Scouse Dialect in English and Tabulahan Dialect in Mamuju Language: A Dialectology Study



THESIS

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THESIS

SCOUSE DIALECT IN ENGLISH AND TABULAHAN DIALECT IN MAMUJU LANGUAGE: A DIALECTOLOGY STUDY

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STATEMENT OF ORIGINALITY

The writer here by declares that the content in this thesis Scouse Dialect in English and Tabulahan Dialect in Mamuju Language: A Dialectology Study is the absolute work of the writer and has never been used in any institution or for any purpose before. The writer guarantees that the content of this thesis is the result of the writer's own thoughts. The guidance received in the preparation of writing this thesis and the resources used really exist and are recognized.

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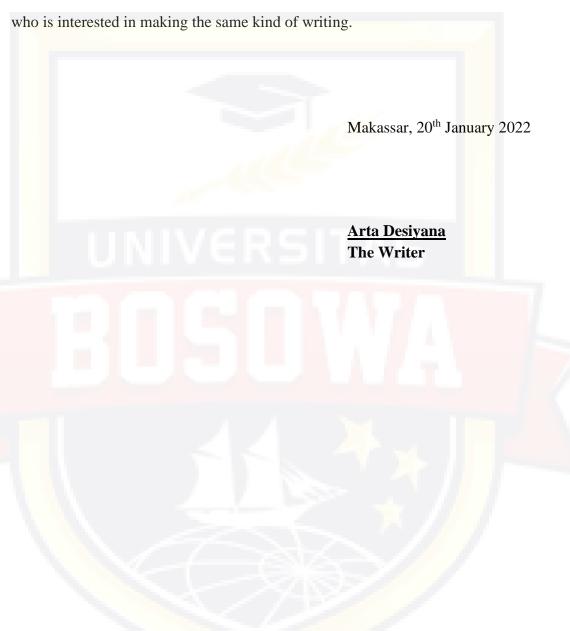
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ABSTRACT

Arta Desiyana. 2021. Scouse Dialect in English and Tabulahan Dialect in Mamuju Language: A Dialectology Study. (Supervised by Sudirman Maca and Andi Tenri Abeng)

This research aims to look at language variations that occur phonologically and lexically in the Scouse dialect or Liverpool English in English and Tabulahan dialect in Mamuju language.

Sources of the data for the Tabulahan dialect and Mamuju language were obtained directly from the informants as native speakers of the Tabuhanan and Mamuju languages. Meanwhile, the Scouse dialect and English data as a comparison were obtained from previous research conducted by Honeybone (2007) and Baranova (2015). The writer used a qualitative method through a dialectological approach and contrastive analysis.

The results of this study show that there are similarities and differences. Phonologically, similarities occur in the features of Vocal Change and Lenition. The difference occurs in the features of the TH-stopping and the category of Rhotic and non-Rhotic which the Tabulahan Dialect does not have this feature but is found in the Scouse Dialect in English. Lexically, both dialects have variations in word classes such as nouns, verbs, adverbs, and adjectives. While the differences occur in other word class variations such as pronouns, prepositions, determinants, conjunctions, numbers and question words which are only found in the Tabuhanan dialect.

Keyword: Language Variation, Dialectology, Contrastive Analysis, Tabulahan, Scouse

ABSTRAK

Arta Desiyana. 2021. Scouse Dialect in English and Tabulahan Dialect in Mamuju Language: A Dialectology Study. (Dibimbing oleh Sudirman Maca and Andi Tenri Abeng)

Penelitian ini bertujuan untuk melihat variasi Bahasa yang terjadi secara fonologi dan leksikal dalam dialek Scouse atau Bahasa Inggris Liverpool di Bahasa Inggris dan dialek Tabulahan di Bahasa Mamuju.

Sumber data untuk dialek Tabulahan dan Bahasa Mamuju dalam penelitian ini diperoleh langsung dari informan sebagai penutur asli Bahasa Tabulahan dan Bahasa Mamuju. Sedangkan data dialek Scouse dan Bahasa inggris sebagai pembanding diperoleh dari penelitian yang telah dilakukan sebelumnya oleh Honeybone (2007) dan Baranova (2015). Penelitian ini menggunakan metode kualitatif melalui pendekatan dialektologi dan analisis kontrastif.

Hasil penelitian ini menunjukkan bahwa adanya kesamaan dan perbedaan. Secara fonologi, kesamaan terjadi pada ciri Perubahan Vokal dan Lenisi. Perbedaannya terjadi pada ciri Konsonan Hentian-TH dan kategori Rotik dan non-Rotik dimana Dialek Tabulahan tidak memiliki ciri ini tapi terdapat dalam Dialek Scouse dalam Bahasa Inggris. Secara leksikal, kedua dialek sama-sama memiliki variasi dalam kelas kata seperti kata benda, kata kerja, kata keterangan, dan kata sifat. Sedangkan perbedaan terjadi pada variasi kelas kata lain seperti kata ganti, preposisi, penentu, konjungsi, angka dan kata tanya dimana hanya terdapat pada Dialek Tabuhanan.

Kata Kunci: Language Variation, Dialectology, Contrastive Analysis, Tabulahan, Scouse

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BOSOWA 1

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the background and the reason for choosing the title, the problem of the research, questions of the research, objectives of the research, scope of the research, and significances of the research.

A. Background

Language is an important element in social life. It takes a role for human life which is used to make the interaction between people and establish social relationships. Language is used to convey messages or specific intentions and desires to others. In other words, language enables a person to communicate and adapt to other humans, as expressed by Kridalaksana (2008:24) language does not have a fixed relationship between the words used as symbols for the naming of certain units, which are used by community to jointly in an aim, to be connected each other and recognize their own self. Language is humane, meaning that language is a verbal communication tool that only humans have. Language itself has diversity because it is used by heterogeneous communities or speakers as well as different socio-cultural backgrounds.

Language is born from culture, and in each different culture produces different languages. This language difference becomes a character and identity of each culture or certain region. This is in line with what Salamah (2003:1) stated that regional language is the language used by certain groups as a representation of its culture.

Language, society and culture are three things that cannot be separated and are interrelated (Wijayanti, 2016:1). When discussing about language, the language to be studied is indirectly related to the society, because the speaker of a language is the society. It also cannot be separated from the existence of culture, because every society must have a certain culture that will affect the social conditions of its people. And this will have an impact on the language used when communicating. Different societal conditions produce different communication languages. Whereas the community's need for a means of communication between individuals or social groups makes existing languages influence each other. Geographical location, changes in time and also situation of speaker's formality can also influence the language used. From here comes a phenomenon of language variation. One of the language variations is the dialect.

Budiono (2015:20) stated that dialect is a variation of the language used by certain people who have differences with other regions, but other people with the same language can still understand it. When speaking, there is not a speaker of a language who completely separated from the dialect or the language variation. Dialect can be a marker of identity for people who have similar or the same. Dialect as the phenomena of language in society also get the attention of linguists and studied further. The branch of science that studies this field is called dialectology. The results of this study can explain the fact or situation of language variations, which are variations in certain areas or those used by certain social groups.

Indonesia is one of the very rich country in language diversity. The latest data released by the official institution in charge of languages in Indonesia, which is *Badan Pengembangan dan Pembinaan Bahasa* who work under the auspices of *Kementerian Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan Indonesia*, states that there are 718 languages and each language has a different dialect. Mamuju language is one of the regional languages in West Sulawesi which has 9 dialects, namely Buku, Pulliwa, Tae', Pannei, Tabulahan-Aralle, Campalagian, Tappalang, Binanga, and Sinyonyoi dialect. This explains that Mamuju as a language and Tabulahan as one of the dialects. The researcher put a curiosity about Tabulahan as a dialect of the Mamuju language. The level of language correlation between Mamuju and Tabulahan is deemed necessary for further study, because the reseacher found any differences form between these two languages.

The geographic location of Mamuju and Tabulahan is also different. Tabulahan language is a language whose native speakers are in the mountainous region of West Sulawesi and part of Kabupaten Mamasa. In comparison to Mamuju Language, which are the speaker spread across several coastal region of West Sulawesi. Mamuju language speakers are mostly found in the Kabupaten Mamuju. Researching Tabulahan language is urgent because research data or literature about the existence of Tabulahan language or the language around it is very lacking. The existence of Tabulahan as a small ethnic group that has a low number of populations make the researcher pay attention to the recognition of its existence.

In comparison, English as the official language in the United Kingdom and several British Commonwealth countries, makes this language has a very diverse dialects and accents. The scouse dialect refers to Liverpool English, a term of language variation associated with Liverpool and the surrounding county of Merseyside, Northwest England.

B. Reason for Choosing Title

The latest research about Tabulahan and and some of the surrounding regional language found by the researcher is a journal written by Masao Yamaguchi in 2002. However, Yamaguchi also stated that data on Tabulahan language and the surrounding language is very low. Therefore, it is interesting to study more about the Tabulahan language to provide more literature on this language.

C. Problem of The Research

There are many differences in basic word and pronunciation for the same etimony between Tabulahan and Mamuju language which allows for a large degree of language differences. The differences also found in Scouse instead of Standard British English. Therefore, the researcher addresses the problem of the research which are differences and similarities in language variation between Scouse in English with Tabulahan dialect in Mamuju language.

D. Questions of the Research

- 1. What are the phonological differences and similarities in language variations between Scouse in English and Tabulahan dialect in Mamuju language?
- 2. What are the lexical differences and similarities in language variations between Scouse in English and Tabulahan dialect in Mamuju language?

E. Objectives of the Research

- To find out the phonological differences and similarities in language
 variations between Scouse in English and Tabulahan dialect in Mamuju
 language.
- 2. To find out the lexical differences and similarities in language variations between Scouse in English and Tabulahan dialect in Mamuju language.

F. Scope of the Research

In the study using dialectology approach, there are five different kinds of elements language, namely differences in phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, and lexical (Mahsun, 1995:23). Based on the problem of the research, this research is limited into phonological and lexical different analysis between Scouse and English, and also between Tabulahan dialect and Mamuju language.

G. Significance of the Research

This research is divided into two kinds of significance as follows:

- 1. Theoretically, the research can be contributed in the literature study, especially related in the field of language, for those who are involved in linguistics, especially in the field of dialectology and contrastive linguistics.
- 2. Practically, this research allow the researcher to know about delivering the pronunciation and specific lexicon in Tabulahan, Mamuju and Scouse. The findings of the research are expected to give information about language variation between Scouse and English, and also between Tabulahan dialect and Mamuju language.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter presents briefly about previous studies related to this title of the study, and theoretical basis. These theories are used by the researcher to analyze the data as literary review.

A. Previous Studies

Previous studies that underlied this research includes works in the form of research results that have been investigated. Several studies that raise issues that are relevant to language comparisons, include Honeybone (2007), Pamolango (2012), Toha (2013), Rahayu (2013), Baranová (2015), Wijayanti (2016), and Susiati & Iye (2020). However, until now, the results of research on language variations in Mamuju or Tabulahan languages in detail are still very lack.

Honeybone (2007) have done the research titled "New-Dialect Formation in Nineteenth Century Liverpool: A Brief History of Scouse". This approach focused on what happens when a new variety of a language comes into being, due to a special kind of dialect mixture that can occur when a number of already existing varieties come into close contact with each other. The features that discuss here were all phonological. The research explained that the dialect of Liverpool English had something in common with neighbouring Northern Englishes, and something in common with Englishes from further afield, such as those from Ireland. It was not a direct continuation of any dialect that existed before, but had been created from a mixture of dialects. In Liverpool English.

TH stopping is due to the Hiberno-English input, almost as if it had swamped the other dialects. The fact that Liverpool English is non-rhotic seems to suggest exactly the opposite, however, and either the minority non-rhotic English varieties from south and east of Liverpool won out, or non-rhoticity was introduced by 'drift', or by the general spread of the changed as it moved across England. The absence of a SQUARE~NURSE contrast was possibly predictable on a majority-wins basis, as both South Lancashire and some Hiberno-English varieties were unhelpful to the establishment of a contrast, although Welsh, Scottish and other English and Irish dialects would have presented data to the contrast. Finally, Liverpool lenition would not have been predicted to have the pattern that it has today, which is unique to Liverpool.

Pamolango's research (2012) entitled "Geografi Dialek Bahasa Saluan" paid attention to the distribution of the phonological and lexical elements of the Saluan language in its area of use, do the distribution of phonological and lexical elements divides the Saluan language into a number of dialects, sub-dialects or speech differences. As a result, it was found that various variations both in terms of phonology and lexical from the total number of observation areas were 31 points of observation. Then, in terms of the distribution of the phonological and lexical elements of the Saluan language using the dialectometric method, it appeared that in general the differences in the Saluan language are still speech differences.

Toha (2013) investigated "Isolek-Isolek Di Kabupaten Aceh Tamiang Provinsi Aceh: Kajian Dialektologi". This article is a research report about

dialect of Tamiang Malay (BMT) in Kabupaten Aceh Tamiang of Aceh Province which employs synchronic dialectological analysis. This article aims at describing linguistic features of BMT and to counts the percentage of variations of interisolects. For that purpose, dialectometry method by permutation technic is applied. The data collecting by recording and note-taking techniques. The analysis of data is executed by qualitative anda quantitative methods. The result of this analysis showed that BMT consist of 9 single vowels i.e [i, I, e, |, E, a, O, u, and U], 2 diftongs [aw, and Uy]. and 19 consonants i.e [b, c, d, h, g, j, k, l, m, n, p, R, s, t, y, w, G, ~n, and ?].

Rahayu (2013) studied "Variasi Dialek Bahasa Jawa Di Wilayah Kabupaten Ngawi: Kajian Dialektologi". This research has the objective of the study to describe and explained dialect variation in the Javanese language that occurs at the interaction of people in the district of Ngawi. It can be seen from phonological and lexical variation and then presented in the form of a dialect map. The method that is used in this research is descriptive qualitative. This study used 250 lexicons in obtaining the data, the list of the lexicons refers to the Swadesh list of questions. From 250 lexicons, 23 phonological variations and 47 lexical variations were obtained. The dialect variation that appears in the Ngawi Regency area is not a separate dialect, but a variant of Javanese. The Ngawi dialect tends to refer to the Central Javanese dialect.

Baranová (2015) researched "Intelligibility of lesser-known dialects". She analyzed dialect between Scouse and Geordie among high level student of English in Brno, Czech. These two of northern English dialects have been

chosen to represent the sample of dialects the Czech students are commonly not familiar with. The purpose of this study is to show the differences between these dialects and what is considered as the Standard English that students commonly known.

Wijayanti (2016) studied "Variasi Dialek Bahasa Bawean di Wilayah Pulau Bawean Kabupaten Gresik: Kajian Dialektologi". This study explained about how the phonological, lexical differences and also the mapping of the Bawean dialect variation in the Bawean island of Gresik Regency. The research method used in this research was qualitative descriptive method. Wijayanti chose 4 villages out of 17 villages in the Gresik regency, as the research object areas including Daun village, Suwari village, Kepuhteluk village, and Diponggo village. In this study, it was found that the words used by the people of Bawean Island were mostly not much different from the words in Madura, although there was one point of observation where the words were in Javanese, and there were several words which were typical Bawean dialects. In this study, 70 forms of dialect variations were obtained from 200 basic vocabulary words in the list of questions posed. The 70 forms of dialect variations were divided into 20 phonological differences and 50 lexical differences.

Susiati & Iye (2020) titled "Triangular Dialektometry: The Relationship of The Family of Language in South Sulawesi (Wakatobi Language, Cia-Cia Language, Pancana Language, Kioko Language, Tolaki Language)". This study aims to describe the phenomenon of language use in several regions in Southeast Sulawesi by applying triangular dialectometric analysis. The research

instrument used a dialectometric approach. The data collection method used in this study is the *pupuan lapangan* method (direct field method). The formulation below 20% (no language and dialect differences, is between the Wakatobi language Kaledupa dialect and Tomia dialect), formulation 31-50% (the difference subdilek, that is between Pancana Language and Kioko Language), formulation 51-80% (dialect difference, ie between the Wakatobi language Tomia dialect and Pancana languages; Pancana language and Wakatobi language Kaledupa dialect; Kioko Language and Wakatobi language Tomia dialect; Wakatobi language Tomia dialect and Cia-Cia; Cia-Cia Language and Kioko Language; Kioko Language and Tolaki Language), and formulations 81 and above (language differences, between Tolaki and Cia-Cia languages).

The difference between this study and other previous studies is in the object of research, which are in Mamuju area, Mamuju Regency and Tabulahan area, Mamasa Regency. This Research also compare the differences between dialect Tabulahan in Mamuju Language to the Scouse dialect in English.

B. Language Variations

Language variations arise due to social interaction activities carried out by very diverse communities or groups and due to the non-homogeneous speakers. The occurrence of language variation is not only caused by the speakers who cannot live alone, but also because the social interaction activities they carry out are different. Everyone has different activities. Each individual speaker causes the diversity of the language. Speakers who are in a very large area will

cause more language diversity. In terms of language variation, there are two points of views. First, language variation is seen as a result of the social diversity of language speakers and the diversity of language functions. So, language variation occurs as a result of social diversity and the diversity of language functions. If the speakers of that language are a homogeneous group, whether an ethnic, social status or occupation, then there is no variation or diversity, it means that the language becomes similar. Second, language variations already exist to fulfill their function as a means of interaction in various community activities (Chaer and Agustina, 1995: 81).

Chaer and Agustina (2004: 82) distinguish language variations into four, namely language variations in terms of speakers, usage, formality, and means.

1. In terms of the speakers

- a. Idiolect, is a variation of language that is individual in nature. Everyone has their own idiolect. Idiolect is related to the color of voice, word choice, style, sentence structure, and so on. The most dominant is the color of the voice, we can recognize the voice of someone we know just by hearing the voice.
- b. Dialect, is a language variation in a group of speakers whose numbers are relative, who are in a certain place or area.
- c. Temporal dialect, is the language variation used by social groups at certain times.
- d. Social dialect, is a variation of language based on the condition and social level of the speaker. In sociolinguistics, this variation concerns all

the personal problems of the speakers, such as age, education, socioeconomic conditions, occupation, gender, and so on.

2. In terms of the usage

Language variation in term to the usage, or function are called registers. this variation is related to the language used for what purposes or fields. For example, the fields of literature, journalism, military, agriculture, shipping, economy, trade, education and scientific activities. The language variation based on this field of activity is most noticeable by the vocabulary or diction. Each field of activity usually has a specific or certain vocabulary that is not used in other fields.

3. In terms of the formality

According to Joos (1967:23), language variation in terms of the formality is divided into frozen style, formal style, consultative style, casual style, intimate style.

- a. Frozen style is the most formal variation, which is used in solemn situations and official ceremonies. For example, in sermons, laws, notary deeds, oaths, and so on.
- b. Formal style is a language variation used in state speeches, official meetings, lectures, textbooks, and so on.
- c. Consultative style is a variation commonly used in regular school talks, meetings, or results-oriented or production-oriented talks. The form of this variety falls between the formal variety and the informal or casual variety.

- d. Casual style is a variation used in informal situations to talk. This variation used the allegro a lot, which is a shortened form of speech.
- e. Intimate style is a variation that commonly used by speakers in a close relationship, such as between family members or close friends. This variety uses incomplete language with unclear articulation.

4. In terms of the medium

Language variation can also be seen in terms of the medium in the usage. In this case, there is a variety of spoken and written or also a variety of language using certain tools, such as in conversations on the telephone or in the telegraph. The variety of spoken and written language is based on the fact that spoken language and written language have different forms of structure.

C. Dialectology

1. Dialectology in linguistic

Linguistics is an empirical science because the data that is analyzed are language facts that can be observed in the field and the truth can be verified. Linguistics prioritizes the object of its study on the natural everyday language of humans that is not made up, which was born as it is to fulfill the social functions of its speakers.

Given the breadth of linguistic concept, the language can be dimensionally observed from various sides. Therefore, linguistics has various sub-studies, which form its own discipline and have its own theory. Wahya (2010) wrote that the field of linguistics which views language in its

internal system as solely called microlinguistic. This internal system consists of sounds (phoneme), which are examined by phonology; morphemes, which are studied by morphology; lingual units in the form of phrases, clauses, and sentences that are studied by syntax. Besides microlinguistic, there is macrolinguistic. Macrolinguistic is divided into interdisciplinary and applied fields. Dialectology is an interdisciplinary field. Dialectology is a cross-linguistic study with geography, history, anthropology, sociology, and sociolinguistics, even to interpret certain words can take advantage of philology, the study of old texts.

Dialectology is the science of linguistics that discusses the variety of languages used by a community in an area. Mahsun (1995:11) stated that dialectology is the science of dialect, or a branch of linguistics that studies isolect differences by treating them as a whole.

The linguists or those who interested in dialectology have a particular motivation when studying its object. According to Francis (1983:7), those who study dialectology (dialect studies) have at least four motivational characteristics, such as (1) curious, (2) anthropological, (3) linguistic, and (4) practical. The first motivation appears when someone often wants to know different words for something they are familiar with or differences in meaning for words they are familiar with. Likewise, curiosity about the difference in pronunciation. The second motivation relates to the view of language as an important part of culture. Language differences and their variations are often become the deepest clues to social and cultural

phenomenas. The third motivation relates to the data obtained by dialectologists, with which this data can reveal the history of language. The fourth motivation has to do with changing language and its use. With this data, the problems of using language variations, including standard dialects, can be identified in society. Dialectology is a branch of linguistics that has contributed to developing knowledge about the language variations.

2. Language Differentiator

The use of language can be seen in terms of place. For this reason, the location of an area that is not the same can affect the language used. The language used may have differences from one region to another. This can lead to the emergence of various dialects in different regions (Wijayanti, 2016:11). Basically, one dialect is different from other dialects because each has its own lingual characteristics. Mahsun (1995:23) describes the differences in linguistic elements as follows:

- a) Phonological differences; Phonological differences here are related to differences in phonetics.
- Morphological differences; Concerning all aspects of morphology.
 This difference can be related to aspects of affixation or reduplication.
- c) Syntactic differences; Relating to the differences that exist in all aspects of syntactic studies found in the language studied. These differences relate to differences in the structure of the language or the phrases used to express the same meaning.

- d) Lexical differences; related to the lexemes used to realize the same meaning does not come from one prelingual etymon. All differences in the lexicon field are always became a language variation.
- e) Semantic differences; Semantic differences have a relationship between the meaning used in certain area of observation and the meaning used in other area of observation.

Based on the description of the differentiators above, what will be examined in this study is limited to phonological and lexical differences. The description of phonological aspects includes the difference in sounds and phonemes of the isolects or languages being compared. Meanwhile, the description of the lexicon aspect is to determine the extent of the differences between the lexicons being compared.

D. Phonology

Phonology is a branch of linguistics, which studies the sounds in language. In line with the explanation by Ismartono (2009:19) that phonology is concerned with the ways in which the speech sounds from systems and patterns in human language. According to Dola (2011:11) there are two objects of phonological study, namely phonetics and phonemics.

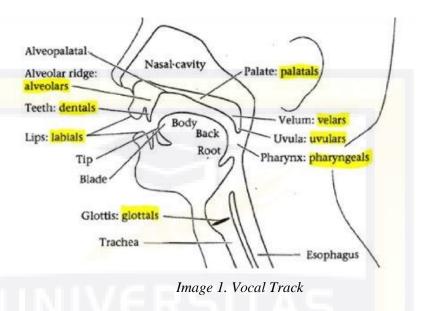
Phonetics studies the sounds of a language without looking at the function of these sounds as differentiators of meaning in a language. phonetics examines how humans produce speech sounds, examines the sound waves of language

that are emitted, and how the human hearing apparatus receives language sounds to be analyzed by the human brain.

Phonemics studies the sounds of a language by paying attention to the function of these sounds as differentiators of meaning in a language. The lexeme as an abstract basic lexical unit becomes an important part in the formation of the lexicon of a language. In the study of morphology, lexeme is defined as a form that will reduce a word or a number of words. While in semantic studies, the term lexeme is used to accommodate the concept of language units that have one unit of meaning. So, semantically, what is called a lexeme can be in the form of basic words, joining words, affixed words, or forms called expressions/idioms (Saefullah, 2009:2).

1. Production of consonant

Speech sounds are produced by interfering in some way with a body of moving air. It is important to describe how the air is set in motion and the direction in which it travels because that makes a difference in the sound produced. Phoneticians use the term *Airstream Mechanism* to describe a body of moving air used in speech production. (Katamba, 1989:2



Erlinda (2012:55) explained that there are some processes in producing sounds. First, air proceeds from the lungs through the trachea to the larynx, commonly called the voice box, which houses the vocal cords. If the cords are slightly tensed, the passage of air sets the vocal cords vibrating, which gives a basic sound quality to the air stream, which continues into the pharynx, where basic voice quality is established. Voice quality determines the unique characteristics of each speaker's voice, so that an individual often can be recognized by voice alone. Above the pharynx is the uvula, which is a movable flap that controls the passage of air through the nasal cavity. The uvula is always open when an individual breathes through the nose, but it is only open at certain times during the course of speech. For the most part, the velum (or soft palate) is closed in speech, and the air moves through the oral cavity (the mouth), the dimensions of which changed according to the interaction of the tongue and lips.

Consonants are produced by obstructing in some way the flow of air through the vocal tract. We can identify the place (or point) where the obstruction takes place, and the organs involved. The parts of the oral tract such as the tongue and lips which can be used to form speech sounds are called articulators. A list of places of articulation is given together with the phonetic symbols representing some of the sounds made at each place. (Katamba 1989:4)

Table 1

International Phonetic Alphabet Consonant Pulmonic

	Bilabial		Labiodental		Dental		Alveolar		Postalveolar		Retroflex		Palatal		Velar		Uvular		Pharyngeal		Glottal	
Plosive	P	b					t	d			t	<u>d</u>	<u>c</u>	I	k	g	q	<u>G</u>				3
Nasal		m		<u>m</u>				n				<u>n</u>		<u>n</u>								
Trill		<u>B</u>						r					ı					R				
Tap or flap								ī														
Fricative	φ	<u>β</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>v</u>	<u>θ</u>	<u>ð</u>	s	z	ſ	3	<u>s</u>	<u>Z</u> ,	ç	į	<u>X</u>	¥	χ	R	<u>ħ</u>	<u>ç</u>		
Lateral fricative							<u>1</u>	<u>k</u>														
Approximant				<u>v</u>				Ī				Ţ		j		Щ						
Lateral approximant								1				1		<u>\(\lambda \)</u>		L						

Here are some definitions of the phrases used on this chart:

a. Consonant Place

1) Bilabial: Made with the lips

Example: "b" in "bad"

2) **Labiodental:** Made with the bottom lip and the top teeth

Example: "v" in "very"

- 3) **Dental:** Made with the tip of the tongue and the top teeth Example: "th" in "thing"
- 4) **Alveolar:** Made with the tip of the tongue and the area just behind the top teeth

Example: "t" in "Tom"

- 5) **Post-Alveolar**: Made with the tip of the tongue and the are just behind where the "alveolar" consonants are pronounced Example: "sh" in "short"
- 6) **Retroflex:** Made with the tip of the tongue curved backward behind the alveolar ridge.

Examples: "r" in some dialects of American English

- 7) Palatal: Made with the tongue and the palate Examples: "y" in "yes"
- 8) **Velar:** Made with the back of the tongue and the velum (the back of the mouth).

Examples: "k" in "key"

- 9) **Uvular:** Made with the back of the tongue and the uvula.

 English Examples: No English examples. This is how the

 French "r" is usually made.
- 10) **Pharyngeal:** Made with the "root" (far back) of the tongue and the *pharynx*.

English Examples: None. Arabic is the most well know language with Pharyngeals.

11) **Glottal:** Made with the *glottis* (see definition in the glossary). In essence glottal consonants are made with the throat.

English Example: "h" in "hat"

b. Consonant manner

1) Plosive: Part of the vocal tract or mouth is closed, then air is released with a sharp burst

Examples: "p" in "pet," "t" in "Tom"

2) Nasal: Made with the back of the mouth closing up so that air passes through the nasal cavity

Examples: "n" in "nose," "m" in "me"

3) Trill: Made with part of the vocal tract or mouth fluttering rapidly.

Examples: None in standard English. The "trilled r" in Spanish and Italian.

4) Tap or Flap: The consonant is made with the tongue quickly "tapping" some part of the mouth.

Examples: The "t" in "better" in American English.

5) Fricative: Made by closing some part of the mouth or vocal tract and pushing air through a small opening.

Examples: The "f" in "free," the "s" in "silly"

6) Lateral Fricative: Made with the tip of the tongue placed against the top teeth, and creating a fricative consonant using the sides of the mouth. If you're confused about this, don't worry. It's used in very few languages.

7) Lateral Approximant: Made with the tip of the tongue placed against the top teeth, and air coming out the small space between the sides of the tongue and the top of the mouth.

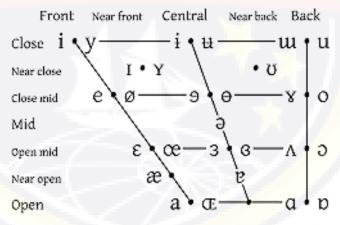
Example: "l" in "lake"

2. Production of Vowels

Vowels are more difficult to describe accurately than consonants. This is largely because there is no noticeable obstruction in the vocal tract during their production. It is not easy to feel exactly where vowels are made.

Table 2
Vowel Chart

VOWELS



Vowels at right & left of bullets are rounded & unrounded.

Vowels are typically voiced, but they have no place or manner of articulation. Traditionally, for the description of vowels a different set of concepts has been found necessary.

- a. i : The "ee" in "Fleece" in most varieties of English.
- b. I : The "i" in "Kit" in American & most British dialects
- c. e : The "e" in "Bet" in Australian English. Also, the first vowel in the diphthong "face" in American English.
- d. ε : The "e" in "Dress" in most American and British dialects.
- e. æ : The "a" in "Cat" in American English.
- f. a : "a" in Scottish English "father" or "a" in Italian and

 Spanish. The first sound in the American English dipthong "kite"
- g. ə : This is the lax, neutral sound in American and British "comma" or "afraid." It is called the Schwa.
- h. a : The "a" in "father" in most American and British accents.The "o" in "not" in American English
- i. v : The "o" in "lot" in most British dialects. The "ough" in "thought" in Standard American English
- j. o : The "ough" in "Thought" in Standard British and someAmerican accents.
- k. A : The "u" in "Strut" in American English.
- o : The "oa" in "Goat" in many Irish Accents. The "ough" in "thought" in many modern British accents. Also, the first vowel in the diphthong "goat" in American English.
- m. σ : The vowel in "Foot" or "could" in American English and
 Standard British English.
- n. u : The vowel in "goose" in American English.

All the vowels which have been described so far are monophthong vowels whose quality remains virtually unchangedd throughout their duration. In addition, to such vowels some languages also have diphthong vowels whose quality changed during their production. For example:

- a. cow, now, shout, out [ao]
- b. toy, boy, boil, coin [5i]
- c. wait, pay, weight, hay [ei]
- d. air, fare, wear, chair [eə]

3. Rhoticity

English pronunciation can be divided into two main accent groups: rothic pronounce the consonant "r" in words like "hard"; but non-rothic speakers don't. That is, rothic speakers pronounce "r" in all words, while non-rothic speakers pronounce "r" when followed by a vowel sound in the same phrase or prosodic unit.

Table 3

Rothic and Non-Rothic

Rhotic	Non-rothic
Red	Red
/.ied/	/ɪed/
Run	Run
/JAn/	/JAn/

Rhotic	Non-rothic
Car	Car
/ka:.I/	/ka:/
Door	Door
/L:cb/	/do:/

Source: New-dialect formation in nineteenth century Liverpool: a brief history of Scouse, Honeybone (2007)

All accents of English used to be fully rhotic, but occasional spelling variants in documents such as the Paston Letters point to r-dropping occurring in East Anglia at least by the 15th century. During the past 300 years or so, starting from London and the SE and spreading westwards and northwards, some English accents have become completely non-rhotic. Or almost. The last vestige of a dropped /r/ is a schwa-like glide in pronunciations like [mɔə] for more, but this is usually still counted as being non-rhotic (Swphonetics, 2013).

4. Lenition

Oxford dictionary define lenition as the process or result of weakened articulation of a consonant, causing the consonant to become voiced, spirantized, or lost. Lenition can involve such changed as voicing a voiceless consonant, causing a consonant to relax occlusion, to lose its place of articulation (a phenomenon called debuccalization, which turns a consonant into a glottal consonant like [h] or [?]), or even causing a

consonant to disappear entirely. The word lenition itself also means "softening" or "weakening".

Honeybone (2012:1) recognize the type of the changed as lenition include spirantization, approximantization, debuccalization, and voicing. Spirantization is the segment that turns into fricative sound, e.g. /p/ become /f/. Approximantization means become an approximant, e.g. /d/ become /ou/. Debuccalization is a process of losing oral articulation to become a glottal sound, either glottal stops /?/ or glottal fricative /h/. Voicing is a changed in laryngeal features such as /s/ become /z/, also can be describe as "fortis" become "lenis".

E. Lexical

According to Yandra and Refnaldi (2013: 188), language is a collection of phrases that contain lexical and each language has a different lexical with other languages. The lexical itself is related to the original meaning and is not affected by the context in the phrase. A difference is called a lexical difference, if the lexemes used to realize the same meaning do not come from the same language etymon (Pangaribuan 2018:7). In other word, lexical difference is the different word used to refers the same meaning, object or action. For example, British people use the word "flat" to refers to rented room, while Americans use the word "apartment". Lexical changed will give different word meanings in different dialects, the meaning of the word must be in line with diction that prevails in society as a standard language.

F. Contrastive analysis

Contrastive analysis is the study that examines the differences, similarities, and relationships that exist in two or more languages. Contrastive analysis is also named contrastive linguistic. Contrastive linguistic is a branch of linguistics that compares between two languages in align so the differences and similarities be obvious (Umyati, 2019:14). Alan Davies (2005:28) explained that Contrastive Analysis recognize the differences between Lx as the source language and Ly as the target language. The two languages data are described or analyzed, the result will be an explanation that describes the differences or similarities of the two languages.

Parera (1986: 25) says that: "Contrastative linguistics compares two contemporaneous languages. It can also be called synchronic comparative linguistics. Meanwhile, historical comparative linguistics compares two languages diachronically, from one era to another. This is in line with the opinion of Ridwan (1998:17) who said that, "Comparative analysis has differences and similarities with contrastive analysis. But both support each other. Comparative analysis refers to the similarity and source or origin of a particular language. Meanwhile, contrastive analysis refers to the correspondence between aspects in the languages being compared. The universality of linguistics is needed for comparative analysis but less needed for contrastive analysis but less needed for contrastive analysis."

Based on the opinion above, it can be concluded that contrastive analysis is the science of linguistics that examines the differences, dissimilarities and similarities found in the patterns of two or more languages that are not cognate. While comparative linguistics is the study of linguistics that examines similarities and differences by comparing two or more cognate languages.



CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

In this chapter, the researcher will explain the type of the research, source of the data, procedures of collecting data and data analysis.

A. Type of The Research

The type of research that used in this research is qualitative research. The researcher gained the result by doing observation in the place as the location of the research and also doing the literary research in contrasting the object of the research. The collected data from selected sources described its differences and similarities of language variety in phonological or lexical.

B. Source of The Data

Sources of the data in this study were taken from the informans in Mamuju District and Tabulahan District. There were 4 places chosen as the location to do this research. Two villages were selected in Tabulahan region, which are Tabulahan village and Saluleang village, because all of the people are speak Tabulahan and not influenced by another language around. Two villages where majority of the population are native speakers of the Mamuju language which were Mamunyu urban village and Karema urban village in Mamuju District.

Based on the criteria described by Ayatrohaedi (1979:43), the data was collected from person or people who have the appropriate criteria. Such as, the informants should be over 40 years old because they are considered to have

mastered the language or dialect but must be ensured that they not yet reached the level of senility, the informants should not have a high level of education to minimize outside influence in the information provided, and also the informants selected from the local area, or in other words, they were born and grown up in that area, so that the purity of information is obtained from good language and dialect skills.

Sources of data for comparison in this study was obtained from the previous studies of Scouse in English. The researches titled "New-Dialect Formation in Nineteenth Century Liverpool: A Brief History of Scouse" by Honeybone in 2007, and "Intelligibility of lesser-known dialects" by Baranová in 2015.

C. Method of Collecting Data

The data has been collected by using 4 instruments such as observation, interview, recording and listing. These instruments are aimed to get the reliable data from informants.

1. Observation

Observation have done before to choose the location of research.

Then, be done to find out the information to choose appropriate informants straight into the location.

2. Interview

The informants had been chosen in location to find who have competence based on criteria as informants. The informants were asked based on a list of words to obtain the data. The words list contains vocabulary referring to 200 list words taken from Morris Swadesh's list because it includes all aspects of activities, objects, and geographical conditions that are universal in nature.

3. Recording

The interview was recorded by using mobile phone recorder. The results of this recording were very helpful in the process of data analysis because it can be heard again to make the accurate phonological and lexical descriptions as the primary data.

4. Listing

Collecting data for Scouse in English refers from Honeybone's research, to get the feature of phonological differences, and Baranova's research to get the data of Scouse lexis.

D. Method of Analyzing data

After the data were collected, the researcher analyzed the data into three steps as follows:

1. The researcher analyzed the data by using Mahsun's theory in dialectology approach that stated "there are five elements as language differentiator, namely differences in phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, and lexical". In accordance with the scope of the research, the researcher identified the differences classification through making comparison based on phonology and lexical between Tabulahan with Mamuju language, and Scouse with English.

- 2. After the differences was identified, then the data was synchronized between Scouse in English and Tabulahan dialect in Mamuju language.
- 3. And then, the discussion of the research was explained the synchronic differences and similarities between Scouse in English and Tabulahan dialect in Mamuju Language using contrastive analysis theory by Parera (1986) that said "Contrastative linguistics compares two contemporaneous languages. It can also be called synchronic comparative linguistics"



CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter consists of two sub chapter that answers the statement of research problems in chapter one. The first is findings which presents the data and the second is discussions which explains all the data.

A. Findings

There were many differences that found between Mamuju Language and Tabulahan dialect, and Scouse and English either in phonological or lexical. The data were identified by listing then categorizing the differences.

1. The Phonological Differences in Language Variations Between Scouse And English vs Tabulahan Dialect and Mamuju Language

Thwas phonological analysis was carried out based on research conducted by Honeybone as a reference for pattering of the features in current Scouse or Liverpool English. Then, compared to Tabulahan Dialect in Mamuju Language to see how it goes in both language variation.

Honeybone (2007) put focus on four features of Liverpool English or Scouse form in order to investigate how they came to be part of the variety. It was in terms of a comparison of differences from Standard English or 'Received Pronunciation' (RP). They were TH Stopping, non-rhoticity, the absence of contrast between SQUARE and NURSE, and Lenition.

a. TH Stopping

Table 4

TH-Stopping				
RP	Scouse			
Tin	Tin			
/tɪn/	/tɪn/			
Thin	Thin			
/θɪn/	/tm/			
Den	Den			
/dɛn/	/dɛn/			
Then	Then			
/ðen/	/dɛn/			

Source: New-dialect formation in nineteenth century Liverpool: a brief history of Scouse, Honeybone (2007)

These differences were typically realized in English by contrasting alveolar stops with dental fricatives. The word "tin" sounded with alveolar stops "t" either in RP or Scouse. The word "thin" has a different pronunciation. In RP the "th" sounded with dental fricative " θ " but in Scouse it become alveolar stops "t". So, the words "tin" and "thin" were homophone in Scouse. The same case showed in word "den" and "then". The word "den" has a same pronunciation with alveolar stops "d". But

the word "then" pronounced with dental fricative "o" in RP and become alveolar stops "d" in Scouse.

In this category, the comparison with Tabulahan dialect in Mamuju language, there were no similar data found. Because, these both language variations have no dental fricative consonants sound such as " θ " or " δ ".

b. Non-rhoticity

Liverpool English was resolutely non-rhotic and yet there was no evidence of any rhoticity in any record of Liverpool English or Scouse, despite the fact that Liverpool was next to South Lancashire – one of the wereas where rhoticity has still not been lost (Honeybone, 2007:15). Here some example of Non-rhotic Scouse pronunciation from Swphonetics (2013):

Dark /da:k/

Door /do:/

Working /wɛ:kxen/

Costumer /kostome:/

Rhotic and non-rhotic accents were most commonly found in the English variation, while in general Indonesian language and the regional language variations, there was no category of rhotic and non-rhotic. The pronunciation of the consonant "r" in Mamuju language and Tabulahan dialect was the same as the pronunciation in the surrounding area, namely alveolar trill /r/ and alveolar tap / \underline{r} /.

c. The Absence of Contrast Between SQUARE and NURSE

Honeybone (2007:16) explained that a contrast between vowels in the SQUARE and NURSE lexical set was well established in most varieties of English. The realizations of these contrasts in varieties were for RP (Received Pronounciation) or British Standard English, Scottish Standard English, and for 'General Northern', the commonest forms in Northern Englishes as below:

	Square	Nurse.
RP	[e3]	[3:]
SSE	[er]	[vt]
GN	[ɛː]	[3ː]

In Liverpool English there was typically no such contrast – the words in these lexical sets have the same phonological category as their center of the stressed syllable or vocalic nuclei.

Square /skw
$$\varepsilon$$
:/ Nurse /n ε :s/
Fare /f ε :/ Fur /f ε :/

The vowel sound changed that occur in the words Squware and Nurse were as follows:

	RP		Scouse
Square	/skwɛə/	-	/skw ɛ :/
Nurse	/n3:s/		/n ɛ ːs/

As a comparison with Tabulahan dialect in Mamuju language, vowel contrast in the same word also occurs. A significant difference of vowel that found was sound of vowel "a", as follows:

	Mamuju Language	Tabulahan Dialect
(big) kayyang	/kajjaŋ/` —	/kæjjæŋ/
(child) ana'	/ana?/	/ænæ?/

Mamuju Language has only one sound for the letter "a" as the open front vowel /a/ or the common sound in general Indonesian. But in Tabulahan dialect, it was sounded in two ways such as the open front vowel /a/ and near-open front vowel /æ/ (refers to explainedation about vowel in page 24). The realization of the different sound "a" can be seen in example below:

	Mamuju Language	Tabulahan Dialect
(smart)	manarang	manahang
	/manaraŋ/	/manæhæŋ/

d. Lenition

The clearest lenition of Liverpool English was the spirantized which some plosives or stops were realized as fricatives in certain specific prosodic and melodic environments. The plosives which were emboldened in the words might be pronounced as follows.

Table 5
Lenition in Scouse

No	List of words	RP	Scouse	The Changed
1	Crime	/k.iaim/	/k x ra:m/	Adding velar fricative /x/ after velar plosive /k/
2	Expect	/ik'spekt/	/ɛxspɛxt/	Velar plosive /k become velar fricative /x/
3	Deep	/di:p/	/d <u>ð</u> i:ф/	a. Adding alveolar fricative /₫/ after alveolar plosive /d/ b. Changing bilabial plosive /p/ become bilabial fricative /ф/

No	List of words	RP	Scouse	The Changed
4	Time	/taim/	/t <u>@</u> a:m/	Adding alveolar fricative /@/ after alveolar plosive /t/
5	Night	/naɪt/	/naɪ <u>⊕</u> /	Alveolar plosive /t/ become alveolar fricative
6	Stop	/stop/	/stp ф /	Bilabial plosive /p/ become bilabial fricative /φ/
7	Lead	/li:d/	/li: <u>ð</u> /	Alveolar plosive /d/ become alveolar fricative /d/

Source: New-dialect formation in nineteenth century Liverpool: a brief history of Scouse, Honeybone (2007)

Lenition data found in Tabulahan dialect was the subtype lost or debuccalization, which was lose its place of oral articulation and realized as a glottal sound, i.e. glottal fricative /h/ or glottal stop or plosive /?/, or even the consonant disappear. As follow:

Table 6

Lenition in Tabulahan Dialect

No	List of words	Mamuju Language	Tabulahan Dialect	The Changed
1	Blood	Rara /rara/	Haha /haha/	Tap alveolar / <u>r</u> / become glottal fricative /h/
2	To blow	Burrus /burus/	Buhhu' /buhhu?/	a. Trill alveolar /r/ become glottal fricative /h/ b. Alveolar fricative /s/ become glottal plosive /?/
3	Dull	Makundung /makunduŋ/	Makundu /makundu/	Velar nasal "ŋ" disappears
4	Far	Karao /ka <u>r</u> ao/	Makahao /makahao/	Tap alveolar /r/ become glottal fricative /h/

No	List of words	Mamuju Language	Tabulahan Dialect	The Changed
5	Left (hand)	Kaeri /kaɛ <u>r</u> i/	Kaihi /kaihi/	Tap alveolar /r/ become glottal fricative /h/
6	Neck	Baroko /ba <u>r</u> oko/	Bahoko /bahoko/	Tap alveolar /r/ become glottal fricative /h/
7	Root	Uwaka' /uwaka?/	Uhaka' /uhaka?/	labial-velar approximant /w/ become glottal fricative /h/
8	Smart	Manarang /manaraŋ/	Manahang /manæhæŋ/	Tap alveolar /r/ become glottal fricative /h/
9	Smoke	Rambu / <u>r</u> ambu/	Hambu /hæmbu/	Tap alveolar /r/ become glottal fricative /h/

No	List of words	Mamuju Language	Tabulahan Dialect	The Changed
10	To suck	Surru' /suru?/	Suhhu'	Trill alveolar /r/ become glottal fricative /h/
11	There	Dijao /didzao/	Dihao /dihao/	Palatal affricate /dz/ become glottal fricative /h/
12	Thin	Manipwas /manipis/	Manipi' /manipi?/	Alveolar fricative /s/ become glottal plosive /?/
13	Think	Pikkir /pikkir/	Pihki' /pihki?/	Trill alveolar /r/ become glottal plosive /?/
14	Water	Uwai /uwai/	Uhai /uhai/	labial-velar approximant /w/ become glottal fricative /h/

No	List of words	Mamuju Language	Tabulahan Dialect	The Changed
15	When	Pirang /pi <u>r</u> aŋ/	Pihhang /pihhaŋ/	Trill alveolar /r/ become double glottal fricative /h/
16	Wide	Maloang /maloaŋ/	Maloa' /maloa?/	Velar nasal "ŋ" become glottal plosive /?/
17	Yellow	Mariri /ma <u>r</u> iri/	Mahihi /mahihi/	Tap alveolar /r/ become glottal fricative /h/

From four phonology features that compwered in this section, this research found two similarities, i.e. vowel contrast that occur in Squwere and Nurse in English, also found in words "ana" and "kayyang" in Mamuju language. Lenition data also found as similarities features in phonology but in different subtype of lenition. That was spirantized phenomenon in Scouse, which chance some plosive or stops into fricative. While, in Tabulahan happen the phenomenon subtype lost or debuccalization, which was lose its place of oral articulation and realized as a glottal sound, i.e. glottal fricative /h/ or glottal stop or plosive /?/, or even

the consonant disappear. In other side, TH-stopping and rhotic or non-rhotic chategory has no similar data found in Mamuju Language and Tabulahan dialect.

2. Lexical Differences in Language Variations Between Scouse and English vs Tabulahan Dialect and Mamuju Language

The data below was found through literary source from previous research done by Veronika Baranová in 2015 for scouse vocabulary.

Table 7

Lexical differences in Scouse and English

No	Scouse Lexical	English	Word Classes
1	Bevvy	an alcoholic drink (therefore Bevvied = drunk)	Noun
2	Bezzie	Best mate	Noun
3	Blind	an intensifier used both positively and negatively (as in "blind drunk" or "I couldn't hear a blind thing.")	Adverb
4	Billy no mates	a loner	Noun

No	Scouse Lexical	English	Word Classes
5	Bins	a pair of glasses	Noun
6	Butty	open sandwich, topped with jam, sugar, condensed milk, potato crisps and usually folded over roughly beforebeing eaten	Noun
7	Cod on	to pretend	Verb
8	Cop or Bizzies	Police (therefore Cop Shop means Police Station)	Noun
9	Dead	an intensifier of adjectives and adverbs as in "dead good" (also pronounced as /di:d/)	Adverb
10	Divvy	stupid person	Noun
11	Do one	go away	Verb
12	Get	term of abuse for a soft or stupid person	Verb

No	Scouse Lexical	English	Word Classes
13	Hard	tough, fearless	Adjective
14	Last	an adjective of intense disapproval (as in "The ale you get in London was last.")	Adjective
15	Lecky	Electricity	Noun
16	"Lent it off"	"borrowed it from"	Phrase
17	Ma	Mother	Noun
18	Moggy	a cat	Noun
19	Narked	Annoyed	Adjective
20	Nesh	unable to withstand the cold	Adjective
21	Nipper	a small boy	Noun
22	Old Fella	Dad	Noun
23	Ozzy	Hospital	Noun

No	Scouse Lexical	English	Word Classes
24	Skint	penniless, bankrupt	Adjective
25	Skran	Food	Noun
26	Wool	Non-scouse or someone who doesn's speak Scouse dialect	Noun
27	Yellow	a coward	Noun
	Belly		
28	Yocksie	a very thick Scouse dialect or accent	Noun

Source: Veronika Baranová (2015) Intelligibility of lesser-known dialects

Data on the table above, showed that the researcher specified lexical differences based on class of word. 17 data were difference in noun, 3 data in verb, 5 data in adjective, 2 data in adverb and 1 data was a phrase. Some lexical variation come from the prosodically conditioned morphological truncation process that made *ozzie* from hospital, *bezzie* from best mate, *lecky* from electric and *bevvy* from beverage (Honeybone, 2007:13).

From 200 words list used as a reference for data collection in Mamuju and Tabulahan, the lexical variation was frequently found than the phonological differences.

Table 8

Lexical differences in Mamuju language and Tabulahan dialect

]	No	List of Words	Mamuju	Tabulahan	Word classes
7	29	All	Iyanasanna	Ingkanna Angkanna	Determiner
	30	And	Ampe'	Anna	Conjunction
	31	Ashes	Abu	Taihapu	Noun
	32	Bad	Diassa' Kadake Salatuo	Tahuhhu'	Adjective
3	33	Bark (Tree)	Lollo'	Koli'	Noun
	34	Because	Ampu' Karna	Aka'	Conjunction
	35	Belly	Ara'	Kompeng	Noun
	36	Bird	Manu'-Manu'	Dansi	Noun
	37	To Bite	Bokko	Keki'	Verb

No	List of Words	Mamuju	Tabulahan	Word classes
38	Breath	Nappas Nyama Inyama	Penanaha	Noun
39	Cloud	Taianging Nahang	Salehu'	Noun
40	To Come	Su'be	Sule	Verb
41	To Count	Rekeng	Ihsa'	Verb
42	To Cut (With Knife)	Polong	Bose'	Verb
43	Day (Not Night)	Allo	Mabaya	Noun
44	To Dig	Mangkau Mikau Manggaroang	Mambombeng Dikeke	Verb
45	Dirty	Sarupu'	Karahko'	Adjective

No	List of Words	Mamuju	Tabulahan	Word classes
46	Dog	Pinaka	Asu	Noun
47	Dry	Marogang	Mabangi	Adjective
48	Dust	Tara'bu Karia'mus Abu	Sehu'-Sehu' Ahang Tampo	Noun
49	Egg	Tallo'	Lehsu'	Noun
50	To Fall (Drop)	Lamme'	Manaho Dondong	Verb
51	Fat	Bote' Mabassar	Malompo	Adjective
52	Father	Pua' Ambe	Papa' Ambe	Noun
53	To Fear	Marakka'	Mahea'	Verb
54	Few	Senjo'	Saidi'	Adjective
55	To Fight	Sikalla	Siba'di	Verb

No	List of Words	Mamuju	Tabulahan	Word classes
56	To Float	Ramba'	Mahang	Verb
57	To Flow	Jalang Solong	Loleng	Verb
58	To Fly	Merri'ba	Lumolo'	Verb
59	Fog	Ambung	Salibumbung	Noun
60	Four	Pata'	Uhpa'	Numeral
61	Good	Macoa	Mahasa Mapia Maleke	Adjective
62	Green	Ijo Makudahha'	Mamata-Mata	Adjective
63	Guts	Usus	Taihinni'	Noun
64	Hand	Lima	Teyye	Noun
65	To Hear	Rangngo	Hingngi	Verb

No	List of Words	Mamuju	Tabulahan	Word classes
66	Heart (organ)	Ate Jantung	Bua	Noun
67	Heavy	Mabea'	Matingngi	Adjective
68	To Hit	Geso'	Bamba Kaka'	Verb
69	Hold (In Hand)	Kanti	Toke'i	Verb
70	How?	Umbatente	Umbanoa	Question word
71	To Hunt (Game)	Mallole'	Moasu	Verb
72	I	Yaku'	Kodi'	Pronoun
73	To Laugh	Midama	Metaha	Verb
74	Leaf	Daung	Lala'	Noun
75	Long	Malangka'	Kalambe'	Adjective

No	List of Words	Mamuju	Tabulahan	Word classes
76	Many	Maso'o	Mai'di	Determiner
77	Meat (Flesh)	Daging Bale	Bale	Noun
78	Mouth	Nganga	Sua	Noun
79	Name	Ngarang	Sanga	Noun
80	Near	Madamping	Marungku'	Preposition
81	New	Boo	Bakahu	Adjective
82	Not	U'de	Dai	Adverb
83	One	Setto	Mesa	Numeral
84	Other	Laeng	Senga'	Adjective
85	Person	Todapa'	Tau	Noun
86	To Play	Sambule	Mangino	Verb
87	To Pull	Beso	Hui'	Verb
88	To Push	Juju	Buhsu'	Verb

No	List of Words	Mamuju	Tabulahan	Word classes
89	Rain	Urang	Kene'	Noun
90	Right (Correct)	Tongang	Tahpa'	Adjective
91	River	Lelo'	Salu Uhai Bone	Noun
92	Rope	Gulang Belajang	Kondaling	Noun
93	Rub	Goso' Marroros Sosso'	Suhsu'	Verb
94	Sand	Bone Bunging	Bunging	Noun
95	Say	Maccaka'	Ma'kara	Verb
96	Scratch (Itch)	Kau'	Kaye'	Verb

No	List of Words	Mamuju	Tabulahan	Word classes
97	Sharp (Knife)	Matadang	Pahela	Adjective
98	Short	Maponji'	Kapo'de	Adjective
99	To Sing	Makkelong	Menani	Verb
100	To Sit	Mincoko	Mohko'	Verb
101	Sky	Langi' Namang Nabang	Langi'	Noun
102	To Sleep	Matindo	Hahe	Verb
103	Small	Maranni'	Saohko' Mahempo	Adjective
104	Smooth	Alus	Mahallo'	Adjective
105	To Stab (Or Stick)	Gayang	Tobo'	Verb
106	To Stand	Mengkarro	Ke'de'	Verb

No	List of Words	Mamuju	Tabulahan	Word classes
107	Stick (Of Wood)	Tongka' Tekkeng Dokkeng	Kuntung	Noun
108	Straight	Madoro	Maroho	Adverb
109	To Swell	Kambang	Bangka'	Verb
110	To Swim	Molangi	Mengkaohe'	Verb
111	Tail	Lelo'	Oki	Noun
112	That	Itte	Indo'o	Determiner
113	There	Ditte Dijao	Diting Dihao Dono	Adverb
114	They	Ianasang	Ii	Pronoun
115	This	Inne	Inde'e	Determiner
116	Thou (You)	Ingko	Dio	Pronoun
117	To Throw	Laccar	Saleba'	Verb

No	List of Words	Mamuju	Tabulahan	Word classes
118	To Tie	Sea'	Sangke'	Verb
119	Tooth	Ringnge	Isi	Noun
120	To Turn (Veer)	Mimbali'	Sumule	Verb
121	To Walk	Millampa	Mellao	Verb
122	Warm (Weather)	Mapanas	Maluhsu	Adjective
123	We	Ingkita	Kami'	Pronoun
124	Wet	Base	Bona'	Adjective
125	Where?	Dumba	Umba Naonge	Question word
126	White	Mapute	Mabusa	Adjective
127	Who?	Sema	Menna	Question word
128	Wide	Maloang	Malua'	Adjective

No	List of Words	Mamuju	Tabulahan	Word classes
129	Wind (Breeze)	Anging Baha'	Pepahi	Noun
130	Wipe	Diapus	Dikosai Disapui	Verb
131	With	Ampe'	Sibaha	Preposition
132	Woods	Loppo	Pangngala'	Noun
133	Worm	Ulli' Galla-Gallang Kalindoro	Karoro Kadoro	Noun
134	Ye (You Plural)	Ingkamia'	Dioa'	Pronoun

The data in table 8 showed there were 27 data of lexical variation which used two or even three terms refer to one word.

a. Data 29: there were terms "ingkanna" and "angkanna" in Tabulahan dialect which mean "all", therefore in Mamuju language used term "iyanasanna".

- b. Data 32: word "bad" in Mamuju language used three terms "diassa'", "kadake", and "salatuo". "diassa'" mean bad in appearance, "kadake" means bad and need to be repair or improve, and "salatuo" mean something created but have a bad result. While in Tabulahan dialect used term "tahuhhu".
- c. **Data 34:** word "because" in Mamuju language was called "ampu" and "karna". In Tabulahan, it called "aka".
- d. **Data 38:** in Mamuju language, the word "breath" was called "nyama" or "inyama" and "nappas". But in Tabulahan it was called "penanaha".
- e. **Data 39:** the "cloud" in Mamuju language mostly known as term "taianging" but people near the border with mountainous wereas used term "nahang". Whilst, in Tabulahan it was known as "salehu".
- f. **Data 44:** the word "dig" in Mamuju language used terms "mangkau" or "mikau" and "manggaroang" which used by people near the border with mountainous wereas. In Tabulahan used "mambombeng" for deeply digging and "dikeke" for superficial digging.
- g. Data 48: the word "dust" in Mamuju used terms "karia'mus", "tara'bu" and "abu". Meanwhile, in Tabulahan used terms "ahang tampo" and "sehu'-sehu'".
- h. Data 50: the word "fall (drop)" has two terms in Tabulahan dialect,"manaho" used for fall down accidentally and "dondong" used for fall

- naturally (e.g. Tears drop or coconut fall from the tree). But in Mamuju language used term "lamme".
- i. Data 51: the word "fat" has two different ways to say, in politely it called "mabassar" but in informal situation it called "bote". In Tabulahan, it was called as "malompo".
- j. Data 52: the word "father" in Tabulahan known intimately as "papa" and commonly as "ambe". In Mamuju language, it called "ambe" and "pua". Meanwhile, "pua" means "uncle" in Tabulahan.
- k. Data 57: the word "flow" was called "solong" and "jalang" in Mamuju, but in Tabulahan was called "loleng".
- Data 61: the word "good" in Mamuju language used a term "macoa".
 In Tabulahan used terms "mahasa" for a good condition, "mapia" for describe something good after repaired, and "maleke" for good in appearance.
- m. Data 62: the word "green" in Mamuju language was "makudahha"
 but frequently used term "ijo". In Tabulahan, it was used term "mamata-mata".
- n. **Data 66:** the variation refers to word "heart (organ)" in Mamuju used the same term with "liver" namely "ate", but often used the absorption word "jantung" to differentiate them. While in Tabulahan, it was used term "bua".
- o. **Data 68:** the word "hit" in Mamuju language known as "geso". In Tabulahan language, it known as "kaka" and "bamba" (punch).

- p. Data 77: Mamuju language used terms "daging" and "bale" refer to the word "meat". While, Tabulahan dialect used term "bale".
- q. **Data 91:** the word "river" in Mamuju was known as "lelo" but in Tabulahan was known as "salu uhai" and "bone".
- r. Data 92: for the word "rope" was used terms "gulang" and "belajang" in Mamuju language. In Tabulahan dialect, used term "kondaling".
- s. Data 93: the word "rub" in Mamuju language was used three terms which were "goso", marroros", and "sosso". While, in Tabulahan dialect, it was used term "suhsu".
- t. **Data 94:** the word "sand" in Mamuju language commonly known as "bone", but the people in near the border with mountainous wereas used the same term with Tabulahan dialect namely "bunging".
- u. Data 101: the word "sky" in Mamuju has three terms such as "namang", "nabang" and "langi". In Tabulahan also used term "langi".
- v. Data 103: the word "small" in Mamuju language was called "maranni". In Tabulahan dialect, it called "saohko" and also "mahempo".
- w. Data 107: the terms "tongka". "dokkeng" and "tekkeng" refer to the word "stick" was used in Mamuju. But in Tabulahan, the term was "kuntung".
- x. **Data 113:** in Mamuju language, the word "there" was called "ditte" to explained that was within reach or still nearby and "dijao" for

something far or out there. In Tabulahan dialect, "diting" explained that was within reach or still nearby, "dihao" for something far or out there and another community in Tabulahan used "dono" as "diting".

- y. **Data 129:** the word "wind" mostly known as "anging" than the origin word "baha" in Mamuju language. In Tabulahan, it was known as "pepahi".
- z. Data 130: the word "wipe" in Mamuju language used term "diapus" and in Tabulahan dialect used terms "dikosai" or "disapui".
- aa. Data 133: the word "worm" in Mamuju language called "kalindoro", "galla-gallang" or "ulli". In Tabulahan, it called "karoro" or "kadoro".

There were also some lexical variation occur because of language absorption from Indonesian. Such as word "because" in Mamuju language was used "karna" as the absorption from Indonesian "kwerena". In Mamuju language, the word "breath" also have absorption from "napas" become "nappas". The word "dust" in Mamuju was also known as "abu" which was absorbed from Indonesian. The word "flow", in Mamuju, was also called "jalang" which was absorbted from word "jalan" but spoken in mostly accent in Sulawesi that changed consonant "n" in the end of the word into "ng" or velar nasal "ŋ". The word "green" in Mamuju language used term "ijo" which was absorption from "hijau". The variation refers to word "sky" in Mamuju and Tabulahan used the same term "langi", which was absorbted from the word "langit". The word "stick" also used term that

absorbted the word "tongkat" become "tongka". Last, the word "wind" known as "anging" in Mamuju language, that was absorbted from "angin".

B. Discussion

The data findings above showed that there were some differences and similarities between the Scouse in English and Tabulahan dialect in Mamuju language.

1. Phonological

a. TH-Stopping

TH-Stopping has been appeared for several variety of English, but for a few dialects in Britain (Honeybone. 2007:14). The researcher explained the contrast which exists in English as a Receive Pronounciation (RP) and Scouse. For example, the pronunciation between *tin* and *thin*, *den* and *then* (see in **table 4**). These contrasts were realized appear in lot of accents in English by contrasting alveolar stop with dental fricatives. It has been described in many varieties of English but at some dialect from Britain 'TH" stop can be found, it happened in Scouse. "TH" can be disappeared in Liverpool accent. Commonly, in English sounding the "TH" as dental fricative /θ/ and /ð/. But, in Scouse it realized as alveolar stops or plosive /t/ and /d/ as described data in **table 4**.

As a new dialect that was formed in nineteenth century, the THstopping phenomenon occurs because of the dialect mixture at that point. There may have been some influence in TH stopping from some English or Scottish varieties, and from the speech of the inhabitants of Liverpool with non-European origins into the nineteenth century Liverpool dialect mix, the most obvious varieties that present speakers with this feature were those from Southern Ireland (Honeybone, 2007:15).

On the contrary, there was no existence of consonant series "TH" and also sound of dental fricative $/\theta$ / and $/\underline{\delta}$ / in Tabulahan dialect and Mamuju language phonology. Several regional languages around Mamuju and Tabulahan also show the same thing, that they do not have words with the consonant series "TH".

b. Non-Rhoticity

The term rhoticity refers broadly to the sound of the "r" family. Linguists commonly made distinctions between *rhotic* and *non-rhotic* dialects or accents. Rhotic or non-rhotic category commonly found in variety of English dialects, but not in Mamuju language and Tabulahan dialect. Rhotic accents mostly found in American English, Scottish and Irish. While, Australian English, British and some accents in England were non-rhotic (Trudgill, 2003:112). Scouse or Liverpool English was categorized as non-rhotic. As the data finding in **page 36** explained non-rhotic Scouse pronunciation.

In English, sound for letter "r" (r-dropping) realized as approximant $/\underline{\mathbf{r}}$. Only few accent or dialect using tap alveolar $/\underline{\mathbf{r}}$ / or trill alveolar $/\underline{\mathbf{r}}$ /. Scouse was the one of dialect that also using tap alveolar $/\underline{\mathbf{r}}$ /

showed from pronunciation of "crime" /kxra:m/. Meanwhile, in Mamuju language and Tabulahan dialect, there was no sound for approximant $\underline{\underline{r}}$, but tap alveolar $\underline{\underline{r}}$ and trill alveolar $\underline{\underline{r}}$.

c. Vowel

Vowel contrast between SQUARE and NURSE that absence in Scouse changed / ϵ ə/ in SQUARE /skw ϵ ə/ into / ϵ :/ and the pronunciation become /skw ϵ :/. The word NURSE /n3:s/ changed /3:/ into / ϵ :/ and the pronunciation become /n ϵ :s/. Focusing in this case, this would allow for a single phonological category which could be realized as [ϵ : \sim 3:] to emerge. If this was right, then / ϵ :/ must have emerged as the realization of choice in Liverpool English since koineisation although /3:/ was still available as a variant (Honeybone. 2007:18).

The same category also appeared in Tabulahan dialect and Mamuju language. The data finding in **page 38** showed that Tabulahan dialect realized the vowel "a" as open front vowel /a/ and near-open front vowel /æ/. But, in Mamuju language there was no sound for near-open front vowel /æ/. This accent became characteristic of Tabulahan dialect because it was frequently heard in Tabulahan's vocabulary.

d. Lenition

Honeybone (2007:20) gave an explanation that Lenition in Scouse was unique among the English varieties around it. Scattered spirantizations and affrications were known in other English varieties

but no one indicated more like Scouse. Data in **table 5** showed the spirantized words which were some plosives or stops were realized as fricatives Although, it could not be confidently claimed that it was part of Liverpool English from the moment it was formed.

In the same way, lenition in Tabulahan had been around for a long time and being the clear characteristic to knowing this dialect. The data finding in **table 6** explained the most frequent changes emerged in this dialect was debuccalization that changed some of consonant alveolar trill /r/ or alveolar tap /r become glottal fricative /h/.

2. Lexical

Lexical changes gave different meanings of words in dialects. The data in **table 7** showed that different lexical variation of Scouse and English occurs in several categories of word classes, such as noun, verb, adverb and adjective. Meanwhile, in **table 8** showed that different lexical variation of Tabulahan dialect and Mamuju language occurs in more word classes such as noun, verb, adverb, adjective, pronoun, preposition, determiner, conjunction, numeral and question words.

From the data findings, the lexical differences in Scouse and English have the most variation in the noun class, while the least in the adverb class. Meanwhile, the difference between Tabulahan and Mamuju also had the most lexical variation in the noun class, while the least in the preposition class. From these two dialects, the occurrence of lexical variations for the noun word class appeared to be the most dominant. The research revealed

that lexical variations in Tabulahan dialect and Mamuju language was more diverse than Scouse in English.

The results of the phonological and lexical discussion showed that some features have similarities and also differences. In phonological features that has been analyzed between Scouse in English and Tabulahan Dialect in Mamuju language, the similarities occur in both dialect that has the phenomenon of Vowel Changed and Lenition. The differences found in TH-stopping and Rhotic and Non-Rhotic category which only occur in Scouse but not in Tabulahan Dialect. In lexical, variation of word classes such as noun, verb, adverb, and adjective were found in both dialects. While, variation of the other word classes such as pronoun, preposition, determiner, conjunction, numeral and question words only found in Tabulahan Dialect.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

This chapter aimed to explain the conclusions and suggestion of this research.

A. Conclusion

This research pointed the result out from four phonological features that had been compared, there were two similarity features emerged in both dialect such as Vowel Changed, and Lenition. There was no different data found in Tabulahan dialect in Mamuju language for another two features such as TH-Stopping and Rhotic or non-rhotic category. While, in Scouse TH-Stopping appears different from English and this dialect was classified as non-rhotic.

Similarities of lexical variation from Scouse in English and Tabulahan dialect in Mamuju language occurs in word classes noun, verb, adverb, and adjective. The differences were found in pronoun, preposition, determiner, conjunction, numeral and question words.

B. Suggestion

The researcher suggests to the readers that put a concern in linguistics research to do the further research on dialectology, or about variation of languages in Indonesia. Indonesia has a lot of local languages that was interesting to study its diversity from many aspects of linguistic. Studying local languages will add the literature and research archives about the richness of our country's languages.

This research does not explained more about linguistics differentiator aspect such as morphology, semantic, and syntactic but focusing on phonology and lexical. So, the researcher hopes there were further studies about language variations in Mamuju, Tabulahan and surrounding area which also research about the historical linkage, structure and usage of the language in society.



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Appendix 1

List Of Informan

No	Name	Gender	Age
1	Y D	Male	52 Years Old
2	PP	Male	68 Years Old
3	I A	Female	42 Years Old
4	R	Female	55 Years Old
5	M R	Male	52 Years Old
6	RS	Male	41 Years Old
7	A	Male	48 Years Old
8	I	Female	60 Years Old

Appendix 2

Data for Mamuju language and Tabulahan dialect based on 200 Swadesh words list

	English		Tabulahan dialect			Mamuj <mark>u lang</mark> uage			
		Y D	P P	I A	R	M R	RS	A	I
1	All	ingkanna	angkanna	ingkanna	ingkanna	iyanasanna	iyanasanna	iyanasanna	iyanasang
2	And	anna	anna	anna	anna	ampe'	ampe'	ampe'	ampe'
3	Animal	olo'-olo'	olo'-olo'	olo'-olo'	olo'-olo'	olo'-olo'	olo'-olo'	olo'-olo'	olo'-olo'
4	Ashes	taihapu	taihapu	taihapu	taihapu	abu	abu	abu	abu
5	At	di	di	di	di	di	di	di	di
6	Back	kebo'	kebo'	kebo'	kebo'	kebo'	kebo'	kebo'	kebo'
7	Bad	tahuhhu'	tahuhhu'	tahuhhu'	tahuhhu'	diassa'	kadake	kadake	salatuo
8	Bark (Tree)	koli'	koli'	koli'	koli'	lollo'	lollo'	lollo'	lollo'
9	Because	aka'	aka'	aka'	aka'	ampu'	karna	ampu'	ampu'
10	Belly	kompeng	kompeng	kompeng	kompeng	ara'	ara'	ara'	ara'
11	Big	kayyang	kayyang	kayyang	kayyang	kayyang	kayyang	kayyang	kayyang
12	Bird	dansi	dansi	dansi	dansi	manu'-manu'	manu'-manu'	manu'-manu'	manu'-manu'
13	To Bite	keki'	keki'	keki'	keki'	bokko	bokko	bokko	bokko
14	Black	maloteng	maloteng	maloteng	maloteng	malotong	malotong	malotong	malotong
15	Blood	haha	haha	haha	haha	rara	rara	rara	rara
16	To Blow (Wind)	tuhe/buhhu'	tuhe	tuhe	tuhe/buhhu	bussu'	burrus	burrus	burrus
17	Bone	buku	buku	buku	buku	buku	buku	buku	buku
18	To Breathe	penanaha	penanaha	penanaha	penanaha	nappas	nyama	nyama	inyama
19	To Burn (Intrans.)	tunu	tunu	tunu	tunu	tunu	tunu	tunu	tunu
20	Child (Young)	ana'	ana'	ana'	ana'	ana'	ana'	ana'	ana'
21	Cloud	salehu'	salehu'	salehu'	salehu'	taianging	awang/taiangin	g	nahang
22	Cold (Weather)	madinging	madinging	madinging	madinging	madinging	madinging	madinging	madinging
23	To Come	sule	sule	sule	sule	su'be	su'be	su'be	su'be
24	To Count	ihsa'	ihsa'	ihsa'	ihsa'	rekeng	rekeng	rekeng	rekeng
25	To Cut (With Knife)	bose'	bose'	bose'	bose'	polong	polong	polong	polong
26	Day (Not Night)	mabaya	mabaya	mabaya	mabaya	allo	allo	allo	allo
27	To Die	mate	mate	mate	mate	mate	mate	mate	mate
28	To Dig	mabombeng	dikeke	mabombeng	mabombeng	mangkau	mangkau	mikau	manggaroang

29	Dirty	karahko'	karahko'	karahko'	karahko'	sarupu'	sarupu'	sarupu'	sarupu'
30	Dog	asu	asu	asu	asu	<mark>pinaka</mark>	pinaka	pinaka	pinaka
31	To Drink	menu'	menu'	menu'	menu'	me-enung	me-enung	me-enung	me-enung
32	Dry (Substance)	mabangi	mabangi	mabangi	mabangi	marogang	marogang	marogang	marogang
33	Dull (Knife)	makundu	makundu	makundu	makundu	makundung	makundung	makundung	makundung
34	Dust	sehu'- <mark>sehu'</mark>	ahang tampo	ahang tampo	ahang tampo	tara'bu	karia'mus	abu	abu
	Ear	talinga	talinga	talinga	talinga	talinga	talinga	talinga	talinga
36	Earth (Soil)	tampo	tampo	tampo	tampo	tampo	tampo	tampo	tampo
37	To Eat	mande	mande	mande	mande	kumande	kumande	kumande	kumande
38	Egg	lehsu'	lehsu'	lehsu'	lehsu'	tallo'	tallo'	tallo'	tallo'
	Eye	mata	mata	mata	mata	mata	mata	mata	mata
40	To Fall (Drop)	manaho	manaho	dondong/manaho	manaho	lamme'	lamme'	lamme'	lamme'
41	Far	makahao	makaha <mark>o</mark>	makah <mark>ao</mark>	makahao	karao	karao	karao	karao
42	Fat (Substance)	malompo	malompo	malompo	malompo	bote'	mabassar	bote'	bote'
43	Father	papa'	ambe	ambe	ambe	pua'	pua'	pua'	ambe
44	To Fear	mahea'	mahea'	mahea'	mahea'	marakka'	marakka'	marakka'	marakka'
45	Feather (Large)	bulu	bulu	bulu	bulu	bulu	bulu	bulu	bulu
46	Few	saidi'	saidi'	saidi'	saidi'	senjo'	senjo'	senjo'	senjo'
47	To Fight	siba'di	siba'di	siba'di	siba'di	sikalla	sikalla	sikalla	sikalla
	Fire	api	api	api	api	api	api	api	api
49	Fish	bau	bau	bau	bau	bau	bau	bau	bau
50	Five	lima	lima	lima	lima	lima	lima	lima	lima
51	To Float	mahang	mahang	mahang	mahang	ramba'	ramba'	ramba'	ramba'
52	To Flow	loleng	loleng	loleng	loleng	jalang	solong	jalang	jalang
53	Flower	bunga	bunga	bunga	bunga	bunga	bunga	bunga	bunga
54	To Fly	lumolo'	lumolo'	lumolo'	lumolo'	merri'ba	merri'ba	merri'ba	merri'ba
55	Fog	salibumbung	salibumbung	salibumbung	salibumbung	ambung	ambung	ambung	ambung
56	Foot	bihti'	bihti'	bihti'	bihti'	bitti'	bitti'	bitti'	bitti'
57	Four	uhpa'	uhpa'	uhpa'	uhpa'	pata'	pata'	pata'	pata'
58	To Freeze	-	-		-	-		-	-
	Fruit	boa	boa	boa	boa	bua	bua	bua	bua
60	To Give	mentando	mambea	mambea	mentando/mambea	mambeang	mambei	mambei	mebei

61	Good	mahasa	mahasa	mahasa	mahasa	macoa	macoa	macoa	macoa
62	Grass	lohpo	lohpo	lohpo	lohpo	loppo	loppo	loppo	galu-galu
63	Green	mamata-mata	mamata	mamata	mamata	ijo	ijo	ijo	makudahha'
64	Guts	taihinni'	taihinni'	taihinni'	taihinni'	usus	usus	usus	usus
65	Hair	beluha'	beluha'	beluha'	beluha'	belua'	belua'	belua'	belua'
66	Hand	teyye	teyye	teyye	teyye	lima	lima	lima	lima
67	He	dia	dia	dia	dia	dia	dia	dia	dia
68	Head	ba'a'	ba'a'	ba'a'	ba'a'	a'ba'	a'ba'	a'ba'	a'ba'
69	To Hear	hingngi	hingngi	hingngi	hingngi	rangngo	rangngo	rangngo	rangngo
70	Heart	bua	bua	bua	bua	ate	ate	ate	jantung
71	Heavy	matingngi	matingngi	matingngi	matingngi	mabea'	mabea'	mabea'	mabea'
72	Here	dinne	dinne	dinne	dinne	dini	dini	dini	dini
73	To Hit	bamba	kaka'	kaka'	kaka'	geso'	geso'	geso'	geso'
74	Hold (In Hand)	toke'i	toke'i	toke'i	toke'i	kanti	kanti	kanti	kanti
75	How?	umbanoa	umbanoa	<mark>um</mark> ban <mark>oa</mark>	umbanoa	umbatente	umbatente	umbatente	umbatente
76	To Hunt (Game)	moasu	moasu	moasu	mokalane/moasu	-	mallolle'	mallolle'	mallolle'
77	Husband	muane	muane	muane	muane	muane	muane	muane	muane
78	I	kodi'	kodi'	kodi'	kodi'	yaku'	yaku'	yaku'	yaku'
79	Ice	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
80	If	ponna	ponna	ponna	ponna	ampunna	ampunna	ampunna	ampunna
81	In	yaling	yaling	yaling	yaling	jaling	jaling	jaling	jaling
82	To Kill	patei	patei	patei	patei	patei	patei	patei	patei
83	Know (Facts)	insang	insang	insang	insang	insang	insang	insang	insang
84	Lake	kalantanang	le'bo'	le'bo'	le'bo'	le'bo'	le'bo'	le'bo'	le'bo'
85	To Laugh	metaha	metaha	metaha	metaha	midama	midama	midama	midama
86	Leaf	lala'	lala'	lala'	lala'	daung	daung	daung	daung
87	Left (Hand)	kaihi	kaihi	kaihi	kaihi	kaeri	kaeri	kaeri	kairi
88	Leg	bihti'	bihti'	bihti'	bihti'	bitti'	bitti'	bitti'	bitti'
89	To Lie	matindo-tindo	ma'lole'-lole'	matindo-tindo	matindo-tindo	matindo-tindo	melloli'	melloli'	melloli'
90	Live	tuho	tuho	tuho	tuho	tuo	tuo	tuo	tuo
91	Liver	ate	ate	ate	ate	ate	ate	ate	ate
92	Long	kalambe'	kalambe'	kalambe'	kalambe'	malangka'	malangka'	malangka'	malangka'

93	Louse	kutu	kutu	kutu	kutu	kutu	kutu	kutu	kutu
94	Man (Male)	muane	muane	muane	muane	tommuane	tommuane	tommuane	tommuane
95	Many	mai'di	mai'di	mai'di	mai'di	maso'o	maso'o	maso'o	maso'o
96	Meat (Flesh)	bale	bale	bale	bale	daging	daging	bale	bale
97	Mother	mama'	indo	indo	indo	indo'	indo'	indo'	mama'
98	Mountain	tanete	tanete	tanete	tanete	tanete	tanete	tanete	tanete
99	Mouth	sua	sua	sua	sua	nganga	nganga	nganga	nganga
100	Name	sanga	sanga	sanga	sanga	ngarang	ngarang	ngarang	ngarang
101	Narrow	sihpi'	sihpi'	sihpi'	sihpi'	sippi'	sippi'	sippi'	sippi'
102	Near	marungku'	marungku'	marungku'	marungku'	madamping	madamping	madamping	madamping
103	Neck	bahoko	bahoko	bahoko	bahoko	baroko	baroko	baroko	baroko
104	New	bakahu	bakahu	bakahu	bakahu	baru	boo	boo	boo
105	Night	bengi	bengi	bengi	bengi	bongi	bongi	bongi	bongi
106	Nose	purung	purung	purung	purung	pudung	pudung	pudung	pudung
107	Not	dai	dai	dai	dai	u'de	u'de	u'de	u'de
108	Old	matua	matua	matua	matua	matua	matua	matua	matua
109	One	mesa	mesa	mesa	mesa	setto	setto	setto	setto
110	Other	senga'	senga'	senga'	senga'	laeng	laeng	laeng	laeng
111	Person	tau	tau	tau	tau	todapa'	todapa'	todapa'	todapa'
112	To Play	mangino	mangino	mangino	mangino	sambule	sambule	sambule	sambule
113	To Pull	hui'	hui'	hui'	hui'	beso	beso	beso	beso
114	To Push	buhsu'	buhsu'	buhsu'	buhsu'	juju	juju	juju	<mark>juj</mark> u
115	To Rain	kene'	kene'	kene'	kene'	urang	urang	urang	urang
116	Red	malea	malea	malea	malea/pahalang	mamea	mamea	mamea	mamea
117	Right (Correct)	tahpa'	tahpa'	tahpa'	tahpa'	tongang	tongang	tongang	tongang
118	Right (Hand)	kuanang	kuanang	kuanang	kuanang	kanang	kanang	kanang	kanang
119	River	salu uhai/ bone	salu uhai	salu uhai	salu uhai	lelo'	lelo'	lelo'	lelo'
120	Road	lalang	lalang	lalang	lalang	lalang	lalang	lalang	lalang
121	Root	uhaka'	<mark>uh</mark> aka'	uhaka'	uhaka'	waka'	waka'	waka'	kahoka'
122	Rope	kondaling	kondaling -	kondaling	kondaling	gulang	belajang	belajang	belajang
	Rotten (Log)	bosi	bosi	bosi	bosi	bosi	bosi	bosi	bosi
124	Rub	suhsu'	suhsu'	suhsu'	suhsu'	goso'	marroros	roros	sosso'

125	Salt	sia							
	Sand	bunging	bunging	bunging	bunging	bone	bone	bone	bunging
127		ma'kara	motae	ma'kara	ma'kara	maccaka'	maccaka'	maccaka'	maccaka'
	Scratch (Itch)	kaye'	kaye'	kaye'	kaye'	kau'	kau'	kau'	kau'
	Sea (Ocean)	le'bo'							
	To See	ita/meita	ita/meita	ita/meita	ita/meita	ita/mengkita	ita/mengkita	ita/mengkita	ita/mengkita
	Seed	banne/pinamula		lisa'/banne	pamulaang/banne	banne	banne	banne'	bibi'/banne
	To Sew	dai'/mandai'	dai'/mandai'	dai'/mandai'	dai'/mandai'	mandai'	mandai'	mandai'	mandai'
	Sharp (Knife)	pahela	pahela	pahela	pahela	matadang	matadang	matadang	matadang
	Short	kapo'de	kapo'de	kapo'de	kapo'de	maponji'	maponji'	maponji'	maponji'
135	To Sing	menani	menani	menani	menani	makkelong	makkelong	makkelong	makkelong
	To Sit	mohko'	mohko'	mohko'	mohko'	mincoko	mincoko	mincoko	mincoko
137	Skin (Of Person)	lollo'	koli'	lollo'	lollo'	lollo'	lollo'	lollo'	lollo'
138		langi'	langi'	langi'	langi'	namang	langi'	namang	nabang
	To Sleep	hahe	hahe	hahe	hahe	matindo	matindo	matindo	matindo
140	Small	saohko'	saohko'	saohko'	mahempo	maranni'	maranni'	maranni'	maranni'
141	To Smell (Perceive)	uri'	urung	uri'	uri'	udu'	udu'	udu'	udung
142	Smoke	hambu	hambu	hambu	hambu	asap	rambu	asap	asap
143	Smooth	mahallo'	mahallo'	mahallo'	mahallo'	alus	alus	alus	alus
144	Snake	ile	ile	ile	ile	ulo	ulo	ulo	ulo
145	Snow	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
146	Some	sangngaka- sangngaka	sangngaka- sangngaka	sangngaka- sangngaka	sangngaka- sangngaka	sangngapa- sangngapa	sangngapa- sangngapa	sangngapa- sangngapa	sangngapa- sangngapa
147	To Spit	tingkuru	tingkuru	tingkuru	tingkuru	tingkuru	tingkudu	tingkuru	tingkudu
148	To Split	bika	bika	bika	bika	bira	bira	bira	bira
149	To Squeeze	pihsa'	pihsa'	pihsa'	pihsa'	pirra'	pirra'	pirra'	pirra'
	To Stab (Or Stick)	tobo'	tobo'	tobo'	tobo'	gayang	gajang	gayang	gayang
151	To Stand	ke'de'	ke'de'	ke'de'	ke'de'	mengkarro	mengkarro	mengkarro	mengkarro
152	Star	bintang	bintang	bintang	bintang	bintoeng	bintoeng	bintoeng	bintang
153	Stick (Of Wood)	kuntung	kuntung	kuntung	kuntung	tongka'	tekkeng	tongka'	dokkeng
154	Stone	batu							
155	Straight	maroho	maroho	maroho	maroho	madoro	madoro	madoro	madoro

156	To Suck	suhhu'	suhhu'	suhhu'	suhhu'	surru'	surru'	surru'	surru'
157	Sun	mata allo	mata allo	mata allo	mata allo	mata allo	mata allo	mata allo	mata allo
158	To Swell	bangka'	bangka'	bangka'	bangka'	kambang	kambang	kambang	kambang
159	To Swim	mengkaohe'	mengkaohe'	mengkaohe'	mengkaohe'	molangi	molangi	molangi	molangi
160	Tail	oki	oki	oki	oki	lelo'	lelo'	lelo'	lelo'
161	That	indo'o	indo'o	indo'o	indo'o	itte	itte	itte	itte
162	There	dono	dihao	diting/dihao	diting	ditte	ditte	ditte	dijao
163	They	ii	ii	ii	ii	ianasang	ianasang	ianasang	ianasang
164	Thick	makambang	makambang	makambang	makambang	makumbang	makumbang	makumbang	makumbang
165	Thin	manipi'	manipi'	manipi'	manipi'	manipis	manipis	manipis	manipis
166	To Think	pihki'	pihki'	pihki'	pihki'	pikkir	pikkir	pikkir	pikkir
167	This	inde'e	inde'e	inde'e	inde'e	inne	inne	inne	inne
168	Thou (You)	dio	dio	dio	dio	ingko	ingko	ingko	ingko
169	Three	tallu	tallu	tallu	tallu	tallu	tallu	tallu	tallu
170	To Throw	saleba'	saleba'	saleba'	saleba'	laccar	laccar	laccar	laccar
171	To Tie	sangke'	sangke'	sangke'	sangke'	sea'	sea'	sea'	sea'
172	Tongue	lila	lila	lila	lila	lila	lila	lila	lila
173	Tooth (Front)	isi	isi	isi	isi	ringnge	ringn <mark>g</mark> e	ringnge	ringnge
174	Tree	poang	poang	poang	poang	poong	poong	poong	poong
175	To Turn (Veer)	sumule	sumule	sumule	sumule	mimbali'	mimbali'	mimbali'	mimbali'
176	Two	derua	derua	derua	derua	didua	didua	didua	didua
177	To Vomit	tiloa	tiloa	tiloa	tiloa	tilua	tilua	tilua	tilua
178	To Walk	mellao	mellao	mellao	mellao	millampa	millampa	millampa	millampa
179	Warm (Weather)	maluhsu	maluhsu	maluhsu	maluhsu	mapanas	mapanas	mapanas	mapanas
180	To Wash	basei	basei	basei	basei	basei	basoi	basoi	basoi
181	Water	uhai	uhai	uhai	uhai	wai	wai	wai	uhai
182	We	kami',	kami',	kami',	kami',	ingkita	ingkita	ingkita	ingkita
183	Wet	bona'	bona'	bona'	bona'	base	base	base	base
184	What?	aka/akae'?	aka/akae'?	aka/akae'?	aka/akae'?	apa	apa	apa	apa
185	When?	pihhang	pihhang	pihhang	pihhang	pirang	pirang	pirang	dipirrang
186	Where?	umba naonge	umba naonge	umba naonge	umba naonge	dumba	dumba	dumba	dumba
187	White	mabusa	mabusa	mabusa	mabusa	mapute	mapute	mapute	mapute

188 Who?	menna	menna	menna	menna	sema	sema	sema	sema
189 Wide	malua'	malua'	malua'	malua'	maloang	maloang	maloang	maloang
190 Wife	bahine	bahine	bahine	bahine	baine	baine	baine	baine
191 Wind (Breeze)	pepahi	pepahi	pepahi	pepahi	anging	anging	anging	baha'
.92 Wing	pani'	pani'	pani'	pani'	pani'	pani'	pani'	pani'
.93 Wipe	dikosai/disapui	dikosai	dikosai	disapui	diapus	diapus	diapus	diapus
.94 With (Accompanying)	sibaha	sibaha	sibaha	sibaha	ampe'	ampe'	ampe'	ampe'
95 Woman	bahine	bahine	bahine	bahine	tobaine	tobaine	tobaine	tobaine
.96 Woods	pangngala'	pangngala'	pangngala'	pangngala'	loppo	loppo	loppo	loppo
.97 Worm	karoro	kadoro	karoro	karoro	ulli'	galla-gallang	kalindoro	kalindoro
.98 Ye (You Plural)	dioa'	dioa'	dioa'	dioa'	ingkamia'	ingkamia'	ingkamia'	angkamia'
99 Year	tahung	tahung	tahung	tahung	taung	taung	taung	taung
200 Yellow	mahihi	mahihi	mahihi	mahihi	mariri	mariri	mariri	mariri

BIOGRAPHY



The researcher's name is Arta Desiyana. She was born on 15th December 1995 in Majene. Her Father's name is Ardiansyah Djafar, he worked as an oil palm farmer and her mother's name is Lina Rohani and she is a house wife. In her family, the researcher is the youngest child among the three children. She has two older brothers

named Alief Satrialdi and Agung Rohandi. Her Education started on 2001 and graduated from Elementary School on 2006 in SD Inp 006 Motu. Then, she continued to Junior High School and Graduated on 2009 from SMP N 4 Pasangkayu. In 2012, she graduated from Senior High School on SMA N 2 Mamuju. Then finally, through this research was completed, means she finished her college on Bosowa University proudly.