

**A MORPHOLOGICAL AND LEXICAL STUDY
ON PAPUAN INDONESIAN DIALECT**

THESIS

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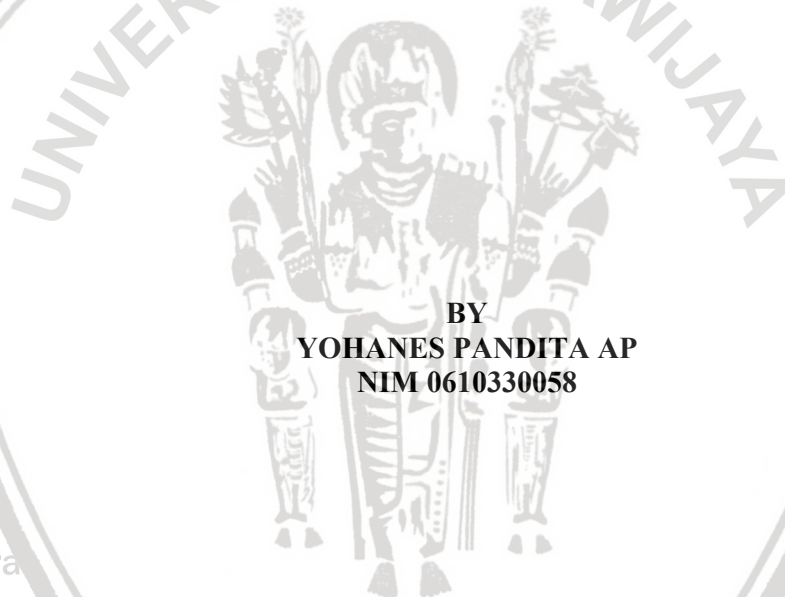
**STUDY PROGRAM OF ENGLISH
DEPARTMENT OF LANGUAGES AND LITERATURE
FACULTY OF CULTURAL STUDIES
UNIVERSITAS BRAWIJAYA**

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**A MORPHOLOGICAL AND LEXICAL STUDY
ON PAPUAN INDONESIAN DIALECT**

THESIS

**Presented to
University of Brawijaya
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of *Sarjana Sastra***



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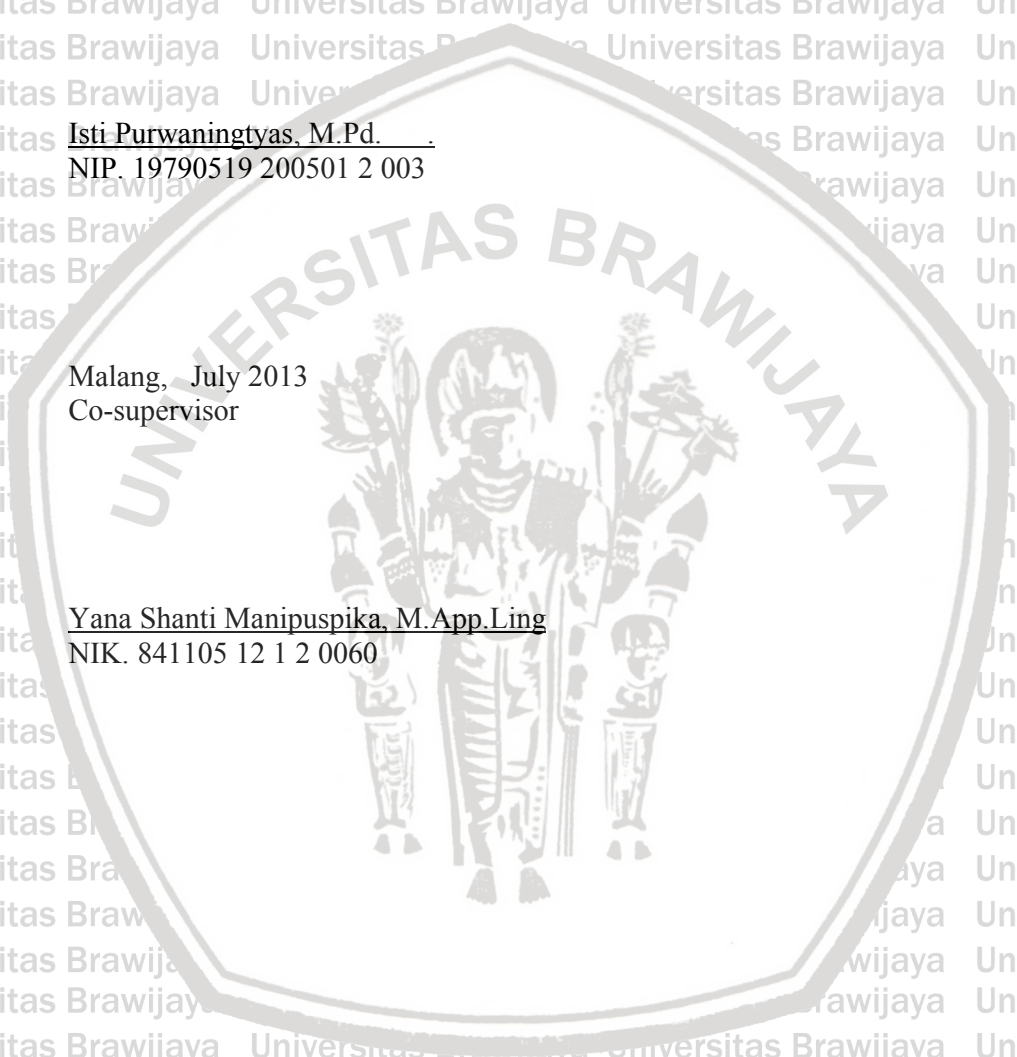
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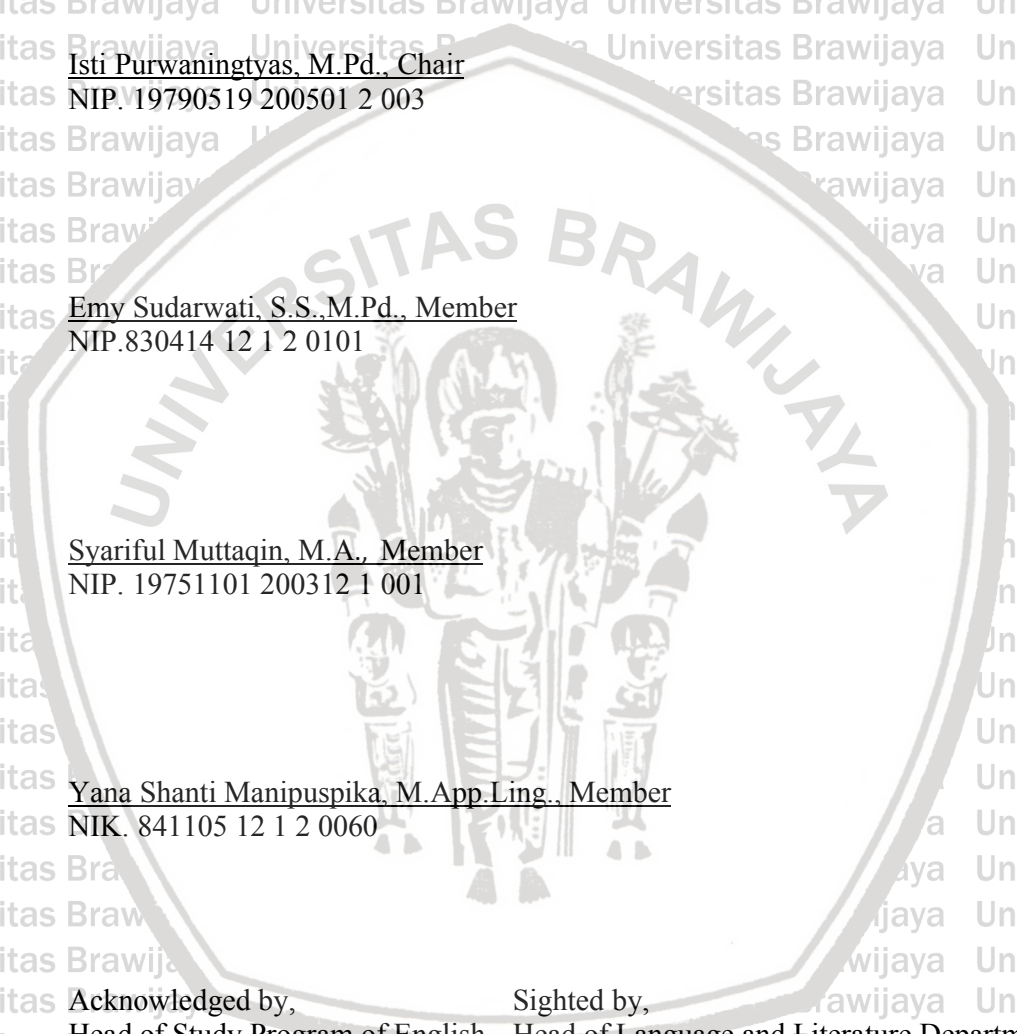
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ABSTRACT

Pandita Ap, Yohanes. 2013. **A Morphological And Lexical Study On Papuan Indonesian Dialect.** Study Program of English, Languages and Literature Department, Faculty of Cultural Studies, Universitas Brawijaya. Supervisor: Isti Purwaningtyas.; Co-supervisor: Yana Shanti Manipuspika.

Keywords: Dialect, Papuan Indonesian Dialect, Word Formation Process.

Dialect is a variety of language that has uniqueness in phonology, morphology, syntax and vocabulary. One of the examples of dialect spoken in Indonesia is Papuan dialect. The uniqueness of Papuan Indonesian dialect can be seen in its morphology and vocabulary. Thus, this study was conducted to analyze the word formation process and the lexical variation in Papuan Indonesian dialect.

This study was a qualitative research. The data of this study were the utterances which contained linguistics items that mark the characteristics or uniqueness of Papuan Indonesian dialect. In doing the observation, the writer took notes on the relevant data from the subjects that contain morphological and lexical variation of PID utterances that are different from Standard BI. In data analysis, the writer classified the data in form of table and gave further explanation according to the word formation processes.

The results of this study showed that there are seven word formation processes in the lexical variation of Papuan Indonesian dialect. They are borrowing, blending, coinage, compounding, clipping, conversion, and derivation. Coinage is the most dominant with twenty six words, followed by clipping with 7 words, 6 compounding words, 4 conversion words, 3 blending word, 2 derivation, and the last is borrowing with 1 word.

In conclusion, Papuan Indonesian dialect is a *Bahasa Indonesia* that is spoken by Papuan. It has uniqueness in the word formation process of some of the words. There are words that are formed differently with standard BI. Based on Yule's theory of word formation process, the writer found seven of them in PID. For further research on PID, the writer suggests to the next writer who is interested in Papuan Indonesian dialect to analyze it from the syntax and sociolinguistics point of view.

ABSTRAK

Pandita Ap, Yohanes. 2013. **A Morphological And Lexical Study On Papuan Indonesian Dialect.** Program Studi Bahasa dan Sastra Inggris, Fakultas Ilmu Budaya, Universitas Brawijaya. Pembimbing 1: Isti Purwaningtyas.; Pembimbing 2: Yana Shanti Manipuspika.

Kata Kunci: Dialek, Dialek Indonesia Papua, Proses Pembentukan Kata.

Dialek adalah keragaman bahasa dengan keunikannya pada fonologi, morfologi, sintaksis, dan perbendaharaan kata. Salah satu contoh dialek yang ada di Indonesia adalah dialek Papua. Keunikan dialek Indonesia Papua terlihat pada morfologi dan perbendaharaan katanya. Dengan demikian, studi ini bertujuan untuk menganalisa proses pembentukan kata dan keragaman kosa kata dalam dialek Indonesia Papua.

Studi ini diklasifikasikan sebagai penelitian kualitatif. Data pada studi ini adalah kata-kata yang mengandung unsur-unsur bahasa yang menandakan ciri khas dialek Indonesia Papua. Dalam melakukan observasi, penulis mencatat data-data yang diperlukan dari subjek yang mengandung variasi leksikal dan morfologi dari kata-kata dalam dialek Indonesia Papua yang berbeda dengan Bahasa Indonesia standar. Dalam analisa data, penulis mengklasifikasikan data dalam bentuk tabel berikut penjelasannya berdasarkan proses pembentukan katanya.

Hasil dari studi ini menunjukkan bahwa terdapat 7 proses pembentukan kata pada variasi leksikal dialek Indonesia Papua yaitu: *borrowing*, *blending*, *coinage*, *compounding*, *clipping*, *conversion*, and *derivation*. Yang terbanyak adalah *Coinage* 26 kata. Diikuti *clipping* dengan 7 kata, 6 kata *compounding*, 4 kata *conversion*, 3 kata *blending*, 2 kata *derivation*, dan terakhir yaitu 1 kata *borrowing*.

Kesimpulan dari studi ini, dialek Indonesia Papua adalah bahasa Indonesia yang dipakai oleh orang Papua. Dialek Indonesia Papua mempunyai keunikan pada proses pembentukan katanya. Terdapat beberapa kata dalam dialek ini yang berbeda pembentukannya dibandingkan dengan bahasa Indonesia standar. Berdasar teori proses pembentukan kata oleh Yule, penulis menemukan ada 7 proses pembentukan kata dalam dialek Indonesia Papua. Untuk studi lebih lanjut pada dialek Indonesia Papua, penulis menyarankan pada penulis selanjutnya untuk menganalisa dialek Indonesia Papua dari sudut pandang sintaksis dan sociolinguistik.

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Malang, July 2013

Yohanes Pandita Ap

TABLE OF CONTENTS

| | |
|--|------|
| TITLE PAGE | i |
| DECLARATION OF AUTHORSHIP | iii |
| SUPERVISORS' APPROVAL | iv |
| BOARD OF EXAMINERS' CERTIFICATE OF APPROVAL | v |
| ABSTRACT | vi |
| ABSTRAK | vii |
| ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS | viii |
| TABLE OF CONTENTS | ix |
| LIST OF TABLES | xi |
| APPENDICES | xii |
| CHAPTER I INTRODUCTION | |
| 1.1 Background of the Study..... | 1 |
| 1.2 Problems of the Study..... | 5 |
| 1.3 Objectives of the Study..... | 6 |
| 1.4 Definition of Key Terms..... | 6 |
| CHAPTER II REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE | |
| 2.1 Sociolinguistics..... | 7 |
| 2.2 Dialect..... | 10 |
| 2.3 Morphology..... | 12 |
| 2.3.1 Free and Bound Morpheme..... | 13 |
| 2.3.2 Word Formation Process..... | 15 |
| 2.4 Lexicon..... | 17 |
| 2.5 Standard Bahasa Indonesia..... | 20 |
| 2.6 Papuan Indonesian Dialect..... | 21 |
| 2.7 Previous Studies..... | 22 |
| CHAPTER III RESEARCH METHODS | |
| 3.1 Research Design..... | 25 |
| 3.2 Data Source..... | 26 |
| 3.3 Data Collection..... | 26 |
| 3.4 Data Analysis..... | 27 |
| CHAPTER IV FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION | |
| 4.1 Findings..... | 29 |
| 4.1.1 The Analysis of Word Formation Process in PID..... | 31 |
| 4.1.1.1 Clipping..... | 31 |
| 4.1.1.2 Coinage..... | 32 |
| 4.1.1.3 Compounding..... | 33 |
| 4.1.1.4 Derivation..... | 34 |
| 4.1.1.5 Conversion..... | 35 |
| 4.1.1.6 Blending..... | 36 |

LIST OF TABLES

| Table | | Page |
|-------|---|------|
| 4.1 | Lexical Variation in PID | 28 |
| 4.2 | The Clipping Process | 30 |
| 4.3 | The Coinage Process | 31 |
| 4.4 | The Compounding Process | 32 |
| 4.5 | The Derivation Process | 33 |
| 4.6 | The Conversion Process | 34 |
| 4.7 | The Blending Process | 35 |
| 4.8 | The Borrowing Process | 35 |
| 4.9 | The Number of Identified Word Formation Processes | 37 |



LIST OF APPENDICES

| Appendix | | Page |
|----------|--------|------|
| 1 | Data 1 | 48 |
| 2 | Data 2 | 48 |
| 3 | Data 3 | 49 |
| 4 | Data 3 | 49 |
| 5 | Data 4 | 50 |
| 6 | Data 5 | 51 |



CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses the background of the study, problems of the study, objectives of the study, and definition of key terms.

1.1 Background of the Study

Indonesian have *Bahasa Indonesia* as their national language. As a multicultural country which consists of people from different ethnic backgrounds, *Bahasa Indonesia* (BI) plays an important role as a lingua franca. UNESCO defines lingua franca as a language which is used habitually by people whose mother tongues are different in order to facilitate communication between them (Wardhaugh, 1986). *Bahasa Indonesia* is used throughout Indonesian area that has different language backgrounds, and cultures and in different social classes with different educational backgrounds and interests (Halim, 1979, p.39). BI is like a bridge that connects Indonesian so they can interact and communicate each other. By communicating using BI, Indonesian could share their feeling, ideas and information.

Communication is important in human lives. Soekono (1984) defines language as a tool of communication. Communication enables human to cooperate and to express their thoughts and feelings. Language has a function as a means of self-expression and as a communication tool as well as a tool to show identity.

Through language, we can show our perspective, our understanding of a matter, the origin of the nation and our state, our education, even our nature. Language becomes a reflection of us, both as a nation and as ourselves.

BI is derived from Malay Language and borrowed many words from other languages as well (Ricklefs, 1991). It was first declared the official language with the declaration of Indonesian Independence in 1945, following the 1928 unifying-language declaration in the Indonesian youth pledge (Sneddon, 2004, p.8).

Indonesian use BI both in formal and informal situations. In formal situation, BI that is used is in a standard form which is a correct form. The standard version of BI is rarely used in daily communication (informal situation). Standard BI may be found in books and newspapers, or on television/radio news broadcasts, but few native BI speakers use completely formal standard language in their daily conversations. This is a phenomenon common to most languages in the world (for example, the English language used by Black American).

A language tends to have varieties or dialect. Hudson (1980) defines variety of a language as a set of linguistic items with similar distribution. English, for example, has so many varieties. There are British English, American English, Black American English, Indian English, Singapore English, etc. They differ in pronunciation (accent), vocabulary, and grammar. Among speakers of one language, several different ways of using the language exist, and each is used to signal affiliation with particular subgroups within a larger culture. Yule (2006) states that dialect is a regional or social variety of a language distinguished by pronunciation, grammar or vocabulary especially a way of speaking that different

from the standard variety of a language. The term regional dialect refers to the place or area where a dialect is spoken. In contrast to a regional dialect, a social dialect is a variety of a language spoken by a particular group based on social characteristics (Siegel, 2010). Wardhaugh (1986) points out that a regional dialect of a language has distinctive varieties such as differences in pronunciation, in the choices and forms of words and in syntax. While Denham (2009) explains that dialect is a variety of a language that has uniqueness in phonology, morphology, syntax and vocabulary (lexicon). Phonological variation refers to differences in pronunciation within and across dialects. Morphological variation refers to the structure or forms of words, including the morphemes or minimal units of meaning which comprise words. Syntax refers to the structure of larger units like phrases and sentences, including rules for combining and relating words in sentences, and lexicon refers to differences in vocabulary.

This phenomenon also occurs in BI. Indonesia is a country with a vast territory population composed of various ethnic groups, so the use of BI is also diverse in different region. This is mostly due to the fact that most Indonesians tend to combine certain aspects of their own local languages (e.g. Javanese, Balinese, Sundanese and even Chinese dialects) with BI. The result is the creation of various types of regional Indonesian dialects (Quinn, 2001). For example, an Indonesian dialect spoken by Betawi ethnic. The word ending with 'A' letter in standard BI is changed into 'E' in their dialect. (For example, *Ke mana* becomes *kemane*, *apa* becomes *ape*). In the lexicon of Betawi dialect, for instance, they use the term *duit* often instead of *uang* (money). Another example in term of

pronunciation, people of Central Java are often known of their soft tone when they speak. It is different with people from other parts of Java, like East Java who speak rougher (*kasar*) than the people of Central Java.

Other than those dialects spoken in big cities in Indonesia, this phenomena also occurs in Papua. Papua is one of the provinces in Indonesia which is located on the easternmost of Indonesia. Papuan is totally different with other ethnics in Indonesia. Their skin is dark and have curly hair unlike most of Indonesian who are straight haired with light brown skin. Papua itself also has varieties of Papuan (tribe). These tribes scattered all over the Papua archipelago. For instance, in Sorong there are Kokoda, and Ayamaru tribe. In Manokwari, Arfai tribe lives there. In Biak, Biak is the natives. Two of the most known tribes in Papua, Asmat and Dani live in Wamena. These tribes have a language which is different one to another. In their community they use their tribal language to communicate.

When they meet people who are different with them, they use BI. Like other BI dialect used in big cities in Indonesia, the BI spoken by Papuan also has some unique characteristics. It can be noticed from their accent (pronunciation), lexicon (vocabulary and slang expression) and also in the morphological item. Papuan when speaking, they speak in fast and high tone. It is typical of eastern Indonesian people including Maluku, NTT and some parts of Sulawesi. In the lexicon of the BI dialect spoken by Papuan, there are some words than do not exist in standard BI. For example, the word *besar* (big) in standard BI is the equivalent of *bokar* in Papuan BI dialect. The word *dangkal* (shallow) in standard BI is equivalent with *meti* in Papuan dialect. From the morphological point of view, the sentence in

Papuan BI dialect *sa mo pi pasar* means *saya mau pergi ke pasar* in Standard BI (I want to go to the market). In this sentence we can see how the word is formulated. The word *saya* is clipped into *sa*, *mau* is changed to *mo*, and *pergi* is transformed into *pi*.

Based on the explanation given above, the writer wants to conduct a research in Papuan Indonesian dialect. Thus, this study is entitled "A Morphological and Lexical Study on Papuan Indonesian Dialect" which discusses about the characteristics of Papuan Indonesian Dialect. The writer only focuses this study on morphology and the lexicon; the word formation processes and the lexicon in Papuan Indonesian dialect. This phenomena is not known by many of Indonesians, therefore, it is an interesting topic to be discussed.

The writer expects this study to be beneficial for several parties. For the writer, it is expected to improve the writer's knowledge of dialect in Indonesia, especially Papuan Dialect. The findings of the study are expected to give clear description and explanation about Papuan Indonesian Dialect. Besides, this study can also be used as a reference for next writers who want to conduct other studies about dialect.

1.2 Problems of the Study

1. What are the word formation processes that occur in Papuan Indonesian dialect?
2. What are the lexical variations in Papuan Indonesian Dialect which are different from standard BI?

1.3 Objectives of the Study

1.

To identify and analyze the word formation processes in Papuan Indonesian dialect.

2.

To identify and analyze the lexical variation in Papuan Indonesian dialect compared to standard BI.

1.4 Definition of Key Terms

1. **Standard BI:** a correct form of Indonesian language that has been standardized by the government (Sneddon, 2004).

2. **Lingua Franca:** a language which is used habitually by people whose mother tongue are different in order to facilitate communication between them (Wardhaugh, 1986).

3. **Dialect:** a regional or social variety of a language distinguished by pronunciation, grammar or vocabulary especially a way of speaking that is different from the standard variety of a language (Yule, 1999).

4. **Morphology:** the study of morphemes and the arrangements of words (Nida, 1974).

5. **Lexicon:** the word and the expression (Geert, 2005).

6. **Papuan Indonesian Dialect:** a variant of Indonesian dialect that is spoken by Papuan people.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter shows the description and explanation about the theories that support this study.

2.1 Sociolinguistics

Language is a social-cultural-geographical phenomenon. There is a deep relationship between language and society. It is in society that man acquires and uses language. Yule (2006) states that people use language to show their feeling when interacting with other people. By using language, people also can exchange information and idea. Language is one of the most powerful emblems of social behavior. It has a function as a media of communication within society and also as an identity. Language helps people to maintain a relationship within a society. In the normal transfer of information through language, we use language to send vital social messages about who we are, where we come from, and who we associate with. It is often shocking to realize how extensively we may judge a person's background, character, and intentions based simply upon the person's language, dialect, or, in some instances, the choice of a single word. By a language we can identify where the speakers come from because language is like an identity card of the speaker.

Basically, a language has certain functions that are used based on the needs of a person, i.e, as a means to express themselves, as a means to communicate, as a tool to organize and adapt into social integration in a particular environment or situation, and as a tool for social control (Keraf, 1997).

The study of the relation between society and language is called sociolinguistics (Hudson, 2001). Similarly, Wardhaugh (1986) states that sociolinguistics is concerned with investigating the relationship between language and society and the purpose is to get a better understanding of the structure of a language and how the language functions in communication. Society here is to cover a spectrum of phenomena to do with race, nationality, more restricted regional, social and political groups, and the interactions of individuals within groups. The basic notion underlying sociolinguistics is quite simple: Language use symbolically represents fundamental dimensions of social behavior and human interaction. The notion is simple, but the ways in which language reflects behavior can often be complex and subtle. When we study a language which is an abstraction of abstractions, a system of systems, we have to study its further abstractions such as dialects, sociolects, idiolects, etc. Therefore, we have to keep in mind the geographical area in which this language is spoken, the culture and the society in which it is used, the speakers who use it, the listeners for whom it is used, and the purpose for which it is used, besides the linguistic components that compose it (Wolfram, 1991).

Wardhaugh (1986) further explains that there are numerous factors influencing the way people speak which are investigated by sociolinguistics:

• **Social class:** the position of the speaker in the society, measured by the level of education, parental background, profession and their effect on syntax and lexis used by the speaker;

• **Social context:** the register of the language used depending on changing situations, formal language in formal meetings and informal during meetings with friends for example;

• **Geographical origins:** slight differences in pronunciation between speakers that point at the geographical region which the speaker come from;

• **Ethnicity:** differences between the use of a given language by its native speakers and other ethnic groups;

• **Nationality:** clearly visible in the case of the English language: British English differs from American English, or Canadian English;

• **Gender:** differences in patterns of language use between men and women, such as quantity of speech, intonation patterns;

• **Age:** the influence of age of the speaker on the use of vocabulary and grammar complexity.

From one individual to the next, from one sub-section of speech-community (family, village, town, region) to another, people of different age, sex, social classes, occupations, or cultural groups in the same community, there are variations in their speech. The scope of sociolinguistics, therefore, is the interaction of language and various sociologically definable variables such as social class, specific social situation, status and roles of speakers/hearers, etc.

From the explanation above we can infer that sociolinguistics studies the ways in which language interacts with society. It is the study of the way in which the structure of a language changes in response to its different social functions, and the definition of what these functions are.

2.2 Dialect

Each language exists in many varieties (Hudson, 2001). Two or more distinct but linguistically equivalent variants represent the existence of a language variety. Variety is a specific set of linguistic items or human speech patterns (presumably sounds, words, grammatical features, etc.) which we can connect with some external factor apparently, a geographical area or a social group (Hudson, 2001). Languages can vary in lexical, grammatical, phonological and other ways depends on different social, geographical and other circumstances. (Wardhaugh, 1986).

To describe a variety of language the term dialect is used. Wardhaugh (1986) defines dialect as a subordinate variety of a language. For instance, in English we can see so many varieties of English dialect. There are British English, American English, Black American English, Indian English, Singapore English etc. While Yule (2006) defines dialect as a regional or social variety of a language distinguished by pronunciation, grammar or vocabulary especially a way of speaking that are different from the standard variety of a language. Denham (2009) has similar definitions of dialect with Yule and Wardhaugh. He explains that dialect is a variety of a language that has uniqueness in phonology,

morphology, syntax and vocabulary (lexicon). According to Holiday (1978), dialect states the same thing in different ways so that dialect tends to differ in form of grammar, vocabulary, phonological and phonetic. Therefore, dialect of a language has its own characteristics that distinguish it from other dialects.

Virtually every language in the world has dialects—varieties of the language that are particular to a group of speakers. Dialects vary by region and by social group. Dialect diversity, or language variation, reflects the fact that languages change over time and that people who live in the same area or maintain the same social identity share language norms; in other words, they speak the same dialect.

A dialect is mostly used in daily conversation so it is in the form of nonstandard language or vernacular. According to UNESCO (2001), vernacular is a language which is the mother tongue of a group which is socially or politically dominated by another group speaking a different language. Vernacular traditionally viewed as the mother tongue of a speaker, the vernacular refers to non-standard varieties often recognized to stand in contrast with the standard variety (Llamas et al., 2007).

Bahasa Indonesia (BI) is an example of a language with many varieties or dialect. Indonesia is a multicultural country consisting of people from different ethnics and cultures. Most of them are bilingual. Besides their ethnic language, they also speaks *Bahasa Indonesia*. The ability to speak *Bahasa Indonesia* is important for them because it has a function as lingua franca which means a medium of communication between people of different languages. Like all languages, *Bahasa Indonesia* displays dialect variations. Each dialect has slightly

different patterns of stress and intonation and some differences in vocabulary.

Those dialects are shaped by the influence of local languages. Take an example in Indonesian dialect spoken by people of Betawi who lives in Jakarta. *Gue* is the equivalent of *Saya* (I). *Elo* is the equivalent of *kamu* (you). Besides differences in vocabulary, there is also a difference in phonological features. Betawi people often change the word ending 'a' vowel into 'e'. Like *kemana* becomes *kemane*, *apa* become *ape*, *Jakarta* become *Jakarte* etc. Another example of an Indonesian dialect is Papuan dialect. Besides their ethnic language as their vernacular, Papuan people also use *Bahasa Indonesia* in their daily conversations. There are many ethnics in Papua. Each ethnic has different language. So they need a language that can bridge them. *Bahasa Indonesia* plays an important role there. As in other dialects, there are some unique characteristics in the Indonesian language they speak. For example the word *besar* in standard Indonesian become *bokar* in Papuan dialect. The word *dangkal* in standard Indonesian become *meti* in Papuan dialect. The sentence in Papuan dialect *sa mo pi pasar* means *saya mau pergi ke pasar* in Standard Indonesian. In this sentence we can see how the words are formulated. The word *saya* is clipped into *sa*, *mau* becomes *mo*, and *pergi* becomes *pi*.

2.3 Morphology

Languages vary widely in the degree to which words can be analyzed into word elements, or morphemes. Nida (1974) defines morphology as the study of morphemes and the arrangements of words. Morpheme is a minimal unit of

meaning or grammatical function (Yule, 2006). The concept of *word* and *morpheme* are different. For example the word *flowers*. It consists of 2 morphemes. First is *flower* and second is the suffix *s*. The word *flower* is a free morpheme which is a morpheme that can stand alone. Stand alone here means that it still has a meaning without anything added to it. The suffix *s* is a bound morpheme which is a morpheme that cannot stand alone. *It* is a grammatical unit that never occurs by itself, but is always attached to some other morphemes. The suffix *s* in the word *flowers* has a function to show that it is in the plural form. Another example are the word “beautiful” (consist of two morphemes: beauty and -ful (which indicates adjective form) and the word “cooks” (consist of two morphemes: cook and -s (which indicates simple present tense that the subject is singular). So we can conclude that a word may be composed of numbers of morpheme but one morpheme is one morpheme. Morpheme as the smallest unit of language can not be separated into smaller part again. Morpheme is used to refer to the smallest invisible unit of semantic content of grammatical which word is made up of.

2.3.1 Free and Bound Morpheme

Morphemes can be divided into two general classes. Free morphemes are those which can stand alone as words of a language, whereas bound morphemes must be attached to other morphemes. Free morpheme is a morpheme that can stand alone as a word without another morpheme (O’Grady and Guzman, 1996).

A word like 'house' or 'dog' is called a free morpheme because it can occur in

isolation and cannot be divided into smaller meaning units. The word 'quickest' is composed of two morphemes, one bound and one free. The word 'quick' is the free morpheme and carries the basic meaning of the word. The 'est' makes the word a superlative and is a bound morpheme because it cannot stand alone and be meaningful.

Free morphemes can be further subdivided into content words and function words (Weisler, 1999). Content words, as their name suggests, carry most of the content of a sentence. Function words generally perform some kind of grammatical role, carrying little meaning of their own. It does not need anything attached to it to make a word. Content words consist of nouns, verbs (except auxiliary and modal ones) adjectives, and adverbs whereas functional words are prepositions, conjunctions, pronouns, and particles.

Bound morphemes are divided into two types, inflectional and derivational morphemes (O'Grady and Guzman, 1996). Inflectional morphemes modify the grammatical class of words by signaling a change in number, person, gender, tense, and so on, but they do not shift the base form into another word class. When 'house' becomes 'houses,' it is still a noun even though the plural morpheme 's' is added. Derivational morphemes modify a word according to its lexical and grammatical class. It results in more profound changes on base words. The word 'style' is a noun, but if it is added the suffix *ish* and becomes 'stylish,' then it is an adjective. 'style' here is called a root. A root is the basic form to which other morphemes are attached. It provides the basic meaning of the word. It is the primary lexical unit of a word. They carry significant aspects of semantic content

and cannot be reduced into any smaller constituents parts. According to Katamba (1993), 'root' as the irreducible core of a word, with completely nothing else embedded to it

2.3.2 Word Formation Processes

Besides analyzing about morphemes, morphology also studies about how a word is formed. It is commonly known as word formation process. According to O'Grady and Guzman (1996), the term "morphology" is the study of word formation and its analysis which has system of class and rules involves in it. According to Yule (2006), word formation process is the process of creating new words. They are:

1. **Borrowing** is taking a word from one language and incorporating it into another. The English language has been very absorbent and took over words from all over the world, some of them include: biology, boxer, ozone – from German; jackal, kiosk, yogurt – from Turkish; pistol, robot – from Czech.
2. **Compounding** is a process in which two different words are joined together to denote one thing. For example: flower-pot is a compound made of two words: flower and pot, but it does not denote two things, it refers to one object. Some English compounds include: windmill, waterfall, fingerprint, scarecrow. Compounds are pronounced as one unit, but sometimes difficulties in writing arise: some compounds are written with

hyphens: full-time, good-looking; some are written separately: bank account, mini skirt; and some can be written in both ways.

3. **Blending** is very similar to compounding, but it is characterized by taking only parts of words and joining them. Famous English examples include: *smog* which combines smoke and fog, *motel* made of motor and hotel, *Spanglish* which is combination of Spanish and English; and *guesstimate*, from guess and estimate.

4. **Clipping** is shortening or reducing long words. It is very common in English which can be seen on the following examples: information is clipped to *info*, advertisement to *advert* or *ad*, influenza to *flu*, telephone to *phone*.

5. **Coinage** is creation of a totally new word. This word formation process is not frequent, however large corporations attempt to outdo one another to invent short eye-catching names for their products. Some examples of these could include: aspirin or xerox. Sometimes the products that the companies want to sell simply take over the name of the creator or inventor. In such case the new word is called an **eponym**. Some well-known eponyms include: sandwich, or hoover. They are very frequently used in science where units of measurement are named after people, like: hertz, volt, (degree) Celsius.

6. **Acronym** is a word formed from initial letters of a few words in a phrase or a name. Some acronyms are pronounced by saying each letter

separately, as in CD, DVD, VCR, FBI. Some are pronounced as words, like NATO, laser, AIDS, scuba.

7. **Conversion** is a process by which a word belonging to one word class is transferred to another word class without any change of form, either in pronunciation or spelling. For example: to bottle→bottling, to butter→buttered. Also verbs can become nouns. For example, a must, a guess.

8. **Derivation** is probably the most common word formation process in the English language. It is achieved by adding affixes: prefixes – are added at the beginning of a word, suffixes added to the end of a word, or infixes which are inserted inside a word, but infixes are unusual in English.

English prefixes include for example re-, un-, mis-, pre-, dis-; suffixes include for instance -ful, -less, -able, -or. It seems that infixes in English are confined to curse words such as: *absofuckinglutely*, *infuckingcredible*.

9. **Back formation** is a process in which a word changes its form and function. Word of one type, which is usually a noun, is reduced and used as a verb. To show it on an example: the English word *arms* meaning weapon was back formed to *arm* to mean provide weapons, similarly *edit* was back formed from *editor*, or *typewrite* from *typewriter*.

In this research, the writer wants to identify what kind of word formation used in the Papuan Indonesian dialect.

2.4 Lexicon

Lexicon is the knowledge that a native speaker has about a language. This includes information about:

1. the form and meanings of words and phrases
2. lexical categorization
3. the appropriate usage of words and phrases
4. relationships between words and phrases, and
5. categories of words and phrases.

Lexicon has some specific meanings, and other meanings that may be a little more theoretical in nature. The lexicon is a list of all the words in a language. It can be thought of as a list of all possible roots of a language, or all morphemes-- parts of words that contain no smaller meaningful parts-- that can stand alone or be combined with other parts to produce words. The word can also refer to the concept of a complete compendium of knowledge in a given area. Words are potentially complex units, composed of even more basic units, called morphemes.

In traditional grammar, words are the basic units of analysis. Crystal (2004) defines word as a unit of expression which has universal intuitive recognition by native speaker in both spoken and written form. Grammarians classify words according to their parts of speech or word class and identify and list the forms that words can show up in.

There are thousands of words in any language. But not all words have the same function. For example, some words express action. Other words express a thing. Other words join one word to another word. When we want to make a

sentence, we combine them all together. We can categorize words into 8 basic types or classes. These classes are called part of speech or word class. Based on Yule (2006) they are:

1. A noun is a word that denotes a person, place, or thing. In a sentence, nouns answer the questions who and what. For example: *book, Johnny, Malang.*
2. A pronoun is a word that takes the place of a noun in a sentence. For example : *I, you, he, she, it, ours, them, who.*
3. Interjection mentions short exclamation words (*oh, ouch, hi*) and sometimes inserted into a sentence. For example: *hi, how are you?*
4. An adjective is a word that modifies, or describes, a noun or pronoun. Adjectives may precede nouns, or they appear after a form of the reflexive verb to be (am, are, is, was, etc.). For example: *beautiful, funny, easy.*
5. A verb is a word that denotes action, or a state of being, in a sentence. For example: *go, run, eat, sleep.*
6. Just as adjectives modify nouns, adverbs modify, or further describe, verbs. Adverbs may also modify adjectives. (Many, though not all, adverbs end in *-ly*). For example: *easily, extremely, deeply!*
7. A conjunction is a word that joins two independent clauses, or sentences, together. For example: *and, but, for, or, nor, so.*
8. Prepositions work in combination with a noun or pronoun to create phrases that modify verbs, nouns/pronouns, or adjectives. Prepositional

phrases convey a spatial, temporal, or directional meaning. For example:

above, across, after, around, at, before, behind, below, beneath, beside,

between, beyond, by, down, without.

In this research the writer also identified some vocabulary, phrase and expressions

in Papuan Indonesian dialect together with its meaning.

2.5 Standard Bahasa Indonesia

The origin of *Bahasa Indonesia* as the national language began with Youth

Oath (*sumpah pemuda*) which was declared as an political attitudes. In its position

as the national language, as well as a communication tool between ethnic groups

that have their regional language as first language, *Bahasa Indonesia* has also

become an effective communication tool for inter-ethnic relations in Indonesia.

Whereas in its capacity as the state language set the day after the proclamation of

independence of the republic of Indonesia as stated in *pasal 36 UUD 1945*, since

then Bahasa Indonesia is the official language used in managing the State in

formal situations, such as the office interaction, in schools, speeches and lectures

as well as written in the book. In other words, official language is a standard

language.

Halim (1979) says that a standard language is a language variety which is

institutionalized and is recognized by most people, and is used as an official and

as a wide frame of reference norms and language use. Rusyana (1984) explains

that standard language is a codified language which is accepted, and is modeled

by language society. Codified means that applying a code to be the norm in a

language (Alwasilah, 1985). Codification is related to the regulation of grammar of a language. The regulation determine the vocabulary, pronunciation, and syntactical order. Standard language is a language that can express the thought or reasoning, logical, orderly and sensible. It is the language that is used effectively, appropriate, and correct. Effective because it contains ideas that are easily accepted and expressed again. Appropriate based to our needs, time and space and correct according to the grammatical rules in written or spoken. For example in formal situation the word *tidak* is preferred than *nggak* and the word *mudah* is preferred than *gampang*. The standard of Bahasa Indonesia can be seen in *Kamus Besar Bahasa Indonesia*.

2.6 Papuan Indonesian Dialect

As the time goes, *Bahasa Indonesia* (BI) has grown and developed together with the various local languages and foreign languages. The encounter between regional languages and BI has generated a form of use of BI which may vary among users in different areas. The example are BI spoken by Betawi, Chinese, and Javanese. Besides the examples that mentioned before, there is one variation of BI that is unique too which is BI spoken by Papuan.

Papua is the easternmost province in Indonesia which has a lot of uniqueness, both natural and cultural circumstances. Beside that Papua also has hundreds of different languages and customs. Most of Papuans live in coastal areas and mountains. Unlike other ethnic in Indonesia who have a bright skin and straight

hair, Papuan have a dark skin and curly hair. That is where the term Papua came from. Papua means *rambut keriting* (curly hair).

Papuan are a bilingual, means they speak more than one language. The diversity of ethnic within Papua have forced them to do so. Besides their tribal language, they also speak Bahasa Indonesia. In Papua, people from other regions, such as Java, Sumatera, Kalimantan, Sulawesi and Maluku, also live there. The use of BI as a contact language is extremely important in such a diverse environment. The kind of BI used is in the form of informal language and it is used in daily conversation. Informal means that the use of speech or writing is different in pronunciation, grammar, or vocabulary from the standard Bahasa Indonesia.

Like other Indonesian dialect in other region in Indonesia, the Papuan Indonesian dialect (PID) also has some unique characteristics especially the pronunciation, intonation and the vocabulary. For instance, the sentence in PID *ko mo pi mana?* means *kamu mau pergi kemana?* in actual Indonesian language. *Sa su bilang to, makanya jang malawan* (PID) means *saya sudah bilang kan, makanya jangan melawan*. In those two examples we can see an interesting phenomenon in the form of the word. Some words are clipped, some are changed.

But not all the words are treated the same way. The PID that is used in everyday conversation by Papuanese do not have much different with the language of Indonesia in general, because there are some words that is clipped, for example: *saya* (*sa*), *punya* (*pu*), *pergi* (*pi*), etc. there are also a variation in the lexicon or vocabulary such as *testa* (*dahi*), *bokar* (*besar*), *molo* (*menyelam*) etc.

2.7 Previous Studies

There are many studies about dialect. One of the studies was conducted by Lika (2011) entitled “A Study on Indonesian Dialect Used by Chinese Students of Faculty of Culture Studies at University of Brawijaya“. In Lika's study, she analyzed the characteristics of Indonesian dialect used by Chinese students of Faculty of Culture Studies and analyzed the lexical interferences of Chinese into Bahasa Indonesia. Her analysis was based on Morphological, Phonological, and Lexical items. She found that Chinese students use affixes of Javanese into a word of Bahasa Indonesia. Besides, the Chinese students also use kinship terms, terms of number, greetings and other terms from Chinese. In terms of Phonology, there were seven utterances that had different pronunciation. The speakers changed the sound /t/ into /k/. For example *cumak*, *sampek*, *pakek*. Furthermore, there were thirty one classification based on the lexicon items. The lexicon items came from Javanese, Chinese and Dutch.

Another study on dialect is Budiarti's (2011) entitled “ Word Formation Processes of Betawi Language Found in the Book Terang Bulan Terang di Kali: Cerita Keliling Jakarta “. It concerns about the word formation processes in Betawi language. She found some word formation processes in Betawi language such as borrowing, compounding, derivation etc. She further states that derivation occurs more than other word formation processes in Betawi language. One of the characteristics of Betawi language is its affixes do not always result in the same parts of speech and brings the same meaning. For instance, suffix -an in Betawi language can form either noun (*makanan*) or verb (*jualan*) while suffix in

English mostly always result in the same parts of speech and carry the same meaning such as suffix -able always result as adjectives (unbelievable, capable, transferable).

In this present study, the writer also conducts a research on dialect but the subject is Papuan dialect. The writer wants to identify the word formation processes and lexical variety in Papuan Indonesian dialect.



CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODS

Method is defined as a way or technique done in research (Sudaryanto, 1993).

This chapter describes the methods used in this study, comprising research design, data source, data collection, and data analysis.

3.1 Research Design

This research was a qualitative research. Moleong (2007) describes qualitative research as a research conducted to know the whole phenomena of words and language in detail in a scientific context using a certain scientific methods. Therefore, in conducting this research, the writer used qualitative approach because the aim of this research is to describe and understand the characteristics of Papuan Indonesian dialect. In qualitative research, the data are in the form of words rather than numbers and statistics (Ary et al, 2002). In this research, the writer analyzed the the characteristics of the words in Papuan Indonesian Dialect. This research applied descriptive research that is aimed to describe systematically the facts and characteristics of a given population or area of interest, factually and accurately (Isaac & Michael, 1997).

This study was a case study. Ary et al (2002) explain a case study as a study which observes a single phenomenon occurred in a society. The goal is to achieve

the description in detail. In this study, case study is used to know the characteristics of Papuan Indonesian Dialect.

3.2 Data Source

Data sources are all informations or subjects that should be collected and chosen by the writer. The data of this study was taken from the observation among some of the Papuanese living in Malang which counted of 5 persons. They are the students of various universities in Malang. In their daily interaction, they speak Papuan Indonesian dialect with their friends. The writer also used his own experience as a Papuan Indonesian dialect speaker. The data of this study are the utterances of the Indonesian dialect containing the linguistic items especially morphology and lexical variation which is spoken by Papuanese.

3.3 Data Collection

Research instrument has an important role in collecting the data. The key instrument of this research is the writer himself, as Stainback (1988) states that in qualitative research, the writer himself is often the primary instrument employed to gather the data. Data are important things in a research. The writer chooses the suitable method in order to find qualified data. There are a lot of methods that can be used to collect data.

Ary et al (2002) conclude three kinds of data collection methods that are most common in qualitative research. They are observation, interviewing and document analysis. In this study, the writer uses observation method. According to Mahsun

(2005); observation is a method which is used to find the data by observing the use of the language. The goal is to have a complete description of behavior in a specific natural setting rather than a numeric summary of occurrence or duration of observed behaviors. Observation are done by observing the conversation between the subjects which are Papuanese. In this case, the writer involves directly in the conversation. In observing the subject, the writer takes part in the subject's daily activities such as playing futsal and *ngopi*. While observing, the writer take notes on the relevant data from the subjects that contain morphological and lexical variation of PID that are different from Standard BI. Eventually, after a period of data collection, a point is reached where no new data result from additional data collection. This point is called the point of saturation. A category is considered saturated when no new information seems to emerge during coding, that is, when no new properties, dimensions, conditions, actions/interactions, or consequences are seen in the data (Glaser and Strauss, 1967).

3.4 Data Analysis

The most important stage of a research is analyzing the data. This stage determines the succes and achievement of the whole research. On this stage, all collected data are analyzed and examined until the writer comes into conclusion of the whole research. Then, the result of the research is used to answer all the research problems of the study.

Patton (1980) explains that data analysis is the process of ordering the data; organizing it into a pattern, category, and the basic outline of the unit. Meanwhile,

Bogdan & Taylor (1975) defines data analysis as a process that details a formal effort to find a theme and formulate hypotheses (ideas) as suggested and an attempt to provide assistance and the theme of the hypothesis. So the data analysis is the process of organizing and sorting data into patterns, categories and the basic outline of the unit in order to discover the theme and can be formulated as a working hypothesis based on the data. In analyzing the data, these are the steps taken:

1. Identifying: Each unit of meaning is identified by choosing a word or phrase that describes the essence of the category.
2. Summarizing: Examine all entries with the same code and then merge these categories into patterns by finding links and connections among categories. The data will be classified as the following :

| No | Lexicon of PID | Meaning in BI | Type of Word Formation Process | Part of speech |
|----|----------------|---------------|--------------------------------|----------------|
| | | | | |

3. Interpreting: The writer goes beyond the descriptive data to extract meaning and insights from the data. The writer tells what is found, why it was important and what could be learned from it.

This analysis is based on the theory of word formation processes and parts of speech by Yule (2006).

CHAPTER IV FINDING AND DISCUSSION

This chapter presents the finding and the discussion of the study. First, the writer shows the findings and the analysis, then discusses the analysis in the discussion part. The analysis in this chapter answers the problems of the study that have been stated in the first chapter.

4.1 Findings

In this part, the writer presents the data that were gathered from the observation. The data are presented in a table. The table consists of Lexicon of Papan Indonesian Dialect (PID), Meaning in BI, The Type of Word Formation Processes, and Parts of Speech.

After reaching the point of saturation, the writer found 50 utterances of PID that are different with Standard BI. The data are presented in the following:

Table 4.1 Lexical Variation in PID Clasified Based on The Type of Word Formation Process

| <i>No</i> | <i>Lexicon of PID</i> | <i>Meaning in BI</i> | <i>Type of Word Formation Process</i> | <i>Parts of Speech</i> |
|-----------|-------------------------|----------------------|---------------------------------------|------------------------|
| 1 | <i>Kitong/Kitorang,</i> | <i>Kita</i> | <i>Blending</i> | <i>Pronoun</i> |
| 2 | <i>Dorang/Dong</i> | <i>Mereka</i> | <i>Blending</i> | <i>Pronoun</i> |
| 3 | <i>Kamorang</i> | <i>Kalian</i> | <i>Blending</i> | <i>Pronoun</i> |
| 4 | <i>Testa</i> | <i>Dahi</i> | <i>Borrowing</i> | <i>Noun</i> |
| 5 | <i>Jang</i> | <i>Jangan</i> | <i>Clipping</i> | <i>Verb</i> |
| 6 | <i>Deng</i> | <i>Dengan</i> | <i>Clipping</i> | <i>Preposition</i> |
| 7 | <i>Sa</i> | <i>Saya</i> | <i>Clipping</i> | <i>Pronoun</i> |
| 8 | <i>Pi</i> | <i>Pergi</i> | <i>Clipping</i> | <i>Verb</i> |

| | | | | |
|----|-----------------|------------------------------|--------------------|------------------|
| 9 | <i>Pu</i> | <i>Punya</i> | <i>Clipping</i> | <i>Verb</i> |
| 10 | <i>Su</i> | <i>Sudah</i> | <i>Clipping</i> | <i>Adverb</i> |
| 11 | <i>Co</i> | <i>Coba</i> | <i>Clipping</i> | <i>Verb</i> |
| 12 | <i>Cigi</i> | <i>Tarik</i> | <i>Coinage</i> | <i>Verb</i> |
| 13 | <i>Terkom</i> | <i>Terjun</i> | <i>Coinage</i> | <i>Verb</i> |
| 14 | <i>Kopeng</i> | <i>Sundul</i> | <i>Coinage</i> | <i>Verb</i> |
| 15 | <i>Talem</i> | <i>Cekatan</i> | <i>Coinage</i> | <i>Adjective</i> |
| 16 | <i>Garai</i> | <i>Jelek</i> | <i>Coinage</i> | <i>Adjective</i> |
| 17 | <i>Los</i> | <i>Lepas</i> | <i>Coinage</i> | <i>Verb</i> |
| 18 | <i>Maniso</i> | <i>Bertingkah</i> | <i>Coinage</i> | <i>Adjective</i> |
| 19 | <i>Tete</i> | <i>Kakek</i> | <i>Coinage</i> | <i>Noun</i> |
| 20 | <i>Tindis</i> | <i>Tekan</i> | <i>Coinage</i> | <i>Verb</i> |
| 21 | <i>Tra</i> | <i>Tidak</i> | <i>Coinage</i> | <i>Adverb</i> |
| 22 | <i>Bokar</i> | <i>Besar</i> | <i>Coinage</i> | <i>Adjective</i> |
| 23 | <i>Meti</i> | <i>Dangkal</i> | <i>Coinage</i> | <i>Adjective</i> |
| 24 | <i>Maitua</i> | <i>Istri</i> | <i>Coinage</i> | <i>Noun</i> |
| 25 | <i>Paitua</i> | <i>Suami</i> | <i>Coinage</i> | <i>Noun</i> |
| 26 | <i>Peleh</i> | <i>Tutup</i> | <i>Coinage</i> | <i>Verb</i> |
| 27 | <i>Lipa</i> | <i>Pukul</i> | <i>Coinage</i> | <i>Verb</i> |
| 28 | <i>Toki</i> | <i>Ketuk</i> | <i>Coinage</i> | <i>Verb</i> |
| 29 | <i>Deken</i> | <i>Jaga</i> | <i>Coinage</i> | <i>Verb</i> |
| 30 | <i>Molo</i> | <i>Menyelam</i> | <i>Coinage</i> | <i>Verb</i> |
| 31 | <i>Sei</i> | <i>Menghindar</i> | <i>Coinage</i> | <i>Verb</i> |
| 32 | <i>Tumbu</i> | <i>Pukul</i> | <i>Coinage</i> | <i>Verb</i> |
| 33 | <i>Mop</i> | <i>Cerita lucu</i> | <i>Coinage</i> | <i>Noun</i> |
| 34 | <i>Pace</i> | <i>Laki-laki</i> | <i>Coinage</i> | <i>Noun</i> |
| 35 | <i>Mace</i> | <i>Perempuan</i> | <i>Coinage</i> | <i>Noun</i> |
| 36 | <i>Tampias</i> | <i>Tumpah</i> | <i>Coinage</i> | <i>Verb</i> |
| 37 | <i>Pangaruh</i> | <i>Hebat</i> | <i>Coinage</i> | <i>Adjective</i> |
| 38 | <i>Mama ade</i> | <i>Bibi yang lebih muda</i> | <i>Compounding</i> | <i>Noun</i> |
| 39 | <i>Mama tua</i> | <i>Bibi yang lebih tua</i> | <i>Compounding</i> | <i>Noun</i> |
| 40 | <i>Bapa ade</i> | <i>Paman yang lebih muda</i> | <i>Compounding</i> | <i>Noun</i> |
| 41 | <i>Bapa tua</i> | <i>Paman yang lebih tua</i> | <i>Compounding</i> | <i>Noun</i> |

| | | | | |
|----|----------------------|---------------------|---------------------|--------------------|
| 42 | <i>Pegang tangan</i> | <i>Berjabatan</i> | <i>Compounding</i> | <i>Verb</i> |
| 43 | <i>Ade kaka</i> | <i>Bersaudara</i> | <i>Compounding</i> | <i>Noun</i> |
| 44 | <i>Sampe</i> | <i>Sekali</i> | <i>Conversion</i> | <i>Adverb</i> |
| 45 | <i>Tempo</i> | <i>Cepat</i> | <i>Conversion</i> | <i>Adverb</i> |
| 46 | <i>Ada</i> | <i>Sedang</i> | <i>Conversion</i> | <i>Preposition</i> |
| 47 | <i>Orang</i> | <i>Saya</i> | <i>Conversion</i> | <i>Pronoun</i> |
| 48 | <i>Prefix ba-</i> | <i>Imbuhan ber-</i> | <i>Derivational</i> | |
| 49 | <i>Prefix pa-</i> | <i>Imbuhan pe-</i> | <i>Derivational</i> | |
| 50 | <i>Prefix ta-</i> | <i>Imbuhan ter-</i> | <i>Derivational</i> | |

After organizing and summarizing the data into its category, the writer began to analyze the data based on Yule's Theory of word formation process and parts of speech.

4.1.1 Analysis of Word Formation Processes in PID

As being stated earlier, word formation process is the process of creating new words. From the data gathered, there are some word formation processes in the utterances of BI spoken by Papuanese. The word formation processes in the Papuan Indonesian Dialect are as follows :

4.1.1.1 Clipping

Table 4.2 The Clipping Process

| No | Utterances | Process | Meaning in BI | Parts of Speech |
|----|------------------------------------|--------------------------|---------------|--------------------|
| 1 | <i>Sa mo pi futsal dulu</i> | <i>Sa → Sa(-ya)</i> | <i>Saya</i> | <i>Pronoun</i> |
| 2 | <i>Sa su lapar ni ah</i> | <i>Su → Su (-dah)</i> | <i>Sudah</i> | <i>Adverb</i> |
| 3 | <i>Nanti anis deng domi datang</i> | <i>Deng → Deng (-an)</i> | <i>Dengan</i> | <i>Preposition</i> |
| 4 | <i>Jang kasi tau dia</i> | <i>Jang → Jang (-an)</i> | <i>Jangan</i> | <i>Verb</i> |
| 5 | <i>Co kasi ko pu hp kemari</i> | <i>Co → Co (-ba)</i> | <i>Coba</i> | <i>Verb</i> |
| 6 | <i>Ko pu maitua mana?</i> | <i>Pu → Pu (-nya)</i> | <i>Punya</i> | <i>Verb</i> |
| 7 | <i>Ko pi sudah</i> | <i>Pi → P (-erg) i</i> | <i>Pergi</i> | <i>Verb</i> |

One of the characteristics of PID is clipping which is shortening or reducing long words. A part of the syllable is clipped into a shorter form. There are 7 clipping in PID utterances. They are *sa*, *su*, *deng*, *jang*, *co*, *pu* and *pi*. All of the clipping process in these 7 words is the omission of the last syllable. *Saya* consists of two syllables, *sa* and *ya*. Then the syllable *ya* is clipped become *sa*. This also happens in 5 other words. *Sudah* is shortened into *su*, the syllable *-dah* is omitted. *Dengan* become *deng*, the *an* part is omitted. *Jangan* become *jang*, the *an* part is clipped. The syllable *ba* in *coba* is clipped and become *co*. So does the *nya* syllable in *punya*, is clipped and become *su*. The last is *pi*. In *pi*, there is a little bit difference in the term of clipping process from the example mentioned before. In *pi* which is clipped from the word *pergi*, the three letter in the middle of *pergi*, *e*, *r*, and *g* is clipped. In these 7 words, there is no change in their part of speech with their original one. *Sa* is still a pronoun, *su* is still an adverb, *deng* is still a preposition, *jang* is still a verb, *co* is still a verb, *pu* and *pi* also are still a verb.

4.1.1.2 Coinage

Table 4.3 The Coinage Process

| No | Utterances | Meaning in BI | Parts of Speech |
|----|--|----------------|------------------|
| 1 | <i>Bah di sa pu kampung tu ikan bokar-bokar</i> | <i>Besar</i> | <i>Adjective</i> |
| 2 | <i>Air meti tu biasa pagi sampe siang</i> | <i>Dangkal</i> | <i>Adjective</i> |
| 3 | <i>Ko baru taru umpan di air saja, tra lama begini ikan su cigi ko pu umpan.</i> | <i>Tarik</i> | <i>Verb</i> |
| 4 | <i>Kitorang biasa naik ke pohon dulu baru terkomp dari atas.</i> | <i>Terjun</i> | <i>Verb</i> |
| 5 | <i>Anis, kasi bola atas biar sa kopeng.</i> | <i>Sundul</i> | <i>Verb</i> |
| 6 | <i>De pu kiper talem sampe</i> | <i>Cekatan</i> | <i>Adjective</i> |

| | | | |
|----|---|-------------|-----------|
| 7 | Ah ko yang garai | Jelek | Adjective |
| 8 | Los biar sa yang tendang | Lepas | Verb |
| 9 | Cantik tapi talalu maniso | Sombong | Adjective |
| 10 | Sa pu tete jago mancing | Kakek | Noun |
| 11 | Ini laptop tindis apa ni? | Tekan | Verb |
| 12 | Ah sa mo cari maitua jawa saja | Istri | Noun |
| 13 | Macam dong mo terima ko jadi paitua saja | Suami | Noun |
| 14 | De tra kelihatan, tapeleh deng trek di dpn | Tutup | Verb |
| 15 | Jang ko bikin ganas e, dapa lipa baru tau rasa | Pukul | Verb |
| 16 | Masuk orang pu kamar tu toki dulu | Ketuk | Verb |
| 17 | Deken dia terus jang sampe lepas | Jaga | Verb |
| 18 | Su lama tra pi molo di laut | Menyelam | Verb |
| 19 | Ah tra kena saya, sa sei cepat | Menghindar | Verb |
| 20 | Eh pace , jang main bola terus | Laki laki | Noun |
| 21 | Mace , ko liat sa pu uang jatuh ka? | Perempuan | Noun |
| 22 | Pake sedotan biar air tra tampias kemana mana | Tumpah | Verb |
| 23 | Ayo tong dua baku tumbu sudah | Pukul | Verb |
| 24 | Sa tra tau, ko jang tuduh tuduh sembarang | Tidak | Adverb |
| 25 | Persipura yang paling pangaruh | Hebat | Adjective |
| 26 | Marten de paling pintar sudah kalo crita crita mop . | Cerita lucu | Noun |

Coinage is the invention of a new word. It means that the word never before exists in a language. There are 26 processes of coinage found. All these coinage are not enlisted in *Kamus Besar Bahasa Indonesia*. Papuan actually know the terms in Bahasa Indonesia but these coinages are used or preferred more when they want to express or say something. For instance, the term *bokar*. Papuan

knows the word *besar* is to express a large size but somehow they use the term *bokar* instead. This also happens in other 25 coinage.

4.1.1.3 Compounding

Table 4.4 The Compounding Process

| No | Utterances | Process | Meaning in BI | Part of speech |
|----|---|-----------------|-----------------------|----------------|
| 1 | Sa pu mama ade deng bapa ade dorang tinggal di biak | Mama + Ade | Bibi yang lebih muda | Noun |
| 2 | Baru, ko pu mama tua deng bapa tua sekarang dimana? | Mama + Tua | Bibi yang lebih tua | Noun |
| 3 | Sa pu mama ade deng bapa ade dorang tinggal di biak | Bapa + Ade | Paman yang lebih muda | Noun |
| 4 | Baru, ko pu mama tua deng bapa tua sekarang dimana? | Bapa + Tua | Paman yang lebih tua | Noun |
| 5 | Biasa kalo natalan tu kitorang pi keliling kompleks pegang tangan deng orang orang | Pegang + Tangan | Berjabatan | Verb |
| 6 | Kitorang dua ade kaka | Ade + Kaka | Bersaudara | Noun |

Compounding is a process in which two different words are joined together to denote one thing. There are 7 compounding words in PID. First is *mama ade*. It is a compounding from two word *mama* and *ade*. *Mama* means mother, and *ade* means younger brother or sister. By compounding them, *mama ade* means *bibi* (aunt). She is the younger sister of his mother. This is the same with *bapa ade*. *Bapa* means father. By compounding it with *ade*, it means uncle. He is the younger brother of his father. *Bapa tua* and *mama tua* are also the same with the case before. *Tua* means old. So *Bapa tua* is his uncle who is older from his father, and *mama tua* is his aunt who is older than his father. Another case is *ade-kaka*.

Ade means younger brother, and *kaka* means older brother. By compounding them together, *ade-kaka* means *bersaudara*. The last is *pegang tangan*. Actually *pegang tangan* is Bahasa Indonesia. *Pegang tangan* literally means holding hand. But in PID *pegang tangan* is a compounding word which means shaking hands (*berjabat*). Below is the description of the six compounding words in PID presented in a table.

4.1.1.4 Derivation

Table 4.5 The Derivation Process

| No | Utterances | Process | Meaning in BI | Part of Speech |
|----|--|------------|---------------|----------------|
| 1 | Tiap hari <i>bajalan</i> trus, tra pernah kuliah | Ba + Jalan | Berjalan | Noun |
| 2 | <i>Pamalas sampe</i> , kamar takaruan | Pa + Malas | Pemalas | Noun |
| 3 | Tra tau begini pintu de <i>tabuka</i> sendiri | Ta + Buka | Terbuka | Verb |

Derivation is a process of adding affixes : prefixes are added at the beginning of a word, suffixes are added to the end of a word. There are 3 affixes in PID.

They are in the form of prefix: *ba-*, *ta-*, and *pa-*. Actually these affixes are the same with the affixes *ber-*, *ter-*, and *pe-* in BI. It is just the letter –e change into –a.

In the first utterances *bajalan*, the prefix *ba-* is added in front of the word *jalan*.

Bajalan is a verb.. In the second utterances, the prefix *pa-* is added to the word

malas. *Malas* is an adjective but when the prefix *pa-* is added, become *pamalas*, it

turns into a noun. In the last utterances, the prefix *ta-* is added in front of the word

buka. *Tabuka* is a verb.

4.1.1.5 Conversion

Table 4.6 The Conversion Process

| No | Utterances | Meaning in BI | Part of Speech |
|----|---|---------------|--------------------|
| 1 | <i>Tomas de ada mandi</i> | <i>Sedang</i> | <i>Preposition</i> |
| 2 | <i>Tempo sudah, su mo terlambat ni</i> | <i>Cepat</i> | <i>Adverb</i> |
| 3 | <i>Orang su bilang to, makanya jang melawan</i> | <i>Saya</i> | <i>Pronoun</i> |
| 4 | <i>Ko di kamar mandi lama sampe</i> | <i>Sekali</i> | <i>Adverb</i> |

Conversion is a process by which a word belonging to one word class is transferred to another word class without any change of form, either in pronunciation or spelling. There are four utterances found which contain conversion. First is *ada*. According to Kamus Besar Bahasa Indonesia (KBBI) *ada* means *hadir, telah sedia*. It is classified as a verb. But in PID the meaning and also the part of speech are converted. In PID, the word *ada* is a preposition. It means *sedang*. The second is *tempo*. According to KBBI *tempo* means *masa, waktu*. *Tempo* is classified as a noun. In PID, *tempo* means *cepat* (quickly). It converts from noun into an adverb. There are also a conversion in the word *orang*. In KBBI, *orang* is a noun and means *manusia*. But in PID *orang* is a pronoun and means *saya*. The last in conversion in the word *sampe*. *Sampe* actually the same with *sampai* in BI. The sound *-ai* is pronounced as *-e*. In KBBI, *sampai* is classified as a verb which means *tiba, datang* but in PID it is an adverb which means *sekali*.

4.1.1.6 Blending

Table 4.7 The Blending Process

| No | Utterances | Process | Meaning in BI | Part of Speech |
|----|--|---------------------|---------------|----------------|
| 1 | <i>Kalo bukan kitorang sapa lagi</i> | <i>Kita + Orang</i> | <i>Kita</i> | <i>Pronoun</i> |
| 2 | <i>Dorang ada pi nonton bola</i> | <i>Dia + Orang</i> | <i>Mereka</i> | <i>Pronoun</i> |
| 3 | <i>Kamorang jang macam macam deng napi</i> | <i>Kamu + Orang</i> | <i>Kalian</i> | <i>Pronoun</i> |

Blending is the process of taking only parts of words and joining them. There are 3 blending in PID: *kitorang*, *dorang*, and *kamorang*. *Kitorang* is a blend from *kita + orang*, means *kita*. *Dorang* is a blend from *dia+orang*, means *mereka*. *Kamorang* is a blend from *kamu+orang*, means *kalian*. All of them are pronoun.

4.1.1.7 Borrowing

Table 4.8 The Borrowing Process

| No | Utterances | Source Language | Meaning in BI | Part of Speech |
|----|--|-------------------|---------------|----------------|
| 1 | <i>Kalo mo kopeng bola, kopeng pas di testa.</i> | <i>Portuguese</i> | <i>Dahi</i> | <i>Noun</i> |

Borrowing is taking a word from one language and incorporating it into another. There are only one words in PID which is classified as a borrowing: *testa*. *Testa* means forehead or *dahi* in BI. *Testa* is borrowed from portuguese language.

4.2 Discussion

The observation is done by reaching the saturation point which is a term in qualitative research, specifically in the grounded theory approach. Theoretical saturation of data means that writers reach a point in their analysis of data that sampling more data will not lead to more information related to their research questions. There is no additional data can be found to develop new properties of

categories and the relationships between the categories are disentangled. The writer finds in his data that similar instances are repeated over and over again and that make them empirically confident that their categories are saturated, the descriptions of these categories are thick and a theory can emerge (Seale, 1999). Seale further explains that if the saturation point is reached, the writers are allowed to stop sampling data and to round off their analysis. Then each utterance is identified by choosing a word or phrase that describes the essence of the category which is the word formation process and examining all entries with the same code and then merging these categories into patterns by finding links and connections among categories, the writer then takes the next step which is interpreting. The writer goes beyond the descriptive data to extract meaning and insights from the data. The writer tells what is found, why it is important and what could be learned from it.

After doing the research, there were 50 utterances found that indicates the characteristics of Papuan Indonesian dialect. These utterances were analyzed by using theories from Yule. According to Yule (2006), word formation process is the process of creating new words. There are 9 word formation processes explained by Yule. They are borrowing, compounding, clipping, coinage, blending, derivation, conversion, acronym and back formation. In the 50 utterances of PID, the writer identified seven word formation processes that undergo the characteristics of PID which are borrowing, compounding, clipping, coinage, blending, derivation, and conversion. The description of the number and the word formation processes is presented as follow:

Table 4.9 Number of Identified Word Formation Process

| No | Type of Word Formation Process | Number of identified utterances |
|-------|--------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1 | Borrowing | 1 |
| 2 | Compounding | 6 |
| 3 | Clipping | 7 |
| 4 | Coinage | 26 |
| 5 | Blending | 3 |
| 6 | Derivation | 3 |
| 7 | Conversion | 4 |
| total | | 50 |

There is one term in PID vocabulary that is borrowed from another language which is *testa*. *Testa* is borrowed from Portuguese language which means forehead or *dahi* in BI. As explained by Yule (1996), borrowing is taking a word from one language and incorporating it into another. Many of the words used today in Bahasa Indonesia are borrowing words, words that have been borrowed from other languages and incorporated into its own. An inevitable result of contact with foreign cultures, Indonesian have borrowed and used foreign words for centuries and today words continue to enter the Bahasa Indonesia. This also happens in Papuan Indonesian Dialect reflected in the word *testa*. Borrowing words are generally used when we encounter a new concept and do not have a name for it or it cannot be clearly expressed.

Another word formation process identified in PID is compounding. Compounding is done by joining two words to denote one thing. For example is the compounding of *Mama* and *ade*. *Mama* and *ade* are two different terms and have different meaning. *Mama* means *ibu* in BI and *ade* is derived from the word *adik*. When they are joined together, they create a new term which means *bibi* in BI. *Mama ade* is a kinship term in PID for someone's aunt. She could be the younger sister of his or her father or mother.

The other word formation process in PID found is clipping. The examples are *sa*, *jang*, and *deng*. *Sa* is clipped from the word *saya*. The last syllable is omitted. This omission also occurs in *jang* and *deng*. Their last syllable are also omitted. *Jangan* become *jang* and *dengan* become *deng*. There is no clear rule or pattern of clipping a word because not all the words is clipped. The clipping process are only found in 7 words. All these words varied in their part of speech.

The most dominant data found are in the coinage process. There are 26 data found. They vary in their part of speech. For example are *bokar*, *mop* and *cigi*. *Bokar* is an adjective. It means *besar* in BI. *Mop* is a noun which means a funny story. While *cigi* is a verb. It means *tarik* in BI. The reason why the writer conclude them in coinage is because, there is no existence of this word in BI, in informal or formal style. They are totally new. Papuan actually know their term in BI but these are preferred more.

The blending process is also identified in PID. The words blended are *kitorang*, *dorang* and *kamorang*. There are similarities between these three words. All of them consist of the word *orang* which means *diri* or *manusia* in BI. The

word *kita*, *dia* and *kamu* are blended with the word *orang* become *kitorang*, *dorang* and *kamorang*. *Kitorang* means *kita* in BI, *dorang* means *mereka* in BI, and *kamorang* means *kalian* in BI. All of them are pronouns.

Another word formation process identified in PID is derivation. There are 3 affixes in PID. They are *ba-*, *ta-*, and *pa-*. The differences between the affixes in PID and BI lies in the ending. The ending *-e* in BI is changed into *-a* in PID.

The last word formation process identified in the characteristics of PID is conversion process. The examples are *ada* and *tempo*. To make it clear between the usage of *ada* and *tempo* in BI and PID, the writer explain it in the example following:

Table 5 The Usage of the Term *Ada* and *Tempo*

| <i>Sentence in BI</i> | <i>English meaning</i> | <i>Sentence in PID</i> | <i>English meaning</i> |
|--|---|--|--|
| <i>Tidak ada siapa siapa di dalam ruangan itu</i> | <i>There is nobody in that room</i> | <i>Tomas de ada mandi</i> | <i>Tomas is taking a bath</i> |
| <i>Dalam tempo yang singkat, Joni berhasil menyelesaikan tugasnya.</i> | <i>In a short time, Joni finished his assignment.</i> | <i>Tempo sudah su mo terlambat ni.</i> | <i>Quickly, we are going to be late.</i> |

From the example above, there a change in meaning of *ada* and *tempo*. In BI, *ada* is a word to describe an existence of a thing. But in PID, *ada* is a word to describe state of being. *Tempo* in BI is a noun word to describe a length of time but in PID the meaning changes into *cepat* and also the part of speech changes into an adverb.

Related to the previous studies conducted by Lika (2011) and Budiarti (2011), the findings of this study show that a dialect of a language can be different in its usage depends on the social or regional background. In Lika's study for example,

she studied the Indonesian dialect spoken by Chinese student. She found that the uniqueness of Indonesian dialect spoken by Chinese student can be seen in its morphology especially the affixation, and the vocabulary such as the kinship terms and numbers. This is the same with the writer's study. In this study, the writer also identified the uniqueness that marks the characteristics of Indonesian dialect spoken by Papuanese which is morphology and the vocabulary. The writer analyzed this study using the theory of word formation process of the vocabulary in Papuan Indonesian dialect. The writer found not only affixation or derivation but also some other word formation processes in the lexicon or vocabulary of Papuan Indonesian dialect such as borrowing, blending, compounding, clipping, coinage and conversion. The most dominant word formation process in PID is coinage. It is different with Budiarti's study on Betawi dialect. She found that derivation is the most dominant word formation process in Betawi dialect. The factor influencing this difference between dialect of Papuanese and of Betawi is the encounter of Bahasa Indonesia toward these ethnics. Betawi people live in Jakarta. As a big city and also a capital of the country, the use of Bahasa Indonesia in Jakarta is better. Better here to do with the formality. A good and better BI is used because of their social background especially the education. This is why there are more derivational words in Betawi dialect. Words in standard language usually marks by the affixes. While in Papua, there are more coinage. Coinage in PID actually have an equal term in BI but somehow these coinage is used or preferred more. The lack of knowledge in a proper language may play important factor in PID. Papua is one of underdeveloped region in Indonesia. This

leads to a poor education. Therefore the use of BI in Papua is improper or not entirely follows the rule of BI.



CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

This chapter presents the conclusion and suggestion related to the analysis and the findings of the study.

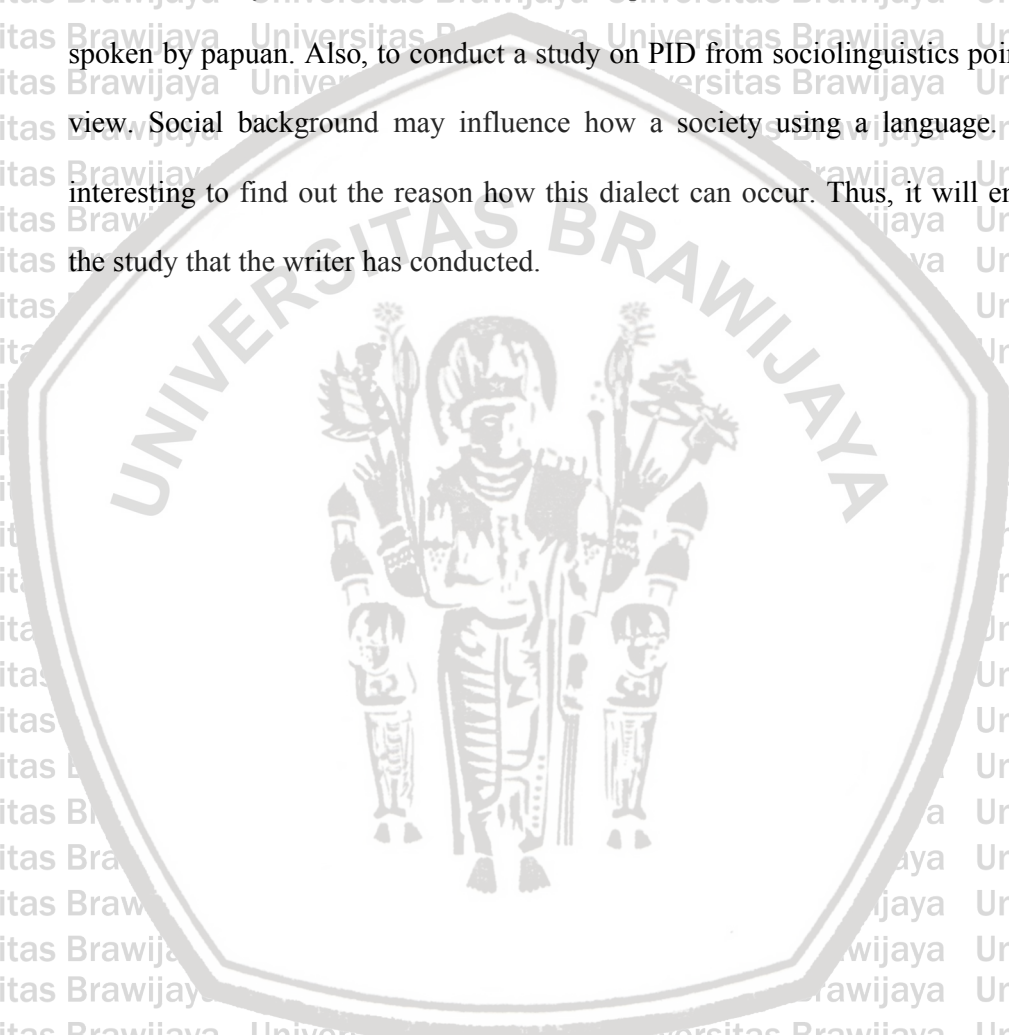
5.1 Conclusion

Papuan also speak Bahasa Indonesia (BI). Just like dialect of BI spoken in other region, the BI dialect spoken by Papuanese also has some unique characteristics especially in the word formation process. After doing the research by observing and analyzing the object which is Papuan Indonesian dialect, the writer identified 7 processes of word formation. They are borrowing, blending, compounding, clipping, derivation, coinage and conversion. The total of the lexical variation that mark the uniqueness of PID is 50. From the analysis, the coinage is the most dominant processes with 26 words, followed by clipping with 7 words, 6 compounding words, 4 conversion words, 3 blending word, 3 derivation, and the last is borrowing with 1 word.

5.2 Suggestion

Papuan Indonesian dialect is an interesting topic to be studied. It is a phenomena that not many people know about. The writer realizes it and conducted a study from morphology point of view. Finally the writer reveals the uniqueness

of Papuan Indonesian dialect especially in the word formation processes. Besides this, actually, there are some other uniqueness that yet to be studied. Thus, the suggestions that the writer gives to the next writers who want to conduct a study on Papuan Indonesian Dialect is to conduct a study on PID from syntax point of view. In PID syntax the writer notice an uniqueness in the structure of sentence spoken by papuan. Also, to conduct a study on PID from sociolinguistics point of view. Social background may influence how a society using a language. It is interesting to find out the reason how this dialect can occur. Thus, it will enrich the study that the writer has conducted.



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UNIVERSITAS BRAWIJAYA

APPENDICES



Data 1**Domi, mahasiswa ITN, 23 tahun**

| No | Sentence in PID | Meaning in BI | Unique Words |
|-----------|--|---|--------------------------|
| 1 | <i>Su lama tra pi molo di laut</i> | <i>Sudah lama tidak pergi menyelam/ berenang di laut</i> | <i>Su, tra, molo</i> |
| 2 | <i>Bah di sa pu kampung tu ikan bokar-bokar</i> | <i>Bah di saya punya kampung tuh, ikannya besar besar</i> | <i>Sa, pu, bokar</i> |
| 3 | <i>Air meti tu biasa pagi sampe siang</i> | <i>Air dangkal/ surut biasanya dari pagi sampai siang</i> | <i>meti</i> |
| 4 | <i>Ko baru taru umpan di air saja, tra lama begini ikan su cigi ko pu umpan.</i> | <i>Kau baru taruh umpan di air saja, tidak lama begini ikan sudah tarik kau punya umpan</i> | <i>Tra, su, cigi, pu</i> |
| 5 | <i>Kitorang biasa naik ke pohon dulu baru terkom dari atas.</i> | <i>Kita biasanya naik ke pohon dulu baru terjun dari atas</i> | <i>Kitorang, terkom</i> |
| 6 | <i>Sa pu tete jago mancing</i> | <i>Saya punya kakek jago mancing</i> | <i>Sa, pu, tete</i> |
| 7 | <i>Sa su lapar ni ah</i> | <i>Saya sudah lapar nih ah</i> | <i>Sa, su</i> |
| 8 | <i>Masuk orang pu kamar tu toki dulu</i> | <i>Masuk orang punya kamar tuh ketuk dulu</i> | <i>Pu, toki</i> |
| 9 | <i>Ini laptop tindis apa ni?</i> | <i>Ini laptop tekan apa ini?</i> | <i>tindis</i> |
| 10 | <i>Pake sedotan biar air tra tampias kemana mana</i> | <i>Pakai sedotan biar air tidak tumpah kemana mana</i> | <i>Tra, tampias</i> |

Data 2**Marten, mahasiswa Unmer, 23 tahun**

| No | Sentence in PID | Meaning in BI | Unique Words |
|-----------|---|---|---------------------|
| 1 | <i>Anis, kasi bola atas biar sa kopeng.</i> | <i>Anis, kasih bola atas biar saya sundul</i> | <i>Sa, kopeng</i> |
| 2 | <i>Los biar sa yang tendang</i> | <i>Lepas, biar saya yang tendang</i> | <i>Los, sa</i> |
| 3 | <i>Kalo mo kopeng bola, kopeng pas</i> | <i>Kalau mau sundul bola,</i> | <i>Kopeng,</i> |

| | | | |
|----|---|---|---------------------------|
| | <i>di testa.</i> | <i>sundul pas di dahi</i> | <i>testa</i> |
| 4 | <i>Deken dia terus jang sampe lepas</i> | <i>Jaga dia terus jangan sampai lepas</i> | <i>Deken, jang</i> |
| 5 | <i>Ko di kamar mandi lama sampe</i> | <i>Kau di kamar mandi lama sekali</i> | <i>sampai</i> |
| 6 | <i>Ah sa mo cari maitua jawa saja</i> | <i>Ah saya mau cari istri jawa saja</i> | <i>Sa, maitua</i> |
| 7 | <i>Cantik tapi talalu manis</i> | <i>Cantik tapi terlalu sombong</i> | <i>Ta-, manis</i> |
| 8 | <i>Kitorang dua ade kaka</i> | <i>Kita berdua bersaudara</i> | <i>Kitorang, ade kaka</i> |
| 9 | <i>Co kasi ko pu hp kemari</i> | <i>Coba kasih kau punya hp kemari</i> | <i>Co, pu</i> |
| 10 | <i>Nanti anis deng domi datang</i> | <i>Nanti anis dengan domi datang</i> | <i>deng</i> |
| 11 | <i>De pu kiper talem sampe</i> | <i>Dia punya kiper cekatan sekali</i> | <i>Pu, talem, sampe</i> |
| 12 | <i>Jang kasi tau dia</i> | <i>Jangan kasih tau dia</i> | <i>jang</i> |

Data 3

Anis, mahasiswa Unmer, 20 tahun

| <i>No</i> | <i>Sentence in PID</i> | <i>Meaning in BI</i> | <i>Unique Words</i> |
|-----------|--|--|------------------------|
| 1 | <i>Sa mo pi futsal dulu</i> | <i>Saya mau pergi futsal dulu</i> | <i>Sa, pi</i> |
| 2 | <i>Macam dong mo terima ko jadi paitua saja</i> | <i>Macam mereka mau terima kau jadi suami saja</i> | <i>Dong, paitua</i> |
| 3 | <i>Marten de paling pintar sudah kalo crita crita mop.</i> | <i>Marten dia paling pintar sudah kalau cerita cerita lucu</i> | <i>mop</i> |
| 4 | <i>Eh pace, jang main bola terus</i> | <i>Eh pace, jangan main bola terus</i> | <i>Pace, jang</i> |
| 5 | <i>Tiap hari bajalan trus, tra pernah kuliah</i> | <i>Tiap hari, berjalan terus, tidak pernah kuliah</i> | <i>Ba-, tra</i> |
| 6 | <i>Dorang ada pi nonton bola</i> | <i>Mereka lagi pergi nonton bola</i> | <i>Dorang, ada, pi</i> |

| | | | |
|---|--|--|---------------------|
| 7 | <i>Tempo sudah, su mo terlambat ni</i> | <i>Cepat sudah, sudah mau terlambat nih</i> | <i>Tempo, su</i> |
| 8 | <i>Ah tra kena saya, sa sei cepat</i> | <i>Ah tidak kena saya, saya menghindar cepat</i> | <i>Tra, sa, sei</i> |

Data 4

Koab, mahasiswa Uniga, 20 tahun

| <i>No</i> | <i>Sentence in PID</i> | <i>Meaning in BI</i> | <i>Unique Words</i> |
|-----------|--|---|-----------------------------|
| 1 | <i>Jang ko bikin ganas e, dapa lipa baru tau rasa</i> | <i>Jangan kau membuat marah ya, dapat pukul baru tau rasa</i> | <i>Jang, lipa</i> |
| 2 | <i>Sa tra tau, ko jang tuduh tuduh sembarang</i> | <i>Saya tidak tau, kau jangan tuduh sembarang</i> | <i>Sa, tra, jang</i> |
| 3 | <i>Ayo tong dua baku tumbu sudah</i> | <i>Ayo kita dua baku pukul sudah</i> | <i>Tong, tumbu</i> |
| 4 | <i>Kamorang jang macam macam deng napi</i> | <i>Kalian jangan macam macam deng napi</i> | <i>Kamorang, jang, deng</i> |
| 5 | <i>Sa pu mama ade deng bapa ade dorang tinggal di biak</i> | <i>Saya punya tante dengan om mereka tinggal di biak</i> | <i>Mama ade, bapa ade</i> |
| 6 | <i>Mace, ko liat sa pu uang jatuh ka?</i> | <i>Mace, kau lihat saya punya uang jatuh ka?</i> | <i>Mace, sa, pu</i> |
| 7 | <i>Orang su bilang to, makanya jang melawan</i> | <i>Saya sudah bilang kan, makanya jangan melawan</i> | <i>Orang, su, jang</i> |
| 8 | <i>Kalo bukan kitorang sapa lagi</i> | <i>Kalau bukan kita siapa lagi</i> | <i>kitorang</i> |
| 9 | <i>Ah ko yang garai</i> | <i>Ah kau yang jelek</i> | <i>Jelek</i> |

Data 5

Riska, mahasiswa ITN, 20 tahun

| <i>No</i> | <i>Sentence in PID</i> | <i>Meaning in BI</i> | <i>Unique Words</i> |
|-----------|---------------------------|-----------------------------|---------------------|
| 1 | <i>Tomas de ada mandi</i> | <i>Tomas dia lagi mandi</i> | <i>Ada</i> |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|--|
| 2 | <i>Persipura yang paling pangaruh</i> | <i>Persipura yang paling hebat</i> | <i>Pengaruh</i> |
| 3 | <i>De tra keliatan, tapeleh deng trek di depan</i> | <i>Dia tidak kelihatan, tertutup dengan trek di depan</i> | <i>Tra, tapeleh, deng</i> |
| 4 | <i>Baru, ko pu mama tua deng bapa tua sekarang dimana?</i> | <i>Baru, kau punya tante sama om tinggal dimana?</i> | <i>Pu, mama tua, deng, bapa tua</i> |
| 5 | <i>Ko pu maitua mana?</i> | <i>Kau punya istri mana?</i> | <i>Pu, maitua</i> |
| 6 | <i>Pamalas sampe, kamar takaruan</i> | <i>Pemalas sekali, kamar berantakan</i> | <i>Pa-, sampe</i> |
| 7 | <i>Tra tau begini pintu de tabuka sendiri</i> | <i>Tidak tahu begini pintu dia terbuka sendiri</i> | <i>Tra, ta-,</i> |
| 8 | <i>Ko pi sudah</i> | <i>Kau pergi sudah</i> | <i>Pi</i> |
| 9 | <i>Biasa kalo natalan tu kitorang pi keliling kompleks pegang tangan deng orang orang</i> | <i>Biasa kalo natalan kita pergi</i> | <i>Kitorang, pi, pegang tangan, deng</i> |