THE APPLICATIVE VOICE IN JAVANESE DIALECT OF KUDUS

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ABSTRACT

This paper presents a descriptive analysis of applicative voice constructions in Javanese, specifically the non-standard Kudus dialect (Javanese Dialect of Kudus or JDK). The people of Kudus, like most Javanese in Indonesia, are largely bilingual in Indonesian and Javanese. However, Indonesian has become the favoured language and JDK is considered inferior, a mark of a lack of education and a lower status in society. This situation does not encourage the study of dialect and may ultimately lead to the disappearance of JDK. Therefore, a corpus was constructed in the course of fieldwork in Kudus, sampling three genres: spontaneous conversation, elicited spoken narratives, and newspaper articles. The spoken corpus were collected from native speakers of JDK which were categorized as younger and adult groups.

The results indicate the existence of two distinct 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 three corpora. 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. By contrast there are no instances of –(a)ke in the written corpus. Thus, the non-standard –na is infrequent in the two spoken corpora and frequent in the written corpus. It is worth noting when a feature of dialect is used heavily in writing, as in the case, that may show that people are consciously aware of that feature (so they make heavy use of it on purpose), as opposed to other features that they are only implicitly aware of. This finding shows the role of newspaper articles in maintaining and spreading the JDK.

This study also demonstrates 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. The marker –i is used in the applicative with approximately the same frequency by both age groups. However, the preference of the younger group for the standard variant is highly suggestive despite not being significant. The younger group were learning Standard Javanese in their school. This might affect the selection of the standard form rather than the dialect.

Key words: Applicative, Grammar, Corpus, Javanese Dialect of Kudus

INTRODUCTION

The focus of this study is the grammar of the Javanese dialect of Kudus (henceforth JDK), Central Java, Indonesia. The people of Kudus, like most Javanese in Indonesia, are largely bilingual in Indonesian and Javanese. However, Indonesian has become the favoured language and JDK is considered inferior (Rukia 2010: 82; Rahayu and Listiyorini 2013: 122-3), a mark of a lack of education (Smith-Hefner 2009: 59) and of a lower status in society (Rahayu and Listiyorini 2013: 132). 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. Kortmann (2004: 6) argues that some non-standard dialects show evidence of grammatical phenomena which have been rarely, or not at all,
investigated and described in more general studies. 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 (Sudaryanto et al. 1991), but the morphological and syntactic features need more investigation since the distinctions are less straightforwardly observable (see e.g. Hollmann and Siewierska, 2006: 22).

Research Questions

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 applicatives. 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.

An overview of the Javanese Applicatives

Haspelmath and Bardey (2004: 1134) describe the applicative as a valency-increasing phenomenon where a direct object is added to a verb. Applicatives give the status of a direct object to oblique noun phrases of different kinds. Relating to Javanese language, Suhandano (1994) and Sofwan (2010) discuss about the Standard Javanese applicative, using the terminology of relational grammar. Suhandano (1994: 50) defines an applicative 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. Suhandano (1994) and Sofwan (2010) identify two Standard Javanese applicative markers: –ke and –i. Each of these two markers has two allomorphs: –ke and –ake; –i and –ni (Suhandano 1994: 69; cf. Dardjowidjojo 1974: 386). –(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. He illustrates the applicative and the corresponding non-applicative construction in sentence (1).

(1)  Suhandono (1994: 51)
  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, Conners (2008: 208-217) divides Tengger Javanese applicatives 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 (2) below.

(2)  Tengger Javanese (after Conners, 2008: 206)
  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.

**METHODOLOGY**

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 (Labov 1972: 355, 376), 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 (Pavlenko 2008: 317-8). 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, Biber (1988) argues that narrative is marked by frequent past tense verbs, place and time adverbs, and dynamic verbs, and Biber (1995) 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 (Pavlenko 2008: 312).

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 (Mayer 1971) 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 (Bamberg 1985; Berman 1988; Slobin 1996; etc.). I also used spontaneous speech to enrich the data. Vasko (2010) 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 (Grootaers 1999: 115-123). This awareness often leads the speakers/writers of the dialect to establish their regional identity or regional pride. Beal (2006: 4-12) 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.

**DISCUSSION**

*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 written 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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Corpus</th>
<th>Total number of applicative</th>
<th>Total number of verbs</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FS</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>2,307</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SS</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>657</td>
<td>12.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WR</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>21.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>294</td>
<td>3,364</td>
<td>8.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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 (Biber 1988: 112, 152). 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 (Malihah, 2014); 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, \( \chi^2=129.77 \)).

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 figure 1.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marker</th>
<th>Frog story (FS)</th>
<th>Spontaneous speech (SS)</th>
<th>Written corpus (WR)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N of tokens</td>
<td>% (out of 123)</td>
<td>N of tokens</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>–na</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>11.4</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>–(a)ke</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>17.1</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>–i</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>71.5</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

Figure 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

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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.
genre effect that occurs in these three corpora, like the effect discussed above. A chi-square test of the figures in table 5.2 yields a p-value of 0.0 (df=4, $\chi^2$=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. (1), and (2) exemplify applicatives 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.

(1) 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.’

(2) 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.’

To summarise, 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.

Sociolinguistic Factor on the JDK Applicative constructions
To expand my analysis, I continued to investigate one sociolinguistic factor –age– which the literature (Labov 1966; Siewierska and Hollmann 2006; McGregor 2009; Chambers and Trudgill 1998; Labov 2006; Mather 2012; 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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marker</th>
<th>Adult</th>
<th>Younger</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N of tokens</td>
<td>Frequency per 100 clauses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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, $\chi^2=0.242$).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>−na</th>
<th>1.2</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>0.6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>−(a)ke</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>−i</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All applicatives</td>
<td>184</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>6.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All clauses</td>
<td>2,881</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>651</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 and figure 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. The marker −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, $\chi^2=4.375$). 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.

**CONCLUSION**

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 demonstrated 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.

REFERENCES


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