**On the Loss of the Phrasal Alternation in the Pondok Tinggi Dialect of Kerinci: A stochastic Optimality Theory Approach**

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# CHAPTER I

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1.    Background

This thesis discusses a phenomenon that occurs in Kerinci, especially in the Pondok Tinggi dialect, called *phrasal alternation*. It is a unique phenomenon because it does not occur in other languages. The use of that term refers to the descriptive fact that, for certain words, the choice of forms is determined by their context above the level of the word. It is used in a general fashion, to describe the fact that the alternation appears to be conditioned by the phrasal context (T. Mckinnon, p.c.). The phrasal alternation is manifested in the root final rimes of lexical items of different word classes. Many lexical items in the dialect have two forms which differ in their root-final syllable rime, for example, *mijua* and *mijo* are two forms for the word 'table'.

**Table 1.1. Example illustrating the absolute/oblique distinction in nouns**

| ENGLISH | STANDARD INDONESIAN | PONDOK TINGGI | |
|---------|---------------------|---------------|---|
|         |                     | ABSOLUTE FORM | OBLIQUE FORM |
| table   | meja                | mijua         | mijo |
| wood    | kayu                | kayaw         | kayow |
| big     | besar               | gdua          | gdon |

These alternate forms are labeled "absolute" and "oblique" by Steinhauer and Usman (1978). Van Reijn (1974) calls them "pausal" and "non pausal" forms. Steinhauer and Usman (1978: 491) claim that the oblique form of a noun is used when it is followed by an attributive adjective, a numeral, or by a third person pronoun indicating a possessor.

The use of the phrasal alternation can be seen in the examples below:

(1).    mijua
        table. ABS
        'table'


(2).    mijo                nyo
        table. OBL.         3SG
        'his/her table'


(3).    mijo                kayaw
        table. OBL          wood. ABS
        'wooden table'


(4).    mijo                kayow           gdua
        table. OBL          wood. OBL        big. ABS
        'big wooden table'

(5).  mijo              kayow           gdon          itoh
      table. OBL        wood. OBL       big. OBL      that
      'that big wooden table'


Example (1) shows the absolute form *mijua* 'table'. Example (2) is the oblique form of *mijo* 'table'. In example (2) the oblique form *mijo* 'table' is used because it is followed by a third person pronoun indicating a possessor. In example (3) the word *mijo* 'table' precedes the word *kayaw* 'wood' which functions as an adjective, so that the oblique form *mijo* 'table' should be used in this context. In example (4), it can be seen that the absolute word *kayaw* 'wood' is changed into oblique *kayow* 'wood'. This is because in this example, the adjective *gdua* 'big' follows it. Then in example (5), the absolute word *gdua* 'big' ABS changes into *gdon* 'big' in this case because it is followed by the determiner 'that' *itoh*.


However, in actual speech, these alternations do not always occur in the way sketched above. In particular, oblique forms are not always used in the contexts that have been claimed to trigger the oblique forms by Steinhauer and Usman (1978). Furthermore, there are also new forms which are neither absolute nor oblique in spoken modern Pondok Tinggi. This is shown in the following table.

**Table 1.2. Example illustrating the absolute/oblique distinction in adjectives**

| ENGLISH | STANDARD INDONESIAN | PONDOK TINGGI | | THE NEW FORM |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| | | ABSOLUTE FORM | OBLIQUE FORM | |
| 'tall' | tinggi | tinggay | tinggey | tinggi |

In the sentences below, we can see two different forms in the same context.

(6).    The oblique form

    nyo               sa**tinggey**          akao

    3SG              as.tall.OBL.as      1SG

    'He/she is as tall as me'

(7).    The new form

    nyo               sa**tinggi**            akao

    3SG              as.tall.as           1SG

    'He/she is as tall as me'

In example (6), *tinggey* 'tall' is the oblique form of *tinggay* 'tall' according to Steinhauer and Usman's (1978) description. The oblique forms still occur in the speech of the native speakers nowadays. Nonetheless, the new form is also found, as in example (7). The word *tinggi* 'tall' is a new form. It is neither an absolute nor an oblique form.

The original Pondok Tinggi alternation is not so clear anymore for many speakers of the Pondok Tinggi dialect. Relating to that problem, two research questions are formulated: Firstly, whether or not speakers use different forms in different contexts (absolute context and oblique context) and secondly, whether or not the native speakers of both age groups (younger and older age) still use the two forms. In other words, I want to know whether the context and age group (independent variables) have any effect on the use of the two forms (dependent variable) or not.

## 1.2. Previous works on Kerinci

Some work on Kerinci has been done by several researchers. Prentice and Usman (1978) argue that Kerinci is in fact a dialect of Malay by comparing Kerinci and Malay typologically. They clearly say that Kerinci is related to Malay and Minangkabau historically. However, they claim that Kerinci is a different language from a phonological and a morphological point of view.

In 1979, Nikelas, Rusmali, Amir, Husin, and Usman wrote *Struktur Bahasa Kerinci.* It describes the phonology, morphology and syntax of the Pondok Tinggi dialect. Nikelas, Amir, Rusmali, Usman and Anwar (1981) also describe the phonology, morphology and syntax of Pondok Tinggi. They seem inconsistent in their opinion, however. In the first paper (1979) they

claim that the Pondok Tinggi dialect has 13 diphthongs whereas in the second paper (1981) they claim that Pondok Tinggi has 12 diphthongs. Isman (1958) worked on the Kerinci phonology for his master's thesis. He focuses on the Pondok Tinggi dialect.

Yasin (1983) presents a description of some major syntactic structures of the Semerah dialect of Kerinci. Another study on the morphology of nouns and adjectives in Kerinci was done by Anwar, Lana, Usman, Nikelas, Amir and Rusmali (1984).

Van Reijn (1974) compares Kerinci northern dialects with several languages in Southeast Asia, such as Kelantan, Campa, Rejang, Vietnamese, Lampung, Ngaju Dayak, Serawai, Perak, Sakai and Pasemah. He claims that there are some similarities in the characteristics of sound-shifts occurring in Kerinci and the Mon-Khmer languages of further India. Van Reijn (1976) claims that the diphthongization tendency often occurs in the central part of Kerinci. Rarely does it occur in the Merao valley and Pulo Tengah.

Steinhauer and Usman (1978) formulate some rules for the distribution of the two (sometimes four) forms that I introduced above, which differ in their final syllables rime and which correspond to a single form in Malay. They dubbed these forms *absolute* and *oblique*. I will discuss their analysis extensively in the next chapter.

## 1.3.    Structure of the thesis

In this section, the structure of this thesis is described. Chapter 2 will describe the phenomenon of the phrasal alternation in more detail. This chapter will explain the theoretical background that will be used for the analysis and the conditions which trigger the use of the phrasal alternation are described in the language under investigation.

Chapter 3 will focus on the main research that I conducted. The research questions are formulated. Additionally, I will give a description of the methods of this research, how I chose the sample and how many native speakers participated in this research. And also their division into two age groups will be discussed. The materials as well as the techniques I used in collecting the data in the field will be described. Finally, the findings of this research will be presented in this chapter followed by the statistics used to analyze the data.

In chapter 4, I will present a stochastic Optimality Theoretic analysis of my data. I will introduce the framework of Optimality Theory and apply it to my data. Two constraints will be introduced and I will argue that a gradual shift of their ranking in time can account for the pattern that was found in my research. I will propose four stages of the development of the phrasal alternation. Finally, chapter 5 will draw the final general conclusion.

# CHAPTER II
# OVERVIEW OF THE PHENOMENON

This chapter gives an overview of the phenomenon of the phrasal alternation in the Pondok Tinggi dialect of Kerinci. First, I will give some background information on the language. Then I will give a detailed description of the phrasal alternation, already introduced in the previous chapter, and finally, I will discuss the conditions which trigger the use of the phrasal alternation in noun phrases.

## 2.1.    Introduction to the language

Kerinci is located in Sumatra, the largest island in Indonesia. Kerinci has been a regency of Jambi since the latter was declared a new province in Sumatra. The capital of Kerinci is Sungai Penuh, which status was decided on by the Dutch Government in Act Number 13 on November 3, 1909. The Kerinci Regency occupies an area of ± 4200 km2 and is located alongside a mountain range, which includes, among others, Mount Kerinci (the highest mountain on Sumatra Island at 3.805 meters), Kerinci Lake and Gunung Tujuh Lake, the highest-located lake in South East Asia.

Figure 2.1. Map of Kerinci
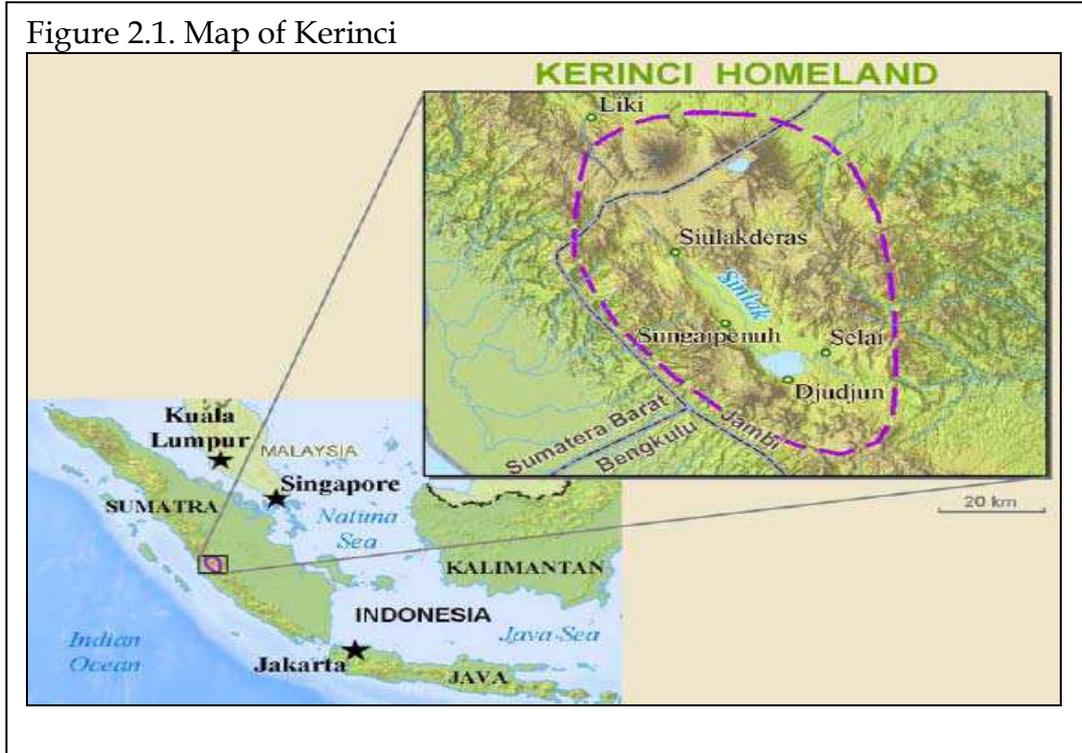


The language, known as *Kerinci*, is a Malayic language which closely related historically to Standard Indonesian and neighboring Minangkabau. It is spoken near the foot of Mount Kerinci, an active volcano and the highest peak in Sumatra, and has enormous linguistic diversity. Nearly every village in this region has its own variation of Kerinci, even though only a rice field might separate the communities. There are more than 80 different dialects used in Kerinci (Isman, 1958). Different villages in separate neighborhoods of Kerinci have their own clearly distinctive dialects. For example, the Sungai Penuh dialect is different from its neighbor village's dialect, Pondok Tinggi, although there is no clear border between these two villages. Dusun Baru,

the other neighboring village has a different dialect from Sungai Penuh, although only a small bridge separates them.

Example :

**Table 2.1. Some examples of words in different dialects of Kerinci**

| Meaning | Sungai Penuh | Pondok Tinggi | Dusun Baru |
|---------|--------------|---------------|------------|
| why | piyo | piyao | piya |
| nothing | niyo | ijia | didea |
| night | malang | mala | maloa |

Isman (1958) says that the language is called *basuw kincay* by the native speakers of Kerinci. It means Kincay language or Kerinci language. The name *Kerinci* is more widely used than *Kincay.* The Kerinci languages are symbols of the Kerinci community and of identity. They are still used as a means of communication in Kerinci. The languages are mainly spoken but are also written, e.g. in poetry, songs, and proverbs. Additionally, an old orthography system called *rencong* can be found there (Anwar, 1984).

There is a great number of dialect diversity, with each village having its own dialect. Nonetheless, the dialect boundary is still debatable, because there is no specific research on the geography of the Kerinci languages. Hypothetically, Usman (1988) divides dialects in Kerinci into two main groups, namely:

1. Kerinci language dialect "ai", which has a lot of diphthongs. It is located in the middle part of Kerinci, such as the Sungai Penuh sub-district, the Sitinjau Laut sub-district, the Keliling Danau sub-district, and some areas in the Air Hangat sub-district.

2. Kerinci language dialect "i", which has a limited number of dipthongs. It is located in the Gunung Kerinci sub-district, the Gunung Raya sub-district, and the Air hangat sub-district.

The major differences among those dialects are phonological, lexical and morphosyntactic. The most significant one is phonological/ morphophonological. One example is that the Semerah dialect of Kerinci has a suffix corresponding to the Malay/Indonesian -kan, whereas this suffix appears to have been lost in many other varieties such as Pondok Tinggi, Sungai Penuh, etc (Yasin, 1983).

Native speakers in Kerinci use a *koine* when they communicate with speakers from a different village who have a different dialect (Mckinnon, 2011). *Koine* is a mix of the varieties in contact that are mutually intelligible dialects or share the same superposed "standard" variety (Siegel, (1985), cited in Freeman, n.d.). It is the stable result of mixing of dialects and serves as an inter group dialect among the speakers of the contributing dialects. They do not use their own dialect while speaking. By using the *koine*, they understand each other. The *koine* does not belong to a particular dialect in Kerinci.

One of the dialects in Kerinci is the Pondok Tinggi dialect. It is spoken on the western part of Sungai Penuh. Pondok Tinggi has become endangered. The disappearance of the Pondok Tinggi dialect in Kerinci is presumably due to the following reasons:

1. The strong influence of the Minangkabau language, a very different language spoken in West Sumatra. Pondok Tinggi is perceived to have lower prestige than Minangkabau. Many Minangkabau people come to Kerinci to establish their business. Almost all the stores, especially in the city center, belong to Minangkabau people. These people sell their products using the Minangkabau language. This has been going on for quite a long time.

   On the other hand, the native speakers of Pondok Tinggi use the Minangkabau language as a trade language and it is starting to become their everyday language, especially among younger people nowadays. They speak Minangkabau very fluently, almost like natives (see also Isman 1958).

   Additionally, Usman (1988) argues that during Dutch colonial rule, the majority of government officials such as civil servants, teachers, doctors, and office staffs were Minangkabau people. They had higher social prestige than indigenous people. That situation encouraged indigenous people to master the Minangkabau language. In contrast, there is no visible effort of Minangkabau people to master Kerinci even though they have been living in Kerinci from generation to generation.

2.  A large number of immigrants from Malay, Java, Batak and also from China and India have a big influence on the disappearance of Pondok Tinggi since so many languages come into contact with it. Watson (1992) claims that in Pondok Tinggi, many houses have been bought by migrant traders who have settled with their families in Kerinci. Many houses have been rent by civil servants from other regions in Indonesia who have been posted to Kerinci. Numerous and diverse activities combining typical patterns of organization of both urban and rural communities can be found in the village.

3.  There have been shifts in culture. Cross marriages are allowed nowadays. It causes the next generation to become unaware of their original mother tongue. Marriages with non-native speakers bring a dilemma for the preservation of the Pondok Tinggi dialect. Parents speak different languages and children become passive language users. Sometimes children do not understand the Pondok Tinggi dialect when their parents choose to live in a province other than Pondok Tinggi.

4.  Parents do not use Pondok Tinggi at home anymore. Kerinci Indonesian, Bahasa Indonesia with a Kerinci accent, the language with the highest prestige, is sometimes used in the daily verbal interaction since Bahasa Indonesia is an official language that is used in formal situations. Pondok Tinggi people are increasingly not using their own dialect anymore. Nonetheless, whenever they use another language

instead of Pondok Tinggi, mostly but not in all cases, the use of a Pondok Tinggi accent is inevitable.

Thomason (2001) says that intense pressure from a dominant group most often leads to bilingualism among subordinate groups who speak other languages and this asymmetrical bilingualism very often results, sooner or later, in a language shift. The Pondok Tinggi dialect is spoken by about 3000 people now. There is no proper transmission to the younger generations. It can be predicted that the Pondok Tinggi dialect will die out sooner or later if people do not use this dialect more. Pondok Tinggi is a small dialect surrounded by speakers of another dominant language. Harrison (2007) says that speakers in this situation tend to forget words, idioms, and grammatical rules due to lack of practice.

## 2.2.  Description of the phrasal alternation

A special characteristic which belongs to Kerinci Malay that makes it different from the other Malay dialects is the use of two forms (sometimes three forms) for one root. However, this phenomenon does not occur in all dialects of Kerinci. Steinhauer & Usman (1978) called the forms *absolute* and *oblique* forms whereas Van Reijn (1976) called them *pausal* and *non pausal*. For the purpose of this thesis, I will use the terms *absolute* and *oblique.* For the phenomenon itself, I will use the term *phrasal alternation* to describe the fact that the alternation appears to be conditioned by the phrasal context. The

two forms, absolute and oblique, differ in the root-final syllables, and include vowels, diphthongs and final consonants.

The use of the phrasal alternation is different among dialects in Kerinci as the dialects also vary. Consider for example the alternating forms four different nouns in three different dialects of Kerinci:

**Table 2.2. Phrasal alternation among dialects in Kerinci**

| English | Bahasa Indonesia | Pondok Tinggi dialect | | Sungai Penuh dialect | | Dusun Baru dialect | |
|---------|------------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| moon | bulan | bulua | bulon | buleng | bulon | bule | bulon |
| night | malam | mala | malan | malang | malan | maloa | malo |
| salt | garam | gahua | gahon | gaheng | gahon | gahe | gahon |
| flower | bunga | bungea | bungo | bunge | bungou | bunge | bungo |

The three dialects above are located in the city center. The distance from each village described above to another is not so far, with the boundaries between those three villages not even being clear. We can see that the differences are found in the final rime of each root.

Moreover, the use of the phrasal alternation in the Pondok Tinggi dialect can be seen in the examples below.

(1).    kursay

   chair.ABS

   'chair'

(2).    kursey              kayaw

        chair.OBL           wood.ABS

        'wooden chair'

(3).    kursey              kayow       gdua

        chair.OBL           wood.OBL    big.ABS

        'big wooden chair'

(4).    kursey              kayow       gdon        itoh
        chair.OBL           wood.OBL    big.OBL     that
        'that big wooden chair'

It is clear from the examples above that the change occurs in the final
rime of the root. Additionally, as we can see, the oblique forms precede an
absolute form. The absolute forms are found at the right edge of a phrase. Its
position is in the final part of the noun phrase.

In this thesis, I will focus mainly on the phrasal alternation in noun
phrases. A noun appears in its oblique form when it is followed by a third
person pronoun indicating a possessor. See example (5):

(5).    kantey              nyo
        friend.OBL          3SG
        'his/her friend'

Also, when it is followed by an adjective, an absolute form will change into an oblique form. See the following examples.

(6).    mijua
        table.ABS
        'table'

(7).    mijo        gdua
        table.OBL    big.ABS
        'a big table'

A noun followed by a determiner, will also change from an absolute form into an oblique form. See the following examples.

(8).    bungea
        flower.ABS
        'flower'

(9).    bungo            itoh
        flower.OBL        that
        'that flower'

These are some examples of the use of the phrasal alternation in a noun phrase. The phenomenon of phrasal alternation generally occurs at the phrase level.

## 2.3.    K words and G words

In order to know what will be the outcome of the phrasal alternation, we take into consideration K words and G words. The phonological features of the absolute form and oblique form are conditioned by the presence/absence of a voiced obstruent which is not preceded by a (homorganic) nasal within the word. These can tell us what the form will look like.

'K/G split' also applies to all different dialects of Kerinci (Mckinnon, 2011). He claims that such changes were conditioned by the phonation properties of obstruent consonants located within a domain roughly equivalent to the morphological word. For example, a K-word such as *ita* 'black' does not contain any of the consonants [b,d,g,j], whereas G-word *bayua* 'spinach' contains the consonant /b/.

Mckinnon (2011) calls the voiced obstruent sounds that are not immediately preceded by a homorganic nasal 'G-phonemes', whereas words that contain these sounds are referred to as 'G-words' following Prentice and Usman (1978). Furthermore, words that do not contain G-phonemes are

called 'K-words'. How K words and G words differ in their final rime in the phrasal alternation of both the absolute form and the oblique form can be seen in table 2.3 below.

**Table 2.3. K words and G words in Pondok Tinggi**

| English | K/G words | Corresponding Roots in Indonesian | Nucleus | Absolute/ Oblique | Pondok Tinggi |
|---------|-----------|-----------------------------------|---------|-------------------|---------------|
| dust | G | debu̯ | u | ABS | debew |
| dust | G | debu̯ | u | OBL | debu |
| wood | K | kayu̯ | u | ABS | kayaw |
| wood | K | kayu̯ | u | OBL | kayow |

In the table 2.3, four forms with final nucleus /u/ and zero coda in the corresponding Indonesian roots are described. The word *debew* and *kayaw* are the absolute forms. However, the word *debew* 'dust' contains G-phonemes, so the shape of the final rime for *debew* 'dust' is /ew/ whereas *kayaw* 'wood' does not contain G-phonemes, and so the shape of the final rime for *kayaw* 'wood' is /aw/. In the oblique forms, *debu* 'dust' contains G-phonemes, so the shape of the final rime for *debu* 'dust' is /u/ whereas *kayow* 'wood' does not contain G-phonemes, which means the shape of the final rime is /ow/. So, the presence/absence of a voiced obstruent within the word can tell us what the final form will look like.

I have discussed K words and G words. This is the descriptive phonological basis of the alternation. Next I will discuss the conditions that trigger the presence of the two forms, absolute and oblique.

## 2.4.   Absolute and oblique forms

In this section, I will discuss the absolute and oblique forms which were proposed by Steinhauer and Usman (1978). However, Steinhauer and Usman (1978) focus on the Sungai Penuh dialect, the neighbor village's dialect that has different orthographic representations than those used here. In this thesis I will use the Pondok Tinggi dialect orthography.

Steinhauer and Usman (1978) argue that absolute forms can be found at the end of many phrases whereas oblique forms can be found in the beginning or middle of a phrase. We can see an example of the alternation in a verb phrase below.
For example:

(10).   nyo          nuleyh               suhaq.
         3SG          write.OBL           letter.ABS
         'He/she writes a letter'

In the above example, we can see the pattern in the verb phrase. The verb *nuleyh* 'write' is an oblique form because it is followed by its object *suhaq*

'letter'. The verb and the object together form a verb phrase. The verb is in the oblique form because the verb phrase is not finished yet. The object is at the end of the verb phrase. It is in the absolute form. In this research, I focus mainly on the phrasal alternation in noun phrases.

According to Steinhauer and Usman (1978), there are some conditioning factors that trigger the use of oblique forms within noun phrases. The factors are as follows:

1. A noun occurs in its oblique form when it is followed by an adjective that is part of the same noun phrase. For example:

    (11).    mijo            tinggay
             table.OBL       tall.ABS
             'tall table'

The noun *mijua* 'table' as the absolute form changes into the oblique form *mijo* 'table' when it is followed by an adjective, which is *tinggay* 'tall'. The adjective is an absolute form because it is placed at the end of the phrase.

2. A noun occurs in its oblique form when it is followed by a noun that is part of the same noun phrase. For example:

(12).     mijo                   kayaw

          table.OBL              wood.ABS

          'wooden table'

The word *mijo* 'table' is presented as an oblique form because it is followed by an attributive noun phrase. *Kayaw* 'wood' is in the absolute form since it is placed at the end of the noun phrase.

3.    A noun occurs in its oblique form when it is followed by a third person pronoun indicating a possessor that is part of the same noun phrase. For example:

(13).     mijo                   nyo

          table.OBL              3SG

          'his/her table'

When a noun is followed by a third person pronoun indicating a possessor, an oblique form is used. The word *mijo* 'table' is an oblique form. And *nyo* is a possessor.

4.    A noun occurs in its absolute form when it is preceded by a numeral that is part of the same noun phrase whereas the numeral itself occurs in its oblique form. For example:

(14).   tigo                ta.an

        three.OBL           year.ABS

        'three years'

An oblique form of a numeral is used when it precedes a noun, so *tigo* 'three' is an oblique form. Additionally, from example (14), we can see that the head is at the end of phrase whereas in the other examples, the heads are in the beginning of a phrase. The alternation goes independently of whether the noun phrase is head-initial or head-final. So, it is definitely not a case of head marking or dependent marking. It depends on whether it is at the end of a phrase or not.

5.   An adjective occurs in its oblique form when it is a non-final part of the same noun phrase. For example:

(15).   ulo         gdon        itoh

        snake.OBL   big.OBL     that

        'that big snake'

In the example (15), the adjective *gdon* 'big' is a non-final part of a noun phrase. Therefore, it is an oblique form. However, if it is used as a final part of a phrase, it should be an absolute form. Like in example (16) below, the word *gdua* 'big' is an absolute form because it is placed at the end of the noun phrase.

(16). ulo          gdua

        snake.OBL    big.ABS

        'big snake'


6.    A noun occurs in its oblique form when it is followed by a determiner *itoh* 'that' or *ineh* 'this' that is part of the same noun phrase. For example:

(17).    kursey          itoh

        chair.OBL        that

        'that chair'


(18).    mangkowq          ineh

        bowl.OBL          this

        'this bowl'


The determiners, *itoh* 'that' and *ineh* 'this' also trigger an oblique form to appear. In example (17), *kursey* 'chair' is an oblique form because it is followed by a determiner *itoh* 'that'. Also, the word *mangkowq* 'bowl' is an oblique form after being followed by a determiner *ineh* 'this' in example (18).

### 2.5. Conclusion

The phrasal alternation in the Pondok Tinggi dialect is an extraordinary phenomenon among the Malay family. One root can have two forms which are different in the final rime. In practice, the presence/absence of a voiced obstruent which is not preceded by a (homorganic) nasal within a word determines the exact shape of the final syllable in the phrasal alternation of both absolute and oblique forms. The conditions that trigger the use of oblique form as presented by Steinhauer and Usman (1978) are very useful in formulating constraints for the analysis of the data in the fourth chapter.

The absolute form is used at the end of a phrase. An oblique form is used to indicate something comes next. It might be a determiner, an adjective, or a possessor which belongs to the same phrase. The oblique form marks the fact that the phrase is still unfinished. The oblique form has a special function in marking that a phrase is not over yet and therefore what is coming should be interpreted as another part of the noun phrase. If there is no constraint to activate or trigger the oblique form, then the absolute form is used.

# CHAPTER III

# THE MAIN RESEARCH

This chapter explores my own research. Starting with my research questions, I provide the complete description of how I structured the research, using sampling techniques, steps in collecting the data, and ways to analyze these data. Also, I described my findings in this chapter.

## 3.1. Research questions

In this thesis, two research questions are formulated. Firstly, whether or not speakers use different forms in different contexts (absolute context and oblique context) and secondly, whether or not the native speakers in two age groups (younger and older age) still use the two forms. In other words, I would like to know whether the context and age group (independent variables) have effects on the use of two forms (dependent variable) or not.

## 3.2. Methodology

For my research, I investigated the phrasal alternation in two different age groups of native speakers of the Pondok Tinggi dialect. The data were collected from 20 native speakers of two age groups. The first group

consisted of 10 native speakers representing the younger generation (between 18-25 years old). The other 10 native speakers are from the second group, which represents the elderly generation (between 50-65 years old). Each group consists of 5 female speakers and 5 male speakers. The speakers all live in Pondok Tinggi.

An open-ended questionnaire consisting of 30 numbers was used in order to discover what people actually do with the phrasal alternation. The questionnaire includes each lexical item in two contexts triggering respectively the absolute and oblique forms. Each number contains two sentences. The 60 sentences represent the diphthongs in the Pondok Tinggi dialect. The speakers were asked to translate Bahasa Indonesia into the Pondok Tinggi dialect by reading the sentences out loud. Their readings were recorded and note taking was applied simultaneously. Due to the lack of experience of the native speakers in writing in the Pondok Tinggi dialect, since Bahasa Indonesia is usually used in writing, the questionnaire was dealt with orally.

To answer the research questions, some activities of data analysis were done. First, I identified the data I got. I made sure that the data were complete and arranged them in order. Then, I carefully listened to the recordings. In addition, I listened to the recordings in detail again and I transcribed the data one by one afterwards. I made a table which provided columns for the absolute form, the oblique form and the new form. I put the transcribed data into a table. Next, I counted the percentages of the use of

different forms in both age groups. I organized the data using statistical analysis. Then, I analyzed and interpreted the phenomena in the data using Stochastic OT. Finally, I drew the conclusions.

## 3.3. Findings

This section presents the findings of this research. Table 3.1 presents the data collected from 20 native speakers from whom data was elicited for this study. The table illustrates that in the so-called absolute context, native speakers use the absolute forms 97% of the time, and oblique forms 3% of the time. No new forms were found in the elicited data. The high frequency of the absolute forms in this context is quite significant. There is no real variation in the absolute context. Almost 100% of the time, speakers choose the absolute form.

On the other hand, in the oblique context, native speakers used the oblique forms 60% of the time and the absolute forms 39% of the time. Besides the absolute and oblique forms, a few new forms were found, but only in about 1% of all cases. Such new forms were only used by a few speakers. Table 3.1 below shows the overall results which represents the production of the phrasal alternation by native speakers of the Pondok Tinggi dialect in both age categories.

**Table 3.1. The production of the phrasal alternation in all age categories**

|  | **Absolute context** | **Oblique context** |
|---|---|---|
| Absolute form | 97%  (582) | 39% (237) |
| Oblique form | 3%  (16) | 60% (360) |
| New form | -    (2) | 1% (3) |

Now let us consider the effect of the age groups on the use of the phrasal alternation (see table 3.2). With the older speakers (i.e. those between 50-65 years old), almost all native speakers (98%) use the absolute forms in the absolute contexts. Only 2% of the time was it the case that the oblique forms were used in the absolute contexts. No new forms were found in these contexts.

In the oblique context, most of the older native speakers use the oblique forms (79%), though the use of this form in the oblique context is noticeably less frequent compared with the absolute form in the absolute context. In 30 utterances (i.e. 20.5% of all the oblique context utterances for the older age group), the absolute forms were found in the oblique context. Finally, 0.5% of the forms produced in the oblique context were new forms (see table 3.2). Furthermore, a relevant point to make regarding the older age group is that sometimes they changed the context from an oblique context into an absolute context. In those cases, they did not translate the possessor and the determiner. As a result, they used the absolute forms in what was meant to be an oblique context. This happened in 12 out of 62 cases. In fact, even they did, this might also point to a strategy that enabled them to use an easier –

unmarked – form, rather than to have to come up with the oblique form. So, I will still consider these cases as being the use of an absolute form in an oblique context.

**Table 3.2. The production of the phrasal alternation in the older age group**

|  | **Absolute context** | **Oblique context** |
|---|---|---|
| Absolute form | 98% (293) | 20.5% (62) |
| Oblique form | 2% (7) | 79% (237) |
| New form | 0% | 0.5% (1) |

Turning to the data elicited from younger speakers of Pondok Tinggi, I found an intriguing pattern (see table 3.3). The pattern for the absolute contexts is nearly the same as for older speakers: most native speakers (95%) use the absolute form in the absolute context, with only 4% producing oblique forms in the same context; 1% of the forms were new word-forms. However, in the oblique context, younger speakers differ from older speakers: the absolute forms in the oblique context are more frequent than the oblique forms (58%). Indeed, in only 41% of the collected utterances did the younger speakers use oblique forms in the oblique context. See the table below.

**Table 3.3. The production of the phrasal alternation in the younger age group**

|                | Absolute context | Oblique context |
| -------------- | ---------------- | --------------- |
| Absolute form  | 95% (283)        | 58% (175)       |
| Oblique form   | 4% (13)          | 41% (122)       |
| New form       | 1% (4)           | 1% (2)          |

From the description above, it can be seen that the production of the absolute forms in the absolute context between the older generation and the younger generation is more or less the same. The most striking feature of the data I have presented is that the absolute forms are often produced in oblique contexts, and that the frequency with which the absolute forms are produced in this context is higher in the younger age group than in the older. Whereas for older speakers the absolute forms are used in 20.5% of all cases containing the oblique context, for younger speakers, the absolute forms appear in 58% in the oblique context. The statistical analysis is given below to point out the significance of the age groups in the production of phrasal alternation in the Pondok Tinggi dialect among two different age groups.

For my analysis, I now want to examine the relationship between the age groups and the forms used by the participants in the oblique context. Since I used native speakers from two radically different age groups, the younger speakers between 18 and 25 years old and the older ones between 50 and 65 years old, I can treat age as a categorical variable. That is, each subject

can be labeled either 'young' or 'old'. The other categorical variable is the form that is whether it is 'absolute' or 'oblique'. I have put the relevant frequencies of the combinations of age groups and forms in Table 3.4 below:

**Table 3.4. Contingency table on the forms used by different age groups (in an oblique context)**

| | | Absolute | Oblique | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Form used in an oblique context | | | |
| | | Absolute | Oblique | Total |
| Age | Younger | 175 | 122 | 297 |
| | Older | 62 | 237 | 299 |
| | Total | 237 | 359 | 596 |

At first sight, there is indeed a clear relation between age groups and frequencies of the forms, but now I want to know whether this relationship can also be statistically shown to hold. I want to find out whether there is a relationship between the two categorical variables, so whether there is a relation between age groups (old or young) and the use of an oblique or absolute form in an oblique context.

In order to find this out, I performed a chi-square test. This is a statistical test that compares the frequencies observed in the categories to the frequencies that we would expect if it was just a matter of chance. The null hypothesis (H0) states that the frequencies of the four categories (young, absolute; young, oblique; old, absolute; old, oblique) are just a matter of

chance, while my alternative hypothesis (H1) states that the age groups use different forms, so that there is indeed a relationship between the age group and the form. Table 3.5 gives the cross-tabulation table that contains the number of cases that fall into each combination of categories and compares them with the frequencies that we would expect on the basis of chance distribution over the age groups (expected counts).

**Table 3.5. Crosstabulation**

|  |  | Form | | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|
|  |  | Absolute | Oblique | 1,000 |
| Younger age | Count | 175 | 122 | 297 |
|  | Expected Count | 118,1 | 178,9 | 297,0 |
|  |  | 73,8% | 34,0% | 49,8% |
|  | Std. Residual | 5,2 | -4,3 |  |
| Older Age | Count | 62 | 237 | 299 |
|  | Expected Count | 118,9 | 180,1 | 299,0 |
|  |  | 26,2% | 66,0% | 50,2% |
|  | Std. Residual | -5,2 | 4,2 |  |
| Total | Count | 237 | 359 | 596 |
|  | Expected Count | 237,0 | 359,0 | 596,0 |
|  |  | 100,0% | 100,0% | 100,0% |

I will now move to the statistic testing. The chi-square test is used to test whether the two variables are independent. The value of the chi-square statistic is 90.71 ($X^2$= 90.71, df = 1) which is highly significant (p < 0.001), so

we can safely reject our null hypothesis in terms of the alternative hypothesis. This indicates that age group has a significant effect on the form that is used in an oblique context. That is, the proportion of oblique forms used by the older age group is significantly different from the proportion of oblique forms used by the younger age group.

The standardized residual is the error between the expected frequency and the observed frequency divided by the square root of the expected frequency. The standardized residuals in Table 3.5 above are interpreted as follows. For the younger age group, the standardized residual was significant for both the absolute form ($z = 5.2$) and the oblique form ($z = - 4.3$) because both values are bigger than 1.96 or smaller than -1.96. For the older age group, the standardized residual was also significant for both the absolute and the oblique form ($z = -5.2$ and $z = 4.2$, respectively). So, age group has a clear effect on the use of an absolute or an oblique form in an oblique context.

Of course, this does not mean that age itself has such an effect, in the sense that if someone grows older, they will start to use more oblique forms. Rather, this seems to indicate that the language may have changed. Older people still use more oblique forms, probably because they also did that when they were young. That's why I say that age group has as effect on the form, not age per se. It is the older cohort of speakers that differs from the younger cohort.

To measure the size of the effect of the age group on using the oblique form in an oblique context, we calculate the odds ratio. First, I calculate the odds that an old person uses an oblique form when they are old, that is the number of people that are old and used an oblique form divided by the number of people that are old and used an absolute form, that is 237/62 = 3.823.

Next, I calculate the odds that a young person uses an oblique form when they are young, that is the number of people that are young and used an oblique form divided by the number of people that are young and used an absolute form, this is 122/175 = 0.697. The odds ratio is now calculated as the odds of using an oblique form being old divided by the odds of using an oblique form being young, that is 3.823/0.697= 5.485. Hence, based on the odds ratio, the odds of using the oblique form were about 5.5 times higher for the speakers from the older age group than for those from the younger age group.

## 3.4. Discussion

After having investigated the use of the phrasal alternation in the Pondok Tinggi dialect among different age groups, the answer to the research questions can be given. Firstly, the native speakers in Pondok Tinggi use different forms in different contexts (absolute context and oblique context). In an absolute context, almost 100% of the speakers in both the age

groups use the absolute form. In an oblique context, some absolute forms are used in both age groups.

Secondly, the native speakers in both age groups, of a younger and of an older age, still use the two forms, absolute and oblique forms. Overall, 97% of the time, the speakers in both age groups use absolute forms in an absolute context. In 39% of all cases the speakers use absolute forms in an oblique context and in 60% of all cases the speakers use oblique forms in an oblique context. Speakers from the younger age group use significantly less oblique forms than speakers from the older age group.

# CHAPTER IV
# EXPLANATION OF THE RESULTS

In this chapter, I will account for the findings of the previous chapter. The fact that older speakers still use the oblique form 5.5 times more often than the younger speakers, will be explained in terms of a shift in ranking of two constraints. For older speakers, the oblique form is optimal in an oblique context, because the constraint that triggers this form outranks the economy constraint that prohibits this form. For the younger speakers, it is the other way around. Before I present my analysis, I will first briefly introduce the framework of Optimality Theory, in which the analysis is couched.

## 4.1.   A brief discussion of Optimality Theory

In the early nineties, Alan Prince and Paul Smolensky introduced Optimality Theory. This theory broadly spread out in the area of linguistics. It had a great impact on the field of linguistics (Prince and Smolensky 1993, published in 2004). Optimality theory is usually considered a development of generative grammar, which shares its focus on the investigation of universal principles, linguistic typology and language acquisition. Kager (2004) claims that "at the heart of Optimality Theory lies the idea that language, and in fact every grammar, is a system of conflicting forces. These 'forces' are embodied

by constraints, each of which makes a requirement about some aspect of grammatical output forms."

Legendre (2001) defines Optimality Theory (henceforth, OT) as a formal theory of constraint interaction in Universal Grammar (UG). She argues that OT is not committed to any specific type of structural (or markedness) constraints. She proposed some hypotheses. Firstly, well-formedness constraints are simple and general. They routinely come into conflict and are often violated by the surface form. Secondly, conflicts are resolved through hierarchical rankings of constraints. The effect of a given constraint is relative to its ranking, which is determined on a language particular basis. Thirdly, evaluation of candidates by a set of constraints is based on strict domination. Fourthly, alternative structural realizations of an input compete for the status of being the optimal output of a particular input. The most harmonic output - the one that best satisfies or minimally violates the full set of ranked constraints in a given language – is the optimal one. Only the optimal structure is grammatical. Fifthly, every competition yields an optimal output.

Blutner, de Hoop and Hendriks (2006) mention that OT considers grammar as a relation between input and output. This relation is mediated by two formal mechanism, GEN and EVAL. GEN (for Generator) creates possible output candidates on the basis of a given input. EVAL (for evaluator) uses the language specific constraint rankings of the universal set of constraints (CON) to select the best candidate for a given input among the candidate set produced by GEN.

OT was mainly used in phonology, but after some time, the other linguistic fields also started to apply OT for analyses (i.e. morphology, syntax, semantics, pragmatics, sociolinguistics, historical linguistics, etc) (Blutner, de Hoop and Hendriks, 2006). In phonology, the input represents the underlying phonological representation whereas the output is the surface form or the speech sound. In syntax, the input is the intention or meaning that is to be expressed while the output is the structured form or utterance. In semantics, the input is the utterance whereas the output is the interpretation.

Candidate comparison is often shown in a *tableau,* where an optimal candidate is compared with one or more of its competitors with respect to their performance on two or more constraints (McCarthy, 2002). The relevant constraints are put in the top row, according to their strength from the left to the right. C1 >> C2 means that C1 outranks C2, C2 >> C3 means that C2 outranks C3, etc. The input is put in the upper left cell, output candidates are put in the first column. Violations are indicated with an asterisk. When a violation is fatal, it causes the candidate to be out of competition. This is indicated with an exclamation mark. The optimal candidate is indicated by a pointing finger. See the tableau below.

**Tableau 4.1. The Optimality Theory analysis**

| Input | C1 | C2 | C3 |
|-------|----|----|----|
| Output candidate A | * | | |
| ☞ Output candidate B | | * | |
| Output candidate C | | ** | |

McCarthy (2002) adds that there must be a conflict in the constraints, because an optimal candidate should be picked among candidate pairs. There must be a winner candidate and a loser candidate. He points out that the whole point of constraint ranking is to select the right candidate: the winner.

## 4.2.    Stochastic OT

Stochastic OT is a framework in Optimality Theory in which constraints have ranking values along a continuous scale rather than an ordinal position along a discrete scale and in which a small noise is temporarily added to the ranking of each constraint at the evaluation of the candidate set (Boersma, 2003). If some constraints are close to each other in the ranking the grammar can produce variable outputs. This evaluation noise can lead to random variation. If C1 has a ranking value not far above that of C2, it will outrank C2 most of the time but not always (Boersma, 2004). This framework allows us to account for variable linguistic outputs in many linguistic phenomena.

Two main issues in Stochastic OT are *the continuous ranking* and *stochastic evaluation* (Boersma, Paul & Hayes, Bruce 2000). The continuous scale puts its ranking along a scale whereas a non-stochastic OT uses an ordinal ranking. In stochastic evaluation, every time a speaker produces an utterance, there is an optimization process. In each optimization process,

there is *noise.* So we do not pick an exact value for the constraint but somewhere within the range of values we pick one. This is because the values are close together and because there are some noises. Sometimes it can happen that C2 outranks C1 (C2>>C1) because their ranks overlap, but because there is only a small area where they overlap, C1 outranks C2 (C1>>C2) most of the times.

In sum, in stochastic OT, the rankings are put on a continuous scale. So, one is higher ranked than the other, but they can be close together or further apart from each other in their ranking. They may or may not overlap. Additionally, there is noise. So the outputs vary within a particular range. Also, the nice thing about stochastic OT is that there is a gradual shift. Constraints can shift in time. Stochastic OT succeeded in bringing a theory of learnability called Gradual Learning Algorithm (GLA) as a potential approach.

## 4.3.   OT analysis

Now, I will analyze my findings. I will focus on the use of absolute forms and oblique forms in an oblique context, because we can see from the findings that the use of absolute forms in an absolute context is still dominant. The Stochastic OT is applied in the process of analysis, because in regular OT, one constraint always has to outrank another constraint and we predict no variation. The findings show that with the younger age group, the

percentage of use of absolute forms in an oblique context is 58% of all cases. Absolute and oblique forms have about the same frequency. It is almost fifty-fifty. I hypothesize that the constraints involved are close together and they overlap. So for this reason stochastic OT is applied.

Two constraints are formulated for this analysis, namely: NON-FINAL and ECONOMY. The conditions that trigger the use of oblique form as presented as the main ones by Steinhauer and Usman (1978) are used in formulating constraints for the analysis of the data. The conditions are in fact rather more complicated, but for the purpose of this research that is less relevant. The first constraint states that the oblique form marks that the phrase has not come to end yet. The oblique form is used to indicate that we are in the middle of a phrase. Thus, NON-FINAL becomes one of the constraints, the constraint that tells us to mark the fact that the phrase has not ended yet. Because we have NON-FINAL as a constraint, we do not need to postulate an additional constraint FINAL for the use of an absolute form. Besides, in my view, the absolute form is seen as the unmarked and most frequent form, hence it does not mark anything in particular.

Then, the ECONOMY constraint is used. The ECONOMY constraint says that using an unmarked form is cheaper than using a marked form. Tthis constraint also subsumes the fact that in the end it is more economical to use one form (the absolute form) instead of two. Hence, the following two constraints are used in this analysis.

- NON-FINAL    : Use the oblique form for a non-final element in a noun
                      phrase.

- ECONOMY      : Use the absolute form which is the unmarked form.

By using Stochastic OT, I will analyze my findings. As I have argued above, the variation in optimal outputs suggests that the two conflicting constraints, NON-FINAL and ECONOMY, are ranked on a continuous scale and partly overlap. That means that at some evaluation time, the ranking is such that NON-FINAL outranks ECONOMY, in which case the oblique form will be the optimal output in an oblique case.  This analysis is presented in the tableau 4.2 below.

**Tableau 4.2.The optimal output under the ranking NON-FINAL >> ECONOMY**

| Input: *wooden table* | NON-FINAL | ECONOMY |
|---|---|---|
| ☞   mijo.OBL kayaw.ABS | | * |
| mijua.ABS kayaw.ABS | * | |
| mijo.OBL kayow.OBL | | ** |

In the tableau 4.2, there are three candidate outputs for a given input meaning. The input is *wooden table*. The first constraint is NON-FINAL and the second constraint is ECONxOMY. We can see that only the second candidate violates the first constraint. This is so because 'table' is not the end of the phrase yet and this has to be marked by the use of an oblique form. Because

NON-FINAL is more important than ECONOMY, the second candidate immediately loses the competition. Both the first and the third candidate satisfy NON-FINAL, but they violate the second constraint, ECONOMY. The third candidate violates it twice, once for each oblique form, *mijo* 'table' and *kayow* 'wood'. The first candidate violates the second constraint only once. Therefore, the first candidate wins the competition.

The other constraint ranking is when ECONOMY >> NON-FINAL. Under this ranking, another candidate output comes out as the winner of the competition. The analysis is presented in the tableau below.

**Tableau 4.3. The optimal output under the ranking ECONOMY >> NON-FINAL**

| Input: *wooden table* | ECONOMY | NON-FINAL |
|---|---|---|
| mijo.OBL kayaw.ABS | * | |
| ☞ mijua.ABS kayaw.ABS | | * |
| mijo.OBL kayow.OBL | ** | |

Now, ECONOMY is the strongest constraint, which means that an absolute form is preferred over an oblique form, even in an oblique context. The first candidate violates the first constraint once, and then it satisfies the second constraint. The third candidate violates the first constraint twice, and then satisfies the second constraint. The second candidate is the only candidate that satisfies the first constraint, and therefore it is the optimal candidate, although it violates the second constraint.

We have seen that under the two different rankings, different forms win the competition in an oblique context. In an absolute context, that is at the end of a noun phrase, the absolute form will come out as the winner under both rankings. Thus, the absolute form *kayaw* 'wooden', in the context given above, is optimal under both rankings. The first word of the noun phrase, 'table', shows up in its oblique form *mijo* when NON-FINAL >> ECONOMY, but in its absolute form *mijua* when the ranking of the constraints is the other way around.

The older group used the absolute form in oblique context although the percentage is small, 20.5% of the cases. The constraint ranking for the older age group is presented below.

**Figure 4.1. The constraint ranking in the older age group**
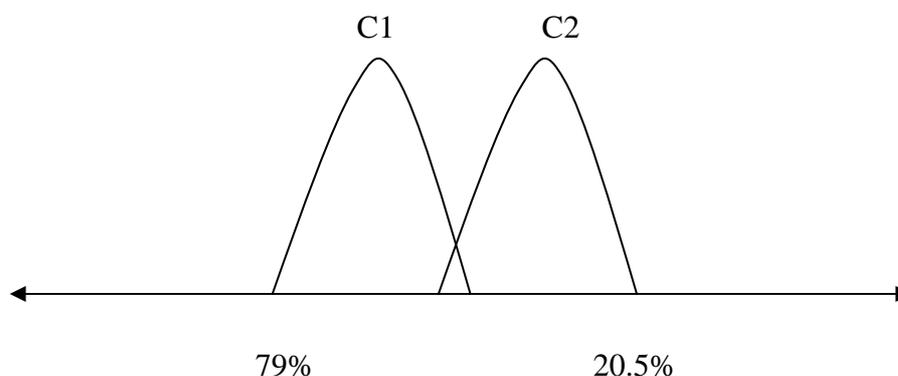
Because the constraints overlap on a continuous scale, we expect the oblique form to be the winning candidate in an oblique context in 79% of the evaluation time, and the absolute form to be the winning candidate in an oblique context in percentage of the time.

The younger people use the absolute form 58% of the cases in the oblique context, and only in 41% of the cases, they use the oblique form in oblique context. The figure below illustrates the ranking along a continuous scale in the younger age group.

**Figure 4.2. The constraint ranking in the younger age group**
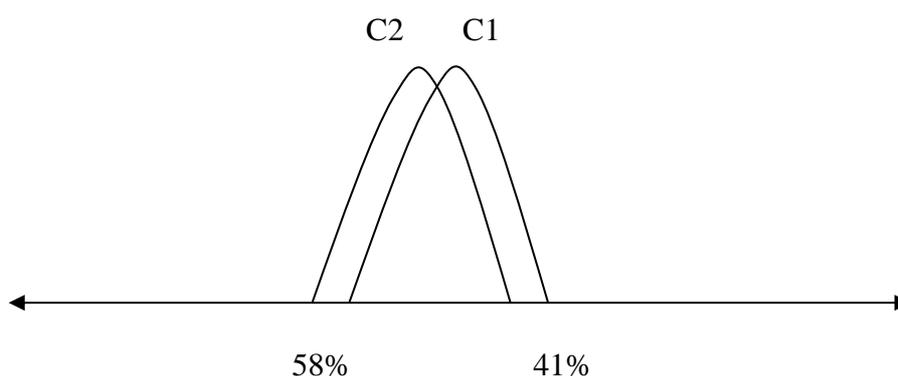


From the analysis of the two age groups, I discovered the tendency that the economy constraint is gradually becoming stronger. The younger people tend to use absolute forms in an oblique context. Using only one form (the absolute form in both contexts) is more economical than using two forms.

This means that the other constraint which favors the oblique form, is gradually becoming weaker. The younger age group tends not to use oblique forms to mark non-final elements in a noun phrase. Furthermore, it can be predicted from the tendency that in time, people might not use oblique forms anymore.

At a later stage, in an oblique context, the absolute form will be the winner rather than the oblique form. It can be predicted that the oblique form will disappear in the future although now still exists. The figure below illustrates the ranking in the future along a continuous scale.

**Figure 4.3. The prediction of constraint ranking in the future**

C2                    C1
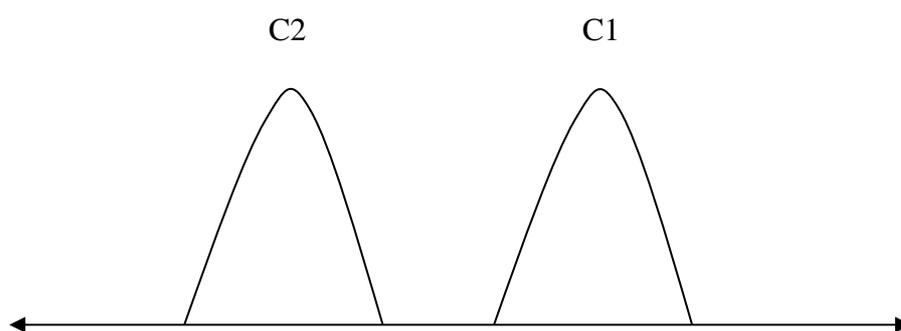
Furthermore, after having made a prediction about the condition of the language in the future, I think the analysis is not yet complete if I do not speculate what has happened in the past with the phrasal alternation in the Pondok Tinggi dialect. Hypothetically, native speakers used the absolute forms in an absolute context and oblique forms in an oblique context as

Steihauer and Usman (1978) describe in their paper. So, the ranking of the constraints in the past was C1 >> C2.

Having made this analysis, I would like to present the whole picture of the use of phrasal alternation in the Pondok Tinggi dialect. I have formulated four stages: stage one is the hypothesized use of the phrasal alternation in the past time, stage two is the use of the phrasal alternation by the older speakers nowadays, stage three is the use of the phrasal alternation by the younger speakers nowadays, and stage four is the prediction of the use of the phrasal alternation in the future. The figures below present the use of the phrasal alternation in all stages.

**Figure 4.4. The hypothesized use of the phrasal alternation in the past (stage one) : oblique forms in oblique contexts**
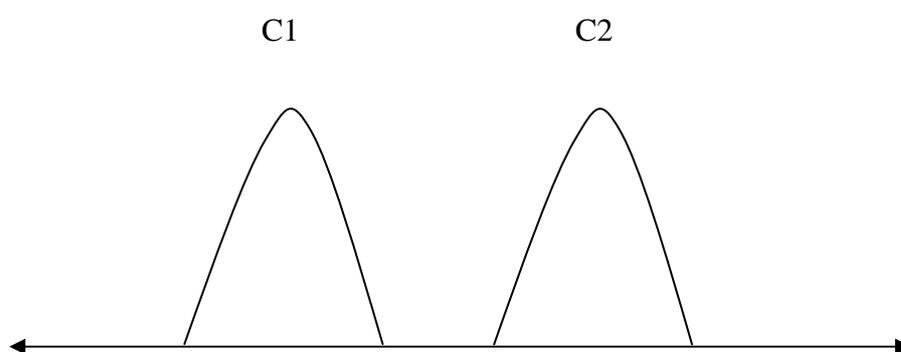
**Figure 4.5. The use of the phrasal alternation by the older speakers nowadays (stage two): some absolute forms in oblique contexts**
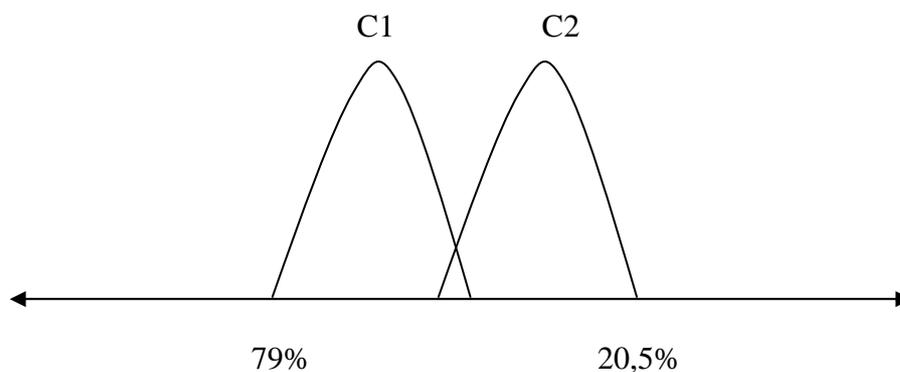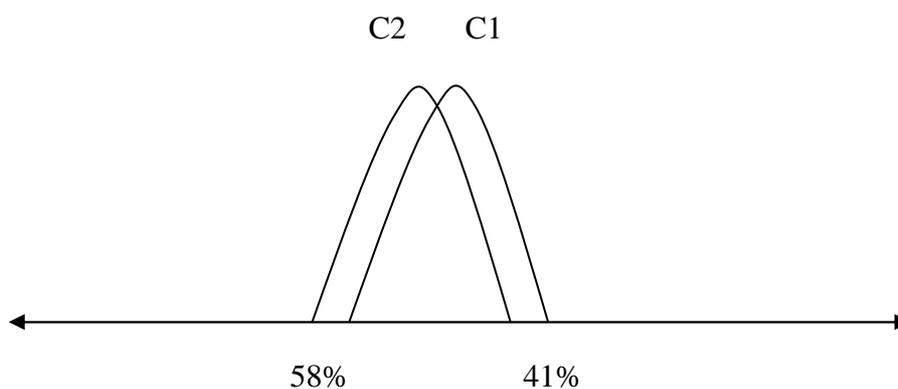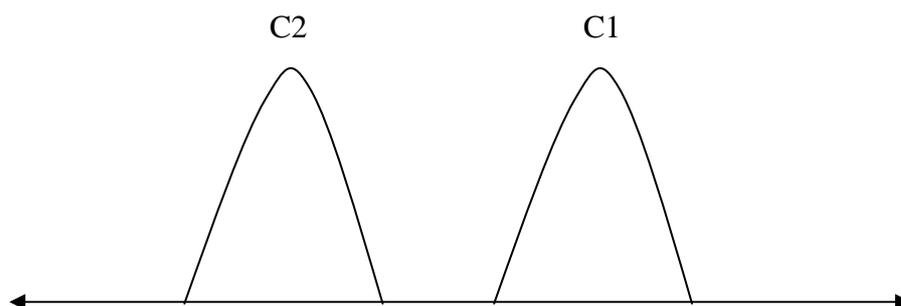
C1          C2

79%                    20,5%

**Figure 4.6. The use of the phrasal alternation by the younger speakers nowadays (stage three) : more absolute than oblique forms in oblique contexts**

C2      C1

58%              41%

**Figure 4.7. The prediction of the use of the phrasal alternation in the future (stage four): absolute forms in oblique contexts**



So, in the past, I assume the ranking would be like this: NON-FINAL >> ECONOMY, because the native speakers still used the two forms in each appropriate context. It would be exactly like Steinhauer and Usman's (1978) description. Nowadays, speakers in older age group start to use the absolute form in the oblique context. However, its percentage is very small. So, the constraint ranking is still NON-FINAL >> ECONOMY, but there already is a little overlap between the constraints.

The ranking has been shifting since the younger speakers start to use more absolute forms in the oblique context as we can see from the data. In the younger age group, the constraint ranking is ECONOMY >> NON-FINAL. That is because the percentage of the use of the absolute form in the oblique context is bigger than the percentage of the use of the oblique form in the

oblique context. However, there is still considerable overlap between the two constraints.

In the future, I predict that native speakers will not use the two forms anymore so that the constraint ranking will stay ECONOMY >> NON-FINAL, but without overlap. So people might use only one form, the absolute form. So, there is a gradual shift over time along the continuous scale and therefore I predict that in the future, the phrasal alternation will be completely lost.

# CHAPTER V
# CONCLUSION

This thesis aims at exploring the use of the phrasal alternation in the Pondok Tinggi dialect of Kerinci. The unique phrasal alternation is marked in the root final rimes of many native lexical items. There are two (sometimes three or four) forms which differ in the pronunciation of their root-final syllable rime found in many lexical items, for example, *bungea* and *bungo* are two forms for the word 'flower'. These forms are called *absolute* and *oblique* forms. However, native speakers do not always use phrasal alternation nowadays.

In response to the above, I formulated two research questions: Firstly, whether or not speakers use different forms in different contexts (absolute context and oblique context) and secondly, whether or not the native speakers in both age groups (younger and older age) still use the two forms nowadays. I wanted to investigate whether the context and age group (independent variables) have an effect on the use of two forms (dependent variable) or not.

This thesis focuses on the phrasal alternation mainly in noun phrases. Some conditions can trigger the use of oblique forms in noun phrases, for example, when a noun is followed by an attributive adjective, an attributive noun phrase, a third person pronoun indicating the possessor, or a

determiner. The oblique form marks the fact that the phrase is still to be continued. The absolute form is placed at the end of a phrase. The presence/absence of a voiced obstruent within a word determines the exact shape of the final syllable in the phrasal alternation of both absolute and oblique forms.

The method of this research is described in chapter 3. The data were taken from 20 native speakers of the Pondok Tinggi dialect. They were divided into two age groups. 10 younger speakers (between 18-25 years old) and 10 older speakers (between 50-65 years old) were involved. Each group consists of 5 female speakers and 5 male speakers who live in PondokTinggi.

The material used in this research is a questionnaire consisting of 30 questions (each containing two sentences) which includes the absolute and oblique forms (see the appendix). 60 sentences were translated from Bahasa Indonesia into the Pondok Tinggi dialect by reading the sentences out loud. The translation of the speakers was recorded and notes were taken. In analyzing the data, some steps were applied, such as identifying the data, listening to the recordings, transcribing the data one by one, putting the transcribed data into the table, counting the percentages of the use of the phrasal alternation in both ages, organizing the data using statistical analysis, analyzing and interpreting the phenomena in the data using Stochastic OT. Finally, the conclusion was drawn.

The findings show that the absolute forms are dominantly used in absolute contexts in both age groups. However, the absolute forms are also used in oblique contexts by both generations, but the percentage of the use of it is different between generations. The differences were all statistically significant. With these findings, I was able to answer my research questions. Firstly, the native speakers in Pondok Tinggi use different forms in different contexts (absolute context and oblique context). Secondly, the native speakers in both age groups, younger and older age, still use the two forms, absolute and oblique forms.

For the analysis, I focused on the most striking feature I discovered in the data: the use of the phrasal alternation in an oblique context by the two age groups. From the statistical analysis, we could see that the older people still use the oblique form in an oblique context 5.5 times as often as the younger people.

For my analysis, I used stochastic OT. In stochastic OT, constraints are ranked on a continuous scale. Two constraints were motivated, namely NON-FINAL and ECONOMY. It seems that the ECONOMY constraint becomes gradually stronger, while the NON-FINAL constraint becomes weaker. That is, the speakers in the younger age group tend to use only one form for both contexts.

On the basis of the OT analysis, I formulated four stages. The first stage represents the use of the phrasal alternation in the past. The constraint

ranking is: NON-FINAL >> ECONOMY. The second stage represents the current use of the phrasal alternation by the older age group. The constraint ranking is: NON-FINAL >> ECONOMY. However, there is little overlap between the constraints on the continuous scale. The third stage represents the current use of phrasal alternation by the younger age group. The constraint ranking is: ECONOMY >> NON-FINAL. The use of the absolute form exceeds the use of oblique form in oblique context. The fourth stage represents the prediction of the use of phrasal alternation in the future. The constraint ranking is: ECONOMY >> NON-FINAL. But now there will be no overlap anymore between the constraints on a continuous scale.

There are remarkably rapid grammatical changes in Pondok Tinggi occurring. The way the older people speak is different from the way the younger people speak. Language is thus gradually shifting not only from one generation to the next but also within the grammars of individual speakers during their lifetime. Within 30 years or so, speakers have begun to 'let go' of this morphological marking. This is a very significant finding and should be very alarming for linguists who are concerned with describing traditional Malayic languages.

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# APPENDIX

Terjemahkan kalimat berbahasa Indonesia di bawah ini ke dalam dialek Pondok Tinggi!

1. Ada **orang** di situ. **Orang** itu baik.

2. Berikan saya **mangkuk**. Harga **mangkuk** itu sangat murah.

3. Vitamin A bagus untuk **mata**. Debu masuk **mata**nya.

4. Rasa gula itu **manis**. Rasa gula itu se**manis** tebu.

5. Dia membuat **rumah** di hutan. **Rumah**nya yang bagus digadainya.

6. Orang itu menjual **bunga.** Dia menanam **bunga** itu.

7. Saya di Belanda sudah tujuh **bulan. Bulan** ini saya mau pulang.

8. **Darah** mengalir dari hidungnya. Warna **darah**nya merah.

9. Dia mau **makan**. Dia **makan** nasi.

10. Hari sudah **malam**. Dia tiba **malam** tadi.

11. Jangan mencari **musuh**. **Musuh**nya sudah banyak.

12. Dia mencari **kayu. Kayu**nya sudah habis.

13. Anak sekolah ber**kejar**an di jalan raya. Orang itu di**kejar**nya sampai dapat**.**

14. Ini kursi **baru**. Kursi **baru**nya bagus.

15. Saya membeli **tikar**. Saya membeli **tikar** itu.

16. Hari ini **panas**. Air **panas** itu diminumnya.

17. Dia duduk di atas **atap**. Dia duduk di atas **atap** itu.

18. Kami **dapat** durian runtuh. Durian runtuh di**dapat**nya.

19. Dia mau yang warna **hijau**. Warna **hijau** tua bagus juga.

20. Pisang itu dimakan **beruk. Beruk** itu memakan pisang.

21. Di rumahnya ada anak **gadis**. Anak **gadis** itu cantik sekali.

22. Dia menggulung **benang**.  **Benang** kusut itu digulungnya.

23. Dia duduk di tepi **danau. Danau** Kerinci seindah dulu.

24. Dia memberikan alasan yang **jelas**. Dia berbicara sejelas-**jelas**nya.

25. Dia makan sayur **bayam**.Sayur **bayam** itu enak rasanya.

26. Dia membawa **tali. Tali** panjang dibawanya.

27. Tanggal satu terima **gaji**. **Gaji** PNS sekarang sudah besar.

28. Warna bajunya **kuning**. Dia mencuci baju **kuning** itu.

29. Dia pergi meng**hadap**. Dia pergi meng**hadap** bosnya.

30. Dia ber**teduh** di bawah payung. Dia duduk di bawah tempat **teduh** itu.