

CHAPTER III

GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF THE OBJECT OF THE STUDY

3.1. A brief description of the place where the writer gets the data.

There are 5 formal educational institutions in Indonesia : Kindergarten, elementary, junior high, senior high and university / college. Kindergarten is the first educational institution for children where they can study and play.

In her study, the writer decides to get the data from several kindergarten in Surabaya, precisely in kelurahan Airlangga, kecamatan Gubeng. The writer hopes that she could find many young Javanese families (that finally she will make them as her sample of her study) in those kindergartens. There are 8 kindergartens in this area.

They are:

- | | |
|------------------------|---------------------|
| 1. TK Putra Airlangga. | 5. TK Dharmawanita. |
| 2. TK Jaya Negara. | 6. TK Hapsari. |
| 3. TK Aisyah. | 7. TK Pembangunan. |
| 4. TK Dharma Siwi. | 8. TK Panti Putera. |

And the writer decides to take the data from 2 kindergartens only, which have most population of students. Here is a little information about them.

TK "PUTRA AIRLANGGA" SURABAYA

TK Putra Airlangga was built in 1990. it's located in RW III Kelurahan Airlangga, Kecamatan Gubeng Surabaya. It was built as a private school with 98 students. It is divided into two classes : Class A is for those whose age are 4 and 5 years , and class B is for those whose age are 5 and 6 years . Most of them are from the Javanese family (either those parents from Surabaya or from other towns) who live around that place.

Tabel 3.1. The population of TK Putra Airlangga.

| C l a s s | P o p u l a t i o n | | T o t a l |
|-----------|---------------------|--------|-----------|
| | Male | Female | |
| A | 26 | 37 | 63 |
| B | 18 | 17 | 35 |
| Total | 44 | 54 | 98 |

TK "DHARMA SIWI"

TK Dharma Siwi was built in 1986. It is located in RW VII Kelurahan Airlangga, Kecamatan Gubeng Surabaya. Like Putra Airlangga, It was built as a private school with 74 students. It is also divided into 2 classes : class A (31 students) and class B (43 students). The student who study

there mostly from the Javanese families who live around that place.

Tabel 3.2. The population of TK Dharmasiwi.

| C l a s s | P o p u l a t i o n | | T o t a l |
|-----------|---------------------|--------|-----------|
| | Male | Female | |
| A | 16 | 15 | 31 |
| B | 24 | 19 | 43 |
| T o t a l | 40 | 34 | 74 |

3.3 Indonesian

Indonesian, or *Bahasa Indonesia*, was developed from the Malay language which has been lingua franca in the Indonesian Archipelago at least since the golden age of the Sriwijaya in the tenth century. It is also used as the medium of the instruction in the so-called second class (*Tweed Klasse*) government schools during the Colonial Period. The most important date in this development is 28 October 1928, the all Indonesia Youth Congress formally pledged to adopt the Malay as the national language of the country to be formed, and named the language "*Indonesian*" (*Bahasa Indonesia*). The historic Youth Pledge of 28 October 1928 declared that *The nation was to be called*

Indonesia, the country Indonesia and its language Indonesian. The 1954 Constitution of the Republic of Indonesia provided the formal legal basis of the status of Indonesian as the state language in Section XV Article 36.

Basically, there are two kinds of Indonesian Use : Indonesian as a daily language (we call it as daily or ordinary Indonesian) and Indonesian as a standard language. Daily or ordinary Indonesian is the usual, informal, everyday conversational variety of Indonesian. It is the style of the Indonesian spoken in most face to face encounters between acquaintances and friends of same or different ethnic group. Daily Indonesian is usually contrasted with the Indonesian which is taught in school or which is used in written form, a style some people called "Bahasa Resmi" or standard language. Structural differences between daily Indonesian and standard Indonesian include shortening of words, omission of words, changes of word order, some words substitution and minor differences in pronunciation and rhythm.

In Indonesia, standard Indonesian is used for elementary, high school and university Instructions, radio broadcasts, speeches, newspapers and magazine articles, official letters, and in general for all purposes for which 'good', correct standard Indonesian is appropriate.

Here, some examples of Indonesian use as a standard and a daily language:

Standard Indonesian

Daily Indonesian

Changing the word order:

- Mainan itu bukan miliknya - Itu mainan bukan kamu
yang punya.

Shortening words:

- Kamu tidak boleh menangis. - Kamu ndak boleh nangis.
- Adik memukul temannya. - Adik mukul temannya.

Javanese interference:

- Adik tidak boleh nakal - Adik nggak pareng nakal
terhadap teman-temannya. sama teman-temannya.
- Kamu akan pergi ke mana? - Kamu mau dolan ke mana?

Using colloquial words:

- Dia baru saja pergi. - Dia barusan saja pergi
- Nanti malam, teman-teman - Entar malem, temen-temen
akan datang ke rumah. mau dateng ke rumah.

However, Indonesian in general, whether the official or the daily variety is regarded as a neutral, democratic language. A speaker of Indonesian language does not need commit him self to any particular social identity, not need he to impute one to those with whom he converse.

3.4 Javanese

In Javanese, it is nearly impossible to say anything without indicating the social relationship between the speaker and the listener in term of status and familiarity. Status is determined by many things - wealth, descent, education, occupation, age kindship, and nationality, among others, but the important point is that the choice of linguistic as well as speech style is in every case partly determined by the relative status, (or familiarity) of the conversers. To speak a person lower than oneself (or someone with whom one is intimate) will be different with one speaks a superior (or someone knows only slightly).

Basically, what is involved is that the Javanese pattern their speech behaviour in term of the same "Alus" to "kasar" axis around which their organized their social behaviour generally (Geertz, 1960). A number of words are made to carry in addition to their *normal linguistic meaning* what might be called a "status meaning" i.e., when used in actual conversation they convey not only their fixed *denotive meaning*, but also *connotative meaning* concerning the status of and/or degree of familiarity between the speaker and the listener. As a result, several words may denote the same normal linguistic meaning but different in status connotation they convey. For example,

there are three forms of the word for "house" : omah, griya, dalem, each connoting as a progressively higher relative status of the listener with respect to the speaker.

Javanese as Susena Kartamiharja said', possesses three different levels of language: *Krama Inggil*, *Krama Madya*, and *Ngoko* (high, middle, low). *Krama Inggil* is the high and polite level in Javanese language. It is usually to show an honour to the addressee (to the people we respect most). *Ngoko* is the lowest level in the Javanese , a language used intimately for the lower class or equal to the speaker. And between those two levels, there is *Krama Madya*, the middle level in the Javanese. It's more polite than *Ngoko*, but less polite than *Krama Inggil*.

3.5 B i l i n g u a l i s m

Bilingualism and multilingualism are common in Indonesia. It's clear, however that practically every' body is bilingual in the cities and towns of Indonesia with the people speaking one vernacular or local language (one's first language or mother tongue) and Indonesian. In many cases, people speaks in three Indonesian languages, sometimes with one or more foreign language in addition. What is Bilingual? The obvious answers are someone who speaks two languages. But this answer will not suffice. It

doesn't allow for those irregular use of one or other language, or those haven't used the language at all, for many years (so-called "dormant" bilinguals). Nor does skill in comprehending a foreign language, who do not speak it :or those who have learned to read in another language, but who cannot speak or write it. And above all this definition says nothing about the level of proficiency that has to be attained before speakers can legitimately claim to be bilingual.

The notion of proficiency raises some very complex issues. Again, 'obvious' answer is to say that people are bilingual when they achieve native-like fluency in each language. But this criterion is far too strong. People who have 'perfect' fluency in two languages do exist, but they are the exception, not the rule. The vast majority of bilingual don't have an equal command of their two languages. One language is more fluent than the other, interferes with the others, or imposes its accent on the other.

In other words, calling the people who know more than one language simply bi- or multilingual may conceal the fact that people do not have a command of their language to the same degree, or use them to the same extent. Some people may speak only one language but can understand two languages, that is, they have a productive command of one

language and receptive command of two languages. Hockett (1958) proposed the term "semibilingual" for this situation.

Moreover, this type of semibilingual practise, that is the use of two different language by two people in interaction, need not stem from lack of ability of both persons in the language used by interlocuter; it may be just for the sake of ease or convenience or personal preference, or it may be required by cultural property or norms. It is quite common to come across this kind of linguistic situation in Indonesia. For example, the younger generation, particularly in urban areas, may speak Indonesian while their elders (e.g., grandparents) speak the vernacular because they are not at ease with Indonesian although they understand enough of it for communication purposes.

Diebold (1961) in his research makes the scale of bilingualism.

1. *Coordinate bilingual* - only those individuals who both spoke and understood both languages well. It's including the person who were fluent but who had some accent in the second language.

2. *Subordinate bilingual*- those individuals who were cored 'so/so' (*biasa-biasa saja*) in speaking (able to speak but not fluently) and were "good" or "so/so" in

understanding.

3. *Incipient bilingual* - those individual who could not speak one of the languages but who is understanding this second languages scored "so/so" or 'good'. This assignment of data while clearly based on the informant's ability to understand (a factor which constitutes a strong potential in later bilingual development).

In the last few years, there is a tendency in bilingual javanese family especially in cities, that parents do not use their native language (Javanese) to their children, but use a non-dominant language (in their society) that is Indonesian. The result is that children can not speak Javanese but understand it (Parents are 'ordinate or subordinate bilingual' while children are 'incipient bilingual').

3.6. Language Acquisition

Communication has long been regarded as the hallmark of the human species and is popularly thought of as one of the complex skills that differentiates us from all other species. The speech of human is more flexible than the limited communication of animals. Our greatly increased capacity to communicate depends, in part, on the organization of our brains to interpret and produce language.

Language acquisition in human proceeds systematically. During the years from 1 to 5, children learn most of the complexus of their native language without any specific tutory. Some psycholinguists suggested that the children learn language because their brains are wired to learn language. In its strong form, this view argues that the environment has only a token affect on language acquisition.

The effect of environment is not easily dismissed. An environment is certainly the major force in determining which language a child speaks. If you are born in an English - speaking country and your parents speak English, you will learn to speak English.

The children begin producing recognizable utterances about the time they are 1 year old. Children first learn 'proper names' and the names of sibling pets (Bowerman, 1978). These labels are the easiest to master because there is one label for each person. During his second years, the child continues to increase his stock of one-word sentences, units that compress all the various parts of a complete proposition into a single morpheme. The verbalizing of wants follows toward the end of the second year; the narration of simple experience develops between two and three years. The answering of even simple questions dealing with nonpresent situations presents

difficulty as late as from two and a half to three years. At the age of three, long sentences including compounds and complex structures are common. As for clarity of articulation, some children pronounce all their words sharply and clearly from the time they first begin to talk; others remain almost incomprehensible to outsiders until a relatively advanced age. The four-year-old verbalized continually about everything, asks questions endlessly, and discuss his own behaviour and that of others. At five, questions are more meaningful; a child really wants to know. His imagination is no longer footlose, and fairtales with excessive unrealities vex and confuse him. His knowledge of structure is essentially complete, and the child expresses himself in finished, correct sentences.

Imitation.

Young children often reproduce portions of utterances they have recently heard, though such reproductions, or imitations, are generally not exact copies of those utterances. It is often suggested that imitation serves to increase the child's language abilities, that is that he learns about language through imitating it (Sherman, 1971).

Imitation involves a kind of social interaction in which someone, usually the adult, says something which

reproduces at least a part of the adult's utterances. The adult's utterances, whether the child imitates it or not, provides 'a model' of the adult form for a particular utterances.

3.7. Communicative Competence.

A child was born with the ability to master any language with almost miraculous ease and speed; a child who is not merely molded by conditioning and reinforcement, but who actively proceeds with the uncounscious theoritical of the speech that comes its way, so that in a few years and with a finite experience, it is master of an infinite ability, that or producing and understanding in principles any and all grammatical sentences of language. The image expresses the essential equality in children just as human being (Hymes,1971).

We have then to account for the fact that a normal child acquires knowledge of sentences, not only as grammatical, but also as appropriate. He or she acquires competence as to when to speak, when not, and as to what to talk about with whom, when, where, in what manner. In short, a child becomes able to accomplish a repertoire of speak acts, to take part in speech events, and to evaluate their accomplishment by others. This competence, moreover, is integral with attitudes, values, and motivations con-

cerning language, its features and uses, and integral with competence for, and attitude toward, the interrelation of language with the other code of communication conduct (Goffman, 1956). The acquisition of such competence is of course fed by social experiences, needs and motives, and issues in action that is itself a renewed source of motives, needs and experience.

In other words, Communicative competence involves knowing not only the language code, but also what to say to whom, and how to say it appropriately in any given situation. It deals with the social and cultural knowledge, and speakers are presumed to have to enable them to use and interpret linguistic form.

BAB IV

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS