

Vocabulary Development and Kinship Level of Javanese Dialect: Dialect Geography Studies

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ABSTRACT

This study aims to explore the extent of vocabulary and kinship changes in Javanese dialects in Yogyakarta Special Region between 2019 and 2023. Data tapping was conducted at a number of observation points, namely in the villages of Kebonrejo (Kulonprogo), Pakem Binangun (Sleman), Segoroyoso (Bantul), Planjan (Gunungkidul), and Ngringin (Gunungkidul). The data were obtained using the basic Morris Swadesh vocabulary, the universal vocabulary of the world's languages. By looking at the data obtained from the same observation points in 2019 and 2023, it is possible to compare the vocabulary developed in Javanese dialects. From the data comparison, it is also possible to compare the level of kinship between dialects to see if there is a shift in their status from different speech, subdialect, dialect, or language. The data were obtained by tapping method with recording and note-taking techniques, then analyzed by comparison, introspection, and dialectometry methods, and presented by formal methods in the form of tables and figures and informal methods in the form of ordinary narratives. The results show changes in vocabulary and kinship levels caused by internal elements, namely vocabulary development, heterogloss, and dialectometry, and external language, namely factors of dialect supporting communities, dialect area development, and the Covid-19 pandemic.

Keywords: comparison; degree of kinship; dialectology; dialectometry; vocabulary

INTRODUCTION

As a communication tool, language is very important in maintaining relationships between humans in everyday life. One of the languages in Indonesia is Javanese. The Special Region of Yogyakarta is one of the provinces with Javanese regional language. Although there is an assumption that "Java = Jogja", it turns out that in DIY itself, there are differences in how to speak Javanese between one place and another. Yogyakarta is surrounded by Central Java which also speaks Javanese. With the mobility of the community and the presence of migrants who settle in DIY, be it from Central Java or further afield, there is a mixture of local Javanese dialects with other Javanese dialects. The spread of these dialects allows for differences between the Javanese language in one area and another. However, these differences do not make speakers not understand each other. The number of speakers is more than 60 million people so it is the most widely used language in the Austronesian language family and in Indonesia. This distribution allows for differences between Javanese in one region and another. However, these differences do not make speakers not understand each other. Such differences

are called dialects. Dialect is a language variety that encompasses a group of speakers. Dialects contrast with language varieties, which are forms of language that are differentiated according to the context of use. These variations have differences from each other but still show a lot of linguistic similarities, so they do not deserve to be called different languages (Ajatrohaedi, 1983; Nur & Inyo, 2005; Poedjosoedarmo, 1976). Various regions in Indonesia that have Javanese speakers usually have their own dialects depending on their natural and social environment. In the border area of Central Java and the northern part of East Java, Javanese speakers are not necessarily unified in calling a Javanese vocabulary. This difference is possible due to dialect differences. Similar to sociolinguistics, dialectology studies also discuss how language is used in a society, especially in a community that is geographically different, based on mutual *intelligibility*. Mutual intelligibility is a situation where two or more speakers of a language (or closely related languages) can understand each other. Mutual intelligibility is a continuum (i.e., a gradient concept), characterized by degrees of intelligibility, not by sharp divisions (<https://www.thoughtco.com/what-is-mutual-intelligibility-1691333>). The discussion of dialects that uses the benchmark of geographical areas by observing several desired linguistic factors is then called *dialect geography*. The scope of linguistic phenomena and the relationship between dialect or language boundaries and natural and historical boundaries can be identified through a dialect geography approach (Mulyani, 2007; Patriantoro et al., 2012). Apart from that, it can also be known the relationship between language development and cultural development of the region concerned. Another thing that may be a factor causing language variation is the quantity of speakers with diverse cultural backgrounds. These newcomers, whether students, merchants, stall owners, drivers, or indeed moving to Yogyakarta will bring the language and culture of their region and merge with the language in Yogyakarta.

This research on Javanese dialects began with dialect geography research. The research that inspired many subsequent studies was Nothofer's research in 1974 and 1980. Nothofer studied the Javanese language in West Java and West Central Java. In his research, Nothofer interpreted that BS was influenced by Javanese, especially in Cirebon, Banten, and Bandung. In Semarang Regency, Zulaeha (2000) studied the use of Javanese in Semarang Regency in terms of phonetics-phonology, morphology, syntax, and speech level in terms of urban-rural variables, occupation, education, and age. In Boyolali Waljinah (2003) studied the sociolinguistic aspects related to the social variables of speakers, namely occupation, education, and age by considering the location of the TP from the influence of the Surakarta-Yogyakarta Kraton cultural center and coastal Javanese culture. In Gunungkidul, Endardi's research (2004) shows that in Gunung Kidul there are 3 forms of *undha usuk basa* (Javanese speech levels), namely the *ngoko* form as a marker of politeness emotive value 'less polite', *madya* as a marker of unity emotive value 'somewhat polite', and the *krama* form which marks the politeness emotive value 'polite'. Furthermore, in Kebumen, Pujiyatno (2007) wrote that Kebumen Regency is known to have two Javanese dialects, namely the Banyumas dialect called Ngapak Javanese, and the Yogyakarta dialect called Bandek dialect Javanese. Furthermore, Indrariansi & Ningrum (2017) in Pemalang conducted a similar study using 200 words by Swadesh and produced 37 lexicon differences from the two regions. Setiyawan (2019) in his research in Tegal discusses how lexicons of the same form and meaning between Yogyakarta Dialect Javanese and Tegal Dialect Javanese, such as 'eyebrows' in BJT and BJY have the meaning of "eyebrows"; description of lexicons of similar form with the same meaning as in BJT "dada" and BJY 'dɔdɔ' which as the same meaning of "chest"; and description of lexicons of the same form which is different like 'lali' in BJT and BJY. In BJT it means "soundly", while BJY means "forgetting". Sardiyah (2020) in her review in Purworejo describes variations in dialects of various language levels used in Purworejo Regency. The approach used is descriptive qualitative sociodialectology. From the level of phonology, the vowels /i, u/ are mostly realized as /I, U/; phoneme /i/ is realized as /I/; irUŋ [IrUŋ] phoneme /u/ is realized as /U/; murUb

[mUrUb]. From the aspect of word lexicon: sira [sirə] in Indonesian, usually in Javanese Kowe [kowe], goroh [gərɔh] which in Indonesian means “lying”, usually in Javanese, grasping [usiapusi], garuh [garuh] in Indonesian means “confused”, usually in Javanese confused [biṅuṅ]. From the above studies, it can be said that there is a close relationship between sociolinguistics, culture, and dialectology. In addition, it can also be said that the research conducted is descriptive, so comparative studies related to lexicon changes and the level of kinship between dialects are possible.

In 2019, Wibowo conducted related to the use of Javanese language in Yogyakarta at five observation points, namely in Pakem Village (Sleman), Semanu (Gunungkidul), Planjan (Gunung Kidul), Pleret (Bantul), and Kragon (Kulon Progo). The basic vocabulary of Morris Swadesh, a universal vocabulary shared by many languages in the world, was used as a guideline for observation at each observation point. This research describes lexicon differences with the help of phonetic appearances obtained from primary and secondary comparisons. From these divisions, isoglos and heteroglos can be compiled, indicating the dialect *enclaves* mapped at that time. In addition, the relationship between dialects has also been mapped so that the mobility between speakers to each observation point is clear, whether their relationship is simply different speech, subdialects, dialects, or languages.

With the receding of the Covid 19 pandemic in Yogyakarta, we can now see the development of vocabulary and kinship relations on what Wibowo (2019) has researched. By comparing DIY's vocabulary and kinship relations in 2019 and 2023, it can be seen how far the pandemic has impacted the Javanese dialect. Due to the health and social isolation carried out in 2019 and several years after, it can be assumed that the development of vocabulary and kinship relations in Javanese dialects in DIY was disrupted. In other words, this study shows how much vocabulary differences and changes in kinship relations between dialects in Yogyakarta. This can be formulated with the research question, what causes the changes, both phonemically and lexicon-wise, in Javanese dialects from 2019 to 2023? What phonemic and lexicon developments occurred in Javanese dialects between 2019 and 2023? And how did kinship relations change in Javanese dialects from 2019 to 2023?

Dialectology is a branch of language research that emerged from the study of comparative linguistics or diachronic linguistics (Escobar, 2008; Fernandez, 1993). Dialectology is the study of a part of linguistics that focuses on the geography of dialects, where the distribution of their characteristics is visualized on a map (Wieling, Nerbonne & Bayen, 2011). Meanwhile, Keraf (1996) states that dialectology is a branch of linguistics that specifically studies language variations in all their aspects. Keraf divides dialectology into two sub-branches, namely *dialect geography* and *sociolinguistics*. Kridalaksana (2009) defines dialectology as a branch of linguistics that studies language varieties that treat them as general structures. At the same time, Mahsun (1995) defines dialectology as a science that studies dialects, or a branch of linguistics that studies differences in isolates. From some of the definitions above, it can be concluded that dialectology is the study of language varieties or dialects used in society. Dialectology is also referred to as dialect geography or geolinguistics (Chambers & Peter, 2007). This idea is similar to Chamber and Trudgill (1998), where it is mentioned that dialectology can also be called dialect geography.

Morris Swadesh compiled a basic vocabulary with 200 words that are considered universal, that is, those that occur in all languages in the world (Keraf, 1996). Swadesh's basic vocabulary are basic words that are commonly used by any language community, or basic words that are common and widespread in almost all language communities (Patriantoro, 2012). This word list is a tool in dialectological research available to informants. The Morris Swadesh vocabulary at was developed by Nothofer and edited into 390 local cultural vocabularies by Kisyani. The catalog of questions about the cultural vocabulary of the research area is intended to provide an overview of the nature and culture of the research area (Nadra & Reniwati, 2009)

so that informants can answer the researcher's questions directly and spontaneously. The local cultural vocabulary developed by Nothofer and edited by Kisyani became 390 vocabularies divided into 19 fields of meaning. This questionnaire can be used to obtain complete concrete data with note-taking and recording techniques (Zulaeha, 2010).

Furthermore, people assume that a language has a very close relationship with the state of nature, history, culture, and also the supporting community. In determining the boundaries of the use of a language, it is usually based on these facts. The development of a language or dialect is very dependent on the history of the region concerned. Isoglos is a line that separates two dialectal or language environments based on the form or system of the two different environments, and is stated in the language map (Dubois in Ayatrohaedi 1983; Junawaroh, 2016). To get a correct picture of the boundaries of dialects, word boundaries must be made that summarize all aspects of language (phonology, morphology, semantics, lexical, syntax). Isoglos is used to see a true picture of differences in language boundaries between regions of observation. According to Kridalaksana (2009) isoglos is a line on a language map or dialect map that marks the boundary of the use of language features or elements. The characteristics or elements of the language that mark it are mainly in the form of certain vocabulary contained in the isogloss line. Isoglos is commonly defined as a line that demarcates two language environments based on the form or system of the two environments on the map. Isoglos is basically a line that separates two dialectal or language environments based on the form or system of the two different environments, and is expressed on a language map. The opinions of the experts above who mention the definition of isoglos have the same reference in naming the boundary lines (isoglos) used in making language maps.

The last thing that cannot be left out in this research is *dialectometry*. There are two groupings of dialectometry calculation percentages. According to Guiter (Lauder, 2007), if the result obtained from the calculation is less than 20%, then there is no difference between the two observation points. If the result obtained is between 21-30%, then it can be said that there is a difference in speech. If the result obtained is between 31-50%, it can be considered that there are subdialect differences. If the results obtained are between 51-80%, it can be said that there are dialectal differences. Finally, if the result obtained is more than 80%, there is a language difference between the two observation points. However, in this case Lauder in Ayatrohaedi (2002) proposes a different grouping of dialectometric calculation results from Guiter. In this case, Lauder proposes that results above 70% are considered as language differences. Furthermore, the calculation results of 51-70% are considered as dialect differences. Then, the dialectometric counting results of 41-50% are considered as subdialect differences. Next, the results obtained between 31-40% are considered speech differences, while differences below 30% are considered no differences. According to Lauder, the difference in calculation results is due to Indonesia's diverse linguistic conditions so that the grouping of Guinter's calculation results will not be appropriate when used in Indonesia.

METHODOLOGY

This research was conducted in Yogyakarta Special Region (Daerah Istimewa Yogyakarta/DIY) Province so that the population in this research is all the dialect data spoken by the people of Yogyakarta Special Region. The research sample is the selected data representing a set of similar data. The observation points set in this study are dominantly the same as the observation points that have been used in Wibowo's (2019) research, namely in Kebonrejo Village, Temon District (Kulonprogo), Pakem Binangun Village, Pakem District (Sleman), Segoroyoso Village, Pleret District (Bantul), Planjan Village, Saptosari District (Gunung kidul), and Ngringin Village, Semanu District (Gunungkidul). The observation points in

Kragon Village chosen by Wibowo (2019) were replaced with Kebonrejo Village in consideration of purity from the influence of the construction of the Yogyakarta International Airport. This is possible because, besides similar dialect features, the distance between the two is less than 35 km.

The selection of the respondents is based on the requirements of the ideal respondent. The requirements for an ideal respondent include being in middle age, having a complete articulator, not being illiterate, having sufficient education, being an indigenous person (at least up to two generations above), having a pure command of the language, having little mobility outside the area, not having been outside the area for a long time, and not being a 'wong cilik' (Ajatrohaedi, 1983).

To find out the kinship relationship between the dialects studied, the dialectometry method is used, so that the calculation of the distance of linguistic elements between observation points can be known. According to Revier (in Ajatrohaedi, 1983: 32), dialectometry is a statistical measure used to see the differences and similarities found in the places studied by comparing several materials collected from the places studied.

The formula used in this calculation is

$$\frac{(S \times 100)}{n} = d\%$$

S = number of differences with observation are a
 d = number of vocabulary words in percentage
 n = number of maps being compared

The results of calculating the distance of linguistic elements between the observation areas were used to determine the relationship between the observation areas with the following criteria.

Lexicon field differences

>81%	language differences
51%-80%	dialect differences
31%-50%	subdialect differences
21%-31%	speech difference
<20%	no difference

Phonological field differences

>17%	language differences
12%-16%	dialect differences
8%-11%	subdialect differences
4%-7%	speech difference
0%-3%	no difference

In this research, some instruments or tools support the research process used. This dialectal research topology with the target area of DIY Province uses two supporting instruments. *First*, this research uses a dialectical word list instrument. The word list consists of 100 basic word glosses. The gloss is used as a question material to search for words based on the research area (language dialect). The questionnaire was organized thematically based on the degree of closeness of the gloss to the community as its speakers. This classification is done to facilitate the reader in answering questions from the questioner. *Second*, the next supporting instrument is the identity form of the speaker. This instrument functioned for the identification of the speaker. This form also helped researchers determine which hand was in accordance with the ideal requirements. The ideal requirements of respondents, namely middle age, having a complete articulator, not illiterate, sufficiently educated, an indigenous resident (at least up to two generations above), mastering the language purely, small mobility outside the area, never going outside the area for a long time, and not including 'wong cilik' (Ajatrohaedi, 1983: 48). In

addition, this form will facilitate reconfirmation between researchers and revisionists. The existence of the form will be very helpful for further communication related to the rebuttal data, which includes the frequency of travel, the rebuttal's social role, and organizational experience, all recorded in the identity form.

The techniques used in this research can be classified into three stages: data provision, data analysis, and data presentation. Data provision is done by using the field research method. The field research method is carried out by meeting respondents directly to get the data needed. Data collection with this method uses two techniques, namely recording techniques and note-taking techniques. Furthermore, the data obtained is classified as a data table.

The data that has been classified is described, and the lexical differences are for further analysis. Data analysis was carried out using the dialectometric method. This method is a statistical measure used to see the differences and similarities of language varieties in the areas studied by comparing several materials collected from the places studied.

Data presentation in this research uses two methods, namely formal and technical data presentation methods. The formal data presentation method uses symbols, images, signs, and symbols to describe the data. This method is complemented by the technical data presentation method, which uses words to describe the data. Finally, from the data that has been presented, a conclusion is drawn.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Based on the comparison of data from Wibowo's (2019) research and the current research on DIY Javanese dialects that has been conducted in the five designated TPs, it can be seen that there is a significant development of dialects. This development is inseparable from the contribution of several factors as described below.

DEVELOPMENT OF JAVANESE DIALECTS

VOCABULARY DEVELOPMENT

From the comparison of 100 data obtained by Wibowo (2019) and the latest research, it can be found that there is a development of pronunciation and lexicon variations from 26 data. The data relates to the pronoun 'ia', namely [kowe] > [deweʔe], [dɛʔe], dan [kae], daily activity verbs, such as 'jahit' [njaɪt] > [jait], [dɔndɔm], [ndɔndɔmi], 'gosok' [gɔsɔʔ] > [ɲɔsɔʔ], [usɔʔ], [mənatu], 'dorong' [surUŋ] [ɲurUŋ], [jɔrɔke], [dorɔŋ], 'baring' [gletaʔ] > [ɲlekar], [miriN], [ɬɛɣhlɛɣɣh], 'gali' [dudUʔ] > [ɲədUʔ], [macul], 'apung' [ɲambaŋ] > [kəmambaŋ], [kəmampul], [siblɔn], 'hisap' [nɔdɔt] > [sɔdɔt], [ɲɛrɔt], [irUp], 'hantam' > [antəm], [ɲantəm], [ɲamplɔŋ], [nabOʔ], [nimbUʔ], 'balik' [mali/] > [balIʔ], [mbalIʔ], [diwaliʔ], [madəp], [ɲjəmpaliʔ], dan 'duduk' [ɲɪŋUh] > [nggɔgɔʔ], [teŋʊʔ], environmental nouns, for example 'kabut' [pedUt] > [bətUt], [kabut], 'gelembung' [umplUʔ] > [mumplUʔ], [glɔmbUŋ], [plɔmbuŋan], 'asap' [kebUl] > [kukUs], [asəp], debu [ləbu] > [awu], [blɔduk], 'hutan' [alas] > [wIt], [grumbulan], [hutan], dan 'danau' [tlɔgɔ] > [danau], [kədUŋ], [rɔwɔ], adjective 'bengkak' [abUh] > [abuh], [bɔŋkaʔ], kata tunjuk 'itu' [kuwi] > [kae], and intensity marker words 'beberapa' [pirɔ] > [pirɔnan], [pirɔ-pirɔ], [wɔŋ pirɔ], [səpirɔnan], [səbagiyan], dan 'bilamana' [mbɔʔ mənɔwɔ] > [umpamane], [səumpomo], dan [nɛʔ]. From this development, it can be seen that the addition of data, both in the form of pronunciation variations and the addition of new lexicons, is dynamic. Even though Covid-19 was threatening at the time, communication between residents was still ongoing. The *social distancing* that was being

enforced throughout Indonesia made it possible for people to meet each other, so the vocabulary development was not fast enough.

HETEROGLOSS DEVELOPMENT

After moving the given data into isogloss, the isogloss can then be put together into heterogloss. By looking at the heterogloss, several things can be interpreted, such as the existence of dialect pockets (*enclaves*) that are realized in several places on the base map, the boundaries of isogloss that limit the use of a number of gloss in some areas, and the potential level of kinship that can be estimated from the number of isogloss that coincide. For clarity, a comparison of the two heteroglosses can be

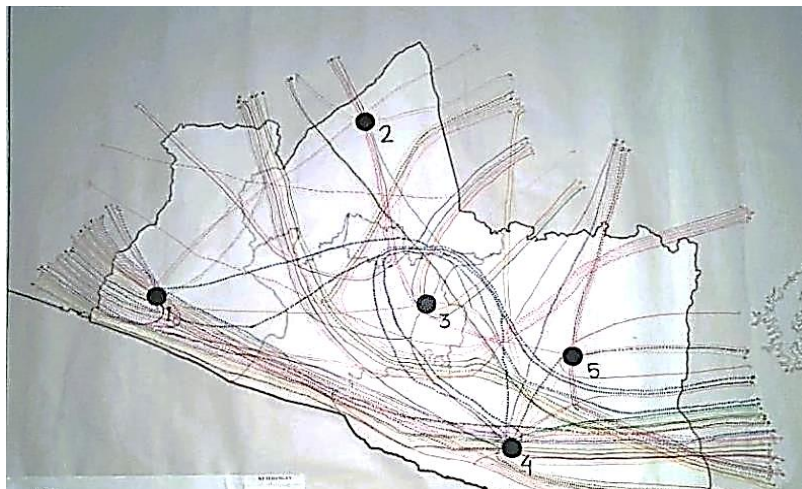


FIGURE 1. Heterogloss map in Wibowo's research (2019)

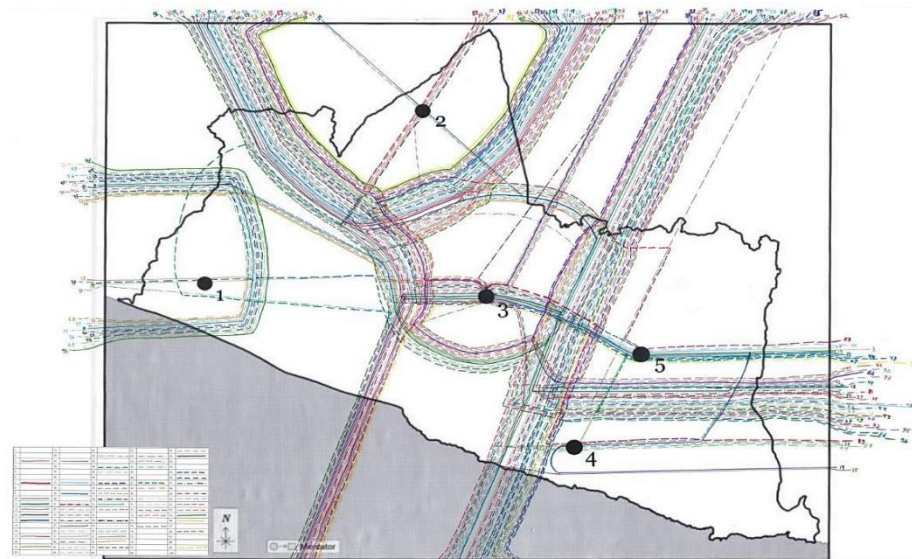


FIGURE 2. Heterogloss map in Wibowo's latest study (2023)

From the two heterogloss maps above, the following can be seen.

1. A number of dialect pockets can be found in both heterogloss maps. The dialect pockets are indicated by curved lines resembling the letter "U" that enclose certain observation point (titik pengamatan/TP) areas. In the 2019 study, a dialect pocket can be found enclosing TP 3 with an opening to the north/upper side and limited by not too many words. A second dialect pocket can also be seen enclosing TP3 with an opening to the east/right. Meanwhile, the dialect pockets in Figure 2 appear more pronounced than in the 2019 study because there are more word files. The dialect pockets contain observation points TP1 with an opening to the west/left, TP2 with an opening to the north/up, and TP3 with an opening to the east/right. With the discovery of the dialect pockets, it is clear that the speaking community in the TP is a language entity different from other regions.
2. In Figure 1, there are quite a lot of isoglosses on the coast from the west/left coast to the east/right coast. This indicates that there are many shared gloss/lexicons in the area. Using the same number of lexicons means that the area along the coast has the same communication language/dialect. Thus, it can be questioned whether all areas north of the coastline have the same dialect. If so, this means that the research needs to be reviewed because the differences sought in the study of dialect geography have not been found. Meanwhile, Figure 2 shows that the isogloss is organized more explicitly in showing the dialect pockets, namely TP 1 with an opening to the west/left, TP 2 and TP 3 with an opening to the north/up. TP 2 and TP 3 have enclave boundaries that coincide. Thus, it can be concluded that TP 1, 2 and 3 can have different dialects.
3. The dialect pocket enclosing TP 3 is twofold, with an opening to the north/up and an opening to the east/right. The east/right opening has very little isogloss compared to the north/up opening. Thus, it can be concluded that the shared vocabulary of Yogyakarta Municipality is not much. Meanwhile, in Figure 2 the isoglosses surrounding TP 3 have more files, so the shared vocabulary used in the Yogyakarta Municipality area is more.

DIALECTOMETRY CALCULATION DEVELOPMENT

There are two groupings of dialectometric calculation percentages. According to Guiter (Lauder, 2007: 96), if the result obtained from the calculation is less than 20%, then there is no difference between the two observation points. If the result obtained is between 21-30%, then it can be said that there is a difference in speech. If the result is between 31-50%, it can be considered a subdialect difference. If the results obtained are between 51-80%, it can be said that there are dialectal differences. Finally, if the result obtained is more than 80%, there is a language difference between the two observation points. However, in this case, Lauder in Ayatrohaedi (2002: 12) proposes a different grouping of dialectometric calculation results from Guiter. Lauder proposes that results above 70% are considered language differences in this case. Furthermore, the 51-70% count results are considered as dialect differences. Then, the dialectometric calculation result of 41-50% is considered as a subdialect difference. Next, results obtained between 31-40% are speech differences, while differences below 30% are considered no differences. According to Lauder, the difference in calculation results is due to Indonesia's diverse linguistic conditions, so the grouping of Gunter's calculation results will not be appropriate when used in Indonesia, so the calculation can be formulated as follows.

- 81% and above : language
- differences 51%-80% : dialect
- differences 31%-50% : subdialect
- differences 21%-30% : speech

difference below 20% : no difference

The results of dialectometric calculations carried out in 2019 and recent research can be displayed based on the data collected. Look at the calculation results and maps of the two studies below.

TABLE 1. Dialectometry calculation results in Wibowo's research (2019)

Ratio	1:2	1:3	1:4	2:3	2:4	2:5	3:4	3:5	4:5
Dialectometry percentage	74,67	78,67	81,32	62,67	61,32	85,32	70,67	86,67	74,67
Status	different dialects	different dialects	different languages	different dialects	different dialects	different languages	different dialects	different languages	different dialects

Description

Observation Point 1: Pakem Binangun, Pakem, Sleman
 Observation Point 2: Kragon, Temon, Kulon Progo
 Observation Point 3: Segoroyoso, Pleret, Bantul
 Observation Point 4: Planjan, Saptosari, Gunungkidul
 Observation Point 5: Ngringin, Semanu, Gunungkidul

TABLE 2. Latest dialectometry calculation results

Ratio	1:2	1:3	1:4	2:3	2:4	2:5	3:4	3:5	4:5
Dialectometry percentage	42,30	38,46	61,58	38,46	46,15	26,92	46,15	38,46	50
Status	different subdialects	different subdialects	different dialects	different subdialects	different subdialects	speech difference	different subdialects	different subdialects	different subdialects

Description

Observation Point 1: Pakem Binangun, Pakem, Sleman
 Observation Point 2: Kebon rejo, Temon, Kulon Progo
 Observation Point 3: Segoroyoso, Pleret, Bantul
 Observation Point 4: Planjan, Saptosari, Gunungkidul
 Observation Point 5: Ngringin, Semanu, Gunungkidul

By comparing the two tables above, it can be seen that there is a large gap/disparity between the two. That there is a language entity in Yogyakarta seems unacceptable because the distance between the observation areas is not too far. This can happen by considering the following possibilities.

1. The chosen division was not ideal, so the difference in results between the TPSs was

quite large. The non-idealization is possible because of the 9 requirements of an ideal respondent, namely

- a. middle age (40-50 years old),
- b. has a complete articulator,
- c. moderately educated,
- d. not illiterate,
- e. are indigenous, at least up to 2 generations above,
- f. master the language 'purely',
- g. mobility outside the region is small,
- h. has never been out of the area for a long time,
- i. does not belong to the 'little people' (wong cilik) group,

not all of them are fulfilled. Some conditions that may not be met can impact the purity of the stories obtained. Factors that may have contributed to the impurity of the obtained data are variations in education levels, high out-of-area mobility, and 'wong cilik', who perceive the researcher as a stranger.

2. The respondent whose data was tapped in part is not exactly the same person as the respondent whose data was tapped first. (2019). Replacement occurs because the previous respondent has died, and some have moved to another area for work reasons or to follow their husbands. Thus, the replacement of respondents can result in the impurity of the data.
3. The area chosen as the TP may be a *continuum* area strongly influenced by other dialects/language entities outside the area under study. What the reviser thinks and uses is influenced by the memory of the vocabulary he/she used to speak with speakers outside DIY, so the purity of the data is difficult to obtain.

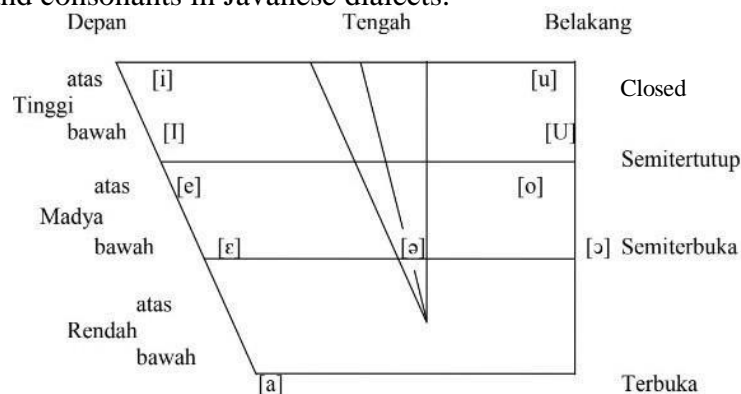
Furthermore, by looking at the results of dialectometric calculations in the latest research, it can be seen that the status of 'different languages' is no longer found. The results of this dialectometric calculation are more acceptable because they reflect the linguistic facts found in DIY in general. The acceptance is based on two considerations, namely, the phoneme system of the Javanese dialect is quite complete, the variations in the lexicon found in recent research have relatively few differences/changes, and the distance between TPs is not far from 35 km.

JAVANESE LANGUAGE DIALECT DEVELOPMENT FACTORS

The above description has presented a discussion of the linguistic development of Javanese dialects in Yogyakarta internally. In addition, there are also external elements that indirectly influence the development. These external elements can be described below.

DIALECT SUPPORTING COMMUNITY FACTORS

Javanese dialect supporters prefer to use language simply and as it is. Phonemically, there is no change in the phoneme system in the Javanese dialect in 2019 and 2023. The following is a map of vowels and consonants in Javanese dialects.



resistance from the community due to their concerns over the issue of compensation when their land was acquired. During the *babat alas nawung kridha* (opening, cleaning, tidying and arranging the land), Sri Sultan Hamengku Buwono X hoped that the construction of the airport would have a positive domino effect for Yogyakarta, especially in Kulon Progo. In addition to improving the transportation sector, it can also improve the tourism sector, trade, create jobs, and ultimately increase the community's economic growth.

In early 2020, the Solo-Yogyakarta-YIA Kulonprogo toll road or Joglo Toll Road was built, a toll road connecting 3 cities, namely Yogyakarta City, Klaten City and Surakarta City. This toll road is part of the Trans Java Toll Road in the middle lane segment connecting Jakarta with Surabaya via Purwokerto and the southern lane connecting Bandung with Surabaya. This toll road has started construction in 2020 from the direction of Solo. This toll road is built *elevated* along Yogyakarta's Northern Ring Road (except at the Jalan Monumen Jogja Kembali/Palagan Tentara Pelajar intersection which will be made *on grade*), then continues along the Mataram Sewer until it reaches the interchange in the Maguwoharjo area. This toll road will continue to YIA Kulon Progo Airport which stretches from Sleman Interchange for 30.77 km. This toll road is expected to facilitate access from YIA Kulon Progo Airport to Yogyakarta (<https://id.wikipedia.org/wiki/JalanTolYogyakarta%E2%80%93Surakarta>).

Furthermore, in early 2020 a number of beaches in Saptosari District, Gunung Kidul Regency were further developed, namely Nguyahan, Ngobaran, Ngrenahan, Ngedan, and Butuh Beaches. According to data from the Tourism Office, the number of tourists coming to Saptosari District has increased significantly. However, the beach tourism still has several problems and undeveloped potentials that hamper tourism growth in Saptosari Sub-district. Things that should be done immediately are developing tourist rides for all ages, holding interesting *events* regularly (regional/national/international calendar events) by cooperating with tourism management groups, building telecommunications networks, opening Pringjono tourist areas to expand tourist destinations in Nguyahan, increasing the diversification of typical products for tourist souvenirs, forming cleaning officers to create a clean beach, developing culinary tourism (sea fish) and developing attractive processed fish products, designing Ngedan Beach as a mainstay tour for special interests such as *camping* and *tracking*, and providing camping rental equipment and forming a solid tourism management group to develop tourism, and providing special vehicle parking lots to make it look neat (Huda and Matondang, 2020).

From the description above, it can be seen that urban development, in terms of infrastructure and human resources, will trigger social mobility and increase educational strata. The increase in education in turn will boost the culture of literacy so that the ideal conditions for ideal revision also begin to fade. Modernization must have some influence on the purity of the dialect. Traditional word forms begin to have variations that are different from the original form, for example in TP 2 Kebonrejo, Temon, Kulon Progo gloss 'bengkak' [abuh] > [mbəŋkaʔ], 'berburu' [gɔleʔ] > [bərburu], 'berenang' [ŋlaŋi] > [rənaŋ]; TP 1 Pakem Binangun, Pakem, Sleman 'jahit' [dɔndɔm] > [njaIt], 'hutan' [alas] > [hutan], 'danau' [kedUŋ] > [danaw]; TP 5 Ngringin, Semanu, Gunungkidul 'jahit' [dɔndɔm] > [njaIt], 'gosok' [gɔsɔʔ] > [mənatu]. This series of examples shows that the acquired data is similar to Indonesian words rather than Javanese dialect. This shows that whether it is recognized or not, the influence of Indonesian as the national language has been absorbed into the Javanese dialect.

COVID-19 PANDEMIC FACTORS

The COVID-19 pandemic occurred due to the spread of the Coronavirus in 2019 around the world. The outbreak was first detected in Wuhan, Hubei Province, China and was declared a pandemic by WHO. Since March 11, 2020 the World Health Organization (WHO) stated that the pandemic and the spread of *Corona Virus Disease 2019* (COVID-19) have been declared by *as a Global Pandemic* and designated as a public health emergency based on Presidential

Decree Number 11 of 2020 concerning the Determination of Public Health Emergencies *ra kat Corona Virus Disease 2019 (COVID-19)* as well as non-natural disasters based on Presidential Decree Number 12 of 2020 concerning the Determination of Non-natural Disasters of the Spread of Corona Virus Disease 2019 (COVID-19) as a National Disaster, until now it has not ended and has an impact on various aspects including broad health, economic and social aspects in Indonesia (<https://jdih.maritime.go.id/id/determination-status-factual-pandemic-covid-19-indonesia#:~:text=JDIH%20Marves%20%E2%80%93%20Pandemic%20and%20Spread,Year%202020%20of%20the%20Determination%20of%20Calamity>). As a follow-up to the many victims of the pandemic, many members of the community carried out independent isolation in their respective environments to break the chain of COVID-19 transmission. One form of anticipation of the pandemic transmission is to install portals and banners at the entrance to the streets around their residence, village, or housing complex as a barricade so that outsiders do not easily enter the neighbourhood where they live. Only people who live in the neighbourhood and several people they can trust can enter their neighbourhood. This *social distancing* prevents everyone from interacting freely as usual. As a result, direct communication activities are not easy and are replaced by communication through electronic devices, such as telephone conversations, *Whatsapp (WA)* applications, *Zoom*, *Google Meet*, and so on. On the other hand, using these devices and applications can connect them with interlocutors far from where they live, even across countries and continents. This again automatically increases the literacy culture, especially in efforts to maintain health from the threat of COVID-19. With the increasing literacy culture of the community supporting the Javanese dialect, its purity began to fade.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

The description above describes the development of the Javanese dialect, especially in DIY, from 2019 to 2023. Phonemically, the sound system in the Javanese dialect is considered well-established, so during the 4 years of re-examination, there were no changes whatsoever. In terms of pronunciation, the forms of the lexicon variants studied do not invite much change. Likewise, a review of the addition to the lexicon. Of the 100 vocabularies that have been re-examined, there are 26 developments in pronunciation variations and lexicon development. This means that changes in the Javanese dialect are not very drastic. Based on the level of kinship, a review has also shown that the status of language differences between TPs will no longer exist in 2023. The results of this study are more acceptable considering that the distance between the TLPs is not far away from 35 km from each other. The difference in kinship level status is possible due to the communities supporting the Javanese dialect, the development of the Javanese dialect usage area, and the Covid-19 factor, which between 2019 and 2023 became a pandemic that caused many victims. However, due to time constraints, there is still a problem that can be resolved on another occasion, namely a review of heterogloss in 2019, which shows the large number of isogloss files that stretch across the southern coast of Yogyakarta from west/left to east/right which indicates the number of shared gloss/ lexicons in the area. With the shared use of several lexicons, does it mean that all areas in the northern part along the coast have the same dialect? Thus, on this issue, it is hoped that observers or dialect geographers interested in research objects in the DIY area can continue/resolve this issue so that the discussion of the use of Javanese dialects becomes brighter and more complete.

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