
The Lexical Differences in the Javanese Varieties Spoken by People in the Western and Eastern parts of Blitar Regency

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Abstract

This study aims to describe the lexical differences found in the Javanese varieties spoken by people in the western and eastern parts of Blitar Regency and to determine the status of the lexical differences. The data were obtained from four observation points in the eastern and western parts of Blitar Regency and were collected through interview, recording and note taking, and crosscheck. The analysis of the lexical differences was carried out by comparing and contrasting the lexical items obtained; whereas, the status of the lexical differences was determined by using lexical dialectometry. The findings of this study show that out of 400 glosses, there are 121 lexical differences which mostly occur due to the different geographical conditions of the observation points. Furthermore, some of the observation points compared have the status of different subdialects; while some others have the status of different dialects. In brief, the Javanese varieties spoken by people in the western and eastern parts of Blitar Regency are different dialects. This study aims to describe the lexical differences found in the Javanese varieties spoken by people in the western and eastern parts of Blitar Regency and to determine the status of the lexical differences. The data were obtained from four observation points in the eastern and western parts of Blitar Regency and were collected through interview, recording and note taking, and crosscheck. The analysis of the lexical differences was carried out by comparing and contrasting the lexical items obtained; whereas, the status of the lexical differences was determined by using lexical dialectometry. The findings of this study show that out of 400 glosses, there are 121 lexical differences which mostly occur due to the different geographical conditions of the observation points. Furthermore, some of the observation points compared have the status of different subdialects; while some others have the status of different dialects. In brief, the Javanese varieties spoken by people in the western and eastern parts of Blitar Regency are different dialects.

Keywords: lexical differences, Javanese variety, the western and eastern parts of Blitar Regency

Introduction

Javanese language is used in many regions in Indonesia because the biggest population in Indonesia is Javanese. However, each region has its own variety of Javanese language. The Javanese variety spoken in Blitar Regency is strongly related to the Javanese variety spoken in Solo-Yogya due to the history of Blitar Regency in the past. Nevertheless, because of some factors, the Javanese variety used in this regency has developed its own unique characteristics.

Blitar Regency which is geographically located between Kediri in the west and Malang in the east creates some assumptions on the lexical differences of the varieties of Javanese Language used in the eastern and western parts of Blitar Regency. According to the history, Blitar Regency people originally came from Yogya. The ancestors migrated to Blitar as refugees at the time of Pangeran Diponegoro war (Gudel, 2006, p. 61). The ancestors came to Blitar from the west to the east. It is in line with their distribution pattern spreading from the western part to the eastern part of Blitar Regency (Gudel, 2006, p.62). There is an assumption that people in the western part of Blitar Regency probably retain more their variety than people in the eastern region of Blitar as people in the east might get language or dialect contact with people in the adjacent area of Malang Regency who are commonly known to use East Java dialect of Javanese Language. The geographical aspect also results in an assumption that the variety used by people in the eastern region is similar to the East Java dialect; while the variety used by people in the west is similar to the Javanese variety spoken by people in Kediri since Kediri and Blitar were used to be

one residence, i.e. Mataraman Residence (Sutarto, 2008, p.51). It was called Mataraman Residence because it was under the influence of Solo-Yogya culture.

There are some examples of lexical differences found during the pre-observation. Cooked vegetable draining tool is called *kalo* by people in the western parts of Blitar Regency; whereas, people in the eastern part call it *irik*. People in the eastern part of Blitar Regency also call a traditional long bamboo chair as *amben-ambenan*, while people in the western part call it *lincak*.

This study used a synchronic approach to describe the lexical differences found in Blitar Regency since a synchronic approach studies the language system by observing the phenomena happen to one language in a particular time (Mahsun, 2005, p.85). The study focusses on *ngoko* variety, which is the lowest speech level of Javanese and spoken as vernacular. Rusnaningtias (2009) has studied the Javanese variety used in Blitar Regency synchronically and diachronically through a dialect geography research. In her study, she took seven observation points as samples and used 865 words to elicit responses. However, this study is contrast to Rusnaningtias' study in a way that this study only focuses on describing the lexical differences and determines the status of the Javanese varieties spoken by people in the western and eastern parts of Blitar. Beside describing the lexical differences synchronically, this study uses 400 glosses to elicit the words or the lexical items in four observation points: Bakung district (OP1) and Udanawu district (OP2) in the western part of Blitar Regency and Kesamben district (OP3) and Wates district (OP4) in the eastern part of Blitar. In brief, this paper is designed to describe the lexical differences in the Javanese varieties spoken in the eastern and western parts of Blitar Regency and to determine the status of the lexical differences in the Javanese varieties spoken by people in the eastern part and western parts of Blitar Regency.

Javanese Language

Javanese has been used widely in many regions in Java Island and outside Java Island. Even Suriname's people also use Javanese language. Along with the wide areas where Javanese is spoken, it is very possible to find the differences in dialect (Sudaryanto, 1992, p.3). Among the four Javanese speech levels, *ngoko*, *ngoko alus*, *krama*, and *krama alus*, *ngoko* variety is found to be frequently used in the Javanese communities because the intensity of its uses is higher than *krama* uses. Some examples of the *ngoko* words are [duwUr] (high), [umU?] (brag), [adɔh] (far), [abɔt] (heavy), [dɔwɔ] (long), [idʒo] (green), [ena?] (delicious), [aban] (red), [apal] (remember), [panas] (hot), [ɛlɛ?] (ugly), and [amis] (fishy) (Sudaryanto, 1992, p. 54-55).

Language and Dialect

A language can be differentiated from others because it has distinct, codified, standardized forms, with its own orthographic, grammar books, and literatures (Chambers & Trudgill, 2004, p.4). Language can have its own variety in the different regions. In case of the lexical differences in the eastern and western regions of Blitar, it is better to use the term variety as a neutral term to apply to any particular kind of language which, for some purpose, is considered as a single entity (Chambers & Trudgill, 2004, p.5). The dialect definition suggested by Chambers & Trudgill (2004, p.5) refers to a variety which is grammatically (and perhaps lexically) as well as phonologically different from other varieties. In order to distinguish between dialect and language, a language can be said as a collection of mutually intelligible dialects. Holmes divides dialect into social and regional dialect (Holmes, 2008, p.137). In addition, some linguists including Holmes use the term regional dialect instead of dialect geography as suggested by Chambers & Trudgill. However, both terms refer to the same meaning.

Types of Dialect

All dialects are both regional and social. All speakers have social background as well as a regional location. Even in the speech, they often identify themselves not only as natives or inhabitants of a particular place, but also as a member of a particular social class, age group, ethnic background, or other social characteristics (Chambers & Trudgill, 2004, p.49). In social dialect, the social class makes people speech differ in one to another. The word *lounge* is frequently used by non upper-class English people rather than *sitting room* (Holmes, 2008, p.141).

Regional dialect as well examines the dialect variation determined by the factors of time, place, and socio-cultural completing each other (Kridalaksana, 1970, p.8 as cited in Ayatrohaedi, 2003). Related to the time, the variations used by people in past times and now may be the same or they may become different. Concerning the place, the variation used by people takes time to develop in a certain place. In addition, from the socio factor, a particular variety is used by a particular community for a quite long time, and finally the community decides to use this particular variety as theirs.

Furthermore, a regional dialect could differs in grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary. Some linguists call this regional dialect as a dialect geography, one of them is Janet Holmes. On the other hand, Chambers & Trudgill use term dialect geography. These terms actually have the same concept. Trudgill claims that regional dialect and social dialect are parts of dialect study in wide sense. Due to its development, diffusion, and evaluation, the regional dialect term then develops and is called geolinguistics or dialect geography (1984, p.1).

Dialect Geography and Lexical Differences

Dialect Geography studies about the relation between language's varieties by focusing on the place the language is created (Dubois, et.al. as cited in Ayatrohaedi, 2003, p.28). Even though a dialect has its own linguistic system, people in one area can still understand the dialect spoken by other people in other area. This happens because there is a chain or continuum that links those dialects (Holmes, 2008, p. 134).

Blitar Regency's strategic location and the contact with people in other regions fit to be described by the "wave theory" which is intended to deal with changes due to the contact among languages and dialects, where changes are said to emanate from a center as waves on a pond do when a stone is thrown into it, and waves from one center of dispersion (where the stone started the waves) can cross or intersect outward moving waves coming from other dispersion centers (started by other stones thrown into the water in other locations). Changes due to language contact (borrowing) are seen as analogous to successive waves crossing one another in different patterns (Campbell, 2000, p. 92-93).

This study uses synchronic approach to describe the lexical differences, the mapping, and the status of a dialect as explained by Nothofer (1987, p.128). The dialect differences can be seen through bundle of Isogloss in a map which is drawn to show actual boundaries around such features (Wardhaugh, 2002, p.23). Dialect boundary is simply the location of a bundle of Isoglosses (Finegan, 2004, 34). The more it bundles, the more distinctive the dialects on either side (Chambers & Trudgill, 2004, 54). Pronunciation and vocabulary differences between different dialects are probably the differences that people are mostly aware (Holmes, 2008, p. 129). The lexical differences describe contrasts in the words used by different speakers to characterize the same object or action (Chambers & Trudgill, 2004, 54). Meanwhile, Holmes used the term vocabulary differences instead of lexical differences. These two terms actually refer to the same concept where the same things are named differently by different speakers. For example, Dutch cheese is used in the northeastern region of North America, while cottage cheese is commonly used in the American midland (Chambers & Trudgill, 2004, 54). In addition, Australians use the term sole parent instead of single parent, which is familiar to people in England (Holmes, 2008, p. 128).

The Monograph of Blitar Regency

According to the census projections in 2012, the number of Blitar Regency's population increased and reached 1.126.151 inhabitants, consisting 564.202 male and 561.949 female (Blitar Regency Central Bureau of Statistics, 2013, p.80). Blitar Regency has 22 districts with the central government is placed in the Kanigoro district. Kanigoro district distance with the observation points of this study such as Bakung, Udanawu, Kesamben, and Wates are 42 km, 25 km, 27 km, and 44 km respectively (BPS Blitar Regency Statistics, 2013, p.7).

Bakung district has five villages, located near the sea and six villages on the mountain's area. The population reached 25.158 inhabitant in 2012 with the majority of people worked in a small house made industry such as snacks making, traditional herbal drinks, etc (Blitar Regency Central Bureau of Statistics, 2013, p.85).

Udanawu district's population was around 39.746 inhabitants in 2012 (Blitar Regency Central Bureau of Statistics, 2013, p.3). The district is adjacent to Kediri district in north. This district is dominant in farming products like vegetables and fruits with the width of farms reaching 5.134 acres and the number of farmers reaching around 2.334 people (Blitar Regency Central Bureau of Statistics, 2013, p.68-72).

Kesamben district's population was about 48.696 inhabitants in 2012 (Blitar Regency Central Bureau of Statistics, 2013, p.2). This district is located on the slopes of the mountain near forest (Blitar Regency Central Bureau of Statistics, 2013, p.7). Paddy fields and dry fields' area reach 1,748 acres of sugar cane, tobacco, cloves, coffee, coconut, and rice (Blitar Regency Central Bureau of Statistics, 2013, p.63). Beside farming, many people work in trading.

Wates district was inhabited by 27.850 inhabitants in 2012 (2013, p.21). It was recorded that in 2011 there were about 12.146 people did not graduate or even did not attend primary schools, while 14.892 attended schools. People in this district mostly work as farmer and farmer assistant and their most farming products are corn, soy bean, and paddy. In addition, people who work as sellers are not as many as those who work as farmers (2013, p.28-29).

Methodology

This study used qualitative and quantitative method. The qualitative method was used to describe the lexical differences in the eastern and western parts of Blitar Regency. Meanwhile, the quantitative method used dialectometry and was used to determine the status of the lexical differences in the Javanese varieties spoken by people in the eastern and western parts of Blitar Regency.

The population of this study included the people living in the eastern and western parts of Blitar Regency. The samples were selected based on the representativeness of the population. The informants were those who fulfilled the requirements based on Ayatrohaedi (2003, p. 39): 1) rural man or woman, 2) aged between 25 -65 years (not senile), 3) physically and mentally healthy, 4) born in the observation points and whose family or relatives also lived in the same observation points, 5) low mobility, 6) able to speak Indonesian language, and 7) graduated from primary or secondary school.

In this study, the informants were three people in each observation point who could be two men and one woman or two women and one man. In total, there were 12 informants interviewed. Meanwhile, regarding the location of this study, the four locations of the research were two districts in the western part of Blitar Regency, Bakung district (OP1) and Udanawu district (OP2); and two districts in the eastern part of Blitar Regency, Kesamben district (OP3) and Wates district (OP4). Those districts were chosen because they were rural areas where the language used in everyday was still pure (Paris, 1888, as cited in Ayatrohaedi, 2003, p. 27).

The instrument used to collect the data or to elicit the response was Swadesh's Vocabulary consisting of 200 core words that had been modified into 400 words. In brief, the four steps to collect the data included interviewing, recording, note taking, and crosschecking (Mahsun, 2005). In the interview, the writer used either picture of target words to elicit response or asked the informants to answer direct question in *ngoko*. The questions were asked in Indonesian, for example "*Bapak tolong sebutkan nama jari-jari tangan dalam bahasa Jawa ngoko!*" 'Please mention your finger's name in Javanese ngoko.' In recording, the data was simply recorded and note taking was simply done while doing interview or while listening to the recorder. The notes then were transcribed into phonetics transcriptions and crosschecked by using observer's paradox. The data collection was carried out through direct participation.

After the data was collected, the data was analyzed by using several steps. The steps included identifying the lexical differences, mapping the lexical differences, and determining the status of the lexical differences whether different dialects or different subdialects. To identify the lexical differences, the lexical items used in one observation point were compared and contrasted to the lexical items used in other observation points in which the two observation points were located adjacently in the map. Different lexical items which were suspected to have the same root were tested through minimal pairs (Mahsun, 2005, p.122). Next, the lexical differences were drawn either on display maps or interpretive maps. Both display maps and interpretive maps showed the distribution of the lexical differences. Finally, in determining the status of the variety, the dialectometry formula was used. The dialectometry calculation

was performed to see the correlation of the lexical differences in each observation point. In addition, the dialectometry calculation was done by comparing the number of the lexical differences in each observation point to the total number of lexical differences (Mahsun, 2005, p.122). The table below displays the permutation of the four observation points.

No.	The Observation Points Compared
1	1 – 2
2	1 – 3
3	1 – 4
4	2 – 3
5	3 – 4

Furthermore, to determine the status of the lexical differences dialectometry was used. a dialectometry is a formula that can be used to count the number of differences. It can also be used for categorizing the status of a variety (Mahsun, 2005, p.175). Simply, the formula is as written below:

$$= \frac{s \times 100\%}{n} \text{Index d \%}$$

d: vocabulary distance in percentage

s : number of lexical differences in the OPs compared

n : number of total lexical differences

From the formula above, there are some criteria of the status of a variety (Guiter, 1973, p. 96 as cited in Ayatrohaedi, 2003, p. 12). The criteria are presented below:

Index Percentage	Category
Under 20%	No differences
21 – 30%	Different Speeches
31 – 50%	Different Subdialects
51 – 80%	Different Dialects
81 -100%	Different Languages

Finding

The result of the data analysis shows that the western and eastern parts of Blitar Regency have many differences in lexical items that the people use in everyday life. It can be proved by looking at the data on display maps which show that there are 121 numbers of lexical differences maps from the total of 400 glosses. The following is the example of lexical description found in the observation points:

1. Gloss number 1 ‘ash’ has two variations; [tɔmpər] and [awɔ]. [tɔmpər] is used by people in observation point 3, whereas people in observation point 1, 2, and 4 call it [awɔ].
2. Gloss number 6 ‘wind’ has two variations; [barat] and [aɲɪn]. Observation point 2 uses special term like [barat] to call ‘wind,’ whereas other three observation points, observation point 1, 3, and 4, use [aɲɪn] to describe the same thing.
3. Gloss number 9 ‘float’ has three variations, [ɲapɔŋ] is used in observation point 1, [kəməmpɔl] is used in observation point 2, and [ɲambəŋ] is used in observation points 3 and 4.

4. Gloss number 10 ‘smoke’ has three variations. It is called [buləʔ] in observation point 1, 2, and 4; whereas, in observation 3, it has another term to call ‘smoke’. Both terms [pəgo] and [dian] are used in observation point 3.
5. Gloss number 18 ‘lying down’ has three variations, such as [tʊrʊtʊrʊ], [ŋglɛtʰaʔ] or [glɛtʰa'an], and [lɛyɛhlɛyɛh]. [tʊrʊtʊrʊ] is used in observation point 1 and [lɛyɛhlɛyɛh] is used in observation point 4. [ŋglɛtʰaʔ] or [glɛtʰa'an] are assumed as the same root since [glɛtʰa'an] is formed by adding suffix –an. Therefore, these two words cannot be said as different lexical items. They both are used in observation point 2 and 3.

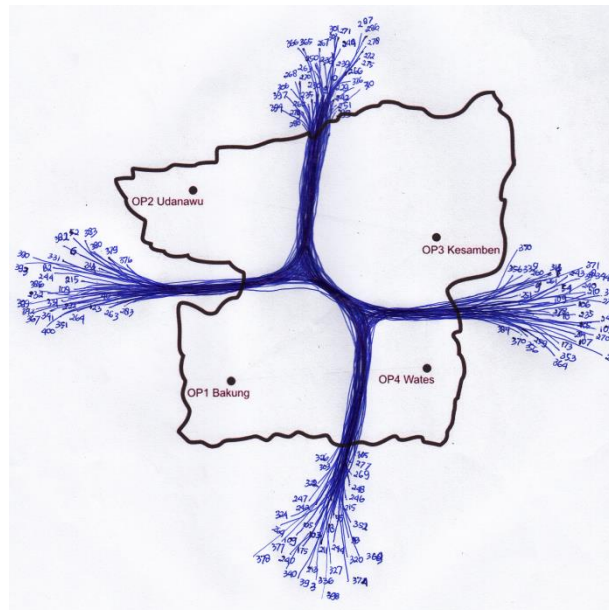
Based on the dialectometry calculation, it can be seen that some observation points have different percentages of lexical differences as follow:

No.	Observation Points	Percentage	Status
1	1 – 2	48%	Different Subdialects
2	1 – 3	78%	Different Dialects
3	1 – 4	79%	Different Dialects
4	2 – 3	80%	Different Dialects
5	3 – 4	48%	Different Subdialects

From the results of the lexical dialectometry calculation, it can be stated that:

1. The observation points which have the status of different subdialects with the index percentage of 31% – 50% are OP 1:2 and OP 3:4.
2. The observation points which have the status of different dialects with the index percentage of 51% – 80% are OP 1:3, OP 1:4, and OP 2:3.

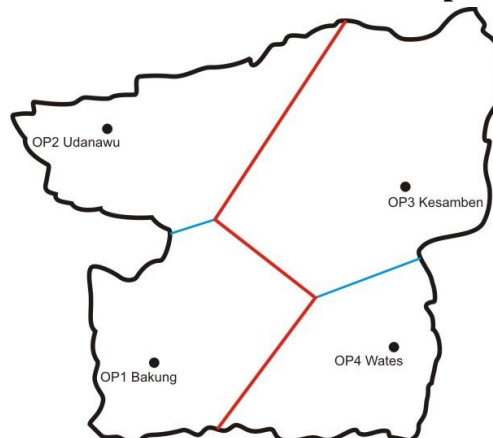
The 121 lexical differences found were drawn into a bundle of isoglosses map. The bundle of isoglosses map can be seen as below.



Bundle of Isoglosses Map

Based on the table of index percentage above, the relationship between observation points could be drawn in interpretive map as follows:

The Relationship of the Isolects in the Observation Points Compared



There are two divisions of observation points which divide Blitar Regency into western part and eastern part. It is in line with the bundle of Isoglosses map which shows that OP 1:3, OP 1:4, and OP 2:3 have many different lexicons. OP 1 and OP 2, Bakung district and Udanawu district, are located in the western part of Blitar regency. It explains why both of those observations points are closely related to each other. The example of the same term which is only used in OP 1 and OP 2 is 'marriage headman' which is called [nɔɪb].

The same status of different subdialects is also found in two observation points in the eastern part of Blitar Regency, Kesamben district and Wates district. These districts are located in the same eastern part near with an adjacent area of Malang Regency. It explains why the lexicons which are found in OP 3 and OP 4 are quite similar. The example of the same term which is used only in OP 3 and OP 4 is 'marriage headman' which called [pəŋhɔɪɔ].

The distances of the compared observation points like Bakung district and Kesamben district (OP 1:3), Bakung district and Wates district (OP 1:4), and Udanawu district and Kesamben sub district (OP 2:3) are quite far. As a result, the different in dialect occurred. The far distance affects in the frequency of language contact. The more the distance of observation points, the more the lexical differences to be found.

Interpretation

The findings of the study confirm some assumptions in this study. First, the lexical differences found in the western and eastern parts of Blitar Regency proves that geographical conditions influence the varieties used in the two regions. The lexical differences in the two observation points, 1 and 2, which are located in the western parts of Blitar Regency and whose distance is not too far leads to the status of different subdialects. Meanwhile, the observation point 3 and 4 which are in different parts of Blitar Regency and whose distance is quite far result in more lexical differences or different dialects status.

Furthermore, the lexical differences found support the idea that the western part of Blitar Regency gets more influence of Solo-Yogya variety; whereas, the eastern part of Blitar Regency which is in adjacent area with Malang Regency, a region using East Java Javanese Dialect, gets more influence of East Java Javanese Dialect.

Conclusion

This synchronic study of dialect geography shows that the Javanese variety spoken by people in western and eastern parts of Blitar Regency has its own unique characteristics. These unique characteristics can be proved by seeing in the map of bundle isoglosses. The other way to see the lexical variation is through a number of lexical items used in four observation points and which are different from one to another.

This study aims to describe the lexical differences and it is found that there are 121 lexical differences that have been found from the total of 400 glosses. Lexical dialectometry calculation shows that:

1. The observation points which have the status of different subdialects with the index percentage of 31% – 50% are OP 1:2 and OP 3:4.
2. The observation points which have the status of different dialects with the index percentage of 51% – 80% are OP 1:3, OP 1:4, and OP 2:3.

The dialect boundary divides Blitar Regency into the western and eastern parts with the status of different dialects with the percentage of 51% until 80%. The distance affects the status of the lexical differences in compared observation points. The further the distance of the observation points, the more the lexical differences to be found.

Based on the geographical location, The close distance of OP 1 and OP 2 or OP 3 and OP4 made the lexical differences that have been found were few. By comparing observation points which belong the western regions of Blitar Regency to observation points in eastern part of Blitar Regency, the status of dialect difference occurs because the distances are quite far and many different lexicons were found.

The assumption that the variety used by people in the western parts of Blitar Regency is influenced by Solo-Yogya variety and the variety used by people in the eastern part of Blitar Regency gets more influence of East Java Javanese Dialect is proved towards this study.

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