	*karo*	*kenthang*
	On	yesterday	1S	ACT.plant-APPL	field	and	potatoes
	'I planted the field with potatoes yesterday.'						

b.	*Dhek*	*wingi*	*eyang*	*manja*	*kenthang*	*dhek*	*gaga*
	On	yesterday	1S	ACT.plant	potatoes	in	field
	'I planted potatoes in the field yesterday.'						

The *–na* suffix, which is a non-standard form encoding applicative, is found in JDK as well as Tengger. As a non-standard grammatical form, it is an example of preservation rather than innovation. That is, *–na* is a feature that JDK and Tengger have inherited from Middle Javanese and Old Javanese, rather than an innovated feature which has only differentiated then from Standard Javanese.

2. Research Methods

The method I used to collect linguistic material is based upon my research questions. This study is descriptive in nature. The aim is to discover the salient linguistic patterns in actual language with natural data in JDK.

I base this study on a corpus of data mostly collected in Kudus Regency from native speakers residing in this area. The method used to collect the data was tape-recording of a narrative story. The primary data comes from a five-month period of fieldwork I conducted in Kudus Regency from September 2010 to January 2011. For this study, I need narrative data for some reasons. Firstly, narratives are very likely to produce many verbal clauses [26], which I need to answer my research questions. Verbal clauses are clauses with verbal predicates. I need examples of verbal clauses because it is the verbal clause that can carry applicative constructions. Narratives are liable to have high proportion of verbal clauses to analyze because relating a series of actions requires the use of verbal clauses to encode the actions. The use of elicited narrative will, therefore, tend to produce the type of grammatical construction that I am investigating [27]. By collecting spoken narrative data, I expected that the grammatical feature of voice would be used relatively frequently, which would help me build my collection of examples. I hypothesized this is to be the case because, based on work on English, [28] argues that narrative is marked by frequent past tense verbs, place and time adverbs, and dynamic verbs, and [29] demonstrates that many features of narrative can be found cross-linguistically. Secondly, when I approached elicitation of narratives using a stimulus, my informants found it easier to relate the events in the story. Thus, collecting elicited narratives reduces the difficulties experienced by informants in producing a sequence of clauses [27].

In this study, I used Mayer's frog storybooks as tools in narrative elicitation. A frog story entitled "*A boy, a dog, a frog and a friend"* [30]. It was chosen as the prompt because the content would be uniform. In addition, the complicated actions undertaken by the characters in the story are ideal for eliciting a narrative. The pictures trigger informants to produce the sequential clauses that I need. This book tells a story without words in 24 pictures. This book has been used since the 1980s by psycholinguists ([31]; [32]; [33]; etc.). I also used spontaneous speech to enrich the data. [34] argues that the recording of spontaneous speech is the best means of collecting speech units large enough for a thorough investigation of syntax. The topic of the conversations in question depended on the situation in which the recording was made. For example, one topic that came up in a conversation I recorded is the history of a tourist attraction in Kudus.

To have data with various genres, I collected some written data from a local newspaper *Suara Merdeka* in a column for discussion of local issues entitled *Kopi Muria*. The articles in this column were written in JDK. In these articles, it can be seen that almost every single clause contains one or more lexical or morphosyntactic features specific to JDK. The writer appeared to be consciously using these features of JDK to express the linguistic identity of Kudus. The consciousness of a writer (or speaker) that they possess a particular dialect has been given the label of *dialect awareness* [35]. This awareness often leads the speakers/writers of the dialect to establish their regional identity or regional pride. [36] argues that even in a modern community, local identity is important to distinguish one region from another region, and that one most important marker of local identity is the use of local dialects.

After I collected the data, I transcribed my data, divided into clause units, because my aim is to look at clause constructions relevant to my research questions. To analyse the data, I used manual annotation by cutting the clauses into components. I used standardized conventions [37] to indicate the features of the components.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1 The Javanese Dialect of Kudus (JDK) Applicative Constructions Across Genres

The data studied in this study are collected from three different genres: frog story narrative elicitation (FS), spontaneous speech (SS) and wriiten data (WR). I give the cross-genre distribution of the JDK applicative within these corpora in Table 1.

Table 1. The frequency of the JDK applicative constructions in each corpus[1]

Corpus	Total number of applicative	Total number of verbs	Percentage (%)
FS	123	2,307	5.3
SS	85	657	12.9
WR	86	400	21.5
Total	294	3,364	8.7

Table 1 above shows that the applicative construction appears most frequently in the written corpus, where 21.5% of verbs are applicative, and least frequently in the spoken narratives. This finding clearly shows that genre has an effect on how often the applicative is used. This is not unexpected because it is known from the study of English, for example, that the passive – a valency changing construction – is very strongly genre-associated [28]. Clearly, something similar is going on with regard to the JDK applicative constructions. The English passive is genre-associated, but the JDK passive is not significantly genre-associated [38]; however, the JDK applicative *is* genre-associated. However, there is not enough data here for me to say more on this issue. The main point is that the applicative is used much more frequently in writing than in speech. A chi-square test of applicative versus non-applicative across genres shows that the difference is significant: p=0.0 (df=2, χ^2=129.77).

Across the 294 examples, three applicative markers are used: *–na*, *–(a)ke*, and *–i*. The distribution of these three applicative markers across the corpora is shown in Table 2 and Chart 1.

Table 2. The distribution of the JDK applicative markers in each corpus

Marker	Frog story (FS)		Spontaneous speech (SS)		Written corpus (WR)	
	N of tokens	% (out of 123)	N of tokens	% (out of 85)	N of tokens	% (out of 86)
–na	14	11.4	21	24.7	42	48.8
–(a)ke	21	17.1	9	10.6	0	0.0
–i	88	71.5	55	64.7	44	51.2
All applicative constructions	123	100	85	100	86	100

[1]I use the following abbreviations for my three types of corpus data: FS = narrative data elicited using the frog story method; SS = spontaneous speech; WR = written data.

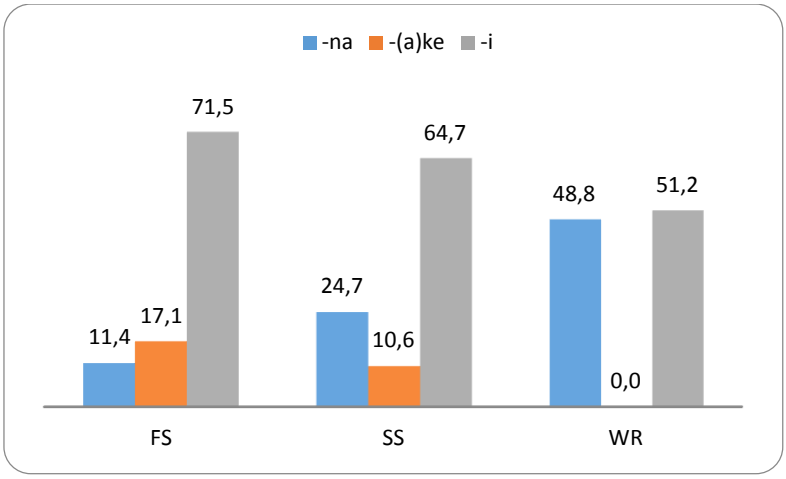

Chart 1. The distribution of the JDK applicative markers as a percentage in each corpus

Chart 1 above shows that across genres, generally *–i* occurs more frequently than *–na* and *–(a)ke*, but the relative prominence of the other two markers *–na* and *–(a)ke* is not consistent. This might be a genre effect that occurs in these three corpora, like the effect discussed above. A chi-square test of the charts in Table 2 yields a *p*-value of 0.0 (df=4, χ^2=45.01) showing that the difference across genres in how often speakers use those three applicative markers is significant. Particularly, the written corpus is different from the two spoken corpora. There appears to be a conscious selection of the dialect-marked form *–na* by the writer of the articles. This writer aims to write in JDK, thus he is consciously and intentionally using lexical and morphosyntactic features of the dialect in every clause. By contrast there are no instances of *–(a)ke*, which is a Standard Javanese applicative marker, in the written corpus. Thus, the non-standard *–na* is infrequent in the two spoken corpora and frequent in the written corpus. (5), (6) and (7) exemplify applicative constructions with *–na* in the three corpora. It is worth noting here when a feature of dialect is used heavily in writing, as in the case, that may show that people (in this study, the writers) are *consciously* aware of that feature (so they are making heavy use of it *on purpose*), as opposed to other features that they are only implicitly aware of.

(5) a. FS:08:F:A:C: 044 (Frog Story)
Lha waung-e karo kodok-e melu nge-tut-na Andi
EMPH dog-3POSS and frog-3POSS also ACT-follow-APPL Andi
soko mburi
from behind
'Huh, the dog and the frog also followed Andi from behind.'

b. Non-applicative (manipulated)
Lha waung-e karo kodok-e melu nge-tut ning Andi
EMPH dog-3POSS and frog-3POSS also ACT-follow to Andi
soko mburi
from behind
'Huh, the dog and the frog also followed Andi from behind.'

(6) a. SS:04:F:A:R: 040 (Spontaneous Speech)
makane aku nerus-na sekolah
so 1S ACT.continue-APPL school
'So, I continued going to school.'

b. Non-applicative (manipulated)
makane aku nerus anggone sekolah
so 1S ACT.continue in school
'So, I continued going to school.'

(7) a. WR:04: 010 (Written corpus)
Wak Paing lan Yu Yem ndungok-na[2] *siaran radio-ne*
Wak Paing and Yu Yem ACT.listen-APPL broadcast radio-3POSS
Negara Kudus
Negara Kudus
'WakPaing and Yu Yem listened to the broadcast of Negara Kudus radio.'

b. Non-applicative (manipulated)
Wak Paing lan Yu Yem ndungu marang siaran radio-ne
Wak Paing and Yu Yem ACT.listen to broadcast radio-3POSS
Negara Kudus
Negara Kudus
'WakPaing and Yu Yem listened to the broadcast of Negara Kudus radio.'

To sum up, then, in this section, I have given the frequency distribution of each applicative marker across the sections of my data and introduced some representative examples. I have suggested that genre effects explain some of the differences in the distribution of the different markers.

3.2 Sociolinguistic Factor on the JDK Applicative constructions

To expand my analysis, I continued to investigate one sociolinguistic factor –age– what [39]; [6]; [40]; [10]; [12]; [41]; etc) suggests might be important in a dialect grammar study. Following Chambers and Trudgill's suggestion, the applicative *–na*, as a dialectal form, might be expected to be used more by younger people. Let us consider Table 3 below.

Table 3. The distribution of the applicative markers across age

Marker	Adult		Younger	
	N of tokens	Frequency per 100 clauses	N of tokens	Frequency per 100 clauses
−na	34	1.2	4	0.6
−(a)ke	23	0.8	10	1.5
−i	127	4.4	31	4.8
All applicative constructions	184	6.4	45	6.9
All clauses	2,881	100	651	100

Table 3 shows that adult and younger speakers in fact tend to use the applicative with approximately the same frequency. And, indeed, a chi-square test suggests that there is no significant difference in the use of of applicative versus non-applicative between adult and younger speakers; p=0.622 (df=1, χ^2=0.242).

[2]Note the form of the verbs *ndungokna* and *ndungu* in (3b). When a verb ends in a vowel, a final glottal stop (spelt with *k*) is inserted before this suffix, and the preceding vowel is lowered (Conners, 2008: 211); see section 2.13.

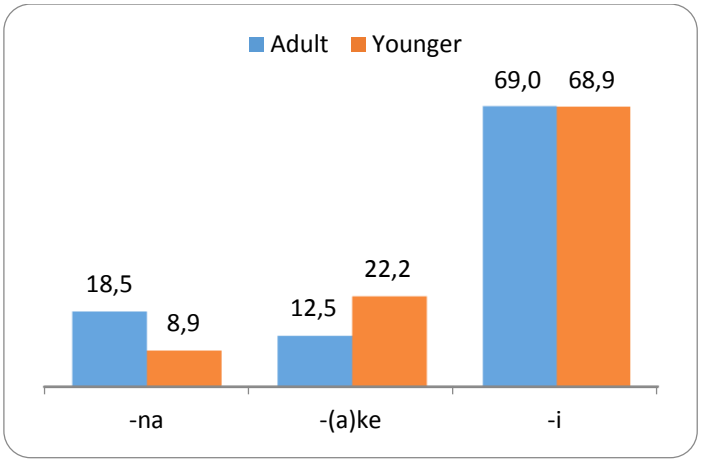

Chart 2. The distribution of different applicative markers across age as a percentage of all applicative constructions

Table 3 and Chart 2 also demonstrate that adult speakers use *–na* twice as frequently as do the younger speakers. By contrast *–(a)ke* is used more frequently by younger speakers than adult speakers. I found that the standard form *–(a)ke* and the dialectal form *–na* are functionally almost exactly equivalent. Perhaps, then, there is a difference between younger and adult speakers in terms of their choice between the standard and the dialectal form. Themarker *–i* is used in the applicative with approximately the same frequency by both age groups. However, a chi-square test shows that there is no significant difference between the age groups in terms of their use of the three markers (p=0.112, df=2, χ^2=4.375). That said, the preference of the younger group for the standard variant is highly suggestive despite not being significant; so although this cannot be considered a firm finding, it is an avenue where additional research could well prove valuable.

4. Conclusion and Suggestion

In this study, I have presented the distribution of the three applicative markers across and within the three data sources, finding that the applicative appears more frequently in writing than in speech. I have suggested that genre explains some of the differences in the distribution of the different markers. However, a full accounting for genre effects is beyond the scope of my study and will be a fruitful avenue for future research. For my sociolinguistic analysis, I have explained that across age there is no significant difference between each group in terms of how frequently they use the applicative or in terms of how frequently they use each marker.

I also reported that when features of JDK such as *–na* rather than *–(a)ke* are heavily used in the written data, the writer was likely to have been making use of these features on purpose to express dialect awareness.

Therefore, I have contributed to Javanese dialect grammar. This has led my discovery of certain points not recorded in the literature. Most centrally, my results show that in JDK there are two constructions for the applicative each of which have different core functions. *–na* and *−(a)ke* mark the same construction, where *–na* is the non-standard form and *–(a)ke* is the standard form; meanwhile *–i* is a separate construction. Then, the methodological contribution of this study is that I have shown how a field study can be conducted in a quantitative way and in a corpus-methodological way.

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