

**School of Education**

**Indonesian Language Policy and the Views of Javanese Language Teachers in  
Yogyakarta: Implications for Action**

**Bambang Suwarno**

**This thesis is presented for the Degree of  
Doctor of Philosophy  
of  
Curtin University**

**June 2014**

## **Declaration**

To the best of my knowledge and belief this thesis contains no material previously published by any other person except where due acknowledgement has been made.

This thesis contains no material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma in any university.

Signature: \_\_\_\_\_

Date : \_\_\_\_\_

## **Abstract**

Research indicates that there has been a language shift from heritage languages to the Indonesian language in Indonesia. The country's language policy and planning (LPP) exists to manage such a shift. This study aimed to analyse the impact the Indonesian language policy and planning (ILPP) is having on the status and use of heritage languages in general and the Javanese language in particular. In addition the study sought to explore the views of Javanese language teachers in Sleman regency on the ILPP. Finally the study sought to explore the implications the research findings hold for the re-evaluation of the integrity of the existing form of the ILPP and its capacity to stem such a shift.

In order to achieve these objectives, the study adopted a dynamic dual strand approach to methodology. The first strand included analysis of Indonesian language-related laws at national and provincial level.

The second strand consisted of a survey of Javanese language teachers in Sleman regency, to ascertain their views of the ILPP and their preferences of domains for the Javanese language.

Analysis revealed that the existing LPP might not be effective in stemming language shift or indeed congruent with the Indonesian Constitution. Derived from the data analysis, a number of models were conceived for policy revision; one was based on the teachers' views while another was devised from language policy theory and the Indian language policy.

## Acknowledgements

First of all, I would like to express my deepest gratitude to God, who I believe has given me blessing and guidance in my study.

I would like to express my great gratitude to my supervisor, Professor Graham Dellar, for his expertise, compassion and patience, as well as his valuable direction and constructive guidance. I would also like to express my great gratitude to my co-supervisor, Dr Jennifer Howell, who worked with my supervisor to ensure that my thesis could attain the best possible standard. I am also indebted to Dr Chris Conlan and Dr Ian Chalmers for their earlier work with me on my study. I owe great gratitude to Dr Anna Alderson, who gave me a lot of time for discussion and helpful feedback.

I would offer my great gratitude to the Chancellor and other officers of Curtin University, in general, and those of the Faculty of Humanities, School of Education, in particular, who have provided me with the opportunity to pursue my PhD education. In particular, I would like to express my great gratitude to Prof Lina Peliccionne and Prof Rhonda Oliver, who have facilitated my studies, and Prof Rob Cavanagh, who has served as the Chairperson of my Thesis Committee. I also owe gratitude to other university officers, including those of the library and health and disability offices, who have attended to my special needs.

With my hearing problem, communication with me must have been very demanding and thus I would like to express my great appreciation to the ladies and gentlemen for their patience. My completion of the study shall bear witness to the great attention that Curtin University devotes to those who happen to be handicapped or less endowed.

I would like to express my great gratitude to the examiners who have provided valuable suggestions and comments, thereby improving my thesis.

At this opportunity, I would also like to express my great gratitude to the Indonesian Government, especially the Ministry of Education, who, through the DIKTI {*Direktorat Jenderal Pendidikan Tinggi* (The Directorate General of Higher Education)}, provided me with a scholarship during the four years, out of nearly five

years of my study, and the officers of Universitas Bengkulu, especially the Rector and the Vice Rectors, and the Dean of FKIP (Teachers Training Faculty), who facilitated this scholarship.

I am also indebted to the indirect assistance that I receive from the officers of Western Australian Department of Education, in particular those of Millen Primary School, and from the officers of New Focus Company.

Great appreciation is offered to the officials from the *Pusat Bahasa* in Jakarta and the *Balai Bahasa Yogyakarta*, for their kind assistance in locating the language-related laws, and the *Bappeda DIY* in Yogyakarta, which issued the permit for the field work. I am also greatly indebted to the participants, the Javanese language teachers in Sleman regency, for their participation and encouragement. Without their participation, this thesis would not have achieved its completion. I am grateful to Mr. Binartoto and his field team, who provided much help in the field work. I am also grateful to my PhD student colleagues for their suggestions.

Last but not least, I am grateful to my family: my wife, Woro Wuryani, and my children, Amanda, Berna, and Chelsea, who persevered and patiently endured all the tribulations during my study. May they share the great joy of the completion of this study – and I dedicate this thesis to them.

May this thesis also be dedicated to the conservation of heritage languages.

## Table of Contents

Abstract .....	iii
Acknowledgements .....	iv
Table of Contents .....	vi
List of Tables .....	ix
List of Figures.....	xi
List of Appendices.....	xii
List of Abbreviations .....	xiii
<b>CHAPTER ONE</b>	<b>INTRODUCTION AND</b>
<b>OVERVIEW</b> .....	<b>1</b>
1.1. Background and Context of the Study .....	1
1.2. The Purpose of this Study.....	6
1.3. The Significance of the Study .....	9
1.4. Research Questions .....	10
1.5. Research Design and Limitations .....	11
1.6. Definitions of Key Terms .....	13
1.7. Organisation of the Thesis .....	14
<b>CHAPTER TWO</b>	<b>LITERATURE REVIEW</b>
.....	15
2.1. Heritage languages .....	16
2.1.1. Heritage languages in Indonesia .....	17
2.1.2. The Javanese language .....	18
2.2. Domains .....	19
2.2.1. Public domains.....	20
2.2.2. Private domains.....	22
2.3. Language Shift .....	23
2.3.1. The shift from heritage languages to the national language in Indonesia.....	23
2.3.2. Heritage language protection.....	25
2.4. The Dynamics of Language Shift .....	28
2.4.1. The unstable multilingual society in Indonesia .....	28
2.4.2. Triggers for language shift .....	29
2.4.3. The significance of language shift to indigenous heritage languages .....	31
2.4.4. Averting language shift .....	32
2.5. Language Policy and Planning (LPP) .....	33
2.5.1. Defining language policy .....	33
2.5.2. Defining language planning.....	34
2.6. Components of Language Policy and Planning .....	35
2.6.1. Corpus planning.....	36
2.6.2. Status planning .....	36
2.6.3. Acquisition planning .....	37
2.7. The Inadequacy of Classical Language Policy and Planning .....	37
2.8. The Theory of Language Rights .....	38
2.9. Types of Language Policy and Planning.....	42
2.9.1. The policy of elimination of multilingualism (Type-1 LPP).....	42
2.9.2. The policy of tolerance of multilingualism (Type-2 LPP) .....	42
2.9.3. The policy of maintenance or promotion of multilingualism (Type-3 LPP) .....	43
2.10. Stemming Language Shift through Language Policy and Planning .....	46
2.11. Conceptual Framework for this Study.....	47
2.12. Summary.....	49
<b>CHAPTER THREE</b>	<b>METHODOLOGY</b> .....
	51

3.1. This Study's Approach.....	51
3.1.1. The nature of policy analysis .....	52
3.1.2. The application of policy analysis in this study.....	55
3.2. Strand 1: Analysis of Indonesian language-related laws .....	58
3.2.1. Sample selection and data collection.....	59
3.2.2. Analysis.....	60
3.3. Strand 2: Survey of Javanese language teachers in Sleman regency .....	64
3.3.1. Sample selection.....	66
3.3.2. Data collection technique.....	66
3.3.3. Data collection .....	75
3.3.4. Data analysis .....	75
3.3.5. Ethics .....	76
3.4. Summary.....	77
CHAPTER FOUR	FINDINGS78
4.1. Analysis of ILPP .....	78
4.1.1. LPP in the Indonesian Constitution .....	79
4.1.2. The language-related laws and bylaws .....	79
4.1.3. Status planning in national and regional official languages.....	81
4.1.4. Status planning in the languages in the workplace .....	82
4.1.5. Status planning in the languages for public service areas.....	83
4.1.6. Status planning in signage languages.....	84
4.1.7. Status planning in the languages for wider communication.....	84
4.1.8. Status planning in international languages .....	85
4.1.9. Status planning in the languages of literature and scholarly works .....	86
4.1.10. Status planning in group and community languages .....	88
4.1.11. Acquisition planning in foreign languages.....	89
4.1.12. Acquisition planning in languages as subjects for instruction.....	90
4.1.13. Acquisition planning in languages for the medium of instruction.....	91
4.1.14. Acquisition planning in languages for mass media .....	92
4.1.15. Domains that are not regulated in the ILPP .....	93
4.1.16. Corpus planning: Language academy .....	94
4.1.17. Corpus planning in codification and elaboration: General case .....	94
4.1.18. Corpus planning in codification and elaboration: Specific case .....	95
4.1.19. Summary analysis: Domain distribution for various languages .....	96
4.1.20. Domain distribution for heritage languages .....	100
4.1.21. Inference of ILPP type.....	102
4.2. Findings of the Survey .....	107
4.2.1. Javanese Language in the workplace and regional government administration .....	107
4.2.2. Javanese Language in public service areas and public signage.....	109
4.2.3. Javanese Language in science and technology and Javanese Language reserve areas.....	111
4.2.4. Javanese Language in private domains .....	113
4.2.5. Javanese Language as a subject .....	114
4.2.6. Javanese Language as the medium of instruction and in the mass media .....	116
4.2.7. Language academy for Javanese Language .....	119
4.2.8. Orthography for the Javanese Language.....	120
4.2.9. Retention of the Javanese Language speech levels.....	121
4.2.10. Language manuals for the Javanese Language.....	123
4.2.11. Summary of survey findings.....	125

CHAPTER FIVE	IMPLICATIONS
.....	129
5.1. ILPP and Language Shift.....	130
5.2. ILPP and the Youth Pledge.....	133
5.3. The ILPP and the Constitution.....	136
5.4. Comparison of ILPP with the Micro-perspective based Model.....	139
5.5. Preference for the Javanese Language Speech Levels: A Dilemma .....	141
5.6. Macro Perspectives.....	143
5.6.1. Theoretical perspective.....	143
5.6.2. The Indian LPP perspective.....	144
5.6.3. The Macro Perspectives: A Model.....	147
5.7. Comparison of the ILPP with the Macro-perspective based model.....	149
5.8. Comparison of ILPP with Micro-perspective-based and Macro-perspective-based models.....	151
5.9. The Significance of Timely Implementation .....	154
5.10. Summary.....	155
CHAPTER SIX	CONCLUSIONS
AND RECOMMENDATIONS .....	157
6.1. Summary.....	157
6.2. Some Options for ILPP Consideration.....	158
6.2.1. A broad framework for heritage languages.....	158
6.2.2. Mechanism for reconsideration .....	163
6.3. A reflection on the study .....	166
6.4. Recommendations for further studies .....	169
REFERENCES .....	171
APPENDICES.....	183

## List of Tables

Table 1 Trend of language speakers in Indonesia .....	4
Table 2 List of Public Functions (Stewart, 1968, and Cooper, 1989).....	20
Table 3 List of Private Functions .....	23
Table 4 Categories for Status Planning.....	62
Table 5 Categories for Acquisition Planning.....	62
Table 6 Categories for Corpus Planning.....	62
Table 7 Questionnaire Items for Status Planning.....	68
Table 8 Questionnaire items for Acquisition Planning .....	70
Table 9 Questionnaire Items for Corpus Planning.....	71
Table 10 Status Planning in National and Regional Official Languages: Legal Reference .....	81
Table 11 Status Planning in the Languages for the Workplace .....	82
Table 12 Status Planning in the Languages for Public Service Areas.....	83
Table 13 Status Planning in Signage Languages .....	84
Table 14 Status Planning in the Languages for Wider Communication .....	85
Table 15 Status Planning in International Languages .....	86
Table 16 Status Planning in the Languages of Literature and Scholarly Works .....	87
Table 17 Status Planning in Group and Community Languages .....	88
Table 18 Acquisition Planning in Foreign Languages .....	89
Table 19 Acquisition Planning in Languages as Subjects for Instruction.....	90
Table 20 Acquisition Planning in the Languages for the Medium of Instruction.....	91
Table 21 Acquisition Planning in the Languages for the Mass Media.....	92
Table 22 Corpus Planning in Language Academy.....	94
Table 23 Corpus Planning in Codification and Elaboration for Languages: General Case .....	95
Table 24 Corpus Planning in Codification and Elaboration for the Javanese Language.....	96
Table 25 Summary of ILPP: Status Planning.....	97
Table 26 Summary of ILPP: Acquisition Planning.....	99
Table 27 Summary of ILPP: Corpus planning.....	99
Table 28 LPP for Heritage Language in General and the Javanese Language in Particular: Allocation of Domains.....	100
Table 29 Corpus Planning: Some Works on the Javanese Language .....	101
Table 30 Overall Summary of the Distribution of Domains for Various Languages in ILPP.....	103
Table 31 Abbreviated Overall Summary of the Distribution of Domains for Various Languages in ILPP .....	104
Table 32 Javanese Language in Workplace and Government Administration: Level of Support.....	107
Table 33 Javanese Language in Workplace and Government Administration: Reasons for 'Yes' .....	108
Table 34 Javanese Language in Workplace and Government Administration: Reasons for 'No' .....	109
Table 35 Javanese Language in Public Domains: Public Service Areas and Public Signage: Level of Support.....	109
Table 36 Javanese Language in Public Service Areas and Public Signage: Reasons for 'Yes'.....	110
Table 37 Javanese Language in Public Service Areas and Public Signage: Reasons for 'No' ..	110
Table 38 Javanese Language in Science and Technology and Reserve Areas: Level of Support.....	111
Table 39 Javanese Language in Science and Technology and Reserve Area: Reasons for 'Yes'.....	111

Table 40 Javanese Language in Science and Technology and the Need for Reserve Area: Reasons for ‘No’ .....	112
Table 41 Javanese Language in Family and Neighbourhood: Level of Support .....	113
Table 42 Javanese Language in the Family and Neighbourhood: Reasons for ‘Yes’ .....	113
Table 43 Javanese Language in the Family and Neighbourhood: Reasons for ‘No’ .....	114
Table 44 Javanese Language as a Subject: Level of Support .....	115
Table 45 Javanese Language as an Independent Subject: Support for Instruction.....	115
Table 46 Javanese Language as Independent (Separate) Subject: Reasons.....	115
Table 47 Javanese Language as Embedded Subject: Reasons.....	116
Table 48 Javanese Language as an Embedded Subject: Support for Instruction.....	116
Table 49 Javanese Language as the Medium of Instruction and in Mass Media: Level of Support.....	117
Table 50 Javanese Language as the Medium of Instruction and in the Mass Media: Reasons for ‘Yes’ .....	117
Table 51 Javanese Language as the Medium of Instruction and in Mass Media: Reasons for ‘No’.....	118
Table 52 Language Academy for Javanese Language: Level of Support .....	119
Table 53 Language Academy for Javanese Language: Reasons for ‘Yes’ .....	119
Table 54 A Language Academy for Javanese Language: Reasons for ‘No’.....	120
Table 55 Orthography for Javanese Language: Preference .....	120
Table 56 Retention of Speech Level for Javanese Language: Level of Support.....	121
Table 57 Retention of Speech Levels for the Javanese Language: Reasons .....	121
Table 58 Retention of Speech Levels for the Javanese Language: Choice of Level for Various Communication Types.....	122
Table 59 Abandonment of Speech Levels for the Javanese Language: Reasons .....	122
Table 60 Abandonment of Speech Level for Javanese Language: Choice of Level for Various Communication Types.....	122
Table 61 Awareness of the Javanese Language Manuals Published or Approved by <i>Balai Bahasa Yogyakarta</i> (Yogyakarta Language Institute).....	123
Table 62 Awareness of Other Javanese Manuals .....	124
Table 63 Language for Javanese Language Manuals: Level of Support.....	124
Table 64 Language for Javanese Language Manuals: Reasons for Selecting Javanese Language .....	125
Table 65 Language for Javanese Language Manuals: Reasons for Selecting the Indonesian Language .....	125
Table 66 Summary of Support in Status Planning for the Javanese Language: Public Domains.....	126
Table 67 Summary of Support in Status Planning for the Javanese Language: Private Domains.....	126
Table 68 Summary of Support in Acquisition Planning for the Javanese Language.....	126
Table 69 Summary for Support in Corpus Planning for the Javanese Language.....	127
Table 70 A Micro-perspective-based Model for an Alternative LPP .....	128
Table 71 Comparison of ILPP with the Micro-perspective-based Model .....	140
Table 72 A Macro-perspective-based Model for an Alternative LPP .....	148
Table 73 Comparison of ILPP with the Macro-perspective-based Model.....	150
Table 74 Comparison of ILPP with Both Models .....	152

## List of Figures

Figure 1 Map of Indonesia.....	2
Figure 2 Conceptual Framework for this Study .....	7
Figure 3 Simplified Conceptual Framework.....	15
Figure 4 The Different Phases of Policy-making .....	53
Figure 5 Position of this Study in the Policy Analysis Procedure .....	55
Figure 6 Concept Map for this Study .....	56
Figure 7 Design Outline for Strand 1 .....	59
Figure 8 Design Outline for Strand 2 .....	65
Figure 9 Outline of Chapter 5.....	129
Figure 10 The Catherine Wheel of Self-priming Mechanisms for a Language (Strubell, 2001, p. 280) .....	153
Figure 11 Outline of Chapter 6.....	157

## List of Appendices

Appendix 1 Questionnaire Items and their Legal References.....	185
Appendix 2 Questionnaire Items and their Literature Review References .....	189
Appendix 3 Survey Instrument: Questionnaire (English Version) .....	191
Appendix 4 Survey instrument: Questionnaire (Indonesian Version) .....	208
Appendix 5 Language Shift Indicators .....	226
Appendix 6 Additional Information for Chapter 3, Section 3.1. The Study's Approach.....	228
Appendix 7 Additional Information for Chapter 3, Section 3.2.2.4.: The Use of Logic in Analysing Legal Texts .....	229
Appendix 8 Additional Information for Chapter 3, Section 3.3.1. Sampling .....	231
Appendix 9 Additional Information for Chapter 3, Section 3.3.1.3. Outline of Questionnaire Refinement.....	238
Appendix 10 Detailed Information for Chapter 4, Section 4.1. The Original Articles and Verses of Language-Related Laws (in Indonesian) and their Corresponding Translations in English.....	239
Appendix 11 Additional Information for Chapter 4, Section 4.2. Example of Data Analysis for the Respondents' Answers to the Multiple Choice Parts of the Questionnaire .....	249
Appendix 12 Detailed information for Chapter 4, Section 4.2. Detailed Distribution of Respondents' Answers to the Multiple Choice Parts of the Questionnaire.....	251
Appendix 13 Additional information for Chapter 4, Section 4.2. Example of Analysis for Respondent Answers to the Open Parts of the Questionnaire ('d' Options of the Questionnaire).....	260
Appendix 14 Detailed information for Chapter 4, Section 4.2. Summary Analysis of Respondents' Answers to the Open Parts of the Questionnaire ('d' Options of the Questionnaire) plus Examples of Respondents' Answers on their Knowledge of Javanese Manuals.....	263
Appendix 15 Additional information for Chapter 4, Section 4.2. and other Chapters. Summary Analysis of Respondents' Comments .....	268
Appendix 16 Information for Participant and Consent Form, English Version .....	270
Appendix 17 Information for Participant and Consent Form, Indonesian Version.....	272
Appendix 18 Some Notes on the Javanese Language.....	274

## List of Abbreviations

### A. List of Abbreviations: General

- BBY: *Balai Bahasa Yogyakarta* (Yogyakarta Language Agency)  
EGIDS: Expanded Intergenerational Disruption Scale (Lewis and Simons, 2009)  
GIDS: Graded Intergenerational Disruption Scale (Fishman, 1991)  
HL: Heritage languages  
IL: The Indonesian language  
JL: The Javanese language  
LPP: Language policy and planning  
ILPP: Indonesian language policy and planning

### B. List of abbreviations of Laws

- M 40: *Peraturan Menteri Dalam Negeri Nomor 40 Tahun 2007 tentang Pedoman bagi Kepala Daerah dalam Pelestarian dan Pengembangan Bahasa Negara dan Bahasa Daerah* [The Interior Minister Regulation Number 40 Year 2007 on the Guideline for the Regional Heads in the Conservation and Cultivation of the State Language and Heritage Languages]
- U 20: *Undang-Undang Republik Indonesia Nomor 20 Tahun 2003 tentang Sistem Pendidikan Nasional* [The Law of the Republic of Indonesia Number 20 Year 2003 on the National Educational System]
- U 24: *Undang-undang Republik Indonesia Nomor 24 Tahun 2009 tentang Bendera, Bahasa, dan Lambang Negara, serta Lagu Kebangsaan* [The Law of the Republic of Indonesia Number 24 Year 2009 on State Flag, Language, and Symbol, and National Hymn]
- U 32: *Undang-undang Republik Indonesia Nomor 32 Tahun 2004 tentang Pemerintahan Daerah* [The Law of the Republic of Indonesia Number 32 Year 2004 on Regional Government]
- Y 1: *Instruksi Gubernur Daerah Istimewa Yogyakarta Nomor 1/Instr/2009 tentang Penggunaan Bahasa Jawa pada Hari Tertentu di Lingkungan Provinsi Daerah Istimewa Yogyakarta* [The Decree of the Governor of Yogyakarta Special Area Number 1/Instr/2009 on the Use of the Javanese Language on Certain Day within Yogyakarta Special Area Province]
- Y 423.5: *Surat Edaran Gubernur Daerah Istimewa Yogyakarta No. 423.5/0912 Tahun 2005 tentang Penerapan Kurikulum Muatan Lokal*

*Bahasa Jawa* [The Circular from the Governor of Yogyakarta Special Area No. 423.5/0912 Year 2005 on the Implementation of Javanese Language Local Content Curriculum]

UUD 1945: *Undang-undang Dasar Negara Republik Indonesia Tahun 1945, or Undang-undang Dasar 1945 (setelah amandemen)* [The Constitution of the State of the Republic of Indonesia, or The 1945 Constitution (after amendment)]

P: *Pasal* (Indonesian), or A: Article (English)

Ay: *Ayat* (Indonesian), or V: Verse (English)

RC: Regulated and compulsory

RO: Regulated and optional

RP: Regulated and prohibited

NR: Not regulated

NA: Not applicable or Not asked

NC: Not clear

### **C. List of abbreviations for survey analysis**

Inv (&): Invalid

Blk (\$): Blank

% fr y: Percentage from the group of respondents who answer ‘Yes’ in the previous main question

% fr n: Percentage from the group of respondents who answer ‘No’ in the previous main question

% fr T: Percentage of choice from total respondents

Idp: Independent (subject)

Ebd: Embedded (subject)

### **D. List of abbreviations for the Javanese language**

L: Latin orthography

C: *Carakan* (traditional) orthography

HR: High and refined (*krama alus*) speech level

H: High (*krama*) speech level

LR: Low and refined (*ngoko alus*) speech level

L: Low (*ngoko*) speech level

**Blank Page**

# CHAPTER ONE

## INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

The Indonesian Language Policy and Planning (ILPP) was established to enable the development of a national lingua franca, to conserve heritage languages, and to cultivate an international language (Halim, 1976). While the ILPP has been considered a great success in the first objective, it has been less successful in the remaining policy objectives, a situation that suggests a need for its analysis.

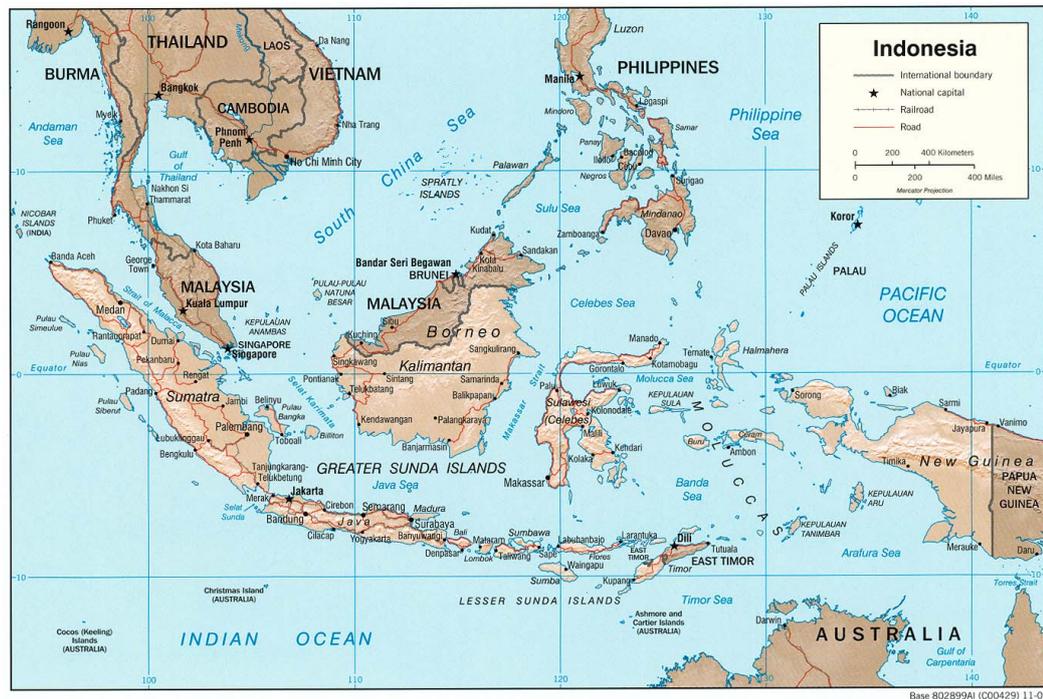
This chapter starts with providing a background to the study. It next outlines the purposes, significance, research questions, research design and its limitations, definition of terms, along with the overall organisation of this study.

### **1.1. Background and Context of the Study**

Indonesia is a country with a vast geographical area of nearly two million square kilometres, encompassing a distance of 8200 kilometres, from Banda Aceh in northwest Sumatra to Merauke in southwest Papua, equal to the distance between Lisbon to Moscow. It has an estimated population of around 237 million people (Ethnologue, 2014) and currently is the fourth largest nation in the world. There are 33 provinces and 706 heritage languages spoken (Ethnologue, 2014). Such an array of heterogeneity naturally poses a perennial dilemma in balancing the need for a *lingua franca* with that of maintaining ethnic and language diversity.

While some other countries, such as India and the Philippines, still have to grapple with the issue of a national official language that could be accepted by the whole population, Indonesia managed to address this issue even before independence. This was achieved through the transformation of a regional Malay language into the Indonesian language as the national and official language for the whole archipelago. It is not surprising that commendations abound. For example, Moeliono (1986) asserts that the Indonesian case has often been cited as an example of a victory in language policy and planning (LPP), while Kaplan and Baldauf (2003) hail the rise of the Indonesian language as a “major political and linguistic triumph” (p. 99). In

sum, from the perspective of developing a national language, ILPP has been regarded as a success story (Lauder, 2008).



[http://www.vidiani.com/maps/maps\\_of\\_asia/maps\\_of\\_indonesia](http://www.vidiani.com/maps/maps_of_asia/maps_of_indonesia)

**Figure 1 Map of Indonesia**

However, this very success might mask a growing crisis, which consists of the shift to the Indonesian language among heritage language speakers. The crisis relates not just to smaller heritage languages (the ones having less than one million speakers) but also to larger heritage languages, such as Javanese, Sundanese, Madura, and Balinese. In this respect, an analysis of the ILPP has the potential to provide an understanding of how the crisis came about and, more importantly, to suggest possible solutions.

Burg (1994) asserts that for many centuries before the Dutch Administration, the sea traders from the Riau Archipelago had navigated and conducted business along the shores of the islands between Australia and Asia. These traders performed business in commercial centres (the *pasars*) and introduced their language, ‘bahasa Melayu’, to local populations. Gradually, its simplified version, ‘bahasa Melayu pasar’, gained popularity and became a lingua franca for most of South East Asia.

Burg (1994) further relates that when the Dutch ruled the area, which was then called the *Netherland Indie*, in contrast to other European powers, they did not try to

impose the Dutch language on the indigenous people. Rather, in order to improve communication with people of various ethnic groups and to support an effective administration in this widespread archipelago, the Dutch Government and the Dutch *East Indie* Administration decided to develop *bahasa Melayu pasar* as a lingua franca. An example of this support was the publication of the first *Bahasa Melayu Pasar* grammar book, by van Ophuijsen in 1908. His great effort produced ‘Bahasa Melayu’ and an independent commission improved his work between 1925 and 1930.

Burg (1994) observes that when the Indonesian independence movement gained momentum in the early 20<sup>th</sup> century, their leaders felt the need for a national language. Usually the language with the largest number of speakers is deemed the best candidate for such a purpose. However, the Javanese and Sundanese languages, the ones with the largest and second largest language groups, were mainly confined in their use to the island of Java and in migration settlements. This situation, along with the spread of *bahasa Melayu*, might have convinced the leaders that *bahasa Melayu* was better suited to meet the requirements of a national language. Thus, when youth delegates from various parts of the *Netherland Indie* convened a second youth congress in October 1928, they made an historical decision, which later was referred to as *Soempah Pemoeda* (The Youth Pledge). Among other things, they chose *bahasa Melayu* to be the national, official language for the future independent Indonesia, by declaring that they “... menjoenjoeng bahasa persatoean, bahasa Indonesia” [... hold in esteem the unification language, *bahasa Indonesia*] (Anonymous, 2011, para. 6).

Montolalu and Suryadinata (2007) argue that support for *bahasa Melayu* grew throughout the struggle for independence. This was evidenced by the fact that the newspaper for the independence movement used *bahasa Melayu* for its columns and articles. The support culminated on August 18, 1945, one day after Indonesia declared independence, when the Indonesian founding fathers in the PPKI {*Panitia Persiapan Kemerdekaan Indonesia* (the Committee for the Preparation of Indonesian Independence)} formalised the new republic’s constitution, in which *bahasa Indonesia* (the Indonesian language) was declared as the state and national language (Article 28 of the 1945 Constitution).

Since then, a national language policy and planning (LPP) approach has been implemented to promote the Indonesian language as the state and national language in all domains (Halim, 1976). A concerted effort has been undertaken, from the central government and regional governments, to establish the Indonesian language as the sole language in public affairs, from administration and education to mass media (Musgrave, 2010). A language commission, *Pusat Bahasa* (The Language Centre), was established, with a national office in the capital and regional offices in various provinces, to support the promotion and development of the Indonesian language.

After six decades of independence, the Indonesian language has become well-established. It is the sole language in national and regional government administrations, laws, and institutions; it is the dominant language in private companies, educational institutions, mass media, and community. It has even become an alternative language in the family. The number of its speakers has been steadily increasing, as shown by the data from Montolalu and Suryadinata (2007, p. 46) (see Table 1).

**Table 1 Trend of language speakers in Indonesia**

No	Language	1980	1990	2000
1	Javanese	40.44%	38.08%	34.70%
2	Sundanese	15.06%	15.26%	13.86%
3	Madura	4.71%	4.29%	3.78%
4	Batak	2.12%	1.97%	1.91%
5	Minangkabau	2.42%	2.23%	2.06%
6	Balinese	1.69%	1.64%	1.42%
7	Bugis	2.26%	2.04%	1.91%
8	Indonesian	11.93%	15.19%	34.00%
9	Others	17.48%	17.11%	4.57%
10	No answer	0.76%	0.45%	0.31%
Source: Montolalu and Suryadinata (2007)				

This table shows that the proportion of the Indonesian language speakers rose from 11.93% in 1980 to 34.00% in 2000, a threefold increase. Meanwhile, other writers cite even larger increases. For example, Kurniasih (2006) asserts that people who could speak Indonesian amounted to 90% in 2006. Musgrave (2010) argues that in 1990, among specific demographic groups, knowledge of the Indonesian language was approaching 100%.

Thus, from the perspective of establishing a national-official language, the ILPP appears to have been very successful. However, when the ILPP is examined from the perspective of heritage languages conservation, a quite different picture emerges. Table 1 reveals that while the Indonesian language is gaining momentum, heritage language speakers are declining and this is a trend which is confirmed by a number of studies (see Chapter Two, Literature Review).

On the other hand, in this age of globalization, English is gaining in importance; however, there is little evidence that many Indonesian people have a working ability in the English language (Lauder, 2008). For example, Dardjowidjojo (2003) found that many academics and students in a university in Jakarta could not meet the minimum requirement for US English university entrance. The general consensus is that English instruction in Indonesian schools is not successful (Bautista and Gonzales, 2006). Indeed, Muhlhauser (1996) predicts that the Indonesian language environment seems to be one of transitional multilingualism and is heading to a monolingual environment during this century.

In this context, Neustupny (1974) and Cooper (1989) maintain that when there is a language problem, language policy and planning (LPP) is called for to provide a solution. Accordingly the Indonesian Language Policy and Planning (ILPP) should provide protection for heritage languages as well as direction for the development of the national lingua franca, *bahasa Indonesia*, and the globalisation language, English. However, the decline in use of heritage languages suggests that the ILPP is not effective in their preservation.

Given the apparent extent of the language problems afflicting heritage languages in Indonesia, it is of concern that there is a dearth of studies which examine the ILPP position towards these languages and a possible relationship between the decline of Indonesian heritage languages and the adequacy of the ILPP. The few studies that do discuss heritage language conservation do not address the adequacy of the ILPP. For example, Subroto, Dwiraharjo, Maryono, and Setyawan (2008) propose a model for Javanese language instruction, while Nurhayati (2010) recommends the use of the Javanese language in schools and mass media. However, none of these studies question whether the ILPP provides the required environment for heritage language conservation. This situation suggests that an analysis of the ILPP, with regard to heritage languages, is urgently required.

## **1.2. The Purpose of this Study**

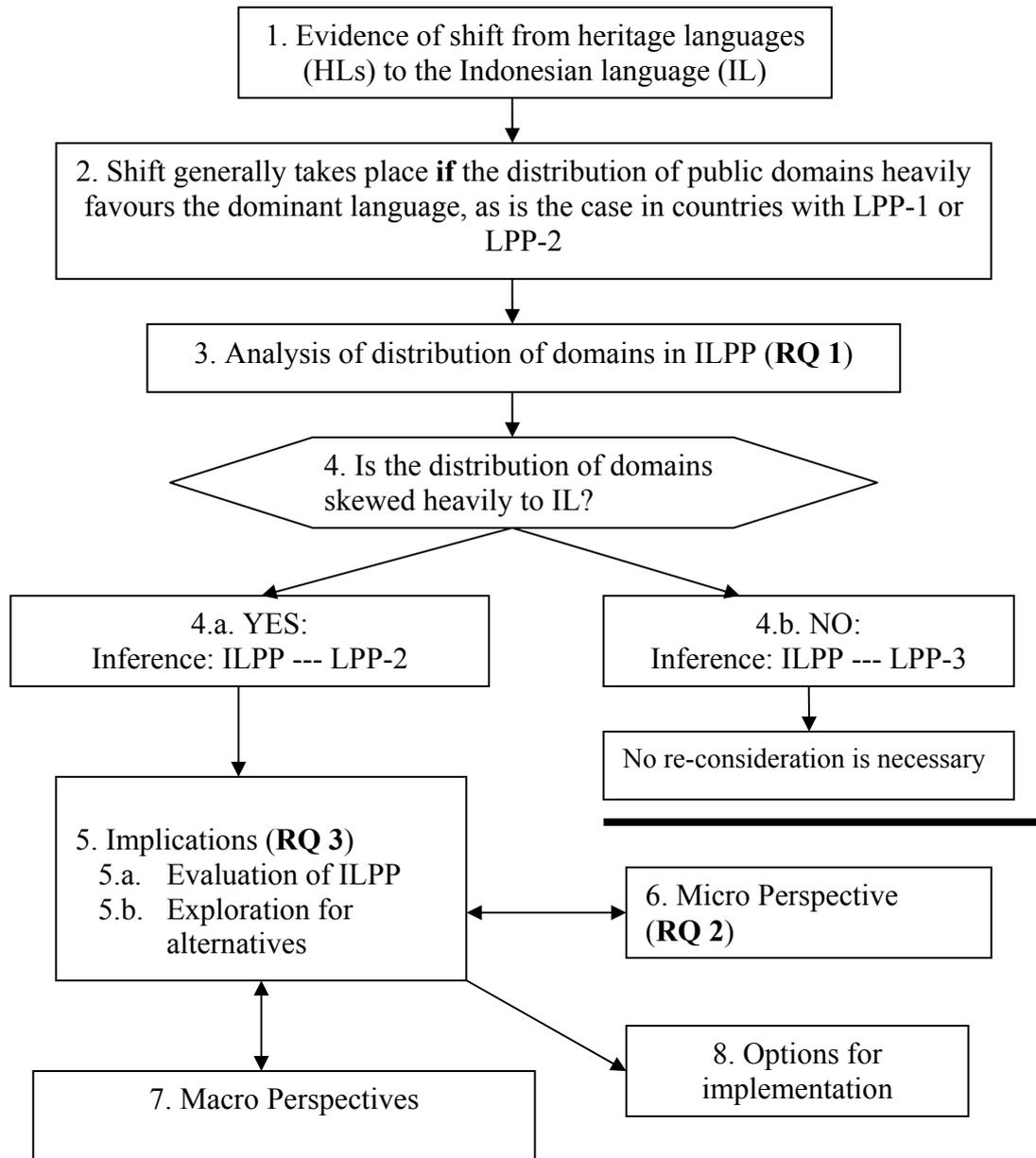
This study was prompted by the evidence of a decline in the use of heritage languages in general and the Javanese language in particular (see Table 1). In other words, the starting point of this study is the language shift in Indonesia, from the heritage languages to the dominant language, the Indonesian language.

A factor that might be contributing to this shift is the perceived or real disparity in value and prestige between the heritage languages and the dominant national language (the Indonesian language). This disparity of value and prestige could occur through two ways. The first is spontaneously, in which the dominant language spreads naturally through, e.g., trade activities. This has been the nature of the spread of Malay from the Riau Archipelago to other areas of Indonesia. The second is the planned or deliberate way, in which the dominant language gains higher value and prestige through the LPP approach being adopted. In the latter, the degree of disparity between heritage language use and Indonesian language use depends on the type of LPP being mandated. For example, Type-1 LPP represses multilingualism, Type-2 LPP tolerates multilingualism, and Type-3 LPP promotes multilingualism (Annamalai, 2003).

The evidence of the scope of heritage language decline in Indonesia indicates the importance of finding out the ILPP type that is prevailing. If a research analysis reveals it to be a Type-3 LPP, no reconsideration is necessary. However, if the research analysis reveals it to belong to one of the other types, consideration for a revision of the LPP might be necessary, in order to stem the shift and to conserve the heritage languages.

Thus, the overall purpose of this study was to perform a rigorous policy analysis of the ILPP, to identify its type, to evaluate its adequacy for heritage language conservation, and to explore new LPP options. Such an approach is inherently multidisciplinary. In order to develop a specific methodology appropriate to the research focus, policy analysis was adopted (Dunn, 1994; Grin 2003), with a range of research methods drawn from a synthesis of disciplines, such as sociolinguistics (Fishman, 1991; Coulmas, 2005), language policy and planning (Cooper, 1986; Spolsky, 2004); survey research (Fraenkel and Wallen, 2009); documentary study

(Fraenkel and Wallen, 2009; Miller and Alvarado, 2005); evaluation research (Weiss, 1998), and legal study (Hutchinson and Duncan, 2012).



**Figure 2 Conceptual Framework for this Study**

A model was therefore developed for this study, derived from a critical examination of relevant literature (see Chapter Two) and presented in detail in Chapter Three.

This model consisted of two strands:

The first was an analysis of the ILPP type.

The second was a survey of the views of the Javanese language teachers in Sleman (the Micro Perspective).

Following these two strands, an analysis was made of the implications of the ILPP in the context of language shift and the Constitutional mandate. Finally there was an exploration of alternative LPP approaches, based on the Macro Perspectives, arriving at options for implementation.

The conceptual framework guiding the study is presented diagrammatically in Figure 2 and in more detail below.

1. There is apparent evidence that heritage languages in Indonesia are declining. In addition to the data shown in Table 1, various researchers reveal the decline of heritage languages and their shift to the Indonesian language (see Chapter Two, Literature Review).
2. In a contact situation among languages, shift generally occurs in the direction of the language that has greater utility and prestige, usually through LPP, in countries that select Type-1 LPP or Type-2 LPP (the LPP types that confer no or very few public domains for heritage languages). Thus, it is essential to identify the type of the ILPP.
3. Analysis was made of language-related national laws, for references to Indonesian heritage languages in general, and of the Yogyakarta bylaws, for references to the Javanese language in particular. The analysis aimed to find out the distribution of domains for various languages (official-national, heritage, and foreign languages), in order to infer the ILPP type.
4. The analysis showed that the distribution of domains turned out to be heavily skewed to the national language and thus the ILPP was inferred as belonging to Type-2 LPP.
5. This finding had two implications:
  - a. The ILPP might not be effective in preventing language shift
  - b. The ILPP might not be able to carry out the mandate from the Constitution to conserve heritage languages.

As a consequence of these implications, there was a need to explore options for a potential new LPP. Two perspectives were used for the exploration, namely, the Micro Perspective and the Macro Perspectives.

6. The Micro Perspective consisted of the views of selected informed Javanese language users, namely, the Javanese language teachers in Sleman, of their preferences on the distribution of domains for the Javanese language. The summary of their preferences was used for conceiving an LPP model for comparison with the ILPP.
7. The Macro Perspectives consisted of two aspects:
  - a. The theoretical perspective, which drew on various theoretical principles
  - b. The practical perspective, which consisted of the Indian LPP approachFrom these perspectives, a Type-3 LPP was considered as a model that might be applicable to Indonesia.  
These LPP models, the one based on the Micro Perspective and the other one based on the Macro Perspectives, were then compared to the ILPP.
8. Some options were explored for implementation. There were also some reflections on this study and some recommendation for further study.

### **1.3. The Significance of the Study**

Concern about the decline of heritage languages in Indonesia surfaced as early as 1976 (Poedjosoedarmo, 1976). Subsequent studies have confirmed the decline of various heritage languages. For example, Gunarwan (2002) predicts that in fifty years the Javanese language, the largest of the heritage languages, may become a moribund language, one which is no longer learned as the first language by children; if this were to happen, its death would only be a matter of time. Furthermore, he expresses his astonishment that little awareness has been raised:

Unfortunately, many Javanese, Javanese scholars alike, do not seem to be aware that JL is on the decline and shifting. This is evident from the fact that nobody raised this issue, let alone presented a paper on this issue, in the well-attended Third Congress of the Javanese Language held in Yogyakarta in July 2001 (pp. 934-935).

Since Gunarwan, a number of researchers have proposed various means for maintaining heritage languages (e.g., Subroto, Dwiraharjo, Maryono, & Setyawan (2007, 2008); Nurhayati, 2010); however, none has raised the question as to why the decline has occurred despite the existence of the ILPP. Thus, there is a critical need to examine whether the ILPP is adequate in its provision of domains and as a means

for heritage language preservation and this study addresses this need. The ultimate contribution of this study is to offer and substantiate possible reasons for the decline in relation to the adequacy of the ILPP and to offer some possible options for an amended or entirely new LPP.

The study has relevance to the heritage languages conservation effort in general. Most heritage languages in the world are minority languages, many of which have less than one million speakers. On the other hand the Javanese Language, with around 84 million speakers, is among the major languages in the world. If the ILPP cannot provide adequate protection for a language this big, there is a serious question as to whether it can provide adequate protection for more than 700 other heritage languages in Indonesia. Furthermore, the ILPP is considered exemplary, one that signifies a victory in LPP. If an LPP that is so exemplary cannot offer adequate protection to heritage languages, there emerge serious questions as to the appropriateness and adequacy of a more typical LPP for heritage languages.

Finally, this study makes a contribution to the field of LPP analysis, which still constitutes an emerging field of research (Baldauf, 2002).

#### **1.4. Research Questions**

The overall objective of this study was to analyse the ILPP position on heritage languages and to compare this position with the Macro Perspectives of other LPP references and the Micro Perspective of some informed users of a heritage language. In order to attain this objective, the following research questions were generated:

1. What is the Indonesian government's language policy and planning for heritage languages, specifically the Javanese heritage language?
2. What are the views of heritage language teachers in Yogyakarta, Indonesia, on the extent to which language policy and planning influences the domains of usage for the Javanese heritage language?
3. What are the implications of the Indonesian language policy and planning and the teachers' views, with respect to the future of heritage languages in Indonesia?

## 1.5. Research Design and Limitations

This study involved a rigorous analysis of the Indonesian Language Policy and Planning (ILPP). Quade, quoted in Dunn (1994) defines policy analysis as an analysis that generates and presents information to improve the basis for policy-makers to exercise their judgment. Dunn (1994) declares that policy analysis involves the formulation of a problem in search of solutions. The policy problem concerning heritage language shift in Indonesia constitutes what de Bruijn, ten Heuvelhof, and Enserink (2013) refer to as an “untamed scientific problem” (p. 135), one in which there is a high consensus on normative objectives but little certainty on knowledge available.

1. The normative objective is reflected in the Constitution, e.g., in Article 32, Verse 32.

*Negara menghormati dan memelihara bahasa daerah sebagai kekayaan budaya nasional.*

[The state respects and conserves heritage languages as a national cultural heritage].

2. The possible lack of knowledge is reflected in the fact that while various theories and studies elsewhere have underlined the importance of public domains for heritage languages to stem their decline, there has been no Indonesian study that addresses this issue in relation to the ILPP.

In this context, this study aimed to fill this gap by providing information on this issue through analysing the possible relationship between the ILPP and language shift and exploring the alternatives, in order to attain the shared normative objective as declared in the Constitution.

This study constitutes a transitional phase in the policy cycle, namely, between the evaluation of past and present policy and the problem structuring of a future policy. The core activity in this study consisted of diagnosing the problem as well as exploring possible solutions. It started with diagnosing the possible relationship between the nature of the ILPP and shift in heritage languages, and then explored alternatives. One of the alternatives was based on a Micro Perspective (through the survey of selected informed heritage language users) and another was based on Macro Perspectives (through a documentary study of a comparable policy).

The study was subject several limitations:

1. Limitation of analysis

Dunn (1994) declares that there are five procedures for policy analysis, namely, problem structuring, agenda setting, forecasting, recommendations, and evaluation. However, he also asserts that, given time and resource constraints, a policy analyst typically addresses one or more procedures, but seldom all of them. Accordingly, this study incorporates some elements of evaluation and problem structuring. (Detailed explanation is provided in Section 3.1. of Chapter Three).

2. Limitation of generalisation for the ILPP analysis

The ILPP is manifested in the Indonesian national language laws, which apply to all heritage languages and all areas, and Yogyakarta language bylaws, which apply only to the Yogyakarta area. As a result, the findings on Indonesian national laws might or might not be applicable to other heritage languages. However, the finding on Yogyakarta bylaws is only applicable to Yogyakarta province. Of course, due to the similarity of the constraints facing the Javanese language with the ones facing other heritage languages, the findings, by analogy, might be applicable to other heritage languages.

3. Limitation of archival sources in Strand 1

This research analysed only the laws and regulations that had been enacted at the time of collection of materials for analysis. In exploring options for new LPP, only the most relevant documentary materials were consulted.

4. Limitation of subject in Strand 2

The subjects in Strand 2 were heritage language teachers. These teachers may not constitute the ultimate experts in heritage language. However, throughout the world, teachers are critical to the process of heritage language conservation and generally contribute a major, and sometimes even the sole, effort in heritage language conservation (Judd, 1992; Barrena, Idiazabal, Juaristi, Junyent, Ortega, and Uranga, 2006). With their hands-on experience, they may provide a Micro Perspective, with experience-based insights for what is to be done in conserving heritage languages. Their possible lack of theoretical expertise is compensated for by the insights from the Macro Perspectives in this study.

5. Limitation of heritage language teachers

In Yogyakarta, only the Javanese language is taught as the heritage language. Therefore, only Javanese language teachers were involved in the survey.

#### 6. Limitation of generalisation of survey results

A survey was administered to explore the view of certain informed users in Sleman regency. It did not purport to seek the representative views of all heritage language users in Indonesia (237 million speakers of over 700 other heritage languages) or Javanese language speakers (around 84 million in 3 provinces). It sought to find an indication of aggregate views of certain informed Javanese language users. This involved the ones who live in a Javanese heartland, and who taught the Javanese language, and thus were assumed to have closer attachment to and knowledge of the Javanese language. Thus, their views might more accurately reveal what was required to conserve the Javanese language. However, by analogy, the findings might be useful as an indication for other heritage languages, as the constraints imposed on other heritage languages are similar to those imposed on the Javanese language.

### 1.6. Definitions of Key Terms

The research questions contain a number of key terms, which are defined below, some of which are elaborated further in the text.

#### 1. Language policy and planning (LPP)

*Language policy and planning* (LPP) comprises the set of efforts to (a) allocate the uses or functions of a language (b) develop the language (Cooper, 1984; Amery 2001), mainly through laws (Spolsky, 2004).

#### 2. Domains

a. With respect to status and acquisition planning, domain is an *area of language use* (Rohr, in Fishman, 1972 b) or an *area of language function* (Stewart, 1968; Cooper, 1989; Amery, 2001).

b. With respect to corpus planning, one does not usually refer to domain; rather, one refers to the aspect of language development (Haugen, 1972).

#### 3. Distribution of domains

This refers to the *range* and *state* of provision/allocation of domains.

a. Range of allocation of domains refers to the scope of allocation of domains, based on Stewart's (1968) and Cooper's (1989) classification.

- b. State of allocation of domains refers to the extent/degree or allocation of domains, which comprises four kinds: regulated and compulsory (RC), regulated and optional (RO), regulated and prohibited (RP) and not regulated (NR).
- 4. Heritage languages and Javanese (heritage) language  
Heritage languages are non-societal and non-majority languages (Valdez, 2005). The Javanese language is the language of the ethnic Javanese.
- 5. Yogyakarta  
Yogyakarta in this study refers to the Sleman regency of the Yogyakarta Special Region province, not the whole of Yogyakarta province.

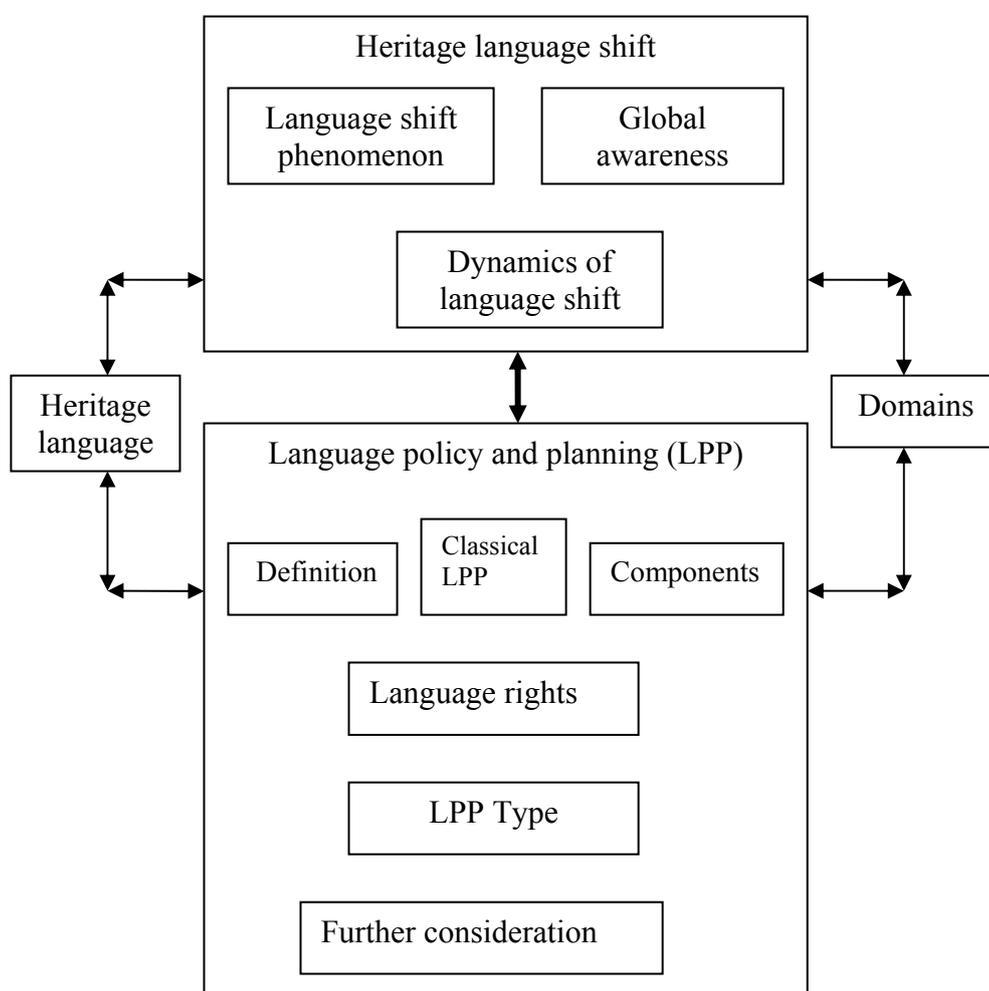
### **1.7. Organisation of the Thesis**

The thesis consists of the following chapters. Chapter One, the Introduction and Overview, contains the background of the study, an overview of the whole study, including its purpose, significance, research questions, research design and limitations, and the organisation of the thesis. Chapter Two, the Literature Review, consists of a review of various materials that provide the theoretical framework for the study. Chapter Three, the Methodology, comprises the overall plan to conduct the study. Chapter Four, the Findings, has two sections. The first section involves analysis of the ILPP, with a summary and inference of its ILPP type. The second section deals with the findings of the survey of the Javanese language teachers. Chapter Five discusses the implications of the findings from the ILPP analysis with respect to language shift, the mandate from the Constitution, preference for speech levels, the Macro Perspectives, and timely implementation. Chapter Six includes a summary, options for implementation, reflection on this study, and recommendations for further studies.

## CHAPTER TWO

### LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature presented in this chapter addresses the interrelated areas of concern with regard to language policy and planning (LPP) in Indonesia. These areas comprise (a) the shift in heritage languages, and (b) language policy and planning. Figure 3 shows the interaction of these areas in a simplified conceptual framework with the concepts of heritage languages and domains acting as additional connections between them.



**Figure 3 Simplified Conceptual Framework**

The main purposes of this study were to identify (1) the type of the Indonesian language policy and planning, and (2) to explore alternatives in order to stem the language shift in the country. In order to establish a theoretical foundation for the study, the following literature materials were surveyed. This chapter begins by discussing the concept of heritage languages (2.1.) and domains (2.2). The discussion will proceed with language shift in Indonesia and global awareness for conserving heritage language (2.3.). Then, the discussion moves to an examination of the dynamics of language shift (Section 2.4.). The concept of language policy and planning (LPP), being a key focus of this study, is explored via five sections. The discussion starts with the definition of LPP (Section 2.5.) and the components of LPP (2.6). Subsequently, attention is devoted to the inadequacy of classical LPP (2.7) and the attempt to correct the inadequacy through the theory of language rights (2.8), the typology of LPP (2.9), and stemming language shift through LPP (2.10). The chapter closes with the presentation of a conceptual framework (2.11) and a summary (2.12).

## **2.1. Heritage languages**

It is important to first examine in more detail the terms to be used in this study. The first term is ‘heritage language’. While several writers use terms such as ‘vernacular’ (Cooper, 1989) or ‘regional or minority language’ (Grin, 2003), the term ‘heritage language’ has been selected for use in this study because (1) it is frequently used in the literature, and (2) it serves as a reminder that language is a part of a person’s familial and cultural heritage (Perez, 2010).

Valdez (2005) maintains that the term ‘heritage languages’ broadly refers to non-societal and non-majority languages that are spoken by groups that are referred to as linguistic minorities. She declares that such minorities comprise those that are indigenous in particular regions of nation-states, such as the Aborigines in Australia or the Bretons in France, as well as those that migrate to other countries, such as the Mexicans in the U.S.A. and the Arabs in England.

Migrant languages may have territorial bases in some other countries while indigenous languages generally are endemic. For example, Arabic may be a migrant language in England; however, it has territorial bases, in the sense that it is the national or official language in a lot of countries in the Middle East. By contrast,

Amerindian languages do not have territorial bases, at the national level nor regional level, in any country. Similarly, with the exception of Malay-related languages, most heritage languages in Indonesia are endemic. For example, the Javanese language, with 84,300,000 speakers in Indonesia, is used mostly in Central Java, Eastern Java, and migrant pockets in Sumatra, Papua, and other islands in Indonesia (Ethnologue, 2014). According to the same source, the number of Javanese speakers in all countries amounts to 84,308,740; thus, there is hardly significant numbers of users of Javanese language outside Indonesia. In other words, the Javanese language is basically spoken within Indonesia. Similar conditions also apply to other heritage languages. This distinction, between migrant and indigenous languages, has some serious consequences for their survival; these consequences will be discussed later.

### **2.1.1. Heritage languages in Indonesia**

As the study involves heritage languages in Indonesia, it is essential to examine how the term is defined in the country. As the term will be used in the analysis of the Indonesian language policy and planning (ILPP), which is embodied in Indonesian legal texts, the definition for heritage language comes from the legal texts, and this definition can be found in U 24. Article 1, point 6 of the law defines *bahasa daerah* (heritage languages) as “... bahasa yang digunakan secara turun-temurun oleh warga negara Indonesia di daerah-daerah di wilayah Negara Kesatuan Republik Indonesia” [the languages that are used from generation to generation by Indonesian citizens in the regions within the areas of the Unitary State of the Republic of Indonesia]. Ethnologue (2014) mentions 719 languages (706 living and 13 dead) in Indonesia. Apart from the Indonesian language and migrant languages, such as Mandarin and Arabic, the rest are indigenous languages. They belong to either the Austronesian or the Melanesian family of languages and consist of three groups (Poedjosoedarmo, 1976):

1. Malay dialects, such as the Betawi, Riau Malay, Banjar, Manado, and Kupang languages
2. Large heritage languages, which comprise the languages that differ from Malay or the Indonesian language and possess large numbers of speakers, such as the Javanese, Sundanese, Madura, Minangkabau, and Balinese languages. They usually have developed literature traditions as well.

3. Small heritage languages, which comprise the languages that differ from Malay or the Indonesian language and possess relatively fewer speakers, such as the Manggarai, Kubu, and Badui languages and most languages in Papua.

### **2.1.2. The Javanese language**

Among these heritage languages, the Javanese language is the one with the largest number of speakers in Indonesia and is spoken mainly in Central and Eastern Java.

Sumukti (1971) classifies the Javanese language into 3 dialect groups:

The western subgroup consists of the Banyumas and Tegal dialects in the western area of the Central Java province.

The central subgroup is made up of the dialects of Bagelen, Kedu, Yogyakarta, Surakarta, Semarang, and Jepara-Rembang, in the mid and eastern areas of the Central Java province.

The eastern subgroup comprises the dialects spoken in the Eastern Java province.

The varieties in Yogyakarta and Surakarta are perceived as representing the best form of the language, and both cities are thought of as centres of the Javanese language and Javanese culture (Errington, 1985).

A particular feature of the Javanese language is the existence of speech levels, which at present comprise four levels (Harjawiya and Supriya, 2001):

1. *Krama alus* (high and refined)
2. *Krama* (high)
3. *Ngoko alus* (low and refined)
4. *Ngoko* (low)

The use of these levels is governed by the social standing between the speakers. A younger person is expected to use higher levels, preferably *krama alus*, when s/he converses with an older person. A subordinate is expected to do likewise when s/he communicates with a superior. On the other hand, the older person may choose to use any of the four levels. However, if the younger person is of a similar or higher social standing, the older person is expected to return the compliment by using higher levels. Ignoring the usage, e.g., by using lower levels when the expectation is to use higher levels, is regarded as rude manners or low education and may cause embarrassment or offence.

The existence of these levels may affect the effort for conserving the language, as will be discussed in ‘Implications’ (Chapter 5). Additional information on the Javanese language is presented in Appendix 18.

## **2.2. Domains**

An understanding of ‘domains’ is essential in the discussion of language shift and LPP. Fishman (1972 b) gives an abstract definition:

A domain is a socio-cultural construct abstracted from topics of communication, relationships between communicators, and locales of communication, in accord with the institutions of a society and the spheres of activity of a speech community, in such a way that individual behaviour and social patterns could be distinguished from each other and yet related to each other (p. 20).

Fishman (1972) further asserts that domains are defined in terms of institutional contexts of socio-ecological co-occurrences and that they designate “the major clusters of interaction situations that occur in particular multilingual settings” (p. 19). However, he also declares that Schmidt-Rohr (quoted in Fishman, 1972) and others simply designate domains as areas of language use or spheres of (language) activity.

Fishman (1972) states that there is not a fixed set of domains that is applicable to all multilingual settings. He maintains that a researcher has some discretion as to how s/he would categorise the domains in his/her study and, as long as the construct helps clarify and organise his/her data, then the construct is validated. In this respect, the shorter definition of domains, originating from Schmidt-Rohr, has been adopted by this study. Various scholars, e.g., Kennedy (1982), Cooper, (1989), Gadellii, (1999), Hornberger (1994), use the term ‘language function’ and ‘language use’ interchangeably and thus domains refer to areas of language uses or functions.

Annamalai (2003) broadly distinguishes domains into public and private domains. He underscores the difference of these two clusters:

1. Language use in public domains may need legislation in order to resolve the competition among languages and thus the government will intervene in this domain; it is also the area of power because the language that is legislated or

allotted for use in the public domains gives material and social reward to its adopters.

2. Language use in private domains depends on the preference of users; they comprise the area of solidarity, which expresses cultural and social identification with the chosen language and with users of the same language choice.

### 2.2.1. Public domains

Annamalai (2003) defines the cluster of public domains as those where linguistic communities converge and compete regarding language use. He gives, as examples, the language used in government, courts, and schools, with their multiple levels. Stewart (1968) provides a list of functions that could be conferred on a language. Cooper (1989) reviewed Stewart’s list and added two of his own. A combination of Stewart’s and Cooper’s lists is presented in the following tables, in which a linguistic system may refer to a language or a dialect of a language.

**Table 2 List of Public Functions (Stewart, 1968, and Cooper, 1989)**

No	Public language function
1.	<p>National official language (o)</p> <p>This is the use of a linguistic system for an official language, i.e., one that is legally appropriate for all political and cultural purposes, on a nationwide basis. Cooper (1989) divides official languages into three types:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a. A statutory official language is the language that is explicitly designated as such in the constitution.</li> <li>b. A working official language is the one that is used by the government for its day-to-day activities.</li> <li>c. A symbolic official language is the language that is used for symbolic purposes, i.e., as a symbol of the state.</li> </ol> <p>He also asserts that a language may be official in one, two, or all of the three senses. For example, in India, Hindi functions as statutory, working, and symbolic official language, while English serves as a statutory and working official language but not as a symbolic official language. In Singapore, four languages (Malay, English, Mandarin, and Tamil) serve as statutory and working official functions, with Malay also being given a symbolic function. Official language function includes signage language.</p>

**Table 2 (Continued) List of Public Functions (Stewart, 1968, and Cooper, 1989)**

	Public language function
2.	<p>Provincial official language (p)</p> <p>This is an official language on a provincial or regional basis. It may also have statutory, working, or symbolic provincial official functions. For example, in Quebec, Canada, French is a provincial official language (Spolsky, 2004). In the Tamil Nadu state, India, Tamil is the provincial co-official language, alongside Hindi and English (Groff, 2003).</p> <p>A case could be made that under provincial language function there is reserve language function, in which the language functions as official in a special zone, namely, a cultural or language reserve area.</p>
3.	<p>Language for wider communication (wc)</p> <p>This is the use of a linguistic system for a medium of communication across language boundaries within the nation. Cooper (1989) regards this 'wc' function as separate from the 'o' or 'p' functions, giving for example the case in many parts of India, where English serves as a 'wc' language. In the Indonesian context, the Malay language has long served as a 'wc' language since before the Dutch administration in most parts of the Indonesian archipelago.</p>
4.	<p>International language (i)</p> <p>This is the use of a linguistic system as a major medium of communication that is international in scope, i.e., as the language for diplomatic relations, foreign trade, or tourism. Nowadays, the language with the most prominent international function is English. However, to some extent, other languages, such as French, Russian, Spanish, Arabic and Mandarin also have this function.</p>
5.	<p>Capital language (c)</p> <p>This is the use of a linguistic system (other than one which already has an "o" or 'p' function) as a major medium of communication in the area and vicinity of the capital. This function is important because languages often spread from the political and economic centre to the peripheral areas.</p>
6.	<p>Group language (g)</p> <p>This is the use of a linguistic system primarily as the medium of communication among the members of a single ethnic group.</p>
7.	<p>Educational language (e)</p> <p>This is the use of linguistic system (other than one which already has an "o" or "p" function) as a medium of instruction in primary or secondary schools, either regionally or nationally.</p>
8.	<p>Language as a school subject (s)</p> <p>This linguistic system (other than one which already has an 'o' or 'p' function) is the subject matter for instruction at schools/higher education.</p>
9.	<p>Literary language (l)</p> <p>This is the use of a linguistic system primarily for literary or scholarly purposes. It is proposed that this includes the use of a language for science and technology. The reason is that both literary and scholarly language requires the development of special registers and that both hold high prestige.</p>

**Table 2 (Continued) List of Public Functions (Stewart, 1968, and Cooper, 1989)**

	Public language function
10.	Religious language (r) This is the use of a linguistic system primarily in connection with the ritual of a particular religion, such as Arabic in Moslem communities.
11.	Mass media language (m) This is the use of a linguistic system as the medium by which printed media are written and electronic media (television and radio) are broadcast. This use includes the language used in the virtual world (the internet), as the latter now reaches a wider audience than the other media.
12.	Language for the workplace (w) This is the use of a linguistic system as the medium of communication at the workplace. In view of the importance of work for people and the large portion of their time that is spent at workplaces, the regulation as to what language(s) can be used in the workplace may contribute to the value that may be attached to the languages. A case could be made that within the workplace language function there is the public service area language function. In the former, the focus is on communication for work effectiveness, while in the latter the focus is on the customer's convenience.

Note: In the table above, nos. 1 – 10 are from Stewart's original classification (1967) while nos. 11-12 are added by Cooper (1989)

Gadellii (1999) declares that the larger the number of domains in which a language is recognised, the higher its status. He adds that that the following societal domains are important in relation to status planning of a language: government, assembly/parliament, courts, administration, education, business, and media.

### **2.2.2. Private domains**

Annamalai (2003) defines the cluster of private domains as the ones where individuals communicate with others. He gives the locales of the private domains as home, local markets and places of entertainment.

Ferguson (2006) declares that status planning refers to the allocation of functions in official domains. However, Amery (2001) argues that, with respect to the effort to revive a language, the status planning also needs to address the use of a language in private domains. Two private domains that are important for language revival are home and neighbourhood domains.

**Table 3 List of Private Functions**

	Private language function
1.	Home or family language This is the use of a linguistic system as the medium of communication at home, i.e., among parents, children and other family members. The home language function is particularly significant, as the survival of a heritage language depends very much on the intergenerational transmission of the heritage language (the passing down of the language from parents to children) (Fishman, 1991).
2.	Neighbourhood or community language This is the use of a linguistic system to be the medium of communication among neighbours and in places where community members interact informally, as in the market, shops, recreation centres, public libraries, theatres, zoos, sport grounds, etc. Fishman (1991) stresses the importance of this domain in the <i>triangle</i> network of maintenance of a heritage language, which consists of family, neighbourhood, and school.

Having discussed the concepts of heritage languages and domains, attention will now be turned to the first area of concern in this study, namely, language shift.

### **2.3. Language Shift**

This study has been triggered by an apparent shift from heritage languages to the national language in Indonesia. In order for the heritage languages to be conserved, there is a need to map policies in order to identify ways that will support heritage languages and their continuation. In this respect, it is essential to draw insights and experiences from other countries. In order to present the rationale for the policies, the discussion is first devoted to the language shift in Indonesia, to be followed by an exposition on language shift reversal efforts in other countries.

#### **2.3.1. The shift from heritage languages to the national language in Indonesia**

It has been shown (Table 1, Chapter I) that heritage languages in Indonesia are declining. In this context, there are two opposing views. Some researchers believe that Indonesian heritage languages are not in immediate danger. Nababan (1991) asserts that, with the exception of the languages with few speakers, it does not seem likely that heritage languages would die out. Similarly, Musgrave (2010) comments that several major heritage languages, which have speakers in the millions, have been more successful in accessing resources and institutional support which assist in

language maintenance. Muhadjir and Lauder (quoted by Sobarna, 2007) indicate that 85% of the Indonesian population still uses them for communication at home. These researchers seem to suggest that while the languages with a small number of speakers may die out, those with large numbers may survive.

However, there are other indications that the situation might be more critical. As early as 1976, in a conference on heritage languages, concerns were expressed that heritage languages were losing prestige, that some were in danger of dying out, and that more functions that used to be served by heritage languages were progressively taken over by the national language, Indonesian (Poedjosoedarmo, 1976). Errington (1985) observes a decline among the younger generation who acquire or speak heritage languages in Java. Alip (1993), Gunarwan (2002), Mardikantoro (2007), Pujiastuti, Surono, and Maziyah (2008), and Subroto, Dwiraharjo, Maryono, and Setyawan (2007, 2008) reveal the decline of the Javanese language. A similar trend of decline is observed by Alamsyah, Taib, Azwardi, and Idham (2011) for the Aceh language in northern Sumatra, Sobarna (2007) for the Sundanese language in western Java, Yadnya (2003) for the Balinese language, Willian (2005) for the Sasak language in Lombok, Basri (2008) for local languages in Palu (Sulawesi), and Darwis (2011) for the Bugis and Makassar languages in Sulawesi. Abdullah (1999, 2006) and Gunarwan (2006) expose the decline of Indonesian heritage languages in general. These studies essentially reveal that the Indonesian language has started to replace heritage languages in the private domains (community and family).

Kurniasih's study (2006) deserves some attention as it reveals strong evidence of a language shift in Yogyakarta, which is considered a centre of Javanese language and culture (Errington, 1985). In her study, Kurniasih reveals that (1) middle class parents and children are much more likely to use Indonesian than their working class counterparts, and (2) mothers and female children are more likely to use Indonesian than their male counterparts.

Attitudes have also changed. Hardjatmo (in Sumarsono and Partana, 2000) finds that among the Javanese ethnic groups in Jakarta, those under 50 used less Javanese language at home as compared to those over 50 and the difference is statistically significant. Aruan, also in Sumarsono and Partana (2000), find that the Batak ethnic group members in Jakarta have a less positive attitude to their language. Kurniasih (2006) reveals that the Javanese language is viewed by many respondents, who are

Javanese native speakers, as a sign of backwardness. These findings seem to confirm Abdullah's (1999) observation that people, especially among upper class circles and the younger generation, progressively switch to the Indonesian language in the family and community.

What is significant from these studies is the fact that some parents do not transmit their heritage languages to their children, an essential requirement for heritage language conservation. In this respect, using the Extended Graded Intergenerational Disruption Scale (EGIDS) (Lewis and Simmons (2009) (see Appendix 5), the general position of heritage languages in Indonesia appears to be in Stage 6b (threatened), in which the languages are used orally by all generations but only some parents are transmitting them to their children.

These studies also reveal several other factors-such as urbanisation, gender, socio-economic class, age, and perception that may also affect the shift from heritage languages to the national language. For example, Kurniasih (2006) shows the effect of socio-economic class and gender, while Abdullah (1999) reveals the effect of socio-economic class and age. In general, these studies reveal that the shift is stronger in urban areas than rural areas. However, none of these studies explore what might be the most important factor, namely, the lack of policies that support heritage languages.

In other words, despite this shift in Indonesian heritage languages, there is a dearth of studies which examine the Indonesian language policy position towards heritage languages. The few studies that discuss the way to conserve heritage languages do not directly address the language policy. For example, Nurhayati (2010) recommends the use of the Javanese language in schools and mass media, while Subroto, Dwiraharjo, Maryono, and Setyawan (2008) propose a way to develop a model for Javanese language instruction. This suggests that an analysis of the Indonesian language policy position is urgently required.

### **2.3.2. Heritage language protection**

Language shift is a phenomenon that happens not only in Indonesia but also in other countries (Fishman, 1991; Brenzinger, 1997; Coulmas, 2007). In this context, it is useful to examine some overseas studies of LPP and their impact on heritage languages. Fishman (2001) declares that a common mechanism for reversing

language shift is to elevate the status of heritage languages so that they are used in the public domains. Amery (2001), in his study of Australian Aboriginal languages, states that language revival and revitalization needs to include the extension of the domains of use for the language (status planning), the increase in the users of the language (acquisition planning), and the development of the language itself (corpus planning). Paulston (1994), in her study of language shift in Europe, and Brenzinger (1997) and Coulmas (2007), in their studies on language shift in Africa, the Indian sub-continent, and other regions, underline the importance of public domains for heritage languages, due to the fact that language shift usually takes place from the heritage languages that do not serve public functions to the dominant language that does serve the public functions.

Barrena, Idiazabal, Junyent, Ortega, and Uranga (2006) also emphasise the significance of whether a heritage language is accorded an official or co-official status, either on a national or regional basis. Based on the analysis of UNESCO worldwide studies on heritage languages, they declare:

It is to be noted that most of the languages that had declined were languages that did not have any official recognition. Similarly, of the languages that increased their number of speakers, 59% were official and 40% were co-official (p. 17).

Furthermore, their analysis shows that among the heritage languages that thrive 99% have official or co-official status and only 1% have managed to thrive without any official status. Thus, the probability that a heritage language could thrive without official status is very low.

In the face of growing threats to heritage languages, the international community has begun to respond. For example, the European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages has guidelines for implementing various levels of language rights for speakers of regional or minority languages, in the field of regional government administration - including the public service, education, media, cultural activities, and economic and social life (Grin, 2003). In 2002 UNESCO proclaimed the UNESCO Declaration on Cultural Diversity, which includes respect for mother tongue and the fostering of multilingualism from the youngest age.

Meanwhile, various countries have implemented active measures to prevent the demise of heritage languages. In Spain, the former Franco government only acknowledged Castilian as the sole official language for the whole of Spain; however, the ensuing pluralistic government grants co-official status to the Catalan language in Catalonia (Fishman, 1991). The UK government has granted co-official status to the Welsh language (Huws, 2006). The Dutch government has granted co-official status to the Frisian language (Ytsma, 2007). This has not only happened in Europe. In South Africa, post-apartheid, its constitution grants national official status to 11 languages (Sepedi, Sesotho, Setswana, isiSwati, Tshivenda, Xitsonga, Afrikaans, English, isNdebele, isiXshosa and isiZulu) (The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa). Singapore accords national official status to four languages (Chinese, Indian, Malay, and English) (Kaplan and Baldauf, 2003). New Zealand grants co-official status to Maori in 1987 (Fishman, 1991). India has made several amendments to its constitution to grant regional official status to 18 heritage languages (The Constitution of India).

In summary, these studies emphasize the importance of the allocation of public domains through LPP for heritage language conservation. In Indonesia several studies reveal an apparent decline among heritage languages. Therefore, it is surprising that there is still a dearth of studies that analyse the ILPP for its allocation of public domains for heritage languages. As a consequence, there is a need for scrutiny of the ILPP position, in order to find out if it allocates public domains for heritage languages and, if so, what these domains are.

While an interrogation of the ILPP position has not been undertaken, some comparisons can be made with some relevant studies elsewhere. Abdelhay (2007) analyses the Sudanese Naivasha language accord, which comprises four statements, using critical discourse analysis, and performs a comparative analysis with the Nigerian language policy. He demonstrates that a regional language policy could be developed and that official trilingualism could be adopted at the state level, in which Arabic, English, and a local heritage language constitute the official languages. He also acknowledges the difficulty of implementing the Naivasha accord.

Murwamphida (2008) assesses the implementation of the revised South African LPP to the Tshivanda heritage language, through a survey of language users' views. Her finding reveals that the Tshivanda heritage language is not yet used extensively in

various public domains, despite its status as one of the eleven national languages in South Africa.

Coronel-Molina (2010) examines the Peruvian LPP concerning the status and acquisition planning of the Quechua language in Peru. She uses Stewart's (1968) list of language functions as a framework for analysis. She finds that Quechua has lost many of its former domains and that the loss has had a negative effect on its status and prestige. She recommends a combination of top-down and bottom-up approaches, in which the essence is to expand the language into new domains to increase its status.

These examples show that LPP analysis and evaluation constitute an emerging field, which employs diverse approaches. In this respect, Abdelhaay (2007) and Coronel-Molina (2009) represent what might be called a 'top-down' approach, in which studies are conducted from the perspective of state policy, which is constructed by government. By contrast, Murhwamphida (2008) represents what might be called a 'bottom-up' approach, in which a study is conducted from the perspective of users, namely, the people that use the language. It is envisaged that a study that combines both approaches may provide a more comprehensive perspective. Therefore, this study adopts both approaches.

## **2.4. The Dynamics of Language Shift**

This study was triggered by the evidence of a shift from heritage languages to the Indonesian language, as revealed by various studies in the previous section. Such a shift usually occurs in an unstable multilingual society (Fishman, 1972 a; Romaine, 1989), where there is a difference in value and prestige between heritage languages and the dominant language. Therefore, an understanding is required of the types of multilingual society and the effect of the difference in value and prestige on language shift.

### **2.4.1. The unstable multilingual society in Indonesia**

In order to understand the unstable multilingual society in Indonesia, it is essential to distinguish several configurations of multilingual societies (Romaine, 1989, based on Fishman, 1967):

Configuration A: Multilingual society with multilingual individuals

Configuration B: Multilingual society with monolingual individuals

Configuration C: Monolingual society with multilingual individuals

Configuration D: Monolingual society with monolingual individuals

According to Fishman (1967) and Romaine (1989), configurations A, B, and D are relatively stable; however, configuration C is unstable and is vulnerable to language shift. Configuration C is of particular interest because it reflects the Indonesian situation. Here, the Indonesian language is the national official language, which everybody is expected to master. On the other hand, most Indonesians also belong to various ethnic groups with their own heritage languages. Therefore, Indonesia is a multilingual society (Paauw, 2009), of configuration C, which is unstable and vulnerable to shift.

#### **2.4.2. Triggers for language shift**

There are two important aspects that affect language shift, namely, language utility and prestige. Crystal (2000) attributes language decline to two general causes: (1) physical danger, such as wars, famine, diseases, and natural disasters, and (2) shrinking domains. He elaborates that, in the latter case, people find that they have fewer opportunities to use their language, because it has been officially excluded in formal/public domains, such as the public service, business or the media. Quoting from Fishman, Crystal (2000) refers to this situation as the ‘folklorization’ (p. 83), in which the language gradually disappears from the more significant side of life and is used only in domains with lesser utility and prestige, such as arts, popular entertainment, and folklore. The loss of a domain, in addition to reducing utility and prestige, also causes a loss of vocabulary, discourse patterns, and stylistic range. The language, having lost most domains, may eventually be abandoned because there is little subject matter for people to talk about and little vocabulary left to facilitate the talk.

Coulmas (2005) declares that utility is an economic notion which has been involved in the analysis of language shift and other macro-sociolinguistic processes. He asserts that language has a utility value, and that the actual and perceived utility value of languages in contact situations is a valid predictor of language shift and maintenance. In this respect, the users of a language may compare the utility of

various languages and they may seek what is in their best interests. What is in their best interests is, in turn, affected by sociological elements: if the society allocates different functions to different languages, the users may use different languages for different functions. However, if the society favours a certain language for all functions, then the users might gradually select the chosen language and abandon the others.

Paulston (1994) observes that heritage language speakers tend to shift to the dominant language, which gives economic rewards as well as prestige. The rewards come if the particular language has some public functions. She underlines the importance of utility in language shift, in that it determines the direction of shift. She declares that the prolonged contact of minor languages with the dominant languages has three possible outcomes: (1) language maintenance, (2) bilingualism, or (3) language shift. She argues that ethnic groups within a modern nation state, given opportunity and incentive, typically shift to the dominant language. The reason is that economic incorporation of an ethnic group with access to the goods and services of a nation is the common goal of minority groups. As a result, if opportunity of access to the dominant language is present simultaneously with incentives, especially socio-economic ones, motivation will develop to shift to the dominant language.

Meanwhile, in her case study of the Quechua heritage language in Peru, Coronel-Molina (2010) observes that it is declining due to loss of various public domains and lack of prestige, and that its revitalisation essentially consists of the expansion of the language into new domains to increase its status. Ager (1997) argues that economically necessary languages are attractive to language users while languages that do not offer economic value lose their attraction and may disappear. Strubell (2001) contends that among bilingual people, especially among young people starting to raise a family, there are two main factors in their selection of languages: language loyalty and the perception of language usefulness.

Mufwene (2002) agrees that the cause for shifting to a particular language, in addition to prestige, is typically associated with benefits, especially economic benefit, to be gained from its usage. To sum up, these writers essentially suggest that the lack of value and prestige constitute significant factors in the shift from heritage languages to the dominant language.

### 2.4.3. The significance of language shift to indigenous heritage languages

In Section 2.1., it has been noted that most Indonesian heritage languages are endemic. This endemic state brings a grave consequence with regard to language shift (Paulston, 1994):

... languages also spread for purposes of within-nation communication, and when they do so, not as an additional language, like English in Nigeria, but as a new mother tongue, then language spread becomes a case of language shift. *When such language shift takes place within groups who do not possess another territorial base, we have a case of language death* (pp. 9-10) (Italics added).

Brenzinger (1997) declares that language displacement/shift has become a global phenomenon:

In all parts of the world, there is an increasing tendency among members of ethnolinguistic minorities to bring up their children in a language other than their own mother tongue, thereby abandoning their former ethnic language. *These changes in language used by individuals might ultimately lead to the irreversible disappearance of the minority's original language* (p. 274) (Italics added).

Quoting from Fasold, Coulmas (2004) declares that language shift is indicated by domain invasion. In small speech communities, language shift proceeds domain by domain. He also asserts that while the domestic domain is the last bastion, a heritage language that is reduced to the domestic domain is less likely to be maintained because each domain loss lessens its utility. Finally, he points out that language shift is always in the direction of the language of greater utility.

Coulmas (2004) reveals that the replacing language is often one of a few fast-spreading languages, such as English, Mandarin, Russian, Hindi-Urdu, Spanish, Portuguese, Arabic, French, Swahili, and Hausa. What is of concern is Coulmas's revelation that the replacing languages comprise not only languages that spread through colonialism/territorial expansion in the past, such as English, French, Russian, Spanish, Portuguese, and Arabic, but also languages that are associated as national languages at present, such as Mandarin in China, Hindi-Urdu in the Indian subcontinent, Swahili in Tanzania, and Hausa in Nigeria. His revelation shows that

national languages are capable of negatively affecting heritage languages, just as colonial languages did in the past. This fact ought to induce introspection in the countries that pursue the policy of developing a national official language of the need to take precautionary measures to avert the shift.

#### **2.4.4. Averting language shift**

It has been discussed that language shift is particularly problematic for indigenous heritage languages. In this respect, Tollefson (1991) and Paulston (1994) declare that language shift could be prevented through three ways:

1. Isolation or boundary maintenance, either self-imposed or externally-imposed  
This happens, for example, in the Amish society in the USA or the Badui society in Indonesia, or in the case of the black community in the USA.
2. Diglossic situation  
Here, two languages exist in a situation of functional distribution where each language has its specified purposes and domains; each language is inappropriate in the other's domains. This is the case with Guarani and Spanish in Paraguay.
3. Creating a more equal playing field for heritage languages through revising LPP  
In a number of countries, the society, through LPP, protects the allocation of domains for a dominant language in certain (usually formal) domains, without the protection for other languages in other domains. As a consequence, an unequal playing field is created and diglossia leakage may occur, in which the dominant language penetrates the domains previously reserved for other languages, while the reverse could not happen, as the laws usually obligate the use of the dominant language in public domains. In order to prevent this situation, a conducive LPP needs to be established, one in which heritage languages also have access to formal/public domains.

Due to the progress in mobility, the first condition is very difficult to achieve by the general community. The second condition, whilst possible in some countries, like Paraguay, seems unattainable in others, as attested by the intrusion of the dominant language in the domains previously held by minority languages, as observed by Brenzinger (1997) and Coulmas (2004) in various countries and Gunarwan (2002), Abdullah (2006) and other writers in Indonesia. It is the third condition that appears to be attainable and which is the subject of exploration in this study.

Having discussed the first area of concern, attention will now turn to the second area of concern, which constitutes the core of the study, namely, language policy and planning (LPP).

## **2.5. Language Policy and Planning (LPP)**

Language shift worldwide, in general, and in Indonesia, in particular, constitutes a language problem. In this respect, Haugen (1972) declares that language planning is called for “wherever there are language problems” (p. 191). From the early works of Haugen (1966) and Kloss (1969), the concept has developed into the umbrella concept of ‘language policy and planning’ (LPP), in which the terms of ‘language policy’ and ‘language planning’ are sometimes used interchangeably and sometimes together. In this study they are used together.

### **2.5.1. Defining language policy**

There are a number of definitions for language policy. Spolsky (2004) declares that language policy “may refer to all language practices, beliefs and management decisions of a community or polity” (p. 9). He elaborates that the language policy of a speech community consists of three components:

1. Its language practices, i.e., the habitual pattern of selecting among the varieties that make up its linguistic repertoire
2. Its language beliefs or ideology, i.e., the beliefs about language and language use
3. Any specific efforts to modify or influence that practice by any kind of language intervention, planning or management.

He adds that language policy also exists in a country where there is no formal or written language policy; here the nature of the language policy must be inferred from its language practice of beliefs. In his example, he points out that in the USA there is no mention in federal law that English is the national language; however, the fact that the public domains, such as government and education, solely use English reflects an implicit policy that the adopted language is English.

Judd (1992) does not provide a direct definition of language policy. Instead, he offers a definition of policy as “the set of statements, objectives, and/or commands explicitly or implicitly decreed by some agency, organization, or other body (usually

governmental) with respect to any area over which the agency has jurisdiction” (p. 169). He states that the policy may constitute explicit statements or implicit assumptions and usually includes some plan for implementation to attain the objectives of the statements or commands.

Grin (2003) offers a detailed definition of language policy. He states that,

Language policy is a systematic, rational, theory-based effort at the societal level to modify the linguistic environment with a view to increasing aggregate welfare. It is typically conducted by official bodies or their surrogates and aimed at part or all of the population living under their jurisdiction (p. 30).

Subsequently, he elaborates the key terms in the definition.

1. “Systematic” means to be organised in a certain way to attain defined goals; “rational” refers to the logical links between means and ends; while “theory based” suggests the use of scientific analysis of reality and a causal relationship through which reality can be modified by policy.
2. “At the societal level” and “typically conducted by official bodies or their surrogates” indicate that language policy is a form of public policy under the responsibility of the state.
3. “Modify the linguistic environment” refers to the ability of the language policy to modify the status of various languages in society and influence essential features of the environment in which people live.
4. The goal of language policy is to ‘increase welfare’, either directly or indirectly.

Tollefson (1991) refers to language planning as “all conscious efforts to affect the structure or function of language varieties” and to language policy as “language planning by governments” (p. 16). For purposes of clarity, Tollefson’s (1991) definition has been adopted in this study.

### **2.5.2. Defining language planning**

Language planning also has a number of definitions. Quoting from Jernudd and Das Gupta, Fishman (1973) defines language planning as “the organised pursuit of solutions to language problems, typically at the national level” (p. 24). The problem may range from the lack of a national language, or the need for a language as the

medium of instruction at schools, to the need of new terms in a language vocabulary in order to meet new demands (Kaplan and Baldauf, 1997). Kennedy (1982) refers to language planning as “the planning of deliberate changes in the form or use of a language variety (or a variety), or languages (or varieties)” (p. 264).

Cooper (1989) refers to language planning as “deliberate efforts to influence the behaviour of others with respect to the acquisition, structure or functional allocation of their language codes” (p. 45). Cooper’s definition is significant as it mentions the three elements of language policy and planning, namely, acquisition planning, corpus (structure) planning and status (functional allocation) planning.

Kaplan and Baldauf (1997) define language planning as “a body of ideas, laws and regulations ... change rules, beliefs, and practices intended to achieve a planned change ... in the language use in one or more communities” (p.3). They contend that it is basically an attempt to modify the linguistic behaviour of some community for some reason and that its goal could be to promote, maintain, or to obstruct the growth of a language. According to Rubin and Jernudd (1971), language planning involves problem solving and is characterised by the formulation and evaluation of the best or optimal decision.

In this study, Cooper’s (1989) definition was adopted and combined with Tollefson’s (1991) definition of language policy. Therefore, in this study the Indonesian language policy is understood to be the efforts made by the Indonesian government to regulate languages and consists of status planning, corpus planning, and acquisition planning. However, because most researchers in this area couple policy with planning, in this study the compound umbrella term of ‘language policy and planning’ (LPP) is also used.

## **2.6. Components of Language Policy and Planning**

In order to understand the range of activities that comprise LPP, it is essential to discuss its components. Kloss (1969) is credited as the first scholar to classify LPP activities *into corpus planning* and *status planning* components, to which Cooper (1989) introduced the third component, *acquisition planning*. These will be clarified below in further detail.

### **2.6.1. Corpus planning**

Corpus planning is the intervention in the language itself (Kloss, 1969) and is intended to change the code or the form of a selected language (Ferguson, 2006). Hornberger (1994) refers to corpus planning as “those efforts that are related to the adequacy of the form or structure of languages/literacies” (p. 78). Kaplan and Baldauf (1997) classify corpus planning into codification and elaboration.

1. Codification comprises graphisation (the choice of an orthographic system), grammatication (the formulation of rules that describe the structure of a language), and lexication (the development of an appropriate lexicon).
2. Elaboration consists of terminological modernisation (the development of new lexical items, through borrowing or innovative word building) and stylistic development (the development of style in important domains).

### **2.6.2. Status planning**

Kloss (1969) refers to status planning as the intervention on the position of a language relative to those of other languages. Kennedy (1982) refers to status planning as “planning for particular functions or uses of a language” (p. 4). Cooper (1989) refers to status planning as “deliberate efforts to influence the allocation of functions among a community’s languages” (p. 99). Hornberger (1994) refers to status planning as “those efforts directed toward the allocations of functions of languages/ literacies in a given speech community ...” (p. 78). “Language status’ refers to the functional domains filled by a language within a society” (Coronel-Molina, 1999, p. 166).

Gadelii (1999) asserts that status planning “involves the allocation of languages to different societal domains ....” (p. 5). Grin (2003) asserts that status should be considered in its broad sense, not only as a language’s legal recognition but also as its social, political and economic positions. Ferguson (2006) states that status planning is intended to address the functions of language(s) in society and it typically refers to assigning languages to official domains of language use, such as government and education.

### **2.6.3. Acquisition planning**

Cooper (1989) asserts that acquisition planning aims to disseminate or increase the number of users (listeners, speakers, readers, and writers) of a language and that its activities comprise (1) acquisition of a second or foreign language, (2) re-acquisition of a language by people who regard it as a vernacular, and (3) language maintenance as efforts to stop the death of a language. Hornberger (1994) refers to acquisition planning as “efforts to influence the allocation of users or the distribution of languages/ literacies, by means of creating or improving opportunities or incentives to learn them, or both” (p. 78).

Cooper (1989) declares that the greater part of acquisition planning involves language-in-education policy and planning. Judd (1992) maintains that educational institutions serve an important role in language cultivation and conservation. He argues that in numerous countries of the world, language instruction in schools constitutes a significant share of language cultivation and conservation, while in other countries, the schools provide the only means by which languages are cultivated and conserved. As revealed in Chapter Four, Indonesia seems to use the same strategy, which according to Kaplan and Baldauf (1997) is not adequate for language cultivation or preservation.

### **2.7. The Inadequacy of Classical Language Policy and Planning**

The previous two sections describe the nature of LPP. However, despite LPP being established to deal with language problems, there is no indication as to how an LPP could counter language shift. This situation probably results from the fact that LPP, as pioneered by Haugen (1972), belongs to what might be referred to as ‘classical LPP’ (Bradley, 2012), which deals mainly with the solution of a language problem, usually at the national level (Jernudd & Das Gupta, in Fishman, 1973). Typically, it is performed for the purpose of finding a language that could serve as an official lingua franca in a country (Haugen (1972).

This national orientation is apparent when Hoffman (1991) argues that despite the fact that many countries are linguistically diverse, a number of governments choose to ignore it or promote the language of the dominant elite. She suggests that the philosophical foundation for this attitude was the ideal of ‘one nation-one language’,

which became fashionable in Europe in the nineteenth century. As a result of this national orientation, in most developing countries institutional support and recognition in public domains-such as government administration, media, and schools, is restricted to a few dominant languages (national or international languages), while the majority of indigenous languages are left behind (Brenzinger, 1997). As a result, LPP creates inequality (Tollefson, 1991).

The concentration in public domains of national and international languages leads to a difference in language utility and prestige. As discussed in the previous section, this situation leads to a shift from heritage languages to the dominant language. Thus, classical LPP, instead of solving the problem of language shift, may actually *aggravate* the shift.

According to Bradley (2012), the reason for the inadequacy is that the classical model lacks one essential component, namely, linguistic rights (for heritage languages and heritage language speakers). Responding to the inadequacy, Skutnabb-Kangas (2000) argued that LPP needs to be examined in its position towards language rights, in which she distinguishes several types of LPP; a distinction that is refined by Annamalai (2004). The concept of language rights and the distinction among LPP types are presented in the next sections.

## **2.8. The Theory of Language Rights**

Paulston (1997) declares that the concept of language rights is relatively new and concerns the existence or lack of legislation for the privileges and rights of languages and their speakers. Meanwhile, Joseph (2006) argues that the concept of language rights is based on the idea that communities have a basic human right to use their first language in public domains and to have their children educated in it, even though it is not the majority or official language of the place where they live. The problem here is how to achieve justice and equality among various ethno-linguistic groups. Another difficulty is what approach is to be selected to implement this right. Arzoz (2010) suggests several models for language rights: human rights, minority rights, indigenous people rights, and official-language rights. Meanwhile, based on Patten and Kymlicka (2003) there are two basic approaches for language rights: (1) toleration versus promotion oriented rights, and (2) norms-and-accommodation versus official language rights.

1. Toleration versus promotion oriented rights

This approach originates from Kloss (1971), who distinguishes between tolerated rights as opposed to promotion rights. With respect to heritage languages, the first type concerns the protection for individuals against government interference in the use of a heritage language in private domains, while the second type concerns the right to the use of a heritage language by public institutions. Kloss (1971) maintains that immigrant groups should only enjoy tolerated rights while indigenous groups need to acquire promotion rights. With respect to the Indonesian situation, based on his proposal, heritage language groups need to be accorded the right to use their heritage language in public domains. However, since it is not possible to extend full promotional rights to all heritage language groups, the proponents of promotion rights may need to apply further criteria, such as the number of speakers, territorial concentration, and suitability for wider communication, in order for the arrangement to be viable (Patten and Kymlicka, 2003).

2. Norm-and-accommodation versus official language rights

Patten and Kymlicka (2003) assert that the first approach may lead to some ambiguous cases. For example, if a defendant is not fluent in the dominant language that it is used in court, then s/he needs an interpreter. This is beyond the tolerated rights but could not be considered promotion either. Therefore, the writers propose a second approach, i.e., a distinction between norm-and-accommodation rights as opposed to official language rights.

- a. Norm-and-accommodation rights

Here, public domains still mainly use the dominant language. However, concessions are made for the members of the public who are not fluent in the dominant language. Examples of such concessions include the provision of interpreters, the hiring of bilingual staff, or the publication of transitional bilingual textbooks.

The norm-and-accommodation rights can be further classified into individual and collective rights. Patten and Kymlicka (2003) maintain that the individual/collective distinction refers to the existence or lack of some minimum demand for a service for the target group.

- 1) An individual right is one that an individual may claim irrespective of the number of fellow speakers in a given territory.

2) A collective right is one that could be exercised when certain levels of demand for accommodation are reached. As an example, in the USA, an individual can request the right for a court-appointed translator in court proceedings. By contrast, a non-English speaking group can only request that ballot papers be printed in their language if their numbers in a locality are at least 10,000 (Schmidt, in Patten and Kymlicka, 2003).

b. Official language rights

Here some languages are designated as official languages and can be used in various public domains, such as public service, business transactions, workplace documentation, etc. Unlike the first type, a person is free to use a non-dominant language even if s/he is fluent in the dominant language. Patten and Kymlicka (2003), however, point out that the granting of official language rights usually involves more than a language dimension, i.e., it also gives recognition to the entity of the language speakers as a group.

Official language rights can be distinguished according to personality and territoriality principles.

1) The personality principle

Cartwright (2006) refers to the personality principle as a situation where individuals are entitled to obtain services in the language of their choice throughout a country or a designated territory within a country. Similarly, Patten and Kymlicka (2003) describe the personality principle as one in which citizens enjoy the same sets of official language rights in any territory within a country; in other words, persons have the right to speak a particular language everywhere within a country.

An example of a country that adopts the personal principle is Canada, in which the right to services in English or French is ensured throughout the country (Nelde, Labrie, and Williams, 1992). Other examples could be South Africa, which recognises 11 national languages (The Government of South Africa, 1996) and Singapore (Kaplan and Baldauf, 2003).

2) The territoriality principle

Cartwright (2006) refers to the 'territoriality principle' as a situation in which individuals have the right to obtain services in the language of the majority in a given territory. On the other hand, Patten and Kymlicka (2003) describe the 'territoriality principle' as a situation in which

language rights vary depending on the area of the country. According to the territoriality principle, a country is divided into a number of regions in which the local majority language is used in a wide range of situations. The rationale for this principle is outlined by van Parijs (2010), who suggests that, in order to ensure the survival of weaker languages, countries need to adopt the linguistic territoriality principle.

Countries that adopt the territorial principle consist of two distinct types.

a) Country level territoriality principle

The first group consists of those that confer equal official status at the country level. These include Belgium, which acknowledges Flemish and Walloon as equal official languages, and Switzerland, which acknowledges French, German, and Italian as equal languages at the country level (Patten and Kymlicka, 2003).

b) Sub-country level territoriality principle

The second group comprises those that adopt one or more languages officially at the country level while granting several other languages as official or co-official status at the sub-country level. An example is the UK, which adopts English as the country's official language but grants Welsh co-official status in Wales (Huws, 2006). Another is Spain, which adopts Castilian as the official language at the country level but grants co-official status for Galician, Basque, and Catalan, in their respective territories (Fishman, 1991). The Peruvian government gives co-official status for Quechua in its territory (Coronel-Molina, 1999). Still another example is India, which acknowledges 18 heritage languages as co-official within their respective territories (The Constitution of India).

At present, there is no international standard for the acknowledgment of heritage languages. However, there is a plan for heritage languages in the European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages (in Grin, 2003), which encourages the promotion of regional or minority languages in the following domains: education, judicial authorities, administrative authorities and public service, media, cultural activities and festivities, economic and social life, trans-frontier exchanges. The European Charter offers a guideline that provides various degrees of allocation for

heritage language domains. This guideline could be used by a country that seeks to implement measures for protecting heritage languages.

One sector that is often stressed by the proponents for heritage languages is education. Shaeffer (2004) cites UNESCO's statement, *Education in a Multilingual World*, which recommends the support for mother tongue instruction and bilingual/multilingual education. He further comments that education plays a critical role in whether languages become extinct or are able to survive and thrive. It is also critical for cultural and linguistic development as well as academic achievement; thus, early education and initial literacy, even for adults, should be conducted in the learner's first language.

## **2.9. Types of Language Policy and Planning**

In order to understand how an LPP could stem language shift and adequately protect heritage languages, through various forms of language rights, it is essential to distinguish among various types of LPP. Drawing on Skutnabb-Kangas (2000), Annamalai (2003) suggests that the language policy of governments can be broadly classified into three types, on the basis of the goals of the policy, namely, (1) the elimination of multilingualism, (2) the tolerance of multilingualism, and (3) the maintenance of multilingualism. Quoting further, he states that these goals may not be explicitly stated as language policy, but they might be found implicitly and embedded in other policies. Annamalai (2003) provides an elaboration of the three policies in general.

### **2.9.1. The policy of elimination of multilingualism (Type-1 LPP)**

This policy can be pursued through two means. The first is the prohibition of use of the language of a speaker's choice, even in the private situation. While this might have occurred in the past, such as the prohibition of heritage languages in South America or Australia, at present this does not seem to be practiced. What is more common is the strict exclusion of heritage languages from public domains.

### **2.9.2. The policy of tolerance of multilingualism (Type-2 LPP)**

This policy does not interfere in the private domains; however, it only opens a very limited use in public domains for subordinate languages, in general minority

languages. It actually tolerates some degree of multilingualism; however, it does not take any measure to counter forces outside language policy that encourage language shift and thus would lead to the reduction of languages.

The more comprehensive type of this policy, while not permitting the use of minority languages in public domains, may grant some provisions to their speakers, e.g., by providing interpreters in a court or support for cultural activities in their languages. The policy recognises the difference between the use of language for cultural expression and identity (symbolic use), on one hand, and the use of language for material progress and political power (substantive use), on the other hand. However, such division of symbolic and substantive uses has the potential to render multilingualism unstable.

### **2.9.3. The policy of maintenance or promotion of multilingualism (Type-3 LPP)**

This policy aims at positive measures to eliminate, or at least reduce, the factors that lead to language loss. This policy encourages the use of many languages in private domains. It ensures institutionally that the use of many languages in public domains is non-discriminatory and that no language is a disadvantage to its speakers. This does not mean equal use for all languages, as even the most advanced models do not enforce equal treatment of all linguistic groups (Arzoz, 2010), but enables the languages for any use. Some examples for this policy are the use of minority languages up to the level of mandatory education and the requirement of mastery of the official language as a post-selection condition, as opposed to a pre-selection condition, for minority language speakers.

In its ideal form, the policy is pursued through a combination of language policy and other policies, such as economic policy. For example, the Irish government implements Irish language policy as well as economic incentives for the residents in the *Gaeltacht* zone (Spolsky, 2004); although so far it has not succeeded in revitalising the Irish language (Fishman, 1991).

Annamalai (2003) further declares that maintenance of multilingualism depends on the distribution of power as well as value between languages. The value of a language is derived from its available functions or domains. Three values arise that correspond to functions of a language, economic, political, and cultural. Its economic value comes from its ability to provide material reward to its speakers. Its

political value comes from its position to negotiate policy formulation and a legal or institutional status for it, which is necessary to improve its economic value. The cultural value of a language lies in it preserving communal identity and heritage, which is necessary for claiming political status. Based on Annamalai's view, if a heritage language is to survive, it needs the capacity to provide rewards to its speakers. In this respect, the language needs to be used in the public domains, which are the domains of power because the language legislated for use in the public domains gives material and social rewards to its speakers.

Annamalai (2003) stresses that important areas in the public domains, where functional distribution is critical, consist of public administration, justice, and education. The domain of education is particularly important as it enables implementation of language policy in administration and justice by producing people with the necessary language competence and attitudes. A multilingual policy in other areas, for example, could not work with a monolingual policy in education.

The distribution of functions may work in two modes. The first is the allocation of the use of more than one language in public domains. Singapore, which has four official languages, is an example of this mode (Spolsky, 2004). However, it is more common to find functional distributions of languages across regions and across levels. In India, for example, a state may use more than one official language, namely, Hindi or English and the heritage language of the majority speakers in the state (Groff, 2004).

Basically, the goal of this policy is to move as low as possible down Fishman's (1991) Graded Intergenerational Disruption Scale (GIDS), or move as high as possible up Lewis and Simons' (2009) Extended Graded Intergenerational Disruption Scale (EGIDS) (see Appendix 5). The reason, according to Ager (1997), is that as measures move upwards in GIDS stages, the pragmatic worth of the language increases. In this respect, Grin (2003) maintains that:

The desired outcome of policy measures can therefore be defined as a general movement towards stage 1 of the GIDS. It may not be possible for all regional or minority languages to reach GIDS 1 (if only for simple demographic reasons) .... Nonetheless, policies should generally aim at improving the position of regional or minority languages on the GIDS scale.

Such improvement should seek to achieve at least some minimum results ... this minimum can be defined as restoring and maintaining a self-priming mechanism of language production. This coincides with ... stage 5 of the GIDS (p. 42).

Furthermore, he notes that the definition above clarifies the importance of people's behaviour. However, he argues that individuals do not bear the sole responsibility for the destiny of their language, as classical LPP seems to imply. Rather, three conditions must be fulfilled for them to use their language:

1. The capacity to use the language

The term 'capacity' connotes some degree of linguistic competence. As such, heritage language community members need to know the language, and if they do not know it, or know it only to an inadequate degree, they should be given the opportunity to learn it.

2. The opportunity to use the language

Even if heritage language community members have the capacity to use the heritage language and the desire to do so, they still need the opportunity to use it. To some extent, this opportunity is a private matter. However, in order that language vitality can develop, the opportunity should encompass the public use, or the use of heritage language in public domains. This is where the state has a crucial role to intervene through LPP (and which classical LPP fails to do). By creating opportunities for heritage language community members to use their heritage languages outside the private domains, authorities create the supply side of the linguistic environment. In addition, this also increases the economic and political value of the heritage language. Ager (1997) asserts that language will only thrive if it has economic value, so the opening of public domains may stem the shift that heritage languages are undergoing.

3. The desire to use the language

Heritage language members generally are multilingual, in their own language and in the dominant language. While this is partly a function of language loyalty, this is also partly a function of points 1 and 2. Even though one wants to use a heritage language very much, if s/he cannot use it and has no opportunity to use it, then his/her desire is to no avail. No use will occur. On the other hand, even if s/he is only modestly interested in using the heritage language, if s/he has the

capacity to use it and is offered the opportunity to use it, then some heritage language use can occur. This probability is greater if the state also promotes or encourages the use of the language because it raises the prestige of the language; prestige induces pride in the language and pride is something that heritage language community members need to have if they are to desire to use the language.

This section has discussed the three LPP types. These types are useful as a reference in evaluating the Indonesian LPP with respect to its effectiveness for stemming language shift and in the exploration for an alternative LPP.

## **2.10. Stemming Language Shift through Language Policy and Planning**

Fishman (1991) emphasises that in the face of a shift, which threatens heritage languages, what is required is not just a description of the dire state of the languages. It is far more important to find ways to effectively reverse the shift. There are two important aspects in this context.

1. Heritage language conservation requires the allocation of heritage languages in public domains through LPP

Fishman (2001) declares that a common mechanism for reversing language shift is to elevate the status of heritage languages so that they are used in the public domains. Paulston (1994), Brenzinger (1997) and Coulmas (2007) underline the importance of public domains, in that language shift usually takes place from the heritage languages that do not serve public functions to the dominant language that serves the public functions. Barrena et al. (2006) also emphasise the significance of whether a heritage language is accorded official or co-official status, either on a national or regional basis. As a consequence, the state needs to devise a policy to confer public domains to heritage languages, through status and acquisition planning of a Type-3 LPP. When status and acquisition planning have been conducted by the government, a language body may then be authorised to perform corpus planning (Cooper, 1989).

2. Effective LPP needs timely introduction

The use of LPP to protect heritage languages can only be effective if it is done at the right time, as is shown in the case of the status planning for French in Quebec (Fishman, 2001). However, if it happens too late, it might not be able to

stem the shift. A notable example is Ireland, which has attempted to revive the Irish language, through allocating public domains to Irish, even to the point of offering economic incentives in the *Gaeltacht* zone (Fishman, 1991). However, because the effort was too late, that is, when the shift to English has largely replaced Irish in various public and private domains in Ireland, the project is generally regarded as having been a failure (Fishman, 1991, Paulston 1997).

Thus, an LPP that aims to adequately protect heritage languages needs to observe two factors. In the first place, it needs to allocate public functions to heritage languages, although the manner of allocation may vary among countries. Secondly, it needs to be devised and implemented in a timely fashion; otherwise, it may be doomed to failure.

### **2.11. Conceptual Framework for this Study**

The previous sections discuss the theoretical framework used for this study. Drawing from this, a conceptual framework was devised for it, one that serves as a guideline for the design described in Chapter Three.

Language policy and planning constitutes a public policy, whose development involves public-policy making. Dunn (1994) and Howlett and Ramesh (1994) describe policy-making as a circular process of five phases. After one round is finished, if change or reform is required, the whole process may start afresh (Hutchinson, 2010). Dunn (1994) argues that the role of the policy analyst or policy researcher involves providing information to one or more of the policy phases.

This study starts from the findings of various studies that reveal a decline in heritage languages in Indonesia and that this decline constitutes a language problem. As LPP is supposed to deal with the problem, there is a need to investigate it. Spolsky (2004) maintains that LPP is generally expressed explicitly in language-related laws, although some countries, like the USA, adopt an implicit one. In Indonesia, matters pertaining to languages are regulated through laws, and thus the country has adopted an explicit LPP. Therefore, in order to study the ILPP, there is a need to analyse language-related laws, at the national and regional levels. This analysis aims to find out whether the ILPP belongs to Type-3 LPP, one that is conducive to heritage

languages, or to another type. In the latter case, if it does not belong to Type-3 LPP, reconsideration for reform may be necessary.

Hutchinson (2010) declares that when a reform is necessary, a researcher can make a contribution by defining and assessing the issues and offering a range of possible solutions. She further declares that two kinds of views or references can be explored: the internal and the external references.

1. Internal references

Hutchinson (2010) suggests that internal references may include the views of various domestic stakeholders, including experts, officials, and the general public, and special interest groups. In this study, the selected internal reference, which is called the Micro Perspective, comprises the views of certain Javanese language teachers. The reason for their selection was that in most cases, heritage language conservation is conducted mainly through classroom instruction (Judd, 1992). This view is confirmed by Barrena et al. (2006), who found that heritage language conservation efforts were conducted mainly, and often solely, through classroom instruction. Shaeffer (2004) maintains that education plays a critical role for the conservation of languages. Hence, language teachers constitute an important element in heritage language conservation and, as such, it was deemed important to explore their views. From their views, an LPP model is suggested and used as a comparison for the existing Indonesian LPP.

2. The external reference

Hutchinson (2010) asserts that the external references can include overseas sources including laws, experts, or published materials, with the aim of finding what can be learnt from other policies. Dodd (2013) maintains that such cross-comparison has enormous promise for improving understanding for policy-making in other countries and one's own country. The country for comparison could be selected in its own right, because it relates specifically to the theory being examined, or because of convenience. The analysis conducted by Barrena et al. (2006), of worldwide surveys of heritage languages, reveals that the countries in which heritage languages are growing generally have official status or co-official status, while those without such status are generally declining. In the previous section on LPP typology, the kind of LPP that accords official status for heritage languages belongs to Type-3. However, not all countries that

establish Type-3 LPP could be used as models. The one that is deemed suitable to the Indonesian situation is the Indian LPP. Accordingly, the external references provide a further basis for such a policy and a real example of how such an LPP is established.

With this approach in mind, the exploration of external references in this study comprised:

- a. Theoretical perspective, derived from the Literature Review, and
- b. Practical, cross-country perspectives, including an analysis of Type-3 LPP practice, especially the Indian LPP.

From this set of external references, an LPP model is conceived and then used as another comparison for the existing Indonesian LPP.

The conceptual framework is represented in an outline (see Figure 2 Chapter 1).

## **2.12. Summary**

In this chapter several key concepts have been reviewed. In the first place, the concepts of heritage languages and domains were discussed in order that their meanings were clear when they appeared in the discussions in subsequent sections. Secondly, past studies of Indonesian heritage languages were reviewed and two important features were revealed. Firstly, a language problem exists; namely, heritage languages in Indonesia are declining. Secondly, despite the theory that language policy and planning is responsible for dealing with language problems, there has been no attempt to analyse the ILPP with respect to this perceived decline. Thus, an analysis of the ILPP appears to be necessary. In this respect, several studies from other countries provide some points of reference. Coronel-Molina's (1999) analysis (of the Peruvian LPP with respect to the Quechua heritage language) and Abdelhaay's (2011) analysis (of the Sudanese LPP and its comparison with the Nigerian LPP) provide some models for LPP studies with a top-down approach. Meanwhile, Murwamphida (2008) explores the views of users of the Tshivanda heritage language with regard to the South African LPP; her study shows how an LPP study with a bottom-up approach could be conducted. In this study the approaches used by these studies have been combined.

The phenomenon of language shift in Indonesia in particular and in the world in general and the dynamics that affect language shift have been well documented. Language shift constitutes a language problem, whose solution requires LPP. Accordingly, the concept of LPP, its definition, and its components provide a basic understanding of LPP. As the generic discussion of LPP does not provide insight on how to deal with language shift, the nature of classical LPP and the theory of language rights offer further refinement for LPP. A review of different types of LPP is undertaken as it is needed for the creation of an adequate LPP.

Based on these theoretical materials, a conceptual framework was devised to conduct the study. The development of this framework into a study design is discussed in Chapter Three.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **METHODOLOGY**

This research consisted of several strands, which are discussed in separate sections. Section 1 introduces the overall approach used in this study. Section 2 deals with the first strand, namely, the method for analysing language-related laws to describe the characteristics of the Indonesian language policy and planning (ILPP). Section 3 deals with the second strand, namely, the survey (on preference for domain allocations) administered to Javanese language teachers in Sleman on LPP. Both Sections 2 and 3 include sub-sections, which elaborate site/sample selection, data collection techniques, data sources, data analysis, and ethics. Finally, Section 4 provides a summary of the whole chapter.

#### **3.1. This Study's Approach**

This study involved the analysis of the ILPP, which constitutes a subset of Indonesian public policy. Dunn (1994) declares that policy analysis consists of two parts, namely (1) the retrospective part, which concerns the present or past policy, and (2) the prospective part, which concerns future policy. He further asserts that policy analysis is a methodology that requires multiplism, which, among others, involves the use of multiple/mixed methods which are justified in the following ways.

1. Justification from the requirement for the study.

In this study, the retrospective part consisted of an analysis of Indonesian language-related laws (addressed in Research Question 1) and the implication of the findings (addressed in Research Question 3). On the other hand, the prospective part involved the exploration for an alternative LPP, based on the views of selected heritage language users (addressed in Research Question 2) and the implications of the findings (addressed in Research Question 3). In order to provide a more comprehensive exploration of alternatives, a review of another possible LPP was also included.

In order to address the various research questions, multiple/mixed methods were employed, through the use of legal text content analysis to address Research Question 1, a survey to address Research Question 2, and documentary study to explore another possible LPP. Research Question 3, which involves implications and just contains analysis, did not require another specific method.

## 2. Justification from practice

A comparison with several other studies might serve as a justification of the approach in this study.

This study combined the approaches of Coronel-Molina (1999), Abdelhaay (2007) and Murwamphida (2008) through:

- The use of an expansion of Stewart's list to analyse the ILPP
- The analysis of the Indonesian Constitution, the basis for the ILPP
- A survey of a group of Sleman Javanese language teachers, as informed Javanese language users, and
- An exploration of alternative LPPs, with a particular comparison with the Indian LPP.

This combination provided a more comprehensive policy analysis of and comparison for the ILPP.

### 3.1.1. The nature of policy analysis

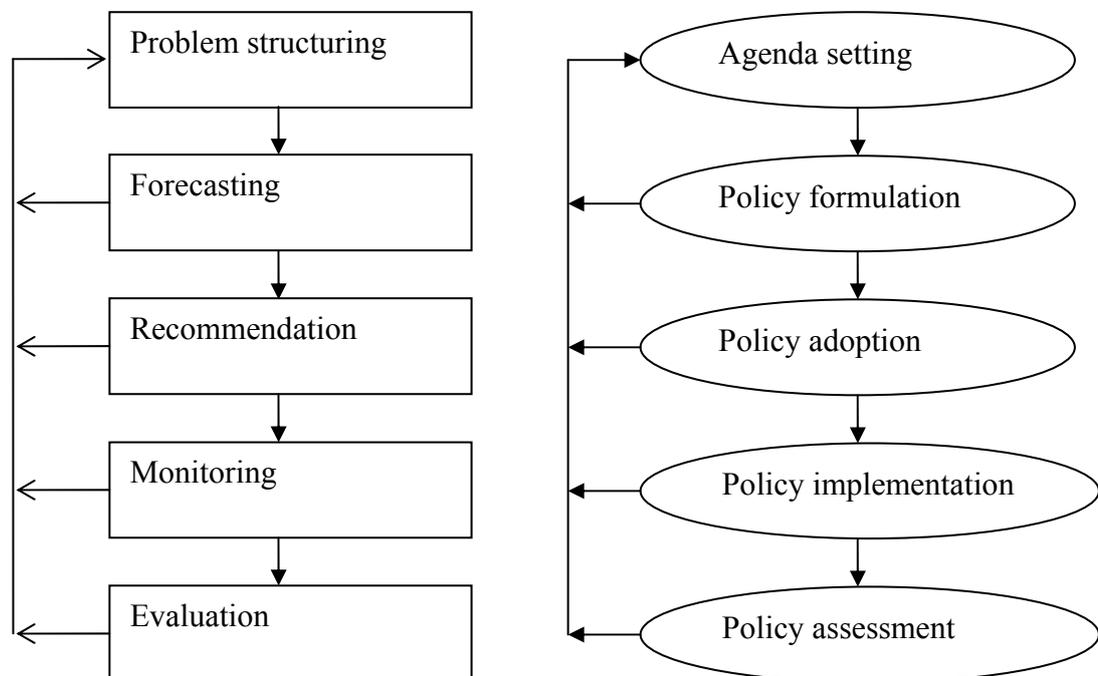
This study involved a policy analysis on the ILPP, which was embodied in legal texts. Quoting from Quade, Dunn (1994) defines policy analysis as:

any type of analysis that generates and presents information in such a way as to improve the basis for policy-makers to exercise their judgment ... it implies the use of intuition and judgment and *encompasses not only the examination of policy ... but also the design and synthesis of new alternatives*. The activities involved may range from research to illuminate or provide insight into an anticipated issue or problem to evaluation of a completed program (p. 61) [Italics added].

Dunn (1994) maintains that "... policy analysis is a methodology for formulating problems as part of a search for solutions" (p. 2). He adds that this methodology integrates elements of multiple disciplines, such as political science, sociology, psychology, economics, and philosophy. Furthermore, he asserts that there is no

fully codified body of reliable knowledge directing policy analysts. However, he sets two general criteria as a guideline for policy analysis, namely, policy relevance and multiplism. Policy relevance governs the usability of policy analysis in contexts of practice while multiplism involves the use of multiple features, such as multi-method research and multiple perspectives analysis.

Dunn (1994) describes several other features of multiplism. However, he stresses that it is seldom possible to use all of these features in a single study, given the typical constraints on time and financial resources, and that in many instances the use of many types of the multiplism are neither necessary nor desirable, as the policy analyst often works on a limited scope.



**Figure 4 The Different Phases of Policy-making**

Dunn (1994) maintains that policy analysis comprises a series of procedures that correspond to stages of the policy-making process. Dunn (1994) and Howlett and Ramesh (1995) suggest that the policy-making process consists of five phases, namely, agenda-setting, policy formulation, policy adoption, policy implementation, and policy assessment. Dunn (1994) further asserts that through the application of one or more procedures, the policy analyst may produce information relevant to one or more phases of the policy-making process, depending on the type of problem

being addressed. Each policy analysis procedure is appropriate for a particular phase of the policy-making process, as shown by the ovals (policy-making phases) and rectangles (policy-analysis procedures) in Figure 4. Parsons (1995) introduces a transition stage, namely, the emergence or re-emergence of a policy problem, between the assessment of the present policy and the agenda setting of the future policy.

Dunn (1994) declares that the procedures also comprise five stages:

1. Problem structuring

Problem structuring can assist in discovering hidden assumptions, diagnosing causes, mapping possible objectives, and designing new policy options.

2. Forecasting

Forecasting can provide policy-relevant knowledge about possible future states of affairs as a consequence of adopting alternatives, including doing nothing.

3. Recommendations

Recommendations yield policy-relevant knowledge about the benefits and costs of alternatives.

4. Monitoring

Monitoring provides policy-relevant knowledge about the consequences of previously adopted policies.

5. Evaluation

Evaluation yields policy-relevant knowledge about discrepancies between expected and actual policy performance.

Dunn (1994) stresses that policy analysts seldom engage in all of the procedures. Instead, they typically engage in one or more procedures to address a smaller set of questions that have arisen in one or several phases of the policy-making process.

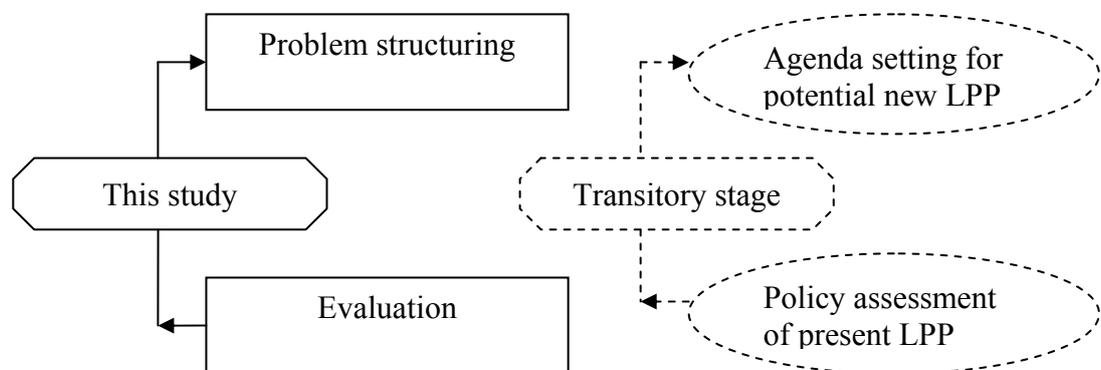
The ILPP is embodied in laws and regulations. Its analysis requires an understanding of legal study, or doctrinal research. Chynoweth (2008) declares that doctrinal research is concerned with the discovery and development of doctrines and takes the form of asking ‘what is in the law?’ Hutchinson and Duncan (2012) argue that doctrinal methodology is a two-part process that consists of locating the sources of the law, and then interpreting and analysing the text. In undertaking a doctrinal study, a researcher needs to read and analyse the material to find a meaning and

pattern in order to condense the writing to its essence. This step involves the use of reasoning and problem solving skills such as deductive reasoning, inductive reasoning, and analogy – the common law devices that allow lawyers to make sense of complex legal questions.

### 3.1.2. The application of policy analysis in this study

Thissen and Walker (2013) distinguishes one type of policy analyst as a policy entrepreneur, one who advocates for advancement in a policy arena without having the benefits of a specific client. This study was performed in such a frame of mind, for the following reason.

As previously mentioned in Chapter One, Section 1.5., heritage language conservation in Indonesia constitutes an “untamed scientific problem” (de Bruijn, ten Heuvelhof, and Enserink, 2013, p. 135), one in which there is a high consensus on normative objectives (as stated in the Constitution) but little certainty on knowledge. The uncertainty is shown by the fact that, although various studies have revealed an apparent shift in the use of heritage languages in Indonesia, there has not been any study that addresses this issue in relation to the ILPP.

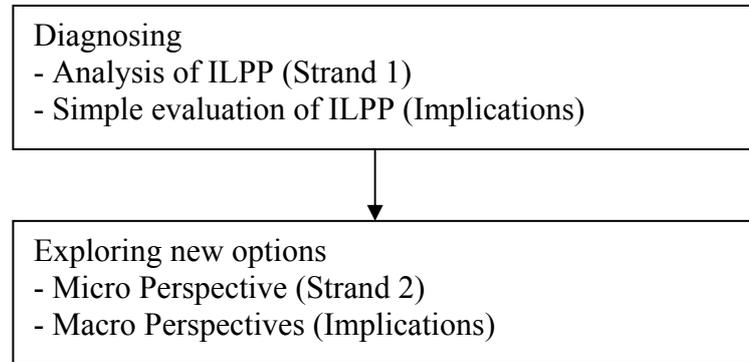


**Figure 5 Position of this Study in the Policy Analysis Procedure**

A new policy making process may be required to establish effective Language Policy and Planning for stemming the language shift. In order to do that, there is a need to start a discussion among policy makers, academics and the general public on this issue. In this respect, this study aims to provide stimulus and some materials for generating such a discussion. As such, it corresponds to the transition stage as introduced by Parsons (1995), and thus, in the policy analysis procedure, lies

somewhere between evaluation of past LPP and problem structuring for a potential new LPP (see Figure 5).

With this position in mind, the study involved a number of elements from evaluation and problem structuring, and proceeded in the following way:



#### **Figure 6 Concept Map for this Study**

1. The study started with the apparent evidence of language shift, which raises the question of the adequacy of the ILPP in dealing with the shift. There appears to be a discrepancy between the ILPP as a means with the intended outcome (as stated in the Constitution).
2. A discussion on the ILPP, among policy makers and academics as well as the general public, is required. To generate the discussion, materials for the discussion were explored. These materials focused on two main substances: diagnosis of the cause and exploration of new options.
3. Diagnosis of causes  
Diagnosis was performed in two steps:
  - a. Analysis of the ILPP, in order to find the distribution of domains for languages and infer the ILPP type. This was Strand 1.
  - b. A simple evaluation of the ILPP with respect to (1) its effectiveness with regard to language shift, and (2) its congruence with respect to the Constitution, the foundation of the ILPP, and the Youth Pledge, a landmark for the Indonesian LPP. These were some of the implications.
4. Exploration of new options  
Exploration of new options was achieved through looking at two perspectives:

- a. One perspective was the Micro Perspective, attained through a survey that explored the views of a group of Javanese language teachers in Sleman – Strand 2. This perspective suggested an alternative LPP model.
- b. Other perspectives comprised some Macro Perspectives, from which another model was conceived for an alternative LPP that might be applicable to Indonesia. These were the other implications.

The methods employed in this study comprised policy analysis and evaluation (of the ILPP and a possible alternative) and a survey (to explore the views of Javanese language teachers in Sleman). Miller and Alvarado (2005) declare that, in policy studies, documents can be used as primary sources - providing the whole or majority of the data needed for social research, or as objects of study in their own right. Policy analysis and evaluation was selected because, as Spolsky (2004) declares, language policy and planning is embodied in language-related laws or reflected in other policy-related documents. Policy analysis and evaluation was used in Strand 1 while a survey was used in Strand 2.

Bardach (2012) asserts that, unlike most other research in social science, policy research is derivative rather than original. He adds that a policy researcher produces research through “creative play” (p. 82) with ideas and data already developed by others. Only occasionally does the policy researcher generate new data or assume responsibility for inventing a new idea from scratch. He maintains that the policy researcher’s role consists of discovering, collating, interpreting, criticising, and synthesising ideas and data that others have developed already.

In this study, the policy analysis and evaluation in Strand 1 involved the documents that were produced by others. However, the researcher conceptualised the link between domains and language-related laws and attempted to provide insight with regard to the efficacy of ILPP. These constitute a contribution in LPP study. In addition, the researcher generated new data, with the survey of heritage language users. Then, the researcher discovered, interpreted, and synthesised the ideas, so that the nature of the policy problem concerning heritage languages in Indonesia became evident and possible solutions could be identified. An elaboration of the various strands is given in the following sections.

Additional information on this study’s approach could be found in Appendix 6.

### 3.2. Strand 1: Analysis of Indonesian language-related laws

An analysis of relevant Indonesian laws was performed to answer the following research question:

What is the Indonesian government's language policy and planning for heritage languages, specifically the Javanese heritage language?

More precisely, the question required a determination of the type of ILPP, as reflected in the distribution of domains and means for languages, as stipulated in language-related laws and bylaws. From the distribution of domains, especially public domains in status and acquisition planning, inference was made as to the type of the ILPP.

While this study was not legal research, its objective was to study laws and thus there was a need to use a methodology from legal research, which essentially consists of locating and analysing primary documents of the law in order to establish the nature and parameters of the law (Hutchinson and Duncan, 2012). As the laws were expressed in written texts, simple content analysis was employed (Fraenkel and Wallen, 2009). The procedure comprised the following steps:

1. Development of a framework for analysis and interpretation

The framework comprises categories for distribution of domains: *range* of allocation and *extent* of allocation.

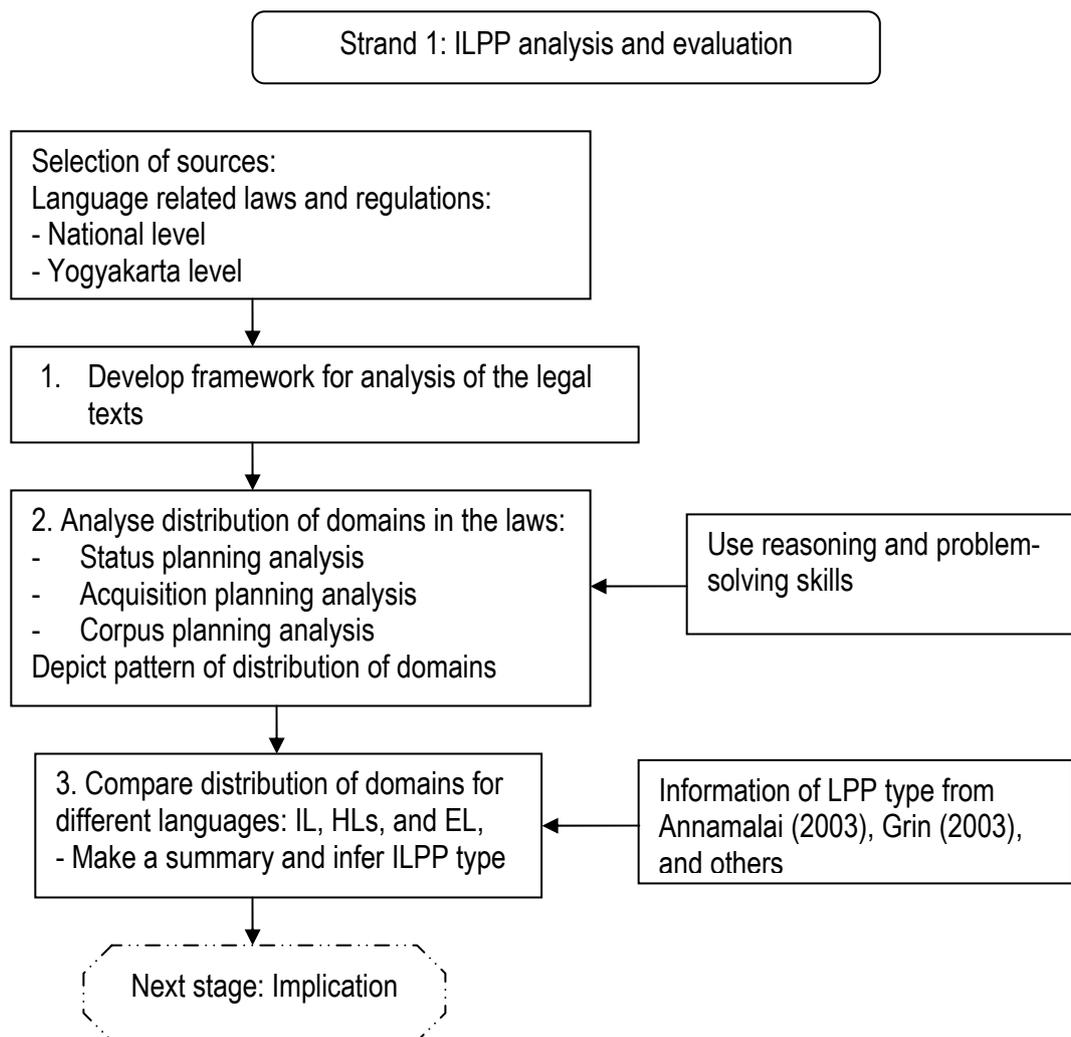
2. Interpretation and analysis of the texts in the law(s)

Legal texts in language-related laws and bylaws were examined and inferences were made as to whether a domain was covered by the rule, through the use of reasoning and problem-solving skills such as deductive reasoning, inductive reasoning, and analogy.

3. Inference of the ILPP type

Based on the analysis, summary was drawn and inference was made as to whether the ILPP belongs to Type-1 LPP, Type-2 LPP, or Type-3 LPP (as per Annamalai, 2003 and Grin, 2003).

The design is outlined in Figure 7.



**Figure 7 Design Outline for Strand 1**

### 3.2.1. Sample selection and data collection

Strand 1 sampling consisted of the identification and analysis of the ILPP, as manifested in language-related laws. The selection of language-related laws was supported by the statement from a representative of *Pusat Bahasa* (The Central Language Institute) that with respect to language, the government could only use the legal framework (*Pikiran Rakyat*, 2010). The legal documents were obtained from *Pusat Bahasa* in Jakarta and *Balai Bahasa* (The Regional Language Agency) in Yogyakarta, as well as from libraries, book shops and websites.

Miller and Alvarado (2005) declare that certain documents, such as laws and regulations, can be read as unique testaments to events or phenomena. Sampling

strategies for these documents are structured for comprehensiveness rather than representativeness (Jordanova, in Miller and Alvarado, 2005). The legal documents were selected through purposive-criterion sampling, in which the aim was to study all cases that met some predetermined criterion of importance (Patton, 2008), namely, whether a law had a language-regulation component.

The language-related laws are enumerated in Chapter Four. There might be other laws that are in deliberation in the parliament, such as the cultural law. However, as they are not yet enacted, they are excluded from this study.

### **3.2.2. Analysis**

As declared by Chynoweth (2008) and Hutchinson and Duncan (2012), with respect to legal studies, it is probably more correct to use the term ‘analysis’ rather than ‘data analysis’. However, Hutchinson (2010) asserts that “The law can be broadly categorised as primary data” (p. 37) and thus analysis of the texts in language-related laws can also be referred to as data analysis.

#### *3.2.2.1. General procedure*

The analysis involved content analysis (Fraenkel and Wallen, 2009) in the context of legal-related laws (Hutchinson and Duncan, 2012), as follows:

##### Locating relevant documents

The relevant documents consisted of language-related Indonesian national laws and regulations, which apply to all heritage languages, and Yogyakarta bylaws, which apply to the Javanese language. Within the laws, search was made for relevant passages (articles and/or verses).

##### Developing the framework for analysis

This consisted of formulating categories and deciding what content to analyse.

##### a. Formulating categories for analysis

In this study, most categories were determined beforehand (deductively), through literature review. There are two broad types of categories; the ones for the *range* of allocation domains and the ones for the *extent* of allocation of domains. However, some were determined in line with the reading of the text (inductively). The details for the categories are explained in 3.2.2.2. and 3.2.2.3.

##### b. Deciding on whether to analyse manifest or latent (underlying) content

This study dealt mostly with manifest content. Although there was a possibility to deal with latent content, namely, when an article or verse in a law does not give explicit reference to a language, this was not generally undertaken.

#### Determining data analysis technique

Data analysis in content analysis can be used for (i) counting, (ii) aids in organising content in order to arrive at a narrative description of findings. The latter was relevant in this study, as the categories served as aids in organising content in order to arrive at a narrative description of findings on the ILPP.

Analysing and interpreting texts in national and regional language-related legal documents to find patterns of distribution of domains

The laws were analysed to explore the distribution of domains of language use and means for language development, more specifically for the Javanese language. Here, the basic technique of legal document analysis was employed, through the use of reasoning (see 3.2.2.4.). In this manner, a pattern of distribution of domains for various languages was recognised and summarised.

#### Inferring LPP type

The distribution of domains for various languages was compared to infer the ILPP type (see Section 3.2.2.5.). The finding was used for materials to infer the implications.

#### *3.2.2.2. Categories for range of allocation*

This comprised domains of language uses or functions and means of language development. The categories were divided into the three components of LPP (status planning, acquisition planning, and corpus planning):

#### *Categories for status planning*

The categories for status planning analysis comprised the domains of language uses or functions, and were deduced from recommendations by Stewart (1968), Cooper (1989), Gadelii (1999) and Amery (2001). The utilisation of domains for status planning analysis was justified by the fact that the UNESCO worldwide survey for heritage language used a similar classification in exploring language use (Gadelii, 1999). In addition, Coronel-Molina (1999) employed Stewart's list of specification of language functions in examining the status of the Quechua heritage language in

Peru within the context of past and present Peruvian language policy. The categories are shown in the following table.

**Table 4 Categories for Status Planning**

	Categories: Domains (areas) of language uses or functions
1.	National official language
2.	Regional official language
3.	Language for reserve area
4.	Language in the workplace, including forum
5.	Language for public service areas
6.	Language for signage
7.	Language for wider communication
8.	International language
9.	Language for literary and scholarly works (including science and technology)
10.	Group and community language
11.	Family language
12.	Capital language
13.	Religion language

Most categories were developed deductively. However, there were two categories that were developed inductively, namely, the language for public service areas and the language for reserve areas.

*Categories for acquisition planning*

These included the domains of language uses and functions in the education and mass media which are recommended by Stewart (1968), Kaplan and Baldauf (1997), and Cooper (1989). The categories are shown in the following table.

**Table 5 Categories for Acquisition Planning**

	Categories: Domains (areas) of language uses or functions
1.	Language as subject
2.	Language as the medium of instruction
3.	Language for mass media (print and electronic)

*Categories for corpus planning*

**Table 6 Categories for Corpus Planning**

	Categories: Aspects of language development
1.	Language academy
2.	Codification (orthography and spelling, grammar, vocabulary, style) and elaboration

These included areas of language development (Haugen, 1972; Cooper, 1989). The categories are shown in the preceding table.

These categories were used to analyse the Indonesian national laws and regulations and the Yogyakarta regional bylaws.

### *3.2.2.3. Categories for extent/degree of allocation*

The categories for the degree of allocation or provision, developed inductively, consisted of four categories, namely:

#### Regulated and compulsory (RC)

The use or function of a language in a domain as prescribed in the law and its use is compulsory.

#### Regulated and optional (RO)

The use or function of a language in a domain as prescribed in the law and its use is optional.

#### Regulated and prohibited (RP)

The use or function of a language in a domain as prescribed in the law and its use is prohibited. Sometimes it was not explicitly stated; rather, what was explicit was the declaration that the use of the domain was solely for a certain language.

#### Not regulated (NR)

The use or function of a language in a domain is not prescribed in the law.

Finally, there was a category that only rarely occurs, i.e., one in which the use or function of a language is not clear (NC).

### *3.2.2.4. Basic technique of analysis of legal documents: The use of logic*

The analysis of the legal texts basically used logical reasoning - deductive reasoning, inductive reasoning, and analogy (for a detailed example, see Appendix 7).

In the analysis of the ILPP from various pieces of legislations there was some information that was not clear, concerning some aspects of the corpus planning for the Javanese language. Accordingly, informal interviews were conducted, with officials from *Balai Bahasa* (Regional language agency) Yogyakarta, on some aspects, especially on the publication of language manuals.

### 3.2.2.5. *Inferring ILPP type*

To determine the ILPP type, the status and acquisition planning (allocation of domains) for the Indonesian language was compared to the status planning (allocation of domains) for other languages and this had two possibilities:

#### *Shared distribution of public domains for non-national languages*

Here, non-national languages (especially heritage languages) are given a significant share in public domains. In other words, there is a low discrepancy in the distribution of public domains between those for the Indonesian language and those for other languages. In this case, the ILPP already belongs to Type-3 LPP; reconsideration might not be necessary and the cause of language shift may need to be found elsewhere.

#### *Token, optional, or limited distribution of public domains for non-national languages*

Here, non-national languages (especially heritage languages) are given only a token or limited share in the public domains. In other words, there is a high discrepancy, especially in the allocation of public domains, between those for the Indonesian language and those for other languages. In this case, the ILPP belongs to Type-1 LPP or Type-2 LPP. If there is a stipulation that heritage languages are prohibited in all domains, including private ones, then it belongs to Type-1 LPP. However, if there is no such stipulation, then it belongs to Type-2 LPP.

The finding of this analysis was to serve as materials for deriving the implications.

## **3.3. Strand 2: Survey of Javanese language teachers in Sleman regency**

This strand attempted to answer the following question:

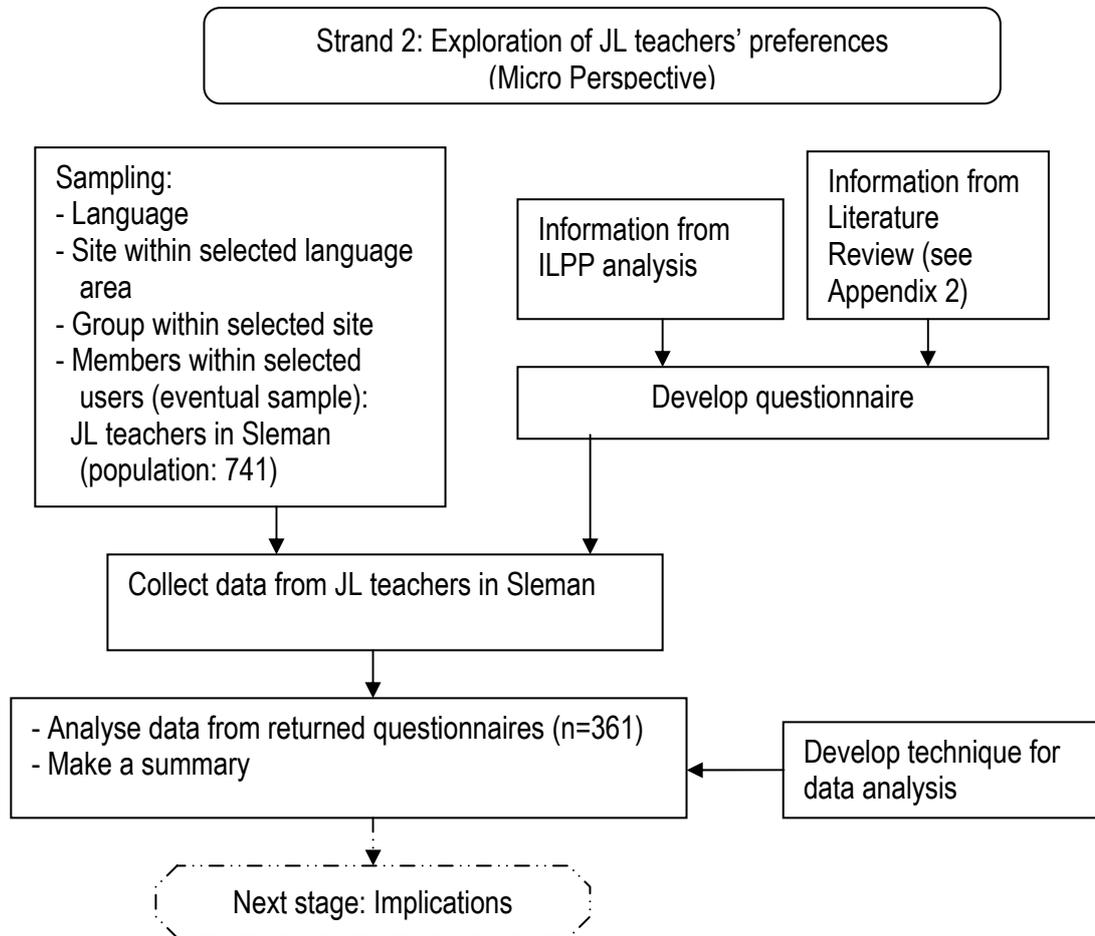
What are the views of heritage language teachers in Yogyakarta, Indonesia, on the extent to which language policy and planning influences the domains of usage for the Javanese heritage language?

As stated in Chapter 1, Section 1.6., the term ‘Yogyakarta’ means the Sleman regency in Yogyakarta province, not the whole of Yogyakarta province.

In simpler language, Research Question 2 could be expressed as follows:

What are the Sleman Javanese language teachers' preferences on the distribution of domains for the Javanese language in the ILPP?

This strand explored the views of selected informed heritage language users, the target of the ILPP, on their preferences for LPP for heritage languages, more specifically, the Javanese language.



**Figure 8 Design Outline for Strand 2**

The aim was to seek an indication of the views of heritage languages from concerned users' through purposeful sampling of language, site, group, and users. As the scope of the views was more limited (localised), their views comprised the Micro Perspective for a comparison involving the ILPP. The design is outlined in Figure 8.

This strand involves a sociolinguistic survey and thus its scope, as per Dua (1985), was wide and investigated opinions, attitudes, and preferences with regard to languages, language use and language policy.

### **3.3.1. Sample selection**

Four levels of purposeful sampling were employed. (See Appendix 8 for further details):

1. Purposeful sampling selection of heritage language

There are more than 700 heritage languages in Indonesia. Using critical sampling (Patton, 2012), the Javanese language was selected.

2. Purposeful sampling of site

The Javanese language speakers reside in 3 provinces (Yogyakarta, Central Java, and Eastern Java provinces). Using criterion sampling (Patton, 2012), the Sleman regency, in Yogyakarta province, was selected.

3. Purposeful sampling of speaker group

The Javanese language speakers in the Sleman regency comprised various groups. Using criterion sampling (Patton, 2012), the selected group comprised the Javanese language teachers in the regency.

4. Sampling procedure for the selected group

To maximise the return, a census technique was used. Previous informal exploration revealed an average of one Javanese language teacher per school. Thus, the schools were used as units of sample selection. The size of population, as revealed by the sampling frame, was 741. (A detailed composition of the population is also given in Appendix 8).

### **3.3.2. Data collection technique**

The technique of data collection aimed to measure two dimensions (breadth and some depth) from a large number of respondents in the optimum way. This was attained through the use of the census approach to sampling and the design of the questionnaire that explored preferences as well as reasons for preference.

The procedure for data collection involved the following steps, namely:

1. Developing a questionnaire

2. Administering the questionnaire to target respondents

3. Analysing the returned questionnaire sheets and summarising the findings.

### *3.3.1.1. The Development of the Questionnaire*

The development of the questionnaire drew on relevant literature and on the current situation of the ILPP. Various writers underline the significance of an LPP that maintains the spirit of multilingualism and facilitates the survival and growth of heritage languages. Such an LPP typically covers various domains and is not just limited to heritage language instruction at school. In sum, the required LPP is Type-3 LPP. However, in order that the questionnaire was relevant to the Indonesian situation, it was necessary to use the information from Strand 1, concerning existing domains that were allowed for heritage languages. The legal references for the questionnaire items are attached in Appendix 1, while the theoretical references for the items are attached in Appendix 2.

Using the literature and legal stipulation, three areas of planning (status, acquisition, and corpus planning) were included as follows.

#### 1. Status planning

Various writers (e.g., Barrena et al., 1997; Crystal, 2000; Amery, 2001; Fishman, 2000; and European Charter, in Grin, 2003) maintain that the use of a language in the workplace and governmental administration gives it a high utility and prestige, which are significant for generating pride and interest among users and potential users.

On the other hand, status planning analysis on the ILPP revealed that heritage languages are not permitted for use in the workplace and in governmental administration, at the national and regional levels (U 24 Articles 25, 30 and 33). At the Yogyakarta level, there has been an attempt to introduce the Javanese language in a very limited area (i.e., Y 1 on the use of the oral Javanese language in workplaces every Saturday, which is not a work day in most workplaces). Accordingly, pertinent items on the use of the Javanese language in the workplace and regional government administration were developed (1.a. and 1.b.) with reasons for supporting it (Questionnaire Items numbers 1.a.1. and 1.b.1.) or opposing it (1.a.2. and 1.b.2.).

Domains in the work place and government administration include the use of language in public service areas and signage. Signage gives a language prominence and increases its prestige, to its own speakers and to those of other languages. Status

planning analysis on the ILPP revealed that the use of heritage language is for signage allowed for limited cases (U 24 Articles 36 and 38). Accordingly, items were developed for the use of the Javanese language in public service areas (2) and reasons for supporting it (2.1.) or opposing it (2.2.). Then, items were also developed for the use of the Javanese language for public signage (3) and reasons for supporting it (3.1.) or opposing it (3.2.).

**Table 7 Questionnaire Items for Status Planning**

	Domains	Addressed In Questionnaire No	Remark
1.	Javanese as an <u>official language</u> – <u>regional</u> (including: workplace & signage)	1. a., 1. a.1., 1. a.2. 1. b., 1. b.1, 1. b.2 2, 2.1., 2.2. 3, 3.1, 3.2.	In the Indonesian Constitution, heritage languages as official language may be implemented regionally
2.	Javanese for <u>wider communication</u> (for different language groups across the nation)	5, 5.1., 5.2.	Nationally, among different regions, the lingua franca is the Indonesian language. At present, the Javanese language as a lingua franca among ethnic groups could only be implemented in the neighbourhood or in special geographic reserves
3.	Javanese as a <u>group language</u> (for the members of the Javanese ethnic group)	Substituted with nos 5 & 6	With mobility, where people from various ethnic groups move freely in Indonesia, family and neighbourhood (in the Javanese language majority area), rather than ethnic group, become more meaningful environments for Javanese people to preserve the Javanese language
4.	Javanese as a <u>literary language</u> (including: language for science and technology)	4, 4.1., 4.2.	Kloss (1967) maintains that it is the informative prose, rather than ‘belle lettres’, that is more likely to lend prestige to an ethnic language
5.	Javanese as the <u>home language</u>	6, 6.1., 6.2.	
6.	Javanese as the <u>neighbourhood language</u>	7, 7.1., 7.2.	

Language survives if there is an essential need for it and also a high prestige in its use (Crystal, 2000). An area of use that offers essential need and high prestige is

science and technology. U 24, Article 25 shows that the use of heritage language was limited. Accordingly, items were developed for the use of the Javanese language in science and technology (4) and reasons for supporting it (4.1.) or opposing it (4.2.).

Various writers (e.g., Fishman, 1991; Barrena et al., 1997; Coronel-Molina, 1999; Crystal, 2000; and Amery, 2001) recommend the use of heritage language in public domains for successful conservation. However, this would entail law revision at the national level. If this is not possible, the Indonesian regions might need to exercise their rights to autonomy, as provided by the U 32. However, if official status at the provincial level could not be attained, zones (below the province) for heritage language conservation could be designated. Accordingly, Item 5 was developed, together with the reasons for supporting the idea (5.1.) or opposing it (5.2.).

In order to conserve heritage languages, the laws need to provide support and encouragement for the use of heritage languages in private domains, which is important for their conservation (Amery, 2001). They need to prevent diglossia leakage, which is largely responsible for heritage language deterioration (Gunarwan, 2006). However, there is no such provision in the ILPP. Accordingly, items were developed that were related to the regulation of the use of the Javanese language in the family (6), together with reasons for supporting the idea (6.1.) or opposing it (6.2.), and a similar regulation for the neighbourhood (7, 7.1., and 7.2.).

## 2. Acquisition planning

Although limited in nature, schools provide some grounds for heritage language conservation (Kaplan and Baldauf, 1997; Barrena et al., 2006). They also provide a starting place for the expansion of the use of heritage languages in public domains and, as such, are more strongly supported by various international regulations. In this respect, analysis of the ILPP on heritage languages as a school subject (U 20 Article 37) did not reveal an explicit provision for heritage languages. There is a regional bylaw (Y 423.5), which requires Javanese language instruction in schools. At present there are two options for the Javanese language, i.e., (1) as a separate subject and (2) as a part of other subjects, i.e., art and culture. As such, items were developed on this issue (8), with reasons for selecting the first option (8.1.) or the

second option (8.2.), and the levels at which the Javanese language is to be taught, as an independent subject (8.3.) or included in another subject (8.4.).

**Table 8 Questionnaire items for Acquisition Planning**

	Domains	Addressed In Questionnaire Number	Remark
1.	Language as a subject	8, 8.1., 8.2.	
2.	Language for medium of instruction	9, 9.1., 9.2.	
3.	Language in the mass media	10, 10.1, 10.2	

Various writers (e.g., Fishman, 1991; Coronel-Mollina, 1999; Crystal, 2000; the European Charter, in Grin, 2003; and UNESCO, in Mayor and Binde, 2001) declare that merely introducing heritage languages as a subject for instruction is not adequate and that heritage languages need to be used as the medium of instruction. In this respect, analysis of the ILPP as the language for the medium of instruction (U 24 Article 29 and U 20 Article 33) revealed that the use of heritage languages was not allowed, except in a very limited scenario (the first two years of primary schooling). Accordingly, an item was developed on this issue (9), together with reasons for supporting the idea (9.1.) or opposing it (9.2.).

Beyond school, the mass media provides an opportunity for Javanese language use, as it provides a means for giving a language prominence in the public eye (Fishman, 1991; Coronel-Mollina, 1999; Crystal, 2000; Grin, 2003; Mayor and Binde, 2001). However, acquisition planning analysis of the ILPP on the language for the mass media (U 24 Article 39) indicated that the use of heritage languages was not allowed, except for limited cases. Accordingly, an item was developed on the use of the Javanese language in general mass media (10), together with reasons for supporting the idea (10.1.) or opposing it (10.2.).

### 3. Corpus planning

Corpus planning often falls to a body of experts and scholars, like a language academy (Kaplan and Baldauf, 1997). Cooper (1989) mentions the role of language academies to guide the development of a language. Corpus planning analysis of the ILPP on language academies (U 24 Article 42) revealed that a language institution needs to coordinate language conservation. Accordingly, the case of a language

academy was addressed in Item 11 together with reasons for supporting it (11.1.) or opposing it (11.2).

**Table 9 Questionnaire Items for Corpus Planning**

	Aspects of language development	Addressed In Questionnaire Number	Remark
1.	Aspect for codification and elaboration: Choice of orthography Choice of language levels	12, 13, 13.1., 13.2., 13.3., 13.4.	
2.	Reference for codification and elaboration	14, 15, 16, 16.1., 16.2.	
2.	Institution for codification and elaboration: Language academy	11. 11.1., 11.2.	

An important issue in corpus planning is the development or selection of orthography (Kaplan and Baldauf, 1997; Cooper, 1989; Crystal, 2000). There are no regulations concerning the orthography to be used in the Javanese language, although there are two options, i.e., Latin or *Carakan* (traditional Javanese orthography). Accordingly, this issue was developed in Item 12.

A particular aspect of the Javanese language is the existence of various speech levels (*krama*, *krama alus*, *ngoko*, and *ngoko alus*) (Harjawiyana and Supiya, 2001). Speech levels may have an implication for language conservation. On the other hand, there is no regulation on speech levels in the ILPP. Accordingly, an item was developed (13) as to whether or not the speech levels were to be maintained, together with reasons for supporting them (13.1.), the levels to be maintained (13.3.) or reasons for opposing them (13.2.).

Various writers (Kaplan and Baldauf, 1997; Cooper, 1989; Crystal, 2000) maintain that corpus planning comprises the development and elaboration of orthography, grammar, lexicon, and style. This is accomplished through, e.g., the publication of manuals. At present, *Balai Bahasa Yogyakarta* (The Yogyakarta Language Institute), a branch of the *Pusat Bahasa* (The Language Centre), publishes several official manuals on orthography, grammar, lexicon, and style. In order to find out whether these works were known to the teachers, 2 items were developed (14 and 15). Some of the manuals were written in the Indonesian language and others in the Javanese language. Accordingly, the choice of language for such manuals was developed in Item 16, together with reasons for selecting the Javanese language (16.1.) or the Indonesian language (16.2.).

#### 4. Unexplored issues

This study did not explore the use of the Javanese language as an official language at the national level as this is not compatible with the Constitution. Similarly, the use of the Javanese language as a language for wider communication was not explored, as the status of the Javanese language is equal to other heritage languages. The use of the Javanese language as an international language was not explored either as that is too ambitious for a language that is not even a language of instruction in its majority areas. The use of the Javanese language as the language for forums was not explored separately as it was already included in the use of the Javanese language in the workplace.

The present laws do not regulate the use of heritage languages in the capital (Jakarta) and or in regions. As the national capital is in Jakarta, this aspect is not relevant to Yogyakarta, or any other heritage language areas beyond Jakarta. As for the language for religion, the Islamic religion mandates the use of Arabic while other religions sometimes use the Indonesian language or a heritage language. As there is no uniformity of practice in this matter and because of the sensitivity of this question for Moslems, this aspect was not developed.

#### Note

The items developed through this manner corresponded with the theoretical foundation (Chapter Two) as well as with the analysis of the ILPP (Chapter Four). The full questionnaire is attached in English, in Appendix 3, and in Indonesian, in Appendix 4.

#### *3.3.1.2. Questionnaire format*

It was realised that this study could not avoid exploring the dominant position of the Indonesian language relative to heritage languages. Given the importance of the Indonesian language in Indonesia, such an exploration could be sensitive and make respondents uneasy (further discussion on this aspect is given in Chapter Six). This is especially so as the majority of the teachers worked as civil servants in public schools or as teachers in government-subsidised private schools. The sensitivity might have increased around the time of the administration of the questionnaire due to the fact that the government decided to abolish independent Javanese language

instruction (and to embed it into the art and culture subject), something which was explicitly addressed in the questionnaire.

General information was provided to the participants that their views on LPP were requested. However, in the questionnaire, the wording was made generic in order to avoid bias. For example, instead of directly asking the respondents' view of the ILPP, in the domain of language in regional government's activities, the question was framed as follows:

At present, Javanese is not used in formal communications, in addition to the Indonesian language, in the workplace.

Should Javanese be used in formal communications in the workplace?

In this manner, although the phrase 'at present' implicitly referred to the present policy, there is no direct reference to the government, so that the question becomes one for generic LPP, and was believed to avoid the respondents' inconvenience, should his/her answer be different to that which was provided for by the ILPP.

The questionnaire mostly consisted of multiple choice questions with one open-ended option for every follow-up question, as well as an invitation for comments at the end of the questionnaire. The multiple choice options were planned to elicit core information, while the open-ended options, as well as comments, were planned to elicit supplementary information.

The multiple choice questions consisted of priming questions and follow up questions.

1. Priming questions

Priming questions explored the respondent's preference for various status, acquisition, and corpus planning aspects for the Javanese language. These questions elicited 'Yes' or 'No' responses.

2. Follow-up questions

Every priming questions led to follow-up questions, which diverged into two branches; the first branch elicited reasons for those who selected the 'Yes' answer, while the second branch elicited reasons for those who chose the 'No' answer. The follow-up questions offered the chance to select more than one option. An open-ended question was added to every follow-up question to allow the respondents to offer additional information.

### 3.3.1.3. Refining the questionnaire

The development of the questionnaire followed the procedure that was recommended by Dornyei (2002). The outline is shown in Appendix 8. The refinement consisted of the following steps.

1. Literature reviews and findings on the ILPP (Strand 1) were used as a guide for creating the first draft. The results were shown to the experts who provided the following recommendations:
  - a. ‘Yes’ questions and ‘No’ questions needed to be more balanced.
  - b. Easier reading was needed. This was achieved through the placement of the priming question in the middle, the follow-up question for the ‘Yes’ answer in the left block, with those for ‘No’ answers in the right block.

The recommendation on 1.a. required a major revision, so that priming questions were neutral and reasons for opposing an idea were given equal space with reasons for supporting the idea. However, the major revision caused a delay in the execution of the study by 6 months.

2. The revised draft was trialled on a very small number of experts and peers. The following minor recommendations were offered:
  - a. Numbering needed to reflect related questions: e.g., 1 for the priming question, 1.1. for the follow-up question to ‘Yes’ answers, and 1.2. for the follow-up question to ‘No’ answers.
  - b. Options for several items should be added.
  - c. Instructions needed to include the way of changing view.
  - d. Better spacing needed to be employed.

The draft was revised accordingly.

3. The second draft was trialled on a group of selected respondents who were similar in characteristics but in a different location from the target sample. The following recommendations were offered: The Sultan (the governor of Yogyakarta special area) often uses the Javanese language in conducting sessions of the regional government’s activities. Thus, an additional item, i.e., the use of the Javanese language in government administration, was added.

4. A review of the whole questionnaire and previous analysis indicated that related domains need to be regrouped. Accordingly, revisions were made.
5. The revised draft was pilot tested on selected respondents in Sleman. They did not find any difficulty with the questionnaire and regarded the questionnaire as clear.

### **3.3.3. Data collection**

Data collection for the survey started in May 2013. Initially, some questionnaires were distributed through mail. However, the return rate was very poor and thus it was decided to distribute the questionnaire directly. Due to the large number of schools and wide expanse of area, a team of local persons was recruited for distributing the questionnaire.

The team learnt that there would be a delay in the returns due to the following reasons:

1. The respondents thought that the questionnaires were long and serious; therefore, they needed time in which they could concentrate to give their best answers.
2. From May through to June, they did not have time to respond as they needed to attend to the following commitments: end-of-school examinations, end-of-grade tests, school entrance processes, and *Ramadhan* (fasting month).

Due to these commitments, they could only fill out the questionnaire in middle July at the earliest.

Accordingly, the questionnaire could only be distributed from end of June to July, The questionnaires were returned in July and August. The number of returned questionnaires was 361 and this constituted a 48.7% return rate.

### **3.3.4. Data analysis**

The responses to priming and reason questions comprised 4 types of answers; namely, 'yes' choice, 'no' choice, 'blank' (no choice), or 'invalid' (opting for both 'yes' and 'no'). The answers to priming questions were mutually exclusive; thus, the sum of these percentages would be 100%. However, those corresponding to the reason questions were not mutually exclusive, as respondents could choose more than 1 option. As such, the sum of these percentages would not be 100%.

These answers were tabulated in a data sheet. Then the responses were counted to find the frequencies and percentages of the answers to every question. An example of a portion of the data sheet is given in Appendix 11, while the recapitulation for the answers to the multiple choice parts of the whole questionnaire is given in Appendix 12.

The findings from the questionnaire are discussed in Chapter 4, Section 4.2. Only the percentages of 'Yes' and 'No' answers to the priming questions, as well as valid percentages for follow-up questions, are presented in tabular form. The tabular presentation is followed by narrative exposition.

Meanwhile, the responses for the open (d) options were analysed through summarising content analysis (Flick, 2002). Here, passages were read, and if necessary were paraphrased, and their essences were extracted. Similar passages and paraphrases were put into categories. An example of the analysis is provided in Appendix 13, while the recapitulation for the all of responses is given in Appendix 14. The findings are included in the narrative exposition following the tabular presentation. On the other hand, additional commentary was read and summarised and put into categories and the results are presented in Appendix 15. Some commentary is used for illustrative purposes in various chapters. The data analysis procedure was similar to that which was used by several other investigators, such as Listyorini (2008), and Murwamphida (2008).

### **3.3.5. Ethics**

Before the survey was administered, approval was sought and obtained from the Human Research Ethics Committee at Curtin University and whose guidance was duly followed. The Indonesian Interior Ministry stipulates that, in order to conduct a study, a researcher needs a permit. The permit provided guidelines as to which areas the use of data was permitted and in which areas it was prohibited. Accordingly, the permit was duly requested from *Bappeda DIY* (The Regional Planning Board of Yogyakarta Special Area) in Yogyakarta and permission was granted.

A letter of information, which described the nature of the study, and a form requesting consent were sent to all potential respondents. Only those participants who consented were included in the study. The questionnaire was returned in a sealed envelop to the coordinator or the field team.

The questionnaire was in the Indonesian language to ensure that the content of the survey was fully understood and so that the participants could answer correctly. Anonymity and confidentiality were assured to all participants. No participant's name or details have been mentioned in the thesis. Only aggregate responses are shown in the body of the thesis and the appendices.

### **3.4. Summary**

This chapter discusses the approach adopted in this study. It also describes the two strands of the study. The first strand deals with the content analysis of Indonesian language-related laws and bylaws. The second strand describes the survey of Javanese language teachers in Sleman on their preferences for the allocation of domains for heritage languages and how it was developed. The next chapter will deal with the findings from these strands, while the implications of the findings will be discussed in Chapter Five.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### FINDINGS

This chapter consists of two sections. The first section addresses the first research question (RQ1) based on the analysis of the Indonesian Language Policy and Planning (ILPP) on heritage languages, with particular attention to the Javanese language. The second section addresses the second research question (RQ2) based on the results of the questionnaire that explored the views of Sleman Javanese language teachers on domain distribution for that heritage language.

#### **4.1. Analysis of ILPP**

RQ 1 inquires into the ILPP type with respect to heritage languages in general and the Javanese language in particular. In order to do so, an analysis was made concerning the distribution of domains in language-related laws. From the distribution, inference could be made for the ILPP type.

The analysis consists of five parts. The *first* part comprises a short overview of the Constitution. The *second* lists the laws analysed in this study; these were language-related Indonesian national laws and Yogyakarta regional bylaws. The *third* consists of a detailed analysis of the distribution of domains. These include status planning in official national and regional languages, the languages in the workplace, the languages for public service areas, signage languages, the languages for wider communication, international languages, the languages of literature and scholarly works, and group and community languages. They also include acquisition planning in foreign languages, languages as subjects for instruction, and languages for the medium of instruction and for the mass media. In addition, there are those domains that are not regulated in status or acquisition planning and those that include corpus planning with regard to the language academy, codification and elaboration as a general case, and codification and elaboration as a specific case. The *fourth* part comprises summaries of the distribution of domains, with particular focus on the Javanese language. *Finally*, inference is made as to the ILPP typology.

#### **4.1.1. LPP in the Indonesian Constitution**

On the matter of language, the Indonesian Constitution (UUD 1945, *Undang-undang Dasar* 1945) states as follows:

Article 36

*Bahasa Negara ialah Bahasa Indonesia.*

[The State language is the Indonesian language].

Article 36 C

*Ketentuan lebih lanjut mengenai Bendera, Bahasa, dan Lambang Negara, serta Lagu Kebangsaan diatur dengan Undang-undang.*

[Further regulations on the State Flag, Language, and Symbol, and National Anthem are regulated through Laws].

Article 32

*Negara menghormati dan memelihara bahasa daerah sebagai kekayaan budaya nasional.*

[The State respects and conserves heritage languages as part of the national cultural heritage].

Article 36 C indicates that the substance of the ILPP is to be found in relevant laws under the Constitution. In this respect, Indonesian national laws regulate the uses and functions of the Indonesian language, heritage languages in general and foreign languages, including English. However, they do not regulate specific heritage languages. The regulations for specific heritage languages are to be found in regional bylaws. For example, some regulations for the Javanese language are to be found in the Yogyakarta bylaws.

#### **4.1.2. The language-related laws and bylaws**

Spolsky (2004) maintains that LPP in a given country could be found in language-related laws. In this study, the focus was on Indonesian heritage languages in general and the Javanese language in Yogyakarta in particular. After exploring various laws and regulations, it was found that the following laws and bylaws had language-related passages.

1. *Undang-undang Republik Indonesia Nomor 24 Tahun 2009 tentang Bendera, Bahasa, dan Lambang Negara, serta Lagu Kebangsaan* [The Law of the

- Republic of Indonesia Number 24 Year 2009 on State Flag, Language, and Symbol, and National Hymn], abbreviated to U 24
2. *Undang-Undang Republik Indonesia Nomor 20 Tahun 2003 tentang Sistem Pendidikan Nasional* [The Law of the Republic of Indonesia Number 20 Year 2003 on National Educational System], abbreviated to U 20
  3. *Undang-Undang Republik Indonesia Nomor 32 Tahun 2004 tentang Pemerintahan Daerah* [The Law of the Republic of Indonesia Number 32 Year 2004 on Regional Government], abbreviated to U 32
  4. *Peraturan Menteri Dalam Negeri Nomor 40 Tahun 2007 tentang Pedoman bagi Kepala Daerah dalam Pelestarian dan Pengembangan Bahasa Negara dan Bahasa Daerah* [The Interior Minister Regulation Number 40 Year 2007 on the Guideline for the Regional Heads in the Conservation and Cultivation of the State Language and Heritage Languages], abbreviated to M 40
  5. *Instruksi Gubernur Daerah Istimewa Yogyakarta Nomor 1/Instr/2009 tentang Penggunaan Bahasa Jawa pada Hari Tertentu di Lingkungan Provinsi Daerah Istimewa Yogyakarta* [The Decree of the Governor of Yogyakarta Special Area Number 1/Instr/2009 on the Use of the Javanese Language on Certain Day within Yogyakarta Special Area Province], abbreviated to Y 1
  6. *Surat Edaran Gubernur Daerah Istimewa Yogyakarta No. 423.5/0912 Tahun 2005 tentang Penerapan Kurikulum Muatan Lokal Bahasa Jawa* [The Circular from the Governor of Yogyakarta Special Area No. 423.5/0912 Year 2005 on the Implementation of Javanese Language Local Content Curriculum], abbreviated to Y 423.5

There might be other laws that are in deliberation in the parliament, such as the cultural law. However, as they are not yet enacted, they were excluded from this study. In order to find the position of the laws on heritage languages in general and the Javanese language in particular, language-related articles and verses were analysed within the framework of domains. The detailed analysis is shown below, in which only the English translations of the articles and verses are presented, while the complete listing of original articles and verses (in Indonesian) with their English translation can be found in Appendix 10.

### 4.1.3. Status planning in national and regional official languages

U 24, Articles 1 and 25, explicitly state that the *national official language* in Indonesia is the Indonesian language. U 24, Articles 26 and 27, further elaborates that in legal writing the official national language is the Indonesian language (see Table 10). Although there is no mention of foreign and heritage languages, it is evident that their use as official languages on the national level is prohibited.

**Table 10 Status Planning in National and Regional Official Languages: Legal Reference**

		<b>U 24</b>
A 1		... The Indonesian language is the official national language that is used <u>throughout the area of the Unitary State of the Republic of Indonesia</u> .
A 25	V3	The Indonesian language as the country's official language ... functions as the State's (country's) official language ...
A 26		The use of the Indonesian language is obligatory in laws and regulations.
A 27		The use of the Indonesian language is obligatory in official public documents ....
		<b>M 40</b>
A 2		A regional head serves to implement: a. conservation and prioritisation of the use of the state language ... c. the socialisation of the use of the state language as the language of communication in the activities of ... official forums for the government and regional government, in official correspondence ...

Note: *Negara Kesatuan Republik Indonesia* (the Unitary State of the Republic of Indonesia) is the full formal name of the Republic of Indonesia

Status planning in regional official languages can be inferred from the same laws. The U 24 Articles do not explicitly mention regional official languages. However, the term “throughout the area of the Unitary State of the Republic of Indonesia”, in Article 1 (underlined), indicates that the use of the Indonesian language as an official language is also compulsory in the regions throughout Indonesia.

This ministerial regulation (M 40) further states that, in the regions, the official language for communication is the Indonesian language. The terms “prioritisation” and “socialisation” concerning the use of the state language can be interpreted in two ways. Firstly, it can be interpreted as giving some space for the use of heritage languages. The problem with this interpretation is that it is not explicit in U 24, which has greater authority. Secondly, it could be interpreted as acknowledging a state of transitional multilingualism, in which heritage languages in official domains can sometimes be used to accommodate some people who have difficulty in using

the Indonesian language. However, the primary and long term goal is to educate people to use the Indonesian language so that finally all official activities will be conducted in the national language. This interpretation is congruent with U 24. Thus, in regional government, the uses of heritage and foreign languages are regulated and prohibited (RP).

#### 4.1.4. Status planning in the languages in the workplace

Another range for the domain of a language is in the workplace. In this respect, the regulations are as follows.

**Table 11 Status Planning in the Languages for the Workplace**

		<b>U 24</b>
A 25	V 3	The Indonesian language as the country's official language ... national communication ... business transaction and documentation ....
A 27		The use of the Indonesian language is obligatory in official public documents.
Exp.		What is meant by "official public documents" include letters of decisions, securities, certificates, letters of explanation, identification documents, letters of transaction, letters of agreement, court decisions.
A 33	V 1	The use of the Indonesian language is obligatory in official communication in governmental and private workplace environments.
A 32	V 1	The Indonesian language must be used in a national or international forum that is held in Indonesia.
		<b>Y1</b>
		Instruction ... to: Facilitate the use of the Javanese language within their respective work environment on Saturday during work hours with respect to: a. Official meetings b. Telephone conversations c. Daily conversations.

The Articles from U 24 show that for official communication in the workplace, including the documents for official communication, there is an obligation to use the Indonesian language. As a consequence, the use of heritage languages and foreign languages are prohibited. However, the Yogyakarta Governor issued a bylaw that recommended the use of the Javanese language in oral communication in the workplace on a certain weekday. Even if it is observed, the use is limited to Saturdays, which are holidays in a lot of workplaces, and only for oral communication. Thus, its effect is likely to be limited.

Also included in the language in the workplace is the language for forums or meetings. These could relate to work, such as meetings among workers. Meetings in general in the workplace are covered in the regulations above. In the case of meetings that take place beyond the local context (national and international in scope) in Indonesia, there is still the obligation to use the Indonesian language. This means that the status of foreign languages, including international languages such as English, is not acknowledged for meetings that take place in Indonesia. Thus, the uses of heritage and foreign languages in the workplace are generally regulated and prohibited (RP).

#### 4.1.5. Status planning in the languages for public service areas

While in the case of the language in the workplace the emphasis is on effective communication among the staff, in the case of the language to be used in public service areas there is a right of the public to use the language that is convenient for them.

**Table 12 Status Planning in the Languages for Public Service Areas**

		<b>U24</b>
A 30		The Indonesian language must be used in the service of public administration in governmental institutions.
A 37	V 1	The Indonesian language must be used in the information on the products and services ... in Indonesia.
A 37	V 2	The stated information ... could be supplemented with heritage or foreign languages as necessary.

In this respect, U 24 states that the use of the Indonesian language is obligatory in public service areas in governmental offices. There is no mention of non-governmental entities. However, the analysis of language use in the workplace in the previous section shows that the use of the Indonesian language in official communication in public service areas is also obligatory. This means that the uses of heritage languages and foreign languages are prohibited (RP).

There is, however, an aspect that accommodates foreign languages and heritage languages, i.e., in the matter of information about products and services. Here, according to A 37, the use of foreign languages or heritage languages is allowed "... as necessary." The only condition is that the use of such languages must be in company with the Indonesian language. Therefore, the use of foreign languages and heritage languages in this aspect is regulated and optional (RO).

#### 4.1.6. Status planning in signage languages

Signage is an aspect of official language in that it displays the language the government selects in giving directions in public spaces. U 24 stipulates that in general signage, the Indonesian language is obligatory.

**Table 13 Status Planning in Signage Languages**

		U24
A 36	V 3	The use of the Indonesian language is obligatory for the names of buildings, streets, apartments or housing compounds, offices, business compounds, trade marks, trade institutions, educational institutions, organisations that are founded or owned by Indonesian citizens or Indonesian legal entities.
A 36	V 4	The stated naming ... could use heritage or foreign languages if [the stated objects] possess historical, cultural, customs and/or religious values.
A 38	V 1	The Indonesian language must be used in street signs, street directories, public facilities, posters, and other information media that comprise public service.
A 38	V 2	The use of the Indonesian language ... could be accompanied with heritage and/or foreign languages.

However, there are two concessions for the use of heritage or foreign languages, namely, in the case of the naming of buildings, streets, and organisations, and other entities that have historical/ cultural/ religious values, and the signage that conveys public information. Hence, the state of provision for heritage languages and foreign languages in signage language is RO for these specific cases.

#### 4.1.7. Status planning in the languages for wider communication

A language for wider communication is one that is used as a lingua franca among different groups who have their own languages in a country. In Indonesia this means the lingua franca for different ethnic groups.

U 24, Article 25, Verse 2 states that the Indonesian language is the means for uniting various ethnic groups (which have their own heritage languages), for communications amongst regions, which may have one or more heritage language groups, and for communication amongst regional cultures, which may have heritage languages as part of their cultures. Therefore, this Verse states that the language for wider communication (lingua franca), amongst different groups in Indonesia, is the national language. Here, the spirit of the Verse seems to be RC for the Indonesian language in this domain.

**Table 14 Status Planning in the Languages for Wider Communication**

		<b>U24</b>
A 25	V 2	The Indonesian language ... functions as the nation's identity, national pride, the means for uniting various ethnic groups, and the means of communication among regions and regional cultures.

There is no mention of an obligation to use the Indonesian language here. Presumably, different ethnic groups could also use their heritage languages. For example, a person of Sundanese origin who talks to a person of Javanese origin may use the Indonesian language or a mixture of both languages, provided they can understand one another's heritage language. However, due to the widespread use of the Indonesian language, there are few people who are bilingual in their own and others' heritage language/s. Thus, it would seem that communication among different heritage language groups in Indonesia would take place in the Indonesian language rather than in mixed heritage languages. There is also a possibility of using foreign languages. However, the chance of speaking a foreign language among different heritage language speakers would be far less than the one using the national language or a heritage language. Therefore, the use of heritage or foreign languages in the wider community is not regulated (NR).

#### **4.1.8. Status planning in international languages**

The UN recognises a number of languages for communication within its body and accords them the status of *international languages*. These languages are English, French, Spanish, Arabic, Russian, and Mandarin. However, U 24, Article 31 (see below) states that in the case of written agreements, involving Indonesia and foreign parties, the use of the Indonesian language is compulsory on the part of the Indonesian party. Meanwhile, the foreign party can opt to use its national language or English. Therefore, in the case of international languages in written communication with a foreign party, the state of provision is RC for the Indonesian language, and RO for English and/or the foreign party's national language, and RP (regulated and prohibited) for heritage languages. However, for domestic purposes involving domestic parties the use of the Indonesian language for written agreements is compulsory and the uses of foreign languages and heritage languages are prohibited (RP).

**Table 15 Status Planning in International Languages**

		<b>U24</b>
A31	V1	The Indonesian language must be used in the letters of understanding or agreements that involve state institutions, the government institutions of the Republic of Indonesia, Indonesian private or personal institutions.
A31	V2	The ... stated ... letters of understanding or agreement that involve a foreign party are also written in the national language of the foreign party and/or English.
A 32	V 1	The Indonesian language must be used in a national or international forum in Indonesia.
A 32	V 2	The Indonesian language can be used in international forums overseas.
A 44	V1	The government elevates the function of the Indonesian language to become an international language in a gradual, systematic and continuous manner.

In forums or meetings within the Indonesian territory, Article 32 states that the Indonesian language is obligatory and that foreign languages and heritage languages are prohibited. This applies for national as well as international forums. Thus, within Indonesia, there is no acknowledgment of English or other foreign languages as international languages.

Even for meetings abroad, which are international from an Indonesian perspective, the use of these foreign languages is optional as the Indonesian language could also be used. This means it is intended that the Indonesian language be developed to serve as an international language. The intent is made explicit in Article 44.

#### **4.1.9. Status planning in the languages of literature and scholarly works**

The use of a language for literary and scholarly works renders it high prestige (Cooper, 1989). The regulation of literature, as a part of culture and art, can be seen in Table 16 (below). According to these Articles, with respect to literature with national scope, there is an obligation to develop, cultivate and protect the Indonesian language. Thus, the status is RC for the Indonesian language and NR for heritage and foreign languages. For literature which is regional in scope, whether ethnic or regional, there is the obligation to develop, cultivate and protect heritage languages. Thus, the status of provision here is RC for heritage languages.

Scholarly works include works in science and technology (see Table 16). These articles reveal that in the matter of science and technology in general, the use of the Indonesian language is obligatory. In other words, the status of provision in general is RC for the Indonesian language. The use of heritage languages or foreign languages is allowed for specific goals and specific disciplines. In other words, the status planning in these special cases is RO (regulated and optional) for heritage languages and foreign languages.

**Table 16 Status Planning in the Languages of Literature and Scholarly Works**

		<b>U 24: Literature</b>
A 25	V3	The Indonesian language as the country's official language functions as the official language of ... the development of national culture ... art ...
A 41	V 1	The (central/national) government is obligated to develop, cultivate and protect the Indonesian language and culture in order that it continues its status and function in the community, national and state affairs in line with societal development
A 42	V1	The regional governments are obligated to develop, cultivate, and protect heritage languages and cultures in order that they continue to serve their status and function in community affairs in line with societal development and to continue as the components of Indonesian cultural heritage.
		<b>U 24 : Scholarly works</b>
A 25	V 3	The Indonesian language as the country's official language functions as ... the means for developing and utilising science, technology, art ....
A 35	V 1	The use of the Indonesian language is obligatory in the writing of scientific works and their publication in Indonesia.
	V 2	The stated writing and publication ... for special objectives or disciplines may use heritage or foreign languages.
A 32	V 1	The use of the Indonesian language is obligatory in a national or international forum that is held in Indonesia.

In the context of this discussion, the status planning on forums is relevant. Scholarly communities often organise meetings or forums in order to discuss advances in their areas. For example, scholars of Javanese have organized several Javanese language congresses. Scholars of English have organised international TEFLIN conferences in Indonesia for decades. It is not clear at present whether these conferences belong to the forums as regulated in A 32.

If scholarly conferences are included in this Article, then status planning for heritage languages and foreign languages is quite limited, as conferences on heritage

languages, which invariably are national in scope as speakers of many heritage languages have migrated to various areas of Indonesia, must be conducted in the Indonesian language. Furthermore, international conferences must also be conducted in the Indonesian language. For conferences in science and technology, this may pose considerable difficulty for the organisers, as translating scientific and technology papers and speeches, often within tight time schedules, is very difficult and time consuming. It is interesting to note that in France, the Constitutional Court ruled a similar regulation to be unconstitutional (Spolsky, 2004).

#### **4.1.10. Status planning in group and community languages**

Another function for a language is as a group language. According to Cooper (1989), group language functions when it is the normal medium of communication among the members of a single cultural or ethnic group. Due to inter-regional migration, a lot of cities and neighbours in Indonesia typically contain residents from various ethnic groups. Therefore, in daily affairs, residents of various ethnic groups may communicate using a group language. There is no mention of group languages in national laws and regulations. However, there are some mentions of community languages (see Table 17).

**Table 17 Status Planning in Group and Community Languages**

		<b>U24</b>
A 41	V 1	The (central/national) government is obligated to develop, cultivate and protect the Indonesian language and culture in order that it continues its status and function in the community, national and state affairs in line with societal development.
A 42	V 1	The regional governments are obligated to develop, cultivate, and protect heritage languages and cultures in order that they continue to serve their status and function in community affairs in line with societal development and to continue as the components of Indonesian cultural heritage.

In this respect, Article 41, Verse 1 states that there is an obligation for the national government to maintain the Indonesian language as the language for community affairs, while Article 42, Verse 1 states a similar obligation for the regional governments to maintain heritage languages as the languages for community affairs. The relevant phrase is “obligated to develop, cultivate and protect” the Indonesian language and heritage languages so that they continue to serve the community. However, there is no mention of ‘obligated to use’ the Indonesian language or

heritage languages. There is no mention of foreign languages. This could be interpreted that, in this respect, the status planning for the Indonesian language and heritage languages is RO. The use of a foreign language is a possibility; however, that it is not regulated (NR).

The language for community affairs is traditionally a heritage language. Here, the possibility of using the Indonesian language as well as heritage languages in the community opens the possibility of diglossia leakage (Fishman, 1991). As Gunarwan (2006) points out, one significant factor in the decline of heritage languages in Indonesia is diglossia leakage, in which the Indonesian language takes over the functions that were previously held by heritage languages.

#### **4.1.11. Acquisition planning in foreign languages**

A general analysis of acquisition planning was performed to find the state of provision for various languages in various domains of languages as subjects of instruction, languages used as the medium of instruction, and languages used in the mass media. In U 24 there is an indirect legal reference to foreign languages in the matter of acquisition planning.

**Table 18 Acquisition Planning in Foreign Languages**

		<b>U 24</b>
A 43	V 1	The government may provide facilitation to Indonesian citizens who want to improve their foreign language abilities in order to improve the national competitive edge.

This Verse reveals a plan to increase the number of speakers of foreign languages. Cooper (1989) maintains that the effort to increase the number of speakers belongs to acquisition planning. There is no elaboration as to how this will be carried out. However, usually, the Ministry of Education supports individuals who want to improve their foreign language ability through intensive courses, often before sponsoring study overseas to obtain higher degrees. This would fall into the domain of ‘language’ as the subject, although the level of education for implementing this is unspecified. The state of provision here is RO (regulated and optional).

#### 4.1.12. Acquisition planning in languages as subjects for instruction

Languages as subjects for instruction are covered in national laws and regional bylaws. The national regulation in this respect can be found in U 20, as follows in Table 19.

**Table 19 Acquisition Planning in Languages as Subjects for Instruction**

		<b>U 20</b>
A 37	V1	Primary and secondary education curricula must include: ... c. language ... g. art and culture ... j. local content ...
Explan- ation		The subjects for instruction include the Indonesian language, heritage languages, and foreign languages with the consideration: 1. The Indonesian language is a national language; 2. Heritage languages are mother tongues for the students; and 3. Foreign languages, especially English comprise international languages that are highly important for global communication.
A 37	V2	The curriculum for tertiary education must include: ... c. language ...
		<b>Y 423.5</b>
	Main	... call for: 1. The regents/mayors within the Province of Special Area of Yogyakarta to ... implement the Javanese language as obligatory local content for elementary, junior secondary, senior secondary, and vocational schools.

U 20, Article 37 and its explanation, states that the curricula at the primary and secondary levels must include languages consisting of the Indonesian language, heritage languages, and foreign languages. Therefore, on the basis of this Article, the status of provision, in primary and secondary curricula, is RC for these languages. In practice, the Indonesian language is taught at all levels. As for heritage languages, there is a period in which a heritage language is taught at the junior secondary level.

Recently, there has been an effort to introduce heritage languages as local content subjects at all levels. In Yogyakarta area, the Yogyakarta Governor has issued a decree (Y 423.5). Within the province of Yogyakarta, including Sleman regency, this decree has been observed and the Javanese language is taught as local content at elementary and secondary levels. However, recently, the National Education Ministry issued a plan to abolish the teaching of heritage languages. Instead, heritage languages would be included in the subjects of art and culture, thus the status of the Javanese language as an independent subject ceases to exist. In this respect, there will be a conflict with the regional bylaws, in which the provision for the Javanese language as a subject is RC. It might be concluded that the state of

provision is RO at present, as the regions may choose to follow the ministerial regulation or implement the regional bylaws. However, it might also be perceived that the state of provision is NC (Not clear).

As for foreign languages, English was previously taught at primary and secondary level. However, recently it was abolished at the elementary level. Thus, the state of provision for foreign languages is RP for the elementary level, while still RC at the secondary and tertiary levels. At the tertiary level, there is no explanation in the U 20 as to what languages are covered. However, up to now, the curriculum at the tertiary level usually consists of the Indonesian language and the English language but it does not include heritage languages. Therefore the acquisition planning for heritage languages is also RP (regulated and prohibited).

#### 4.1.13. Acquisition planning in languages for the medium of instruction

Here there are two sources of national laws: U 24 and U 20.

**Table 20 Acquisition Planning in the Languages for the Medium of Instruction**

		<b>U 24</b>
A 25	V 3	The Indonesian language ... functions as ... the medium of instruction in education ....
A 29	V 1	The use of the Indonesian language is obligatory as the medium of instruction in national education.
	V 2	The stated medium of instruction ... may consist of a foreign language in order to attain a goal that enhances the ability to use a foreign language among students.
		<b>U 20</b>
A 33	V 1	The Indonesian language as the official language serves as the medium of instruction in national education.
A 33	V 2	A heritage language could be used as the medium of instruction in the early years of education if it is required in the transmission of certain knowledge and/or skills.
Explanation		The instruction of a heritage language in elementary school in a region is varied according to the intensity of its use in the corresponding region. The early years in education comprise the first and second years of elementary level.
A 33	V 3	A foreign language could be used as the medium of instruction in a certain educational unit in order to support the mastery of a foreign language among students.

U 24, Article 25, Verse 3 and Article 29, Verse 1 state that the Indonesian language must be used as the medium of instruction in national education. Article 29, Verse 2 allows the use of a foreign language in the case that the goal is to improve the mastery of the foreign language among students.

Meanwhile, U 20, Article 33, Verse 1 also states that the Indonesian language serves as the medium of instruction. U 20, Article 33, Verse 2, states that foreign languages can be used for enhancing the mastery of foreign languages among students. U 20 allows the use of heritage languages as the medium of instruction in specific cases, that is, if necessary, to facilitate the development of certain skills and only in Grades 1 and 2 at the elementary level.

From the wording of U 24 and U 20, the medium of instruction must be the Indonesian language. In other words, the state of provision in the domain of language as the medium of instruction is RC for the Indonesian language. Both U 24 and U 20 state that foreign languages could be used in certain educational units and this means that the acquisition planning for foreign languages is RO. However, recently the Constitutional Court ruled that the use of foreign languages in education was against the Constitution and was therefore prohibited. With this latest development, the acquisition planning in the medium of instruction is RP for foreign languages. Meanwhile, U 24, Article 25, Verse 2, declares that heritage languages could be used, if necessary, in Grades 1 and 2. This means that their status of provision is generally RP and only RO in these specific cases.

#### **4.1.14. Acquisition planning in languages for mass media**

In the aspect of language in the mass media, the regulations are as follows (see Table 21).

**Table 21 Acquisition Planning in the Languages for the Mass Media**

		<b>U 24</b>
A 25	V3	The Indonesian language ... functions as ... the language of mass media.
A 39	V1	The use of the Indonesian language is obligatory in information through the mass media.
	V2	The mass media ... could use heritage or foreign languages for special objectives or audience.

These Articles state that in the matter of language for the mass media (in general), the use of the Indonesian language is obligatory. The use of a heritage language or foreign language is allowed if the mass media is intended for special objectives or audiences. Even here the Indonesian language is still allowed. This means that the acquisition planning is RC for the Indonesian language. On the other hand, for heritage languages and foreign languages the acquisition planning is RP in general and RO for specific cases.

#### **4.1.15. Domains that are not regulated in the ILPP**

The following domains are not regulated in the ILPP:

1. Language reserve areas

Within the context of official regional languages, attention should be drawn to the role of language in language reserve areas. To date, there is no law or regulation at the national or regional level that establishes a language reserve area and the language to use in such an area. Therefore, the state of provision in this respect is NR (not regulated).

2. Capital languages

There is no mention of capital languages for the Indonesian language, heritage languages, or foreign languages, in any national laws or regional bylaws. Therefore, the status planning in capital languages is NR for the Indonesian language, heritage languages and foreign languages.

3. Religious languages

There is no mention of religious languages in either national laws or the regional bylaws. This is explicable as the question of language variation in religions is a sensitive one, especially with Islam, the majority religion in Indonesia. Many Moslems regard the use of the Arabic language in Islam as being sacred. Thus, the status planning in religious languages is NR for all languages.

4. Family languages

There is no mention of family languages for the Indonesian language, heritage languages, or foreign languages in national laws or regional bylaws. Thus the status planning for family languages is NR for all types of languages.

#### 4.1.16. Corpus planning: Language academy

U 24, Article 41, Verse 2 states that the development, cultivation and protection of the Indonesian language are performed by a language institute (see Table 22); there is no mention of a language academy per se. Currently no language institute exists and the tasks associated with a language academy have been performed by *Pusat Bahasa*; thus, it is assumed that this is a language institute. Here, it could be argued that the corpus planning for the Indonesian language is RC. Article 42, Verse 2, states that similar tasks for heritage languages are performed by regional governments “under the coordination” of a language institute; this implies that the institute has a higher authority and, as such, is presumed to be a national institute. As the only national institute for language affairs is *Pusat Bahasa* and according to Article 41, Verse 2, it is mainly a language academy for the Indonesian language. Heritage language conservation could be an auxiliary role for the agency; for example, its Yogyakarta branch produces some heritage language manuals.

**Table 22 Corpus Planning in Language Academy**

		U 24
A 41	V 1	The government is obligated to develop, cultivate and protect the Indonesian language ...
	V 2	The development, cultivation and protection ... in V 1 are performed ... by a language institute.
A 42	V 1	The regional governments are obligated to develop, cultivate, and protect heritage languages ...
	V 2	The said development, cultivation, and protection are performed by regional governments under the coordination of a language institution.

This may explain the lack of mention of heritage language academies in the regulation and, as such, the corpus planning for heritage languages is generally NR. There is no mention for a language academy for foreign languages, so that the corpus planning in this respect is also NR.

#### 4.1.17. Corpus planning in codification and elaboration: General case

U 24, Article 41, states that the central government has an obligation to develop the Indonesian language (see Table 23). The explanation states that “language development” means “modernising the language through vocabulary enrichment, the

stabilisation and standardisation of the language system and the development of language style”. These comprise codification and elaboration. Thus, here the state of allocation is RC for the Indonesian language. To this end, *Pusat Bahasa* has produced a number of publications, e.g., *Kamus Besar Bahasa Indonesia* (The Large Dictionary of the Indonesian language), *Kamus Istilah Bahasa Indonesia* (The Dictionary of Indonesian Terms), and *Tata Bahasa Indonesia Baku* (Standard Indonesian Grammar).

Article 42 states that the regional government has a similar obligation to conserve heritage languages. Thus, the corpus planning is also RC for heritage languages.

**Table 23 Corpus Planning in Codification and Elaboration for Languages: General Case**

U 24		
A 41	V 1	The government is obligated to develop ... the Indonesian language and culture in order that it continues its status and function in the community, national and state affairs in line with societal development
Explanation		“Language development” is the effort of modernising the language through vocabulary enrichment, the stabilization and standardisation of the language system, the development of language style
A 42	V 1	The regional governments are obligated to develop... heritage languages and cultures in order that they continue to serve their status and function in community life in line with societal development and to continue as the components of Indonesian cultural heritage.

However, as there is no explanation, and as heritage language functions are quite limited, the development for heritage languages might not be as extensive as that for the Indonesian language. Meanwhile, there is no mention of general codification and elaboration for foreign languages. In addition, there is no publication from *Pusat Bahasa* on foreign languages. Therefore, the corpus planning for foreign languages here is NR.

#### **4.1.18. Corpus planning in codification and elaboration: Specific case**

Corpus planning includes the development of orthography. For the Indonesian language, the use of orthography is not regulated; however, it has been Latin. If attention is only paid to the absence of regulation, then the status of allocation is NR. However, if well-entrenched practices are included, it could be argued that the status of allocation for the Indonesian language is RC, in this case to use the Latin. For

foreign languages, the use of orthography has been left to their origins, like Latin for English and Arabic for the Arabic language. Thus, the corpus planning for foreign languages is NR. For heritage languages there are no regulations. With the Javanese language, while there is no regulation, there are two options, i.e., Latin and *Carakan* (traditional orthography).

**Table 24 Corpus Planning in Codification and Elaboration for the Javanese Language**

		<b>Y 1</b>
Main		Giving instruction ....To: b. Accept the inaccuracies in the use of Javanese language

One important aspect in the Javanese language is the existence of speech levels [*krama alus* (refined high), *krama* (high), *ngoko alus* (refined low), and *ngoko* (low)]. However, there is no regulation in this respect, either. There is a stipulation in a decree from the Governor of the Yogyakarta province (Y 1). This Article could be interpreted that the use of various levels is to be accommodated. In other words, corpus planning in this respect is NR.

#### **4.1.19. Summary analysis: Domain distribution for various languages**

The analysis in the preceding section provides a basis for compiling summary tables on the distribution of domains for various languages. This, in turn, yields a basis for comparing the distribution of heritage languages and an inference of ILPP type. The distribution of domains for various languages is presented in the following tables (see the next pages).

**Table 25 Summary of ILPP: Status Planning**

No	Domain	Elaboration/ Sub-domain	Legal Reference			State of provision		
			Law	A	V	IL	HL	FL
1.	Official-national language	Official national language	U 24	1		RC	RP	RP
		Official state language	U 24	25	3	RC	RP	RP
		Laws and regulations	U 24	26	--	RC	RP	RP
		Public documents	U 24	27	--	RC	RP	RP
2.	Official-regional language	Inferred from:						
		Official national language	U 24	1		RC	RP	RP
		Official state language	U 24	25	3	RC	RP	RP
		Laws and regulations	U 24	26	--	RC	RP	RP
		Public documents	U 24	27	--	RC	RP	RP
		Prioritisation of the use of the state language	M 40	2	--	RC	RP	RP
		Socialisation of the use of state language	M 40	2	--	RC	RP	RP
3.	Language for workplace	Workplace in general: public and private	U 24	33	1	RC	RP	RP
		National communication & business transaction and documentation	U 24	25	3	RC	RP	RP
		Public documents	U 24	27	--	RC	RP	RP
		Meeting: national and international	U 24	32	1	RC	RP	RP
		Local in Yogyakarta	Y1	--	--	NA	RC	NA
4.	Language for public service areas	General public service areas	U 24	30	--	RC	RP	RP
		Information of products and services, general	U 24	37	1	RC		
		Information of products and services, supplemental	U 24	37	2		RO	RO
5.	Signage language	General case	U 24	36	3	RC		
				38	1	RC		
		Special case: Entities of cultural/ historical/ religious values	U 24	36	4		RO	RO
		Special case: Signs for public information	U 24	38	2		RO	RO

**Table 25 (Continued) Summary of ILPP: Status Planning**

No	Domain	Elaboration/ Sub-domain	Legal Reference			State of provision		
			Law	A	V	IL	HL	FL
6.	Language for wider communication		U 24	25	2	RC	NR	NR
7.	International language	Domestic party	U 24	31	1	RC	RP	RP
		Domestic party with foreign party	U 24	31	2	RC	RP	RO
		Forum in Indonesia	U 24	32	1	RC	RP	RP
		Forum abroad	U 24	32	2	RO	RP	RO
		Elevation of IL	U 24	44	1	RC	NA	NA
8.	Language for literature & scholarly work	Literature, national scope	U 24	25	3	RC	NR	NR
				41	1	RC	NA	NA
		Literature, regional scope	U 24	42	2	NA	RC	NA
		Science & technology	U 24	25	3	RC		
				35	1	RC		
					2		RO	RO
9	Language reserve area	General case	None	--	--	NR	NR	NA
10.	Group and community language		U 24	41	1	RO	RO	NR
					2			
11.	Family language		None	--	--	NR	NR	NR
12.	Capital language		None	--	--	NR	NR	NR
13.	Religious language		None	--	--	NR	NR	NR

Note: ILPP: (The) Indonesian language policy and planning  
 U: *Undang-undang* (Law)      A: Article (*Pasal*)      V: Verse (*Ayat*)  
 IL: The Indonesian language    HL: Heritage language(s)    FL: Foreign language(s)  
 RC: Regulated and compulsory    RO: Regulated and optional  
 RP: Regulated and prohibited    NR: Not regulated      NA: Not applicable  
 --: None

**Table 26 Summary of ILPP: Acquisition Planning**

No	Domain	Elaboration/ Sub-domain	Legal Reference			State of provision		
			Law	A	V	IL	HL	FL
1.	Language as subject	Primary	U 20	37	1	RC	RO	RP
			Y 423.5	Main	--	NA	RC	NA
		Secondary	U 20	37	1	RC	RO	RC
			Y 423.5	Main	--	NA	RC	NA
		Tertiary	U 20	37	1	RC	RP	RC
		Unspecified	U 24	43	1	NA	NA	RO
2.	Language as the medium of instruction	Primary, Grades 1 and 2	U 24	25	3	RC	RO	RP
				29	1			
			U 20	33	1			
			33	2				
		Primary, Grades 3 to 6	U 24	25	3	RC	RP	RP
		Secondary	U 24	29	1	RC	RP	RP
Tertiary	U 20	33	1	RC	RP	RP		
3.	Language in mass media	General	U 24	25	3	RC		
				39	1	RC		
				39	2		RO	RO

Note: ILPP: (The) Indonesian language policy and planning  
 U: *Undang-undang* (Law)      A: Article (*Pasal*)      V: Verse (*Ayat*)  
 IL: The Indonesian language    HL: Heritage language(s)    FL: Foreign language(s)  
 RC: Regulated and compulsory    RO: Regulated and optional  
 RP: Regulated and prohibited    NR: Not regulated      NA: Not applicable  
 --: None

**Table 27 Summary of ILPP: Corpus planning**

No	Area (of development)	Elaboration/ Sub-domain	Legal Reference			State of provision		
			Law	A	V	IL	HL	FL
1.	General codification and elaboration		U 24	41	1	RC	RC	NR
2.	Special codification and elaboration	Orthography	None	--	--	RC: Latin	NR	NR
		Language levels	None	--	--	NA	NR	NA
3.	Language academy		U 24	41	2	RC		
				42	2		NR	NR

Note: ILPP: (The) Indonesian language policy and planning  
 U: *Undang-undang* (Law)      A: Article (*Pasal*)      V: Verse (*Ayat*)  
 IL: The Indonesian language    HL: Heritage language(s)    FL: Foreign language(s)  
 RC: Regulated and compulsory    RO: Regulated and optional  
 RP: Regulated and prohibited    NR: Not regulated      NA: Not applicable  
 -- : None

#### 4.1.20. Domain distribution for heritage languages

From the summary tables, allocation for heritage languages in general and the Javanese language in particular could be found (see the following Table 28). The table reveals that the ILPP on heritage languages in general and the Javanese language in particular is generally RP for most aspects and RO in certain aspects.

**Table 28 LPP for Heritage Language in General and the Javanese Language in Particular: Allocation of Domains**

	<b>A. Status planning</b>	State of allocation of domains
1.	National official language	RP
2.	Regional official language	RP
3.	Language for reserve area	NR
4.	Language for workplace	Generally RP; Limited use for JL in Yogyakarta
5.	Language for public service areas	Generally RP; RO for specific cases
6.	Language for signage	Generally RP; RO for specific cases
7.	Language for wider communication	NR
8.	International language	RP
9.	Group & community language	RO
10.	Language for literary and scholarly works (including science and technology)	Generally RP; RO for specific cases
11.	Capital language	NR
12.	Religious language	NR
13.	Family language	NR
	<b>B. Acquisition planning</b>	
1,	Language as subject	
	a. Primary	RO
	b. Secondary	RO
	c. Tertiary	RP
2.	Language as the medium of instruction	Generally RP; RO for specific levels
3.	Language for mass media (print and electronic)	Generally RP; RO for specific media
	<b>C. Corpus planning</b>	
1.	Language academy	NR
2.	Codification & elaboration	
	General case	RC
	Specific case	a. Style NR
		b. Orthography NR

Note: LPP: (The) Language policy and planning JL: The Javanese language  
 IL: The Indonesian language HL: Heritage language(s) FL: Foreign language(s)  
 RC: Regulated and compulsory RO: Regulated and optional  
 RP: Regulated and prohibited NR: Not regulated NA: Not applicable

In status planning, the state of allocation for heritage languages in general and the Javanese language in particular is either RP or NR in most domains. There are a few domains in which the category is RO, namely, language for signage, language for public service areas - in the sub-domain of language for necessary information for products and services, and the language for scholarly and literary works-in the specific case of certain academic journals. There is an attempt to introduce the Javanese language for oral communication on Saturdays in Yogyakarta,

In acquisition planning for heritage languages, the state of allocation in the case of language as a subject is RO at primary and secondary schools, as the national regulation is different to the regional regulation, and RP at the tertiary education levels. In the case of language as a medium of instruction it is RO at the first and second grades of elementary school and RP for the rest of the educational levels. In the case of mass media it is generally RP but RO in specific cases.

Finally, the table shows that the corpus planning for heritage languages in general and the Javanese language in particular is RC and NR. However, some informal interviews with officials from the branch of *Pusat Bahasa*, i.e., *Balai Bahasa Yogyakarta* (Yogyakarta Language Institute), revealed that the agency, of its own initiative, has produced some manuals, which could serve as evidence of some codification and elaboration. These manuals are as follows.

**Table 29 Corpus Planning: Some Works on the Javanese Language**

A.	Codification	
1.	Orthography manual	Balai Bahasa Yogyakarta. 2006. <i>Pedoman umum ejaan bahasa Jawa yang disempurnakan</i> . Yogyakarta: Balai Bahasa. Pustaka Nusatama. 2002. <i>Pedoman penulisan aksara Jawa</i> . Yogyakarta: Pustaka Nusatama.
2.	Grammar manual	Wedhawati et al. 2006. <i>Tata bahasa Jawa mutakhir. Edisi revisi</i> . Yogyakarta: Kanisius.
3.	Dictionary	Balai Bahasa Yogyakarta. 2001. <i>Kamus Basa Jawa</i> . Yogyakarta: Kanisius.
4.	Style manual	Harjawiyan, H. and Supriya, Th. 2001. <i>Kamus unggah-ungguh Basa Jawa</i> . Yogyakarta: Kanisius.
B.	Modernisation	
		--

Corpus planning fully exists when the published manuals reach key users who could use them to guide the rest of the society, e.g. Javanese language teachers. Thus, the full nature of the existence of corpus planning in this respect could only be determined from teachers' answers as to whether or not they know about and use the language manuals.

#### **4.1.21. Inference of ILPP type**

RQ 1 is expressed as follows:

What is the Indonesian government's language policy and planning for heritage languages, specifically the Javanese heritage language?

In other words, the RQ refers to an inquiry on the LPP type of the ILPP, as reflected in the distribution of domains and means for languages, as stipulated in language-related laws and bylaws. From the distribution of domains, especially public domains in status and acquisition planning, inference can be made on the LPP type of the ILPP. Based on the preceding analysis and summaries, the research question can now be addressed.

In order to infer the ILPP type an overall summary of the ILPP, comparing the distribution of domains for the national language and non-national languages (heritage languages and foreign languages), is depicted in Table 30 and a shorter version is provided in Table 31.

The overall summaries in Tables 30 and 31 reveal token distribution of public domains in the ILPP for non-national languages (heritage and foreign languages). It also reveals that the ILPP does not prohibit the use of heritage languages in private domains. In fact, in these domains, the state of provision is NR and RO. Based on LPP typology as discussed in Chapter 2, Section 2.9., the inference is that the ILPP belongs to Type-2 LPP, i.e., one that tolerates multilingualism.

The policy does not interfere in the private domains. However, it generally does not allow the use of non-national languages in public domains. This policy tolerates some degree of multilingualism; however, it does not take any measures to counter forces outside language policy that encourage language shift and thus could lead to the reduction of languages. The reason is that the closure to public domains devalues the subordinate languages politically and economically, and their speakers may find their languages a natural liability.

**Table 30 Overall Summary of the Distribution of Domains for Various Languages in ILPP**

	Range of allocation of domains	Extent of allocation of domains		
		Allocation for IL	Allocation for HL	Allocation for FL
1	National official language	RC	RP	RP
2	Regional official language	RC	RP	RP
3	Language reserve area	---	---	---
4	Language for workplace (including forum)	RC	Generally RP; limited RO at regional level	Generally RP
5	Language for public service areas	RC	Generally RP; RO for specific cases	Generally RP; RO for specific cases
6	Language for signage	RC	Generally RP; RO for specific cases	Generally RP; RO for specific cases
7	Language for wider communication	RC	---	---
8	International language	Domestic: RC Overseas: RO	RP	Overseas: RO
9	Language for literary and scholarly works (including science and technology)	RC for literary work; RC for scholarly work	Regional literary work: RC Scholarly work: - Generally RP - RO for specific cases	Literary work: NR Scholarly work: - Generally RP - RO for specific cases
10	Group and community language	RO	RO	NR
11	Family language	---	---	---
12	Capital language	---	---	---
13	Religious language	---	---	---
14	Language as subject	RC	RO	RC from secondary level
15	Language as the medium of instruction	RC	Generally RP; RO for specific levels	RP
16	Language for mass media (print and electronic)	RC	Generally RP; RO for specific media	Generally RP; RO for specific cases

Note: ILPP: (The) Indonesian language policy and planning  
 IL: The Indonesian language    HL: Heritage language(s)    FL: Foreign language(s)  
 RC: Regulated and compulsory    RO: Regulated and optional  
 RP: Regulated and prohibited    NR or ---: Not regulated    NA: Not applicable  
 (Shaded): Emphasis

**Table 31 Abbreviated Overall Summary of the Distribution of Domains for Various Languages in ILPP**

Range of allocation of domains	Extent of allocation of domains		
	Allocation for IL	Allocation for HL	Allocation for FL
Domains in status and acquisition planning	A. Public domains - Generally RC  B. Private domains - RO, NR	A. Public domains - Generally RP - RO for specific domains (signage, public service areas, mass media) - RO for school subjects B. Private domains - RO, NR	A. Public domains - Generally RP - RO for specific domains (signage, public service areas, mass media) - RC for school subjects B. Private domains - NR

Note: ILPP: (The) Indonesian language policy and planning  
 IL: The Indonesian language HL: Heritage language(s) FL: Foreign language(s)  
 RC: Regulated and compulsory RO: Regulated and optional  
 RP: Regulated and prohibited NR: Not regulated NA: Not applicable

This usually leads to language shift unless the cultural value of the language is strong. Even when language shift does not occur, multilingualism will be functionally not viable and its existence will be precarious.

In general, the state of provision for non-national languages, which consist of foreign languages (including English) and heritage languages (including the Javanese language), is limited in certain domains and virtually all are optional. In most domains, the states of provision are regulated and prohibited (RP). The only domain in which provision for non-national language is RC is language as a subject.

However, Kaplan and Baldauf (1997) declare that, with the limited number of hours per week and the large numbers of students typically found in classes, the opportunity for individual students to use a target language in the classroom is very limited. As such, attaining fluency in the target language for the students, an important goal for language cultivation or conservation, is probably a difficult goal to achieve.

In some domains, such as language for signage, language for information on products and services, and international languages abroad, the provision is RO (regulated and optional). However, these are limited areas. Furthermore, two areas (signage language and language for information on products and services) provide

only receptive language functions, such as reading and listening. This means that the opportunity to use non-national languages is quite limited. In some other domains, such as the language for literature and scholarly work, and language in specific mass media, the provision for the non-national languages is RO. However, these constitute limited areas, in which the general population might not have access or want to access them.

In other areas, significant ones, the use of non-national languages is simply prohibited. These areas include governmental administration, the workplace, the public service areas, the medium of instruction, and the general mass media. These are areas in which a language could be used extensively and for significant objectives by the general population. These areas provide extensive opportunities to use the language as well as better motivation for its users and thus constitute factors that significantly contribute to language conservation. Unfortunately, in these areas, non-national languages cannot be used as their use is prohibited.

From the previous summaries, the ILPP on non-national languages shows the following:

1. The domain that is regulated and compulsory for non-national languages, and thus potentially may provide the general population with extensive opportunity and better motivation to use the language, for example, language as a subject, has only limited scope (few hours of contact sessions per week).
2. The domains that are regulated and optional, and thus provide some opportunity to use the language, such as the language for public service areas (in the case of product and service information), language for signage, and language for specialised mass media, are accessed only by some sections of the general population.
3. The domains that could provide extensive language use and better motivation and to which the general population wants to get access, such as the language in regional government administration, language for the workplace in general, language for the medium of instruction and language for mass media, are not available for non-national languages.
4. There are certain domains, i.e., the private domains (such as the family and community/neighbourhood domains), which the ILPP does not regulate. These domains also involve a great number of people and provide a lot of opportunity

for the use of non-national languages. However, as revealed by Kurniasih (2006), Gunarwan (2002) and other researchers, these domains are subject to diglossia leakage, in which the Indonesian language is replacing heritage languages. In fact, U 24, Article 41, Verses 1 and 2, which mention the functions of the Indonesian language and heritage languages in the community, opens up the possibility of the diglossia leakage.

In sum, the general population gets little opportunity to use a non-national language. It could thus be argued that the Indonesian LPP does not contribute to the development of non-national languages, either the cultivation of foreign languages or the conservation of heritage languages.

In fact, the state of provision for heritage languages is less than that for foreign languages, particularly English. This is because the main venue in which the non-national languages are developed is through instruction at school. Here, English is mandated, by national authorisation, from secondary to tertiary levels. On the other hand, heritage languages are optional, as they are now embedded in the subject of art and culture and are not included in the tertiary level curriculum. If such meagre provision fails to produce sufficient fluency in English, as attested by Dardjowidjojo (2003), it is difficult to see how the lesser provision for heritage languages may contribute to their conservation, including that of the Javanese language.

This state of affairs has grave implications for heritage languages in general and the Javanese language in particular. These implications are discussed in the next chapter.

In this section, attention has been given to the findings of Strand 1, the analysis of the ILPP. In the next section, attention is shifted to the findings of Strand 2, the survey to the Javanese language teachers in Sleman (continued to the next page).

## 4.2. Findings of the Survey

RQ 2 is expressed as follows:

What are the views of heritage language teachers in Yogyakarta, Indonesia, on the extent to which language policy and planning influences the domains of usage for the Javanese heritage language?

For the purposes of the survey, RQ2 was interpreted to mean, ‘What are the Sleman Javanese language teachers’ preferences on the distribution of domains for the Javanese language in the ILPP?’

This section explores the views of Javanese language teachers in Sleman on their preferred distribution of domains for the Javanese language in the ILPP. It comprises two parts. The first ten sub-sections, from 4.2.1 to 4.2.10, present the survey findings, while the second part, sub-section 4.2.11, provides an analysis and synthesis of these findings.

In the first parts, to simplify discussion, the tabular form presents only the percentages of ‘yes’ and ‘no’ answers to the primary questions, together with the percentages of associated answers to the follow-up questions. Detailed tables are attached in Appendix 12. The tabular presentation is followed by narration that corresponds to the tabular presentation as well as to the findings from open options. The number of total participants was 361, or 48.7% out of the total of 741.

### 4.2.1. Javanese Language in the workplace and regional government administration

The domains of language in the workplace and regional government administration are closely related and thus are discussed together.

**Table 32 Javanese Language in Workplace and Government Administration: Level of Support**

No	Questionnaire statement	Yes	No
1.a	Should Javanese be used in formal communications in the workplace?	80.9%	17.2%
1.b.	Should Javanese be used in formal communications in regional government’s activities?	53.2%	45.2%

Table 32 shows that most respondents favoured the introduction of the Javanese language in the workplace (80.9%). Although the respondents expressed a preference for the Javanese language in the regional government’s activities, the level of support was lower (53.2%).

**Table 33 Javanese Language in Workplace and Government Administration: Reasons for ‘Yes’**

<b>1.a.1</b>	<b>1.b.1</b>	<b>Questionnaire number</b>	<b>1.a.1</b>	<b>1.b.1</b>
		<b>Reasons for ‘Yes’: JL in workplace (1.a.1) and government administration (1.b.1)</b>		
a.	a.	To improve the prestige of the Javanese language	41.6%	32.7%
b.	b.	To enhance the relevance of the Javanese language to daily activities	61.5%	42.9%
c.	c.	To encourage the use of the Javanese language in other environments (e.g., family and neighbourhood)	61.8%	37.7%

Among the reasons they gave (see Table 33), more respondents chose the responses “To enhance the relevance of the Javanese language to daily activities” (61.5% for the Javanese language in the workplace and 42.9% for the Javanese language in governmental administration) and “To encourage the use of the Javanese language in other environments (e.g., family and neighbourhood)” (61.8% for the Javanese language in workplace and 37.7% for the Javanese language in governmental administration). However, some also chose the response “To improve the prestige of the Javanese language” (41.6% for the Javanese language in workplace and 32.7% for the Javanese language in governmental administration).

It is interesting to note that these reasons are related to the benefit of language mastery, be it material and/or social rewards which, according to Paulston (1997), constitute a drive for people to learn or acquire a language. These views also ran counter to ‘folklorisation’ in which a heritage language is excluded from important domains in people’s life which, according to Fishman (1991), constitutes a significant factor for the demise of the heritage language.

From the open response, a frequent reason given (34 out of 82) was ‘to conserve the Javanese language and culture’. Another reason given was for ‘improving ethics, respect, and morality’ (17 out of 82), something which, according to Quinn (2011), would make the Javanese language unique among large languages in the world.

Meanwhile, those who were opposed were mostly against the use of the Javanese language in governmental administration; they were concerned with the fact that “There is already the Indonesian language for formal communications in the workplace” (37.7%) and “To accommodate the non-Javanese” (29.4%).

**Table 34 Javanese Language in Workplace and Government Administration: Reasons for ‘No’**

1.a.2	1.b.2	Questionnaire number	1.a.2	1.b.2
		<b>Reasons for ‘No’: JL in workplace (1.a.2) and government administration (1.b.2)</b>		
a.	a.	There is already the Indonesian language for formal communications in the workplace	13.9%	37.7%
b.	b.	To accommodate the non-Javanese	10.5%	29.4%
c.	c.	To avoid perception of Javanese exclusivism	2.5%	9.1%

A frequent reason (8 out of 16) from the open responses was ‘to maintain Indonesian unity through the use of the Indonesian language’, which basically was a re-statement of the necessity to use the Indonesian language– but may have been added to emphasise the point.

#### 4.2.2. Javanese Language in public service areas and public signage

While previous domains are more concerned with the use of language in work-related situations, languages in public service areas and public signage are more concerned with the needs of the public. The percentage of support for the Javanese language in public service areas (62.6%) and that for public signage (67.6%) were higher than that for governmental administration (53.2%) but lower than that for in the workplace (80.9%).

**Table 35 Javanese Language in Public Domains: Public Service Areas and Public Signage: Level of Support**

No	Questionnaire statement	Yes	No
2	Should Javanese be used in formal communications in public service areas?	62.6%	36.6%
3	Should Javanese be used for public signage?	67.6%	32.1%

Among those who gave the support (see Table 36), the reasons were evenly distributed among all choices (“To improve the prestige of the Javanese language”, “To enhance the relevance of the Javanese language to daily activities”, “To

encourage the use of the Javanese language in other environments (e.g., family and neighbourhood)”, and “To facilitate those Javanese people who could not use Indonesian well”.

**Table 36 Javanese Language in Public Service Areas and Public Signage: Reasons for ‘Yes’**

2.1	3.1	Questionnaire number	2.1	3.1
		<b>Reasons for ‘Yes’: JL in public service areas and public signage</b>		
a.	a.	To improve the prestige of the Javanese language	30.7%	32.4%
b.	b.	To enhance the relevance of the Javanese language to daily activities	47.1%	44.3%
NA	c.	To encourage the use of the Javanese language in other environments (e.g., family and neighbourhood)	NA	48.5%
c.	d.	To facilitate those Javanese people who could not use Indonesian well	46.3%	41.6%

Note: NA: Not asked

**Table 37 Javanese Language in Public Service Areas and Public Signage: Reasons for ‘No’**

2.2	3.2	Questionnaire number	2.2	3.2
		<b>Reasons for ‘No’: JL in public service areas and public signage</b>		
a.	a.	There is already the Indonesian language for formal communications in the workplace	30.5%	18.6%
b.	b.	To accommodate the non-Javanese	9.7%	17.2%
NA	c.	To avoid perception of Javanese exclusivism	NA	8.0%
c.	d.	All citizens, including Javanese, should master Indonesian, the national language	19.4%	15.8%

Among those who gave the support (see Table 36), the reasons were evenly distributed among all choices (“To improve the prestige of the Javanese language”, “To enhance the relevance of the Javanese language to daily activities”, “To encourage the use of the Javanese language in other environments (e.g., family and neighbourhood)”, and “To facilitate those Javanese people who could not use Indonesian well”).

From the open responses, the two reasons that most frequently appeared were for signage, i.e., ‘to conserve the Javanese language and culture’ (20 out of 47) and ‘to introduce the Javanese language to other people’ (10 out of 47).

On the other hand, amongst those who were against the idea mostly (30.5%) were against the Javanese language in public service areas and the reason was that “There

is already the Indonesian language for formal communication'. From the open responses, one reason frequently appeared, i.e., 'to accommodate non-Javanese' (10 out of 15).

#### 4.2.3. Javanese Language in science and technology and Javanese Language reserve areas

While these two domains are different from each other, they are discussed together to serve as an example that status planning has far reaching consequences and encompasses diverse areas.

**Table 38 Javanese Language in Science and Technology and Reserve Areas: Level of Support**

No	Questionnaire statement	Yes	No
4	Should Javanese be developed so that it can more adequately express science and technology?	73.1%	26.6%
5	In order to conserve the Javanese language, is it necessary to reserve special geographic areas for the Javanese language?	74.2%	24.9%

**Table 39 Javanese Language in Science and Technology and Reserve Area: Reasons for 'Yes'**

		Questionnaire number	4.1	5.1
4.1		<b>Reasons for 'Yes': JL in science and technology</b>		
a.		To expand the body of the Javanese language (vocabulary and structure) so that it could be used for discussing any topic	66.8%	NA
b.		To enhance its relevance to modern life	57.9%	NA
c.		To enhance the prestige of the Javanese language	27.7 %	NA
		<b>5.1 Reasons for 'Yes': Need for reserve area</b>		
	a.	To create an environment for the better development of the Javanese language	NA	70.1%
	b.	To provide greater prestige to the Javanese language	NA	36.8%
	c.	To enhance the relevance of the Javanese language to daily activities	NA	50.4%

Note: Not asked

Support for the Javanese language in both domains was strong (73.1% for the Javanese language in science and technology and 74.2% for Javanese language for reserve areas) and the percentages were higher than those for the Javanese language in the three domains of government activities, public service areas, and public signage, although still lower than that for the Javanese language in the workplace.

Concerning Javanese in science and technology, the more frequent reasons for those who supported it included the need “To expand the body of the Javanese language (vocabulary and structure) so that it could be used for discussing any topic” and “To enhance its relevance to modern life”. Meanwhile, concerning a reserve area for the Javanese language, the more frequent reasons for those who supported it were “To create an environment for the better development of the Javanese language” and “To enhance the relevance of the Javanese language to daily activities”.

From the open responses, the two most frequently cited reasons were ‘to conserve the Javanese language and culture’ (13 out of 34 for Javanese language in science and technology and 10 out of 22 for reserve area) and ‘to match the Javanese language to progress in science and technology’ (6 out of 22). These reasons were important as they run counter to ‘folklorisation’, in which a language is excluded from important domains in people’s life, which Fishman (1991) points out as one significant factor for the demise of a heritage language.

**Table 40 Javanese Language in Science and Technology and the Need for Reserve Area: Reasons for ‘No’**

		<b>Questionnaire number</b>	<b>4.2</b>	<b>5.2</b>
<b>4.2</b>		<b>Reasons for ‘No’: JL in science and technology</b>		
a.		There is already the Indonesian language to express science and technology	23.0%	NA
b.		It may be too expensive to develop Javanese to express science and technology	6.9%	NA
c.		It is enough for Javanese to be used in limited areas, e.g., literature	12.7%	NA
	<b>5.2</b>	<b>Reasons for ‘No’: Need for reserve area</b>		
	a.	There are other ways to conserve the Javanese language, e.g., through custom rituals, Javanese gatherings, etc.	NA	23.8%
	b.	To accommodate the non-Javanese	NA	11.9%
	c.	It will be too difficult to implement	NA	8.6%

Note: NA: Not asked

On the other hand, the more frequent reasons offered by those who were against the use of the Javanese language in these domains included ‘the existence of the Indonesian language’, in the case of science and technology, and ‘the existence of other ways to conserve the Javanese language’, in the case of reserve area. There was only one occasional answer from the open responses, i.e., that ‘It is unnecessary’ (3 out of 8) for the Javanese language in science and technology.

#### 4.2.4. Javanese Language in private domains

The respondents had mixed views, with support amounting to 54.0% for family language, and 54.3% for neighbourhood language.

**Table 41 Javanese Language in Family and Neighbourhood: Level of Support**

	Questionnaire item	Yes	No
6	Should the use of the Javanese language in the family be regulated?	54.0 %	46.0 %
7	Should the use of the Javanese language among community members in the neighbourhood (RT, or <i>Rukun Tetangga</i> ) be regulated?	54.3 %	45.7 %

**Table 42 Javanese Language in the Family and Neighbourhood: Reasons for ‘Yes’**

	Questionnaire number	6.1	7.1
<b>6.1.</b>	<b>Reasons for ‘Yes’: JL in family</b>		
a.	To maintain the continuity of the Javanese language between generations	48.2%	NA
b.	To provide an environment for the children to begin to learn the Javanese language	47.1%	NA
c.	To cultivate respect for Javanese among younger generation	43.5%	NA
<b>7.1</b>	<b>Reasons for ‘Yes’: JL in neighbourhood</b>		
a.	To maintain the Javanese language community	NA	44.6%
b.	To provide a wider environment for children to learn the Javanese language	NA	49.6%
c.	To provide an environment for the non-Javanese to learn the Javanese language	NA	37.1%

Note: NA: Not asked

The reasons of those who supported Javanese language in these domains were evenly distributed in three areas. In family language, the reasons were “To maintain the continuity of the Javanese language between generations”, “To provide the environment for the children to begin to learn the Javanese language”, and “To cultivate respect for Javanese among younger generation”. As for regulation in the neighbourhood language, the reasons consisted of “To maintain the Javanese language community”, “To provide a wider environment for children to learn the Javanese language”, and “To provide an environment for the non-Javanese to learn the Javanese language”.

From the open responses, a frequent reason for regulation in the family was ‘to conserve the Javanese language and culture’ (10 out of 22) and another reason was ‘to cultivate morality, ethics, manners and respect’ (6 out of 22). As for the Javanese language in the neighbourhood, the reason was ‘to conserve the Javanese language and culture’ (5 out of 22).

Among those who did not support the regulation of the Javanese language, in the case of family language, two reasons were more prevalent, i.e., “The use of language in the family should be left to the family and thus does not need regulation” and “The learning of the Javanese language could be done outside the family (e.g., in school)”. In the case of neighbourhood language, one prevalent reason was that “The choice of language in the neighbourhood should be left to community members and thus does not need a regulation”.

**Table 43 Javanese Language in the Family and Neighbourhood: Reasons for ‘No’**

		<b>Questionnaire number</b>	<b>6.2</b>	<b>7.2</b>
<b>6.2</b>		<b>Reasons for ‘No’: JL in family</b>		
a.		The use of language in the family should be left to the family and thus does not need regulation	43.2%	NA
b.		There is no need to continue using the Javanese language in the family if the family do not want to	2.5%	NA
c.		The learning of the Javanese language could be done outside the family (e.g., in school)	29.1%	NA
	<b>7.2</b>	<b>Reasons for ‘No’: JL in neighbourhood</b>		
	a.	There is no need to maintain the Javanese language community if community members do not want to	NA	6.4%
	b.	The choice of language in the neighbourhood should be left to community members and thus does not need a regulation	NA	42.1%
	c.	To accommodate the non-Javanese	NA	20.2%

From the open responses, the most common reason was that ‘It is unnecessary’ (8 out of 19 for the Javanese language in the family and 10 out of 11 for the Javanese language in the neighbourhood).

#### **4.2.5. Javanese Language as a subject**

There was very strong support, as revealed by a very high percentage (96.4%), for the Javanese language instruction as a separate/ independent subject. There was also

very strong support (from 80.4% to 93.7%) for its instruction from kindergarten to senior high school and mixed views on its instruction at the tertiary level).

**Table 44 Javanese Language as a Subject: Level of Support**

No	Questionnaire statement	Independent	Embedded
8	Which option would you choose for teaching Javanese at school? (as an independent subject <i>against</i> embedded in another subject)	96.4%	3.0%

Amongst those who supported the Javanese language instruction as an independent subject, the reasons were equally prevalent in three areas, i.e., ‘the utilisation of regional autonomy to introduce the Javanese language as a subject’, ‘more effective instruction’, and ‘greater motivation for students’. From the open responses, two reasons most frequently appeared; i.e., ‘to introduce/develop the Javanese language’ (9 out of 40) and ‘to conserve the Javanese language and culture’ (8 out of 40).

**Table 45 Javanese Language as an Independent Subject: Support for Instruction**

8.3	Level	% of T
1	Kindergarten	81.7%
2	Primary, grade 1-2	90.9%
3	Primary, grade 3-6	93.6%
4	Junior secondary	91.4%
5	Senior secondary	88.9%
6	Tertiary	50.7%

**Table 46 Javanese Language as Independent (Separate) Subject: Reasons**

8.1`	Questionnaire number	8.1
	<b>Reasons for JL as independent subject</b>	
a.	A regional autonomy could empower an autonomous region to introduce Javanese as a subject in schools	82.5%
b.	It gives Javanese an independent subject, equal to other subjects, and thus more effective to teach	86.4%
c.	To give greater motivation for students in learning Javanese	75.3%

The support for the establishment of the Javanese language as an independent subject was further shown by the following respondents’ additional notes:

*Bahasa Jawa mohon tetap dilestarikan, diajarkan di sekolah dari TK s/d Perguruan Tinggi.*

[Javanese needs to be conserved, taught as a subject in school from kindergarten to university].

*... sebaiknya pelajaran Bahasa Jawa juga harus dimasukkan ke dalam mata pelajaran utama dan intensitas pertemuan ... ditambah. Mengingat saat ini ... baru 2 jam pelajaran dalam seminggu.*

[... the Javanese language ought to be inserted to the core subjects and the intensity of meeting ... be added. In view that at present ... it constitutes only 2 hours per week]. [Note: 1 contact session = 45 minutes]

**Table 47 Javanese Language as Embedded Subject: Reasons**

8.2	Questionnaire number	8.2
	<b>Reasons for JL as an embedded subject</b>	
a.	If the authority decides to do so, teachers have no choice but to adhere to it	1.1%
b.	It could be used as a kind of immersion program in Javanese	2.8%
c.	Teachers could learn to integrate content with language	1.9%

**Table 48 Javanese Language as an Embedded Subject: Support for Instruction**

8.4	Level	%
1	Kindergarten	2.8%
2	Primary, Grade 1-2	2.8%
3	Primary, Grade 3-6	2.5%
4	Junior secondary	2.8%
5	Senior secondary	2.5%
6	Tertiary	0.8%

On the other hand, among those who preferred the Javanese language instruction as an embedded subject, no reason was more frequent than others in the multiple choice or open options. In addition, the support they offered for the Javanese language introduction at various educational levels was very low.

#### **4.2.6. Javanese Language as the medium of instruction and in the mass media**

Support was strong for the Javanese language as the language of instruction (70.9%) and fairly strong for the use of the Javanese language use in mass media (59.8%).

The reasons given by those who supported the use of the Javanese language as the medium of instruction were evenly distributed between two areas; namely, “To create an environment so that students could use the Javanese language more

frequently” and “To improve students' motivation for mastering the Javanese language” (both over 60%), but was about half these “To enhance the prestige of the language to the students” (33.8%) (see Table 50).

**Table 49 Javanese Language as the Medium of Instruction and in Mass Media: Level of Support**

No	Questionnaire statement	Yes	No
9	Should Javanese be used as the language of instruction?	70.9%	28.5%
10	Should Javanese be used in general mass media?	59.8%	39.3%

**Table 50 Javanese Language as the Medium of Instruction and in the Mass Media: Reasons for ‘Yes’**

		Questionnaire number	9.1	10.1
<b>9.1</b>		<b>Reasons for ‘Yes’: JL as the medium of instruction</b>		
	a.	To create an environment so that students could use the Javanese language more frequently	60.7%	NA
	b.	To improve students' motivation for mastering the Javanese language	64.5%	NA
	c.	To enhance the prestige of the language to the students	33.8%	NA
	<b>10.1</b>	<b>Reasons for ‘Yes’: JL in mass media</b>		
	a.	To create an environment in which community members could use the Javanese language more frequently	NA	52.6%
	b.	To improve the relevancy of the Javanese language to daily activities	NA	46.3%
	c.	To enhance the prestige of the language to community members	NA	29.1%

Note: NA: Not asked

As for the reasons for the use of the Javanese language in mass media, the reasons were also reasonably evenly distributed in two areas, namely, “To create an environment in which community members could use the Javanese language more frequently” and “To improve the relevancy of the Javanese language to daily activities”, but there is also a lesser support (“To enhance the prestige of the language to community members”).

From the open responses, for the Javanese language as the medium of instruction, the most frequent reason (22 out of 52) was ‘to facilitate learning for students’, while another (10 out of 52) was ‘to introduce/develop the Javanese language (among students)’. For the use of the Javanese language in general mass media, one

rather frequent reason (12 out of 52) was ‘to introduce the Javanese language and Javanese culture to the general public’.

The need for the Javanese language as the medium of instruction was further revealed by the following comments:

*... bahasa pengantar di TK SD ... terlalu banyak dengan Bahasa Indonesia ... Berakibat (bahasa Jawa) tidak populer & tidak banyak digunakan oleh anak didik setingkat SMA.*

[... the medium of instruction in kindergarten (and) elementary level ... too much in the Indonesian language ... Resulting in (the Javanese language) becoming unpopular and not much used by the students at the senior secondary level].

*Bahasa Jawa mulai luntur dan tergantikan bahasa Indonesia. Maka perlu penggiatan penggunaan bahasa Jawa dalam pembelajaran anak melalui peraturan pemerintah daerah.*

[The Javanese language is fading and is being replaced by the Indonesian language. Therefore, there is need for the intensifying of the use of the Javanese language in school instruction through the regional government regulations].

**Table 51 Javanese Language as the Medium of Instruction and in Mass Media: Reasons for ‘No’**

		<b>Questionnaire number</b>	<b>9.2</b>	<b>10.2</b>
<b>9.2</b>		<b>Reasons for ‘No’: JL as the medium of instruction</b>		
a.		There is already the Indonesian language for the language of instruction	21.6%	NA
b.		It would be too expensive to implement	1.4%	NA
c.		It would make it more difficult for non-Javanese students to understand a course that uses Javanese as the medium of instruction	23.5%	NA
	<b>10.2</b>	<b>Reasons for ‘No’: JL in mass media</b>		
	a.	There is already the Indonesian language for the language of general mass media	NA	34.3%
	b.	It may be too expensive for the mass media providers (producers/publishers)	NA	5.5%
	c.	It may not generate sufficient audience	NA	13.9%

Note: NA: Not asked

Conversely, among those who were opposed to the Javanese language as the medium of instruction (see the following table), two reasons were more prevalent, namely, “There is already the Indonesian language” and “It would make it more difficult for non-Javanese students to understand a course”. On the mass media, the most prevalent reason was that “There is already the Indonesian language”. From the open responses, the reasons against the use of the Javanese language as the medium of instruction were negligible. However, for the Javanese language in general mass media, one frequent reason (10 out of 20) was ‘to accommodate those who are non-Javanese’.

#### 4.2.7. Language academy for Javanese Language

The language academy constitutes a borderline case between status planning and corpus planning. While its task consists of developing a language, a corpus planning category, its establishment requires statutory regulation and this requires status planning. This item recorded very strong support, as revealed by a very high percentage (97.5%), which might be because the teachers require support in their task of teaching the Javanese language.

**Table 52 Language Academy for Javanese Language: Level of Support**

No	Questionnaire statement	Yes	No
11	Is it necessary to establish a Javanese language academy (a collection of experts and scholars in Javanese) for guiding the development and use of the Javanese language?	97.5%	2.2%

**Table 53 Language Academy for Javanese Language: Reasons for ‘Yes’**

	Questionnaire number	11.1
	<b>Reasons for ‘Yes’</b>	
a.	To provide an institution that could guide the development and use of the Javanese language	93.4%
b.	To enhance the prestige of the Javanese language	54.8%
c.	The experts and scholars are in a better position to conserve the Javanese language	83.9%

The reasons given those who supported a language academy were equally prevalent in two areas (see Table 53), namely, “To provide an institution that could guide the development and use of the Javanese language”, and “The experts and scholars are in better position to conserve the Javanese language”. These reasons were very

strong, as revealed by very high percentages (93.1 % and 81.6%). Two reasons frequently appeared in the open responses, namely, ‘to conserve/preserve the Javanese language and culture’ (11 out of 29), and ‘as a reference to help interested people’ (8 out of 29).

**Table 54 A Language Academy for Javanese Language: Reasons for ‘No’**

	Questionnaire number	11.2
	Reasons for ‘No’	%
a.	The development and use of the Javanese language should be left to the users, not to experts and scholars	1.9%
b.	There is no need to artificially enhance the prestige of the Javanese language through the academy	0.0%
c.	The conservation of a the Javanese language should be left to the community members, not experts and scholars	1.4%

By contrast, the number of those who did not support a language academy and the reasons they offered were negligible. In the open responses, there were no reasons provided.

#### 4.2.8. Orthography for the Javanese Language

There were three options for orthography: Latin only, *Carakan* (traditional) only, and both (an example of *Carakan* is provided in Appendix 18). In all environments, there was very little support for traditional orthography only. In three environments (workplace, regional government, and neighbourhood) the preference was first for Latin and second for both. In two environments (mass media and family) the preference was balanced between Latin and traditional.

**Table 55 Orthography for Javanese Language: Preference**

12	What type of orthography should be used in the following environments?			
		Latin	<i>Carakan</i> (Traditional)	Both
	Workplace	63.2%	1.4%	30.7%
	Regional govt.	62.6%	1.4%	30.5%
	Education	6.1%	1.7%	83.9%
	Mass Media	47.1%	1.4%	45.7%
	Neighbourhood	60.4%	2.5%	32.1%
	Family	45.7%	1.9%	46.5%

However, in education, the preference was very strong for both (83.9%). The teachers were very realistic in their views. They seemed to be aware of the difficulty of traditional orthography and, thus, most want Latin or both for most domains.

The fact that they very strongly wanted both for education revealed that the introduction of traditional orthography was mostly for cultural preservation. This notion was reinforced by the following respondent's additional comment:

*Carakan lebih cocok untuk kajian keilmuan (penelitian naskah kuno dll.)  
Untuk komunikasi sudah tidak cocok.*

[Traditional orthography is more suited for scientific studies (studying of old manuscripts, etc.). For communication it is not suitable any more].

#### 4.2.9. Retention of the Javanese Language speech levels

The Javanese language is distinguished by its elaborate speech levels (at present simplified to four basic levels: *krama alus* (high and refined), *krama* (high), *ngoko alus* (low and refined), and *ngoko* (low)). The retention of the speech levels recorded very strong support, with the highest percentage (98.3%) among all items in the questionnaire.

**Table 56 Retention of Speech Level for Javanese Language: Level of Support**

No	Questionnaire statement	Yes (Retain)	No (Abandon)
13	Should the language levels be retained?	98.3%	1.1%

**Table 57 Retention of Speech Levels for the Javanese Language: Reasons**

	Questionnaire number	13.1
	<b>Reasons for 'Yes'</b>	
a.	It is a special feature of the Javanese language	82.8%
b.	It helps to instil a sense of respect among people of different standings (e.g., parent and child)	93.9%
c.	It helps to maintain Javanese cultural identity	81.4%

There was very strong support for the three reasons, namely, "It is a special feature of the Javanese language", "It helps to instil a sense of respect among people of different standings (e.g., parent and child)," and "It helps to maintain Javanese cultural identity". From the open responses, a frequent reason (13 out of 25) given for this was 'to cultivate morality, ethics, manners and respect'. This is a

characteristic of the Javanese language and its speakers, in that the speech levels are required to cultivate a refined character; in fact this feature makes Javanese unique among other large languages in the world (Quinn, 2011).

**Table 58 Retention of Speech Levels for the Javanese Language: Choice of Level for Various Communication Types**

		<i>Krama alus</i> (High & Refined )	<i>Krama</i> (High)	<i>Ngoko alus</i> (Low & Refined)	<i>Ngoko</i> (Low)
	Choice of speech levels	%	%	%	%
a	Superior to subordinate	13.2%	11.0%	68.0%	2.5%
b	Subordinate to superior	91.9%	2.2%	2.5%	0.0%
c	Between equals	26.1%	13.5%	51.0%	1.1%

As for the choice of level among various constellations, *ngoko alus* was preferred in communication between superiors and subordinates and between equals, while *krama alus* was preferred between subordinates and superiors.

**Table 59 Abandonment of Speech Levels for the Javanese Language: Reasons**

	Questionnaire number	13.2
	Reasons for 'No'	%
a.	It is less than democratic	0.8%
b.	It becomes too complicated for the younger generation to learn Javanese	1.1%
c.	It would privilege one cultural identity over others	0.0%

**Table 60 Abandonment of Speech Level for Javanese Language: Choice of Level for Various Communication Types**

		<i>Krama alus</i> (High & Refined)	<i>Krama</i> (High)	<i>Ngoko alus</i> (Low & Refined)	<i>Ngoko</i> (Low)
		%	%	%	%
	Choice of speech levels for all	0.3%	0.3%	0.3%	0.0%

On the other hand, those who did not support retention of speech levels were negligible in number and reasons (see the following table). They did not offer any reason in the open responses.

This was an area in which the respondents were virtually unanimous in their view (to retain speech levels). This could be regarded as positive, from the point of view of maintaining a prominent Javanese language feature. On the other hand, this might

have a rather adverse effect on its conservation. Subroto, Dwiraharjo, Maryono, and Setiawan (1997) reveal that the younger generation in the Surakarta area, another heartland of the Javanese language and culture, find it increasingly difficult to master all the levels, especially the *krama inggil* (*krama alus*) variety. In fact, the writers describe the *krama inggil* variety as already in the endangered stage. However, the respondents to this questionnaire were different to the rest of the population in one main respect; namely, that they were teachers of Javanese – and therefore more likely to support the retention of these levels.

However, the previous tables show an interesting development. Among the four language levels, only two levels got strong support, namely, *krama alus*, for communication between subordinate and superior, and *ngoko alus*, for communication between superior to subordinate and between equals. The other levels (*krama* and *ngoko*) got very weak support. This fact opens up a possibility for simplifying the Javanese language to just two levels (*krama alus* and *ngoko alus*). Because there is some overlap between *krama alus* and *ngoko alus*, such a simplification may facilitate easier mastery of the Javanese language.

#### 4.2.10. Language manuals for the Javanese Language

There were three areas being explored here: awareness of the Javanese language manuals that were published or approved by the Yogyakarta Language Institute - *Balai Bahasa Yogyakarta (BBY)*, use of other language manuals, and preferred language for language manuals.

**Table 61 Awareness of the Javanese Language Manuals Published or Approved by *Balai Bahasa Yogyakarta* (Yogyakarta Language Institute)**

14	Awareness of the Javanese Manuals published or approved by <i>Balai Bahasa Yogyakarta</i>	Yes	No
a.	Orthography manual, Latin	40.2%	45.7%
b.	Orthography manual, <i>Carakan</i> (traditional)	30.2%	48.5%
c.	Grammar manual	17.2%	57.6%
d.	Dictionary	31.3%	47.6%
e.	Style manual	16.9%	55.7%

This was the only item in which the percentages of ‘Yes’ (those who were aware of the manuals) were consistently lower than ‘No’ (those who were not aware of them).

On two manuals (grammar and style) the former comprised less than one third of the latter.

**Table 62 Awareness of Other Javanese Manuals**

<b>15</b>	<b>Awareness of other Javanese manuals</b>
	Mostly teaching manuals, school textbooks, manuals that are published by other publisher (not related to the BBY) and some that were published in the Netherland Indie era

In Appendix 12, those who did not give an answer are also shown. The blank answers could be interpreted as the respondents not being familiar with the manuals. If the percentages of ‘No’ and blank answers were combined, it seems that the majority of the respondents were not familiar with the manuals. The relative unfamiliarity with the manuals among the respondents was also revealed by the following respondent’s comment:

*Kados pundi caranipun pados kamus-kamus ingkang kaserat wonten koco 12?*

[How could I find the dictionaries as mentioned in page 12 (of the questionnaire)?].

As for the inquiry regarding other Javanese manuals (survey item 15), the books that the teachers mentioned turned out mostly to be school textbooks. A few referred to manuals that were published by private publishers but not under the auspices of BBY, while some referred to manuals that were published from the Netherlands Indie era. (Examples are provided in Appendix 14).

**Table 63 Language for Javanese Language Manuals: Level of Support**

No	Questionnaire statement	Javanese (JL)	Indonesian (IL)
16	In what language should such the Javanese language manuals be written? (JL against IL)	76.2%	23.0%

The last question concerned the language for Javanese manuals. The majority (72.6%) preferred the Javanese language instead of the Indonesian language. As for the reasons cited by those who prefer the Javanese language, two were most prevalent; namely, “The manuals themselves should describe good Javanese”, and

“A translation in Indonesian version could be published for use by non-Javanese”. From the open responses, the reasons were negligible.

**Table 64 Language for Javanese Language Manuals: Reasons for Selecting Javanese Language**

	<b>Questionnaire number</b>	<b>16.1</b>
	<b>Reasons for selecting JL</b>	<b>%</b>
a.	The manuals themselves should describe good Javanese	72.6%
b.	The manuals could only describe the Javanese language in its totality if they are written in Javanese	37.1%
c.	A translation in the Indonesian version could be published for non-Javanese	53.5%

**Table 65 Language for Javanese Language Manuals: Reasons for Selecting the Indonesian Language**

	<b>Questionnaire number</b>	<b>16.2</b>
	<b>Reasons for selecting IL</b>	<b>%</b>
a.	To facilitate non-Javanese to read them	21.9%
b.	A good manual could be written in any language, including Indonesian	17.2%
c.	A translation in the Javanese version could be published for Javanese	16.9%

On the other hand, for those who preferred IL, the most prevalent reason was “To facilitate non-Javanese to read them”. From the open responses, the reasons were negligible.

#### **4.2.11. Summary of survey findings**

From the preceding analysis, it is now possible to address RQ2. The Sleman teachers’ preferences on the distribution of domains for heritage language-in this case the Javanese language, are revealed in the following tables.

##### **1. Status planning: Use of the Javanese language in public and private domains**

The respondents gave strong support for the introduction of the Javanese. The majority of respondents supported the introduction of the Javanese language in the public domains, with the support in most cases ranging from strong to very strong (from 62.6% to 80.9%). However, although the support was generally strong, it was not universal. In fact, in one public domain; i.e., the Javanese language in regional government activities, there was a mixed response (support

was only 53.2%). On the other hand, the respondents were in mix in their responses for regulation in the private domains.

**Table 66 Summary of Support in Status Planning for the Javanese Language: Public Domains**

No	Questionnaire item	Yes	No
1.a	Should Javanese be used in formal communications in the workplace?	80.9%	17.2%
1.b.	Should Javanese be used in formal communications in regional government's activities?	53.2%	45.2%
2	Should Javanese be used in formal communications in public service areas?	62.6%	36.6%
3	Should Javanese be used for public signage?	67.6%	32.1%
4	Should Javanese be developed so that it can more adequately express science and technology?	73.1%	26.6%
5	In order to conserve the Javanese language, is it necessary to reserve special geographic areas for the Javanese language?	74.2%	24.9%

**Table 67 Summary of Support in Status Planning for the Javanese Language: Private Domains**

No	Questionnaire item	Yes	No
6	Should the use of the Javanese language in the family be regulated?	54.0%	46.0%
7	Should the use of the Javanese language among community members in the neighbourhood (RT, or <i>Rukun Tetangga</i> ) be regulated?	54.3%	45.7%

2. Acquisition planning: Use of the Javanese language in public domains

**Table 68 Summary of Support in Acquisition Planning for the Javanese Language**

No	Questionnaire item	Independent subject	Embedded subject
8	Which option would you choose for teaching Javanese at school?	96.4%	3.0%
		<b>Yes</b>	<b>No</b>
9	Should Javanese be used as the language of instruction?	70.9%	28.5%
10	Should Javanese be used in general mass media?	59.8%	39.3%

The respondents gave strong support for the introduction of the Javanese language in schools and mass media. However, this response was not even. Only the establishment of the Javanese language as an independent subject recorded a very high percentage (97.5%).

The introduction of a heritage language as a subject is a minimum requirement in various parts of the world. For example, in certain countries in Europe, even immigrants are offered heritage language instruction. Therefore, considering the fact that the Javanese language speakers are indigenous in the area, this support is significant.

### 3. Corpus planning

**Table 69 Summary for Support in Corpus Planning for the Javanese Language**

No	Questionnaire item	Yes	No
11	Is it necessary to establish a Javanese language academy (a collection of experts and scholars in Javanese) for guiding the development and use on the Javanese language?	97.5%	2.2%
12	What type of orthography should be used in the following environments (workplace, government administration, education, mass media, family, and neighbourhood)?	Mostly Latin; Latin and traditional in school	
13	Should the language levels be retained?	98.3%	1.1%
14	Are you aware of the following Javanese manuals (which are published or approved by BBY)?	Mostly not aware	
15	Are you aware of other Javanese manuals?	Mostly not aware	
16	In what language should such the Javanese language manuals be written?	76.2% (for JL)	23.0% (for IL)

The respondents showed very strong support for the establishment of a language institute (97.5%) and near unanimous support for the retention of speech levels (98.3%). There was a definite need for the Javanese language manuals.

On the other hand, they revealed that they were not very familiar with the language manuals that BBY publish or approve and they used very few language manuals from other sources. (Note: Informal information from an official in BBY revealed that there was no budget to freely distribute the manuals to the teachers and this may be the reason for the unfamiliarity with them).

To conclude the chapter, the Javanese language teachers' preference in status and acquisition planning can now be summarised. This summary suggests a model for an alternative LPP. It is referred to as the Micro-perspective-based model and is depicted in the following table.

**Table 70 A Micro-perspective-based Model for an Alternative LPP**

	Domains	Preference for allocation of domains for JL
1	National official language	(Not explored)
2	Regional official language	Mixed
3	Language reserve area	Preferred
4	Language for workplace	Preferred
5	Language for public service areas	Preferred
6	Language for signage	Preferred
7	Language for wider communication	(Not explored)
8	International language	(Not explored)
9	Language for literary & scholarly works (including science and technology)	Preferred
10	Group & community language	Mixed
11	Family language	Mixed
12	Capital language	(Not explored)
13	Religion language	(Not explored)
14	Language as subject	Preferred
15	Language as the medium of instruction	Preferred
16	Language for mass media (print and electronic)	Preferred

Note: LPP: Language policy and planning JL: The Javanese language

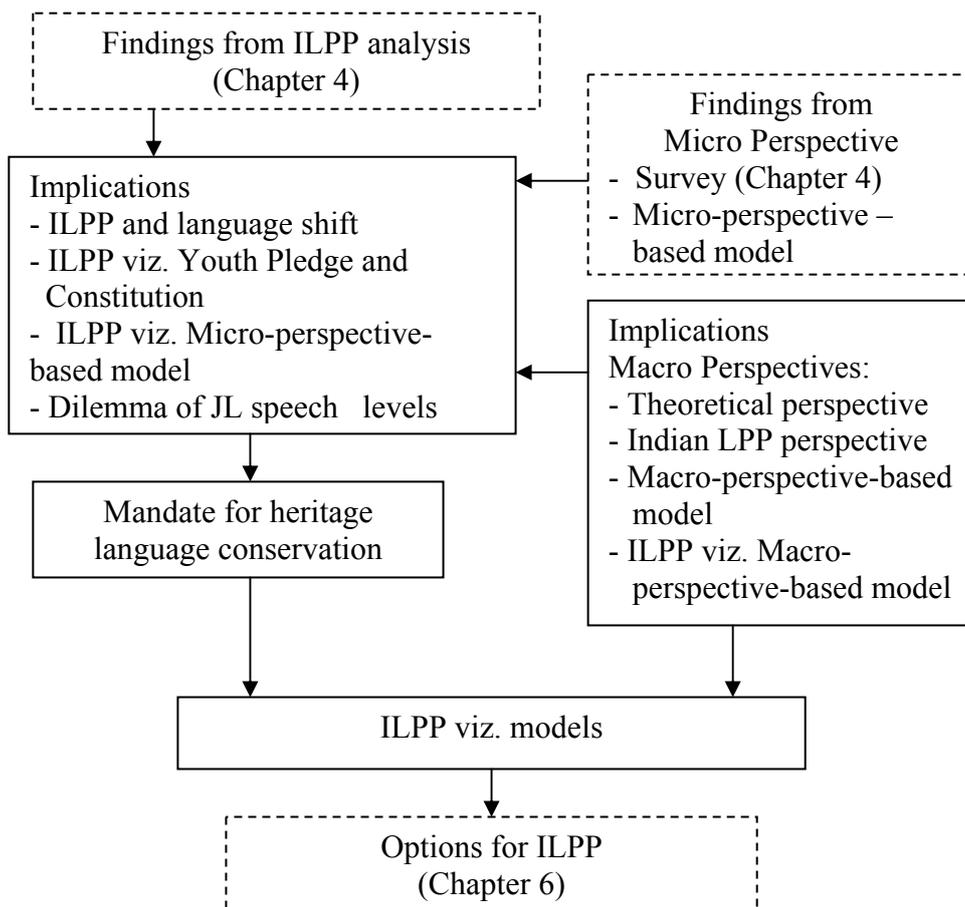
The model represents a modest Type-3 LPP, one that gives some allowances for the use of the Javanese language in public domains, in both status planning and acquisition planning. By contrast, the ILPP analysis, in the previous section, shows that it is currently of Type-2 LPP which, although it does not interfere with the private domains, provides very little or no allocation for the public domains. There seems to be a mismatch between the two, and this will be discussed in the next chapter.

## CHAPTER FIVE IMPLICATIONS

This chapter discusses some implications of the Indonesian Language Policy and Planning (ILPP) and addresses Research Question 3 (RQ3),

What are the implications of the Indonesian language policy and planning and the teachers' views, with respect to the future of heritage languages in Indonesia?

In addressing this research question, the procedure undertaken is outlined in following diagram.



**Figure 9 Outline of Chapter 5**

The discussion in this chapter consists of two major parts. The first part has an internal focus and starts with a discussion of the possible consequence of the ILPP with respect to language shift. This is followed by an assessment of its congruence with the constitutional mandate and the spirit of the Youth Pledge. A comparison is then made between the policy and a model based on the Micro Perspectives (the preferences of the Javanese language teachers in Sleman), concerning the allocation of domains for the Javanese language. Finally, the dilemma concerning the retention of Javanese speech levels is discussed.

The second part has an external focus. While the Constitution stipulates heritage language conservation, it does not provide guidelines on how to adequately achieve this goal. As a consequence, in order to provide suggestions as to how to address this, insights need to be drawn from a number of other perspectives. These perspectives comprise the theoretical perspective and the Indian LPP perspective, which constitutes a balanced model of LPP. These provide Macro Perspectives (wider, global or interregional perspectives). From the Macro Perspectives, a model is generated, one that could have applicability to the Indonesian context. Finally, a comparison is made between the ILPP and these models.

### **5.1. ILPP and Language Shift**

It has been noted that various researchers have found that the number of Indonesian heritage language speakers are declining and that language shift is taking place. What is happening in Indonesia might be described as transitional/replacive bilingualism (Fishman, 1967), in which heritage language speakers shift/switch to the Indonesian language (Gunarwan, 2006). Before independence, the heritage languages were dominant while the Indonesian language was subordinate. In the subsequent decades after independence, the heritage languages and the Indonesian language have been in a diglossic situation, in which the former served in the private domains while the latter served in the public domains. In recent years, heritage languages have been receding while the Indonesian language is becoming more dominant as it assumes all public functions and has also started to serve private functions.

Fasold, in Coulmas (2007), asserts that domain invasion must be viewed as the most obvious indication of language shift. Gunarwan (2006) refers to the situation as

diglossia leakage, in which the traditional domains that were previously served by the heritage languages have been progressively taken over by the dominant language (Indonesian), and he sees this as a significant cause for the demise of the heritage languages. This process has led Muhlhauser (1996) to predict that the Indonesian situation is heading to a monolingual environment in the 21<sup>st</sup> Century.

Analysis of the ILPP, in Section 4.1., revealed that it does not interfere in private domains. However, it generally does not open public domains to heritage languages, even to major ones. Based on the LPP typology described in Chapter Two, it belongs to Type-2 LPP. In nearly all domains, there is an obligation to use the Indonesian language while the use of heritage languages is limited in range and/or extent. Therefore, at the societal level, the ILPP sets up a monolingual situation. On the other hand, at the individual level, most heritage languages users are bilingual (Musgrave, 2010). As a result, there is a configuration of individual bilingualism without the benefit of societal multilingualism; this configuration is unstable (Fishman, 1967; Romaine, 1986). In this situation, while the ILPP tolerates some degree of multilingualism, it does not take any measures to counter forces outside language policy that encourage language shift and thus lead to the reduction of languages (Annamalai, 2003).

As such, the ILPP might not be effective in stemming heritage languages shift. The reason is that the closure to public domains devalues the subordinate languages politically and economically and their speakers view their languages as a natural liability (Annamalai, 2003). This usually leads to language shift unless the cultural value of the language is strong (Paulston, 1994). Even when shift does not occur, multilingualism will not be viable in the long term and its existence will be precarious (Annamalai, 2003). Language users may compare the utility of various languages; if the society favours a certain language for all functions, then the users might gradually select the chosen language and abandon the others (Coulmas, 2005).

Paulston (1994) asserts that the shift to the dominant language inevitably occurs if the dominant language provides heritage languages speakers with opportunities for mobility and economic advantage, especially for gaining employment. In Indonesia, this seems to be the case. Government affairs are performed in the Indonesian language. The language at the workplace is solely reserved for the Indonesian language. Written and oral communications are in the Indonesian language. Public

service and formal business transactions are conducted in the Indonesian language. The language prevails in printed and electronic mass media. The language is used as the medium of instruction and its mastery is examined at the primary, secondary, and tertiary levels. Therefore, in public settings, mastery of the Indonesian language is a necessity and thus it is not surprising that the Indonesian language has become very valuable for heritage language speakers. By contrast, no mastery of heritage languages is required in public settings. Heritage languages are only useful for communication in private settings and even here the Indonesian language can be used. Therefore, it is not surprising that many heritage language speakers choose to use the more efficient way of just cultivating the Indonesian language in their households.

This suggests that the present ILPP might not be able to stem language shift. A serious concern with the shift is the fact that Indonesian heritage languages are generally endemic. Paulston (1994) describes the seriousness of shift for endemic heritage languages:

... languages also spread for purposes of within-nation communication, and when they do so, not as an additional language, like English in Nigeria, but as a new mother tongue, then language spread becomes a case of language shift. *When such language shift takes place within groups who do not possess another territorial base, we have a case of language death* (pp. 9-10) (Italics added).

In the Indonesian context, if the Indonesian language has spread as an additional language, the result is bilingualism, in which the Indonesian speakers cultivate the Indonesian language in addition to their heritage languages. However, when the Indonesian language becomes a new mother tongue to previous heritage language speakers, the spread becomes a case of language shift. When such shift takes place within Indonesian heritage language speaker groups, which do not possess territorial bases outside Indonesia, there is a real possibility that the heritage languages may face language death.

There is a more serious consideration. Should the shift continue from heritage languages to the Indonesian language, due to the lack of an adequate policy, the ultimate outcome might be the extinction of the heritage languages altogether. This

outcome is similar to that of linguistic imperialism, which is usually attributed to the shift to English (Phillipson, 1992). While it is understood that there is no intention for creating language imperialism against heritage languages, if the eventual effect of the ILPP is similar to the one due to language imperialism, it would be difficult to deny that language imperialism against heritage languages has not taken place, albeit inadvertently. Should this happen, it would be difficult to say that the ILPP has fulfilled the mandate given by the Constitution and is in line with the spirit of the original Youth Pledge.

## **5.2. ILPP and the Youth Pledge**

The original Youth Pledge constituted a landmark in ILPP history, as it was the first time that the national official language was declared. In 1928, the Youth Congress adopted a decision, which later was referred to as ‘Soempah Pemoeda’ (the Youth Pledge), and whose original text ran as follows (MPR, 2012):

*Kami poetra dan poetri Indonesia, mengakoe berbangsa satoe, bangsa Indonesia.*

[We, the Indonesian youth, acknowledge one nation, the Indonesian nation].

*Kami poetra dan poetri Indonesia, mengakoe bertumpah darah satu, tanah air Indonesia.*

[We, the Indonesian youth, acknowledge one motherland, the Indonesian country].

*Kami poetra dan poetri Indonesia, mendjoendjoeng bahasa persatuan, bahasa Indonesia.*

[We, the Indonesian youth, uphold the unification language, the Indonesian language].

The landmark for the ILPP was the third line, which called for the uplifting of the Malay language into the unification language. Here, it is to be noted that it did not call for one language for the nation; instead, it presumably still allowed for the conservation and development of various Indonesian heritage languages.

However, beginning in the 1950s, during the reign of the first president, Ir. Soekarno, and continuing through that of the second president, General Soeharto,

the Youth Pledge underwent a revision (Foulcher, 2000) in which the lines ran as follows (MPR, 2012):

*Kami putra dan putri Indonesia mengaku bertanah air satu, tanah air Indonesia.*

[We, the Indonesian youth, acknowledge one country, the Indonesian country].

*Kami putra dan putri Indonesia mengaku berbangsa satu, bangsa Indonesia.*

[We, the Indonesian youth, acknowledge one nation, the Indonesian nation].

*Kami putra dan putri Indonesia mengaku berbahasa satu, bahasa Indonesia.*

[We, the Indonesian youth, acknowledge one language, the Indonesian language].

The new version is even popularised through an official anthem that is often sung at Indonesian flag ceremonies,

*Satu nusa, satu bangsa, satu bahasa kita*

*Tanah air pasti jaya untuk slama-lamanya ....*

[One country, one nation, one language

The motherland would be glorious forever ....]

It is evident that the revised Youth Pledge calls for the ideal of one nation-one country-one language and for the defence of this ideal. Foulcher (2000) notes that the revision seems to have been made to invoke the spirit of national development in which the Indonesian language serves as both the symbol and the vehicle for that development (Paauw, 2009).

What is significant to note is the difference of meaning between the original and revised version of the third line. In the revised version, there is no room for heritage languages. By contrast, in the original version, there is a place for heritage languages. Here, the Indonesian language could be thought of as a ‘leader’ for heritage languages in Indonesia. In a Malay proverb, a leader is one that is ‘didahulukan selangkah, ditinggikan seranting’ (put only in a slightly higher position or slightly more forward position). In this respect, the relationship between the Indonesian language and other heritage languages would be one of *primus inter*

*paris* (the primacy among equals) and not in dominant-subordinate constellation as seems to be the case in the present situation.

This ideal of one country, one nation, one language, is a relic of nineteenth century nationalism that originated in the eighteenth century in Europe (Hoffman, 1991). Smolicz (2002) states that this nation-state model has been justified by the identification of a distinct national group with a native tongue, in which the dominant group perceives the state as an extension of its own nation and thus imposes its own language on all others. He cautions that such a model, which leaves “a trail of subjugation and cultural destruction in its wake” (p. 73), need not be replicated in developing nations as it is degrading for human dignity and thus may lead to separatism. In this context, it is important to note that in Europe, where this ideal originated, the language policy has been modified to one of a multilingual policy, as evidenced by the European Charter for Regional and Minority languages (Grin, 2003). Therefore, it might be an irony if it were still cherished in Indonesia.

It is to be noted that what has happened in Indonesia is in fact an anomaly. In Europe in the past, the politically dominant group imposed its language over the rest. By contrast, in Indonesia, even the culturally dominant groups, like the Javanese, Sundanese, Madura, Bugis and Makassar, Minangkabau, and Balinese ethnic groups voluntarily relinquished possible claims as dominant languages. This was evident in the choice of Malay for the Indonesian language in the 1928 Youth Declaration and its endorsement in the Constitution on the 18<sup>th</sup> of August, 1945. Through their voluntary support, they have significantly contributed to Indonesian unification. Thus, questions might arise as to what has been done in return for this contribution. Although their speakers range from several millions to more than 80 million and some have had a literary tradition for several hundred years, these ethnic groups are not even assured the right of having their languages taught as a subject in schools, something that constitutes a minimum standard for language protection. If language protection is regarded as essential for smaller languages in Europe, like Welsh in the UK, Frisian in the Netherlands, and Romansh in Switzerland, by granting them regional official language status, there could be an equally compelling argument that such a standard should be applicable for the major heritage languages in Indonesia.

It is also to be noted that the founding fathers, who adopted the Youth Pledge and later nominated the Indonesian language as the state language in the Constitution,

were themselves multilingual. Most of them were fluent in their heritage languages, the Indonesian language, and some foreign languages. For example, Ir. Sukarno, the first Indonesian president, gave public speeches in the Indonesian language, the Javanese language, and English. H.A. Salim, another founding father, was fluent in seven languages, including Minangkabau (his heritage language), Indonesian, Arabic, and English. It is difficult to imagine that these founding fathers planned for a monolingual country.

The persistence of the revised Youth Pledge, with its monolingualistic creed, might be understandable in earlier periods, due to the need for Indonesian unification. However, now that the goal is more or less attained and the position of the Indonesian language is well established (Montolalu and Suryadinata, 2007), it is difficult to defend its continuation. Furthermore, since 1998, Indonesia has been undergoing 'reformation', in which diversity and regional autonomy are to be upheld. It is thus not surprising that questions have arisen as to whether the revised version needs to be maintained. For example, Wijaya, in Foulcher (2000), asked this question in his article, "Menggugat Dominasi Bahasa Indonesia" (Challenging the Domination of the Indonesian language) in the 'Bali Post', 15 October 1998:

Is it not time to protect the riches of regional traditions from absorption into the monotone uniformity of the 'one language community'? (p. 400).

In this context, Alisyahbana (2003) wondered whether perhaps it is not the time to focus attention on heritage languages:

... more sociolinguistic issues are still in need of attention including .... The need to find ways to support the diverse linguistic heritage found in Indonesia now that the future of *Bahasa Indonesia* is secure .... (p. 99).

### **5.3. The ILPP and the Constitution**

The ILPP needs to carry out the mandate of the Constitution. It is understood that in the general ILPP frame, there is no call for the obliteration of Indonesian heritage languages; in fact, it aims to conserve them, as evidenced by various references in the Constitution.

#### **1. Preamble**

In the last of its four paragraphs, the Preamble contains five tenets that together constitute *Pancasila* (The Five Principles), which serve as the ultimate foundation for the State of Indonesia.

Among others, these paragraphs contain the following phrases:

*... Negara Republik Indonesia ... berdasarkan kepada ... Persatuan Indonesia ....*

[The State of the Republic of Indonesia ... based on ... The Unification of Indonesia ....].

According to Asshiddiqie (2008), who once served as the Chair of the Indonesian Constitutional Court, these phrases mean that a sense of being Indonesian should not deny the existence of plurality; rather, that diversity should be respected and maintained.

## 2. Articles

The Constitution acknowledges that the Indonesian language has a special function.

Article 36

*Bahasa Negara ialah Bahasa Indonesia.*

[The state language is the Indonesian language].

However, the Constitution also declares respect for heritage culture and language, in the following articles:

### a. Article 28,

Verse 3

*Identitas budaya dan hak masyarakat tradisional dihormati selaras dengan perkembangan zaman dan peradaban.*

[The cultural identity and rights of traditional communities are respected in accord with the progress of the age and civilisation].

### b. Article 32

Verse 1

*Negara memajukan kebudayaan nasional ... dengan menjamin kebebasan masyarakat dalam memelihara dan mengembangkan nilai-nilai budayanya.*

[The state advances the national culture ... through guaranteeing the freedom of the communities in conserving and developing their cultural values].

Verse 2

*Negara menghormati dan memelihara bahasa daerah sebagai kekayaan budaya nasional.*

[The state respects and conserves heritage languages as a national cultural heritage].

Again, according to Asshiddiqie (2008), referring to Article 28, heritage languages provide cultural identity for the traditional communities and, as such, they have to be respected by all national components. Meanwhile, he suggests that Article 32, Verse 2, contains two significant meanings. The first involves a re-affirmation that heritage languages constitute a national cultural heritage. The second refers to an obligation of the state and all national components to undertake measures to respect and conserve heritage languages. These, he maintains, could be attained through policies that do not marginalise heritage languages and through measures that open space for interaction with national and international languages.

Ashhiddiqie (2008) also acknowledges that although the reality of diversity has been recognised since long before independence, such awareness does not always translate into good measures, as marginalisation of heritage languages, even extinction of some of them, still takes place. He declares that:

*Masih belum banyak komponen bangsa yang memiliki kepedulian terhadap bahasa dan budaya daerah. Bahkan terdapat kebijakan tertentu yang justru telah meminggirkan bahasa dan budaya daerah (p. 10).*

[There are not many national components that have concerns to heritage languages and cultures. There is even a certain policy that marginalises heritage languages and cultures] (p. 10).

It remains to be seen whether the ILPP belongs to the policy that he refers to as one that “marginalises heritage languages and cultures”. However, when Constitutional references are translated into national laws and regulations, the result, as revealed in Section 4.1, is a Type-2 LPP, which might not be effective for preventing a shift to the Indonesian language. As Indonesian heritage languages do not have any territorial base outside Indonesia, this might lead to the extinction of Indonesian heritage languages, as predicted by Muhlhauser (1996). Should this happen, the particular ILPP frame could be interpreted as failing to execute the stipulation of the general ILPP frame as stated in the above references in the Constitution.

As is apparent from the analysis in Chapter Four, the Yogyakarta regional bylaws have actually attempted a modest introduction of the Javanese language in the public domains. Elsewhere, Moriyama (2008) states that the Government of Western Java province has introduced similar bylaws for the Sundanese language. The problem is that there is a question as to whether the national laws support or override these bylaws. For example, both bylaws call for the use of heritage languages in some regional official activities. On the other hand, U 24 explicitly declares that in regional government activities, the use of the Indonesian language is required. Both bylaws also call for the introduction of heritage languages as a subject in schools; however, the national laws do not provide explicit allocation for heritage languages. Thus, while there are some initiatives on the part of regional governments in this respect, the question remains as to whether the national government also shares the same intent.

Spolsky (2004) argues that a lack of policy is in itself a kind of policy – a policy by default or omission. Thus, a lack of policy that can effectively protect heritage languages from shift constitutes a policy that might be construed as one that condones the shift and which ultimately may lead to the extinction of heritage languages in Indonesia. This is not in line with the Indonesian national motto of *Bhinneka Tunggal Ika* (Unity in Diversity). If this motto is genuinely followed, while the Indonesian language is made the unification language, there needs to be some effective means for guaranteeing the survival of heritage languages.

In a country's legal system, the Constitution constitutes the highest order: all laws need to be compatible with it. As there is a question as to whether the ILPP is congruent with the mandate from the Constitution, a case could be argued for its consideration. However, as the Constitution does not provide guidance as to how the mandate needs to be carried out, an exploration needs to be made to find a model that could carry out the mandate.

#### **5.4. Comparison of ILPP with the Micro-perspective based Model**

In order to determine the degree of fit between the ILPP and the heritage language users' preferences with the ILPP, an overall summary of ILPP analysis is compared with the model suggested by the summary of the Sleman Javanese language teachers' preferences (the Micro-perspective-based model), with regard to the

distribution of domains for the Javanese language (the order of domains is slightly changed) (see Table 71).

**Table 71 Comparison of ILPP with the Micro-perspective-based Model**

	Domains (status and acquisition planning combined)	Allocation for HL (including JL) in ILPP	Allocation for JL in Micro-perspective-based model
1	National official language	RP	(Not covered)
2	Regional official language	RP	Mixed
3	Language for signage	Generally RP; RO for specific cases	Preferred
4	Language reserve area	---	Preferred
5	Language for workplace (including forum)	Generally RP; limited RO at regional level	Preferred
6	Language for public service areas	Generally RP; RO for specific cases	Preferred
7	Language for wider communication	---	(Not covered)
8	International language	RP	(Not covered)
9	Capital language	---	---
10	Language for literary and scholarly works (including science and technology)	Generally RP; RO for specific cases	Preferred
11	Religious language	---	---
12	Language as subject	RO	Preferred
13	Language as the medium of instruction	Generally RP; RO for specific levels	Preferred
14	Language for mass media (print and electronic)	Generally RP; RO for specific media	Preferred
15	Group & community language	RO	Mixed
16	Family language	---	Mixed

Note: ILPP: (The) Indonesian language policy and planning  
 IL: The Indonesian language      HL: Heritage language(s)  
 JL: The Javanese language      FL: Foreign language(s)  
 RC: Regulated and compulsory      RO: Regulated and optional  
 RP: Regulated and prohibited      NR or ---: Not regulated

 (Shaded): Emphasis

This comparison shows a mismatch between the reality of the ILPP and the ILPP as preferred by the Sleman the Javanese language teachers. Admittedly, they constitute only a very small subset of the Javanese language users. However, they deal closely with the Javanese language conservation efforts in their work as the Javanese language teachers. They also live in a Javanese language heartland. Therefore their views are worthy of consideration. Furthermore, their views happen to agree with various perspectives in the conservation of heritage languages in the world, as exposed in the Literature Review. This lends greater weight to these teachers' views.

As far as the Javanese language teachers are concerned, with strong preferences in most public domains and mixed preferences in government administration for the use of the Javanese language, the respondents seemed to aim for Level 3 of the Extended Graded Intergenerational Disruption Scale (EGIDS) (see Appendix 5), which is one level down from the Indian model for scheduled languages and, thus, is relatively moderate. It can be seen that there are many domains for the Javanese language that are preferred by Sleman Javanese language teachers but missing in the ILPP. These teachers' preferences suggest there is a need for a reconsideration of the ILPP.

### **5.5. Preference for the Javanese Language Speech Levels: A Dilemma**

There is a feature of the Javanese language that needs some serious attention, namely, speech levels, which are also found in some other Indonesian heritage languages, such as the Sundanese and Balinese languages. At present, the Javanese language has four levels (*krama alus*, or high and refined, *krama*, or high, *ngoko alus*, or low and refined, and *ngoko*, or low) (Harjawiyana and Supriya, 2001).

Some writers declare that the existence of speech levels might work adversely against conservation. For example, Adisumarto (1976) declares that the present heritage languages are regarded as complicated by their users as they retain speech levels and use a lot of unfamiliar literary words. He adds that this complexity may discourage users to conserve or use them; instead, their users may find another language that is simpler and more modern and this need is supplied by the Indonesian language. This complication and its implications are also observed by Errington (1985) and Quinn (2011), who note that it might work adversely for conservation because, when an individual who masters the *krama alus* (refined high)

variety speaks with another individual who has not mastered it, they often switch to the Indonesian language to avoid embarrassment.

Against this drawback, there are those who believe that speech levels contribute to character education. For example, quoting from Magniz-Suseno, Ngadiman (2011) asserts that the Javanese language, with its speech levels, constitutes the manifestation of Javanese culture and contains values such as harmony and mutual respect. Wibawa (2011) thinks that Javanese language instruction cultivates the lofty aspects of the Javanese culture, such as tolerance and community spirit. As a matter of fact, Javanese ethics stipulates that the Javanese language speech levels need to be correctly applied in communication. In general, people are expected to show courtesy by using higher speech levels when they communicate with older people or those with higher authority/position. Thus, Javanese language instruction is believed to cultivate good manners. This courtesy aspect is also enhanced by the fact that it is very difficult to speak rudely in the higher speech levels.

The survey of the Javanese language teachers indicated that a very high percentage (98.2%) of the respondents preferred to retain the Javanese language speech levels. While the preservation of speech levels may hold an appeal for this particular interest group, it may be different for other groups as Adisumarto (1976) asserts that general users might not be enthusiastic to conserve them. In fact, Subroto, et al. (2007, 2008) found that the young members of their subjects viewed the Javanese language higher levels as difficult. These researchers even declared that the highest variety (*krama inggil/ krama alus*) is already in an endangered stage, even though their respondents lived in the Surakarta area, another heartland of the Javanese language and culture (Errington, 1985). If such a state of affairs happens in a Javanese heartland, then similar or worse situations are likely to occur in other Javanese speaking areas that do not constitute heartlands.

Therefore, heritage language speakers in general, and the Javanese language speakers in particular, may need to discuss this problem and choose between two alternatives. The first is to retain current speech levels and maintain the original features that lead to complications in conservation. The second is to simplify the levels and facilitate conservation but eliminate the original features. In this respect, it is interesting to note that as to the survey question of whether or not the Javanese language speech levels are to be maintained, only two levels get strong support for

continuation: *krama alus* (high and refined) and *ngoko alus* (low and refined). This may point out a compromise, in which the two levels are maintained while the other two levels, i.e., *krama* (high) and *ngoko* (low) are abandoned.

## **5.6. Macro Perspectives**

The Indonesian Constitution, while mandating heritage language conservation, does not provide guidance as to how effective heritage language conservation is to be achieved. Therefore, insights need to be sought elsewhere, from what might be referred to as a set of ‘Macro Perspectives’. These comprise theoretical references and practical examples of Type-3 LPP, in particular the Indian LPP. A model is then conceived from these perspectives.

### **5.6.1. Theoretical perspective**

From the review of relevant literature, an Indonesian LPP that aims for the greatest promise for heritage language conservation needs to observe the following theoretical principles:

1. Indonesian heritage languages are endemic languages; this means that they do not have territorial bases outside Indonesia. Thus, it is of paramount importance that effective measures be adopted to protect these languages as failing to do so may lead to their extinction.
2. Effective measures for their protection require a Type-3 LPP, one that bestows public functions on heritage languages.
3. The scope in which heritage languages could have public functions ranges from narrow applications, based on the use of the norm-and-accommodation principle, to much wider applications through the use of the territoriality principle.
4. The aim for LPP is to move it as high as possible towards Stage 1 of GIDS in which heritage languages are given full public functions. At a minimum, the LPP needs to restore and maintain a self-priming mechanism of language production and this coincides with Stage 5 of the GIDS.

These theoretical principles provide a foundation as to how an LPP that is conducive to heritage language conservation can be devised. However, in order to consider a reform for a policy, there is a need to look at similar policies that work elsewhere

(Dunn, 1994; Hutchinson, 2010; Dodd, 2013). In this respect, a review of other policies that implement Type-3 LPP is worthwhile.

There are examples of countries that seem to implement Type-3 LPP in accordance with the principles as noted above. In South Africa, the post-apartheid Constitution grants national official status to 11 languages (The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa). Singapore accords national official status to four languages (Kaplan and Baldauf, 2003). While these countries implement Type-3 policies to the maximum, it is difficult for such a policy to be implemented in Indonesia due to the fact that the Constitution already declares that the national official language is the Indonesian language and that there are hundreds of heritage languages in Indonesia.

The country that may provide a suitable model for Indonesia is India. The reason is that both countries aspire to establish a national official language while conserving heritage languages. While in terms of developing a national official language Indonesia has been more successful than India, in the conservation of heritage languages, the reverse seems to be true. Accordingly, the Indian LPP is discussed in some detail below.

### **5.6.2. The Indian LPP perspective**

In reviewing language policy and planning in various countries of the world, Gadelii (1999) commends the Indian LPP. He refers to the Indian model as a very special case, as the Indian LPP model, which is called 'the three-language formula', covers 90% of the Indian population. Quoting from Kedreongo, he declares that the Indian LPP has proven successful and sees it as a possible solution for other multilingual countries. Furthermore, Gadelii (1999) maintains that:

The Indian model of language planning is *quite impressive* (Italics added). What is particularly interesting is that India not only recognises regional official languages, but also has two national official languages, Hindi and English. In a sense, India thus combines the advantages of Tanzania and South Africa. It shares the Tanzanian property of promoting an endogenous language at the national level (Hindi and Kiswahili respectively), but it avoids the adoption of a discriminatory policy towards minorities by recognising regional official languages (p. 18).

In fact, while Gadelii (1999) praises Tanzania for its success in promoting indigenous Swahili to national official status, he also criticises the country for neglecting other indigenous languages. In this context, he recommends the Indian model, “it should be possible to implement some kind of India type system” (p.14).

The relevance of the Indian model for Indonesia is that the country is similar to Indonesia with respect to diversity in linguistic heritage. While India is still trying to make Hindi the national official language, it has embraced a Type-3 LPP. India is an example of a country that has implemented the territoriality principle at the sub-country level. It has made regional languages official by putting them in a schedule in the Constitution. Thus, while Hindi and English are used as official languages at the country level, co-official status is granted at the state level to 18 ‘scheduled’ languages. In addition, the Constitution also grants the right to establish educational institutions for the speakers of other heritage languages that are not scheduled.

The actual number of languages in India is still open to debate. Ethnologue (2014) lists 447 living languages. However, quoting from Pattanayak and Annamalai, based on the 1991 census, Groff (2003) declares that within India’s 28 states and 7 union territories, there are 114 languages. Of these languages, 18 are scheduled while the rest are non-scheduled. Furthermore, 87 languages are used in the press, 71 on the radio, 13 in state administration, and 47 as the medium of instruction.

What is relevant here is not the exact number of languages, but the fact that 13 languages are used in state administrations while 47 are used as the medium of instruction. The Indian Constitution mandates that Hindi be the official language at the Union/federal level, in which English also serves as a co-official language, with the aim of improving the use of Hindi, in Article 343 and 344, and the development of Hindi, in Article 351. However, the Indian Constitution also provides co-official status for some heritage languages at the state level, as stipulated in Article 345 (The Constitution of India):

... the Legislature of a State may by law adopt any one or more of the languages in use in the State or Hindi as the language or languages to be used for all or any of the official purposes of that State ....

This means that states have the right to declare, through regional bylaws, that certain heritage languages are to be co-official within the state/region.

Meanwhile, Article 347 states:

... the President may, if he is satisfied that a substantial proportion of the population of a State desire the use of any language ..., direct that such language shall also be officially recognised throughout that State ....

Concerning acquisition planning, Article 30 states:

All minorities, whether based on religion or language, shall have the right to administer educational institutions of their choice.

Furthermore, Article 350A states:

It shall be the endeavour of every State ... to provide adequate facilities for instruction in the mother-tongue at the primary stage of education to children belonging to linguistic minority groups ....

This means that heritage languages can be the medium of instruction in schools. In this respect, Groff (2003), quoting Annamalai (2001), states that 47 languages are used as the medium of instruction. In addition, Groff (2003), quoting from Khubchandani (2001), also declares that some states use minority languages as a 'preparatory medium' or partial medium. Other states set up bilingual programs and produce textbooks in heritage languages.

In summary, the Indian model generally pursues the promotional principle, which follows Kloss's (1971) recommendation for indigenous heritage languages. In addition, it adopts the territoriality principle at the sub-country level for major heritage languages (constituting the scheduled heritage languages and some other heritage languages) and the norm-and-accommodation principle for the rest. Heritage languages are also given the opportunity to become the medium of instruction at the primary level of schooling, and this concession is above the minimum protection for heritage languages (i.e., the inclusion of heritage languages as school subjects).

The Indian model is not a perfect one and is still subject to some criticism. For example, Sridhar (1996) points out that not all languages have equal status as only 17 languages (in addition to Hindi) are included in the Constitution and only 58 are studied or used as the medium of instruction. However, giving equal status to numerous languages probably constitutes an unrealistic goal for most countries. In

addition, the number of heritage languages that are granted co-official status at sub-country level (17 heritage languages besides Hindi), and the corresponding number that are granted use in the education domain (58), constitute a high standard that few countries could achieve at present, apart from South Africa-which grants country level official status to 11 languages.

Dua (1985) thinks that there is a high degree of congruence between legislation and implementation in the Indian LPP and this means that such Type-3 LPP is attainable. Ager (1997) summarises the features of the Indian LPP model:

1. A federal language in which the state organisations operate and in which the state externalises itself
2. A number of national languages which have official status in their own territories
3. A larger number of regional (or non-territorial) languages which are used for specific and defined purposes (business, media, religion, or domestic purposes).

With a three layer arrangement, the Indian model may constitute a realistic manifestation of a Type-3 LPP, and this seems to be the reason that Gadelii (1999) recommends it to other countries. Schiffman (1996) expresses a similar opinion that Indian's three layer formula is "... consonant with the traditional multilingualism and linguistic diversity of the subcontinent" (p. 167). Due to the similarity in linguistic heterogeneity between Indonesia and India, their opinions support the notion that the Indian LPP model may work for Indonesia.

### **5.6.3. The Macro Perspectives: A Model**

The Indonesian Constitution, while mandating Indonesian heritage language conservation, does not offer guidelines to achieve it. The present Indonesian LPP, which ought to be a fulfilment of the mandate, does not seem to provide much assistance either. From the Macro Perspectives, a model for an alternative LPP that allocates more domains for Indonesian heritage languages is proposed. The detail of this Macro-perspective-based model is produced Table 72.

In the model, the distribution of domains for major heritage languages corresponds to Level 2 of EGIDS, while that for minor heritage languages corresponds to Level 4 of EGIDS (Lewis and Simmons, 2009) (see Appendix 5). In this arrangement, several domains would continue to be the prerogative of the national official

language, such as the official national language, international language, and the language for wider communication. The private domains (family and community languages) would still be unregulated, as the individual's choice is respected.

**Table 72 A Macro-perspective-based Model for an Alternative LPP**

	Domains (status and acquisition planning combined)	Allocation for major heritage languages	Allocation for minor heritage languages
	<b>Public domains</b>		
1	National official language		
2	Regional official language	Entitled	
3	Language for signage	Entitled	
4	Language reserve area	Not necessary, as the HL is co-official in the region	Limited in certain zones
5	Language for workplace (including forum)	Entitled	
6	Language for public service areas	Entitled	Limited in certain cases
7	Language for wider communication		
8	International language		
9	Capital language	---	---
10	Language for literary and scholarly works (including science and technology)	Entitled	
11	Religious language	---	---
12	Language as subject	Entitled	Entitled
13	Language as the medium of instruction	Entitled, to a certain level	Might be entitled
14	Language for mass media (print and electronic)	Entitled	Entitled in limited media
	<b>Private domains</b>		
15	Group and community languages	---	---
16	Family language	---	---

Note: LPP; (The) Language policy and planning HL: Heritage language(s)



Not entitled

----: Not regulated

However, major concessions would be made in other aspects of status and acquisition planning. Major heritage languages (similar to the scheduled languages in the Indian Constitution) would be acknowledged as co-official in their respective

regions. This would mean that they would be used, alongside the national official language, as the language in government administration, workplaces (including the public service area), signage, and science and technology. For these languages, reserve areas might not be necessary as they would be co-official throughout the region. They would also be taught as subjects, utilized as the medium of instruction up to a certain level in educational institutions, and used in the mass media.

As similar treatment might be difficult to implement with minor heritage languages, concessions for them would be more restricted. In status planning, they might be entitled to reserve area language status in which the language is co-official in certain limited zones. They might also be used in limited public areas, e.g., when a heritage language speaker needs an interpreter in a court. However, they would at least be taught as subjects in schools and be used in special mass media.

The model does not negate the function of the Indonesian language as the national official language. Patten (2009) asserts that the success of Tanzania and Indonesia in managing their ethno-linguistic diversity is owed in part to developing a common national language and identity. However, Green and Reaume, in Patten (2009), point out the need for fairness (for heritage languages); this fairness is violated when the government prohibits the use of a particular heritage language in certain contexts or when it fails to make it possible for speakers of the language to use their language when accessing or participating in public institutions.

### **5.7. Comparison of the ILPP with the Macro-perspective based model**

Analysis in Chapter 4, Section 4.1., reveals that in the ILPP, virtually all public functions are reserved for the Indonesian language. In these domains, heritage languages are given very limited allocations. These comprise optional use in public signage, mass media, and science and technology, and limited existence as subjects of instruction (integrated in art and culture instruction). The ILPP does not regulate the use of language in private domains. A summary of the allocations is given in the previous chapter. On the other hand, the Macro-perspective-based model confers essential public domains for heritage languages. The comparison between both policies is shown in Table 73.

**Table 73 Comparison of ILPP with the Macro-perspective-based Model**

	Domains (status and acquisition planning combined)	Allocation for HL in the ILPP	Allocation for major HL in synthesis	Allocation for minor HL in synthesis
1	National official language	RP	Not entitled	Not entitled
2	Regional official language	RP	Entitled	Not entitled
3	Language for signage	Generally RP; RO for specific cases	Entitled	Not entitled
4	Language reserve area	---	Not necessary	Limited in certain zones
5	Language for workplace (including forum)	Generally RP; limited RO at regional level	Entitled	Not entitled
6	Language for public service areas	Generally RP; RO for specific cases	Entitled	Limited in certain cases
7	Language for wider communication	---	Not entitled	Not entitled
8	International language	RP	Not entitled	Not entitled
9	Capital language	---	---	---
10	Language for literary & scholarly works (including science and technology)	Generally RP; RO for specific cases	Entitled	Not entitled
11	Religious language	---	---	---
12	Language as subject	RO	Entitled	Entitled
13	Language as the medium of instruction	Generally RP; RO for specific levels	Entitled, to a certain level	Might be entitled
14	Language for mass media (print and electronic)	Generally RP; RO for specific media	Entitled	Entitled in limited media
15	Group & community language	RO	---	---
16	Family language	---	---	---

Note: ILPP: (The) Indonesian language policy and planning  
 IL: The Indonesian language HL: Heritage language(s) FL: Foreign language(s)  
 RC: Regulated and compulsory RO: Regulated and optional  
 RP: Regulated and prohibited NR or ---: Not regulated NA: Not applicable  
 (Shaded): Emphasis

In the comparison, it can be seen that many domains that are provided in the model for heritage languages are missing from the ILPP, even for major heritage languages. The Macro-perspective model is based on the theoretical perspective on heritage language conservation as well a real world example of a commendable Type-3 LPP. Therefore, it is worthy of consideration.

### **5.8. Comparison of ILPP with Micro-perspective-based and Macro-perspective-based models**

In previous sections, discussions have been devoted to Macro and Micro Perspectives and the models for alternative LPP that are conceived from these perspectives. Now a comparison could be made between the ILPP and both models. The comparison is depicted in Table 74.

In the first place, it is to be noted that the Macro-perspective-based model and the Micro-perspective-based model reveal a similar feature with respect to large heritage languages. This is not surprising as the teachers belong to the Javanese language speaker group, which is a major heritage language.

Secondly, as evident in the comparison, a number of domains, which are expected in the Micro-perspective-based model and the Macro-perspective-based model, are missing from the ILPP, even for major heritage languages. Both models constitute a balanced arrangement for developing a national official language and conserving heritage languages, a balance that at present the ILPP has been shown to be lacking. Thus, both models provide a synthesis that might serve as a reference for a reconsideration of the ILPP.

The significance of allocating public domains for heritage languages cannot be over-emphasised. Patten (2009) declares that language choices do not occur in a vacuum; rather, the choices are profoundly influenced by the incentives and opportunities provided by social practices and institutions; these incentives and opportunities help to raise or lower various costs and benefits associated with acquiring and using particular languages.

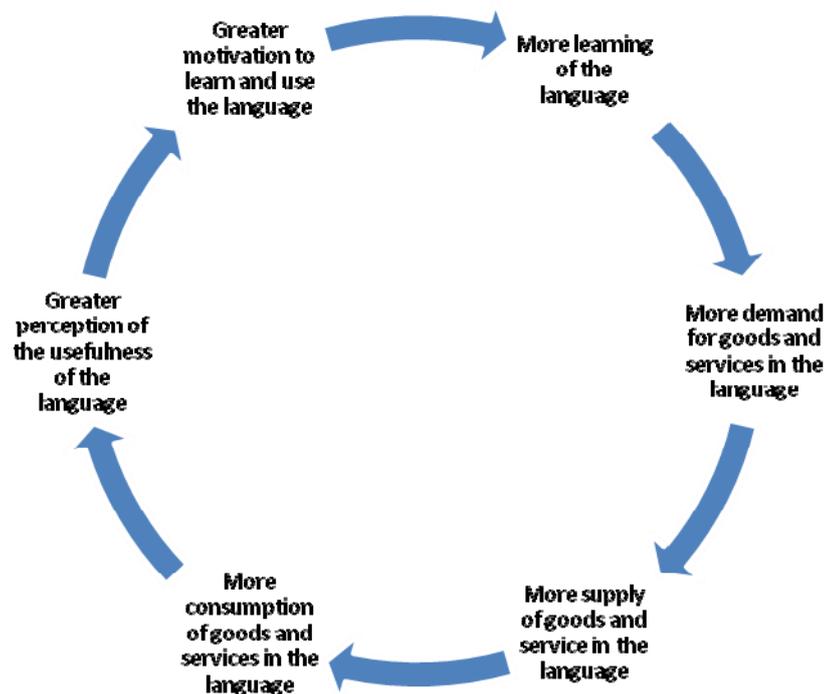
**Table 74 Comparison of ILPP with Both Models**

	Domains (status and acquisition planning combined)	ILPP	Macro-Perspective-based Model		Micro-P-based Model
		Allocation for HL in ILPP	Allocation for major HL	Allocation for minor HL	Allocation for JL
1	National official language	RP	Not entitled	Not entitled	Not covered
2	Regional official language	RP	Entitled	Not entitled	Mixed
3	Language for signage	Generally RP	Entitled	Not entitled	Preferred
4	Language reserve area	---	Not necessary	Limited in certain zones	Preferred
5	Language for workplace (including forum)	Generally RP	Entitled	Not entitled	Preferred
6	Language for public service areas	Generally RP	Entitled	Limited in certain cases	Preferred
7	Language for wider communication	---	Not entitled	Not entitled	Not covered
8	International language	RP	Not entitled	Not entitled	Not covered
9	Capital language	---	---	---	---
10	Language for literary and scholarly works (including science and technology)	Generally RP	Entitled	Not entitled	Preferred
11	Religious language	---	---	---	---
12	Language as subject	RO	Entitled	Entitled	Preferred
13	Language as the medium of instruction	Generally RP	Entitled to a certain level	Might be entitled	Preferred
14	Language for mass media (print and electronic)	Generally RP	Entitled	Entitled in limited media	Preferred
15	Group & community language	RO	---	---	Mixed
16	Family language	---	---	---	Mixed

Note: ILPP: (The) Indonesian language policy and planning P: Perspective  
 IL: The Indonesian language HL: Heritage language(s) FL: Foreign language(s)  
 RC: Regulated and compulsory RO: Regulated and optional  
 RP: Regulated and prohibited NR or ---: Not regulated NA: Not applicable  
 (Shaded): Emphasis P: Perspective

Government decisions about language use and norms in the public sector profoundly influence the incentives people feel they have in making choices about language use. The decisions raise the symbolic and practical value of learning and using some languages whilst lowering the value of others. Thus, the government choice for LPP profoundly affects people in their decision to conserve or abandon their heritage languages.

Strubell (2001) maintains that in granting official status to a heritage language, the state creates more demands for the heritage language, especially the essential ones, such as attending education, communicating in the workplace, or dealing with governmental agencies. The community then has the opportunity to respond by creating supply through the cultivation of the heritage language. Through this manner, a cycle is generated; one that establishes a self-priming mechanism that supports the sustainability for a heritage language (Grin, 2003) and one that Strubell (2001) depicts as a ‘Catherine wheel’ (see the following figure).



**Figure 10 The Catherine Wheel of Self-priming Mechanisms for a Language (Strubell, 2001, p. 280)**

In the European context, Fishman (1991) declares that “... a united Europe does not mean a centrally ... uniformized Europe” (p.3); in other words, a pluralistic approach to LPP is required. Similarly, in the Indonesian context, it is argued that

*Negara Kesatuan Republik Indonesia* (The Unitary State of the Republic of Indonesia) should not mean a uniform Indonesia, as attested by the state motto, *Bhinneka Tunggal Ika* (Unity through Diversity). What is being argued here is that, for such an assurance in the Constitution on heritage language conservation to be achieved, serious attention needs to be devoted to preventing the demise of heritage languages in Indonesia.

A number of countries have switched to the policies that promote heritage languages through change into a democratic system. However, Fishman (1991) cautions that the victory of a pluralistic political model does not always lead to the implementation of cultural pluralism. In this context, Indonesia undertook a reformation in 1998 where *Orde Baru* (the New Order) governance was replaced by *Orde Reformasi* (the Reformed Order) governance in which the proponents professed to aspire to a pluralistic democracy. It remains to be seen whether linguistic pluralism, which constitutes an element of cultural pluralism, can also take place in the future.

### **5.9. The Significance of Timely Implementation**

In addition to the need for Type-3 LPP, there is another significant requirement for adequate protection of heritage languages, namely, timely implementation. The case of Ireland shows that the implemented Type-3 LPP has failed to protect the Irish language because its implementation came too late; that is, when the language shift to English had developed to an advanced stage (Fishman, 1991; Paulston, 1994).

While some scholars (see Chapter 2) still believe that major Indonesian heritage languages are safe, there are a larger numbers of studies that suggest that the situation might be more critical. In this respect, the latest release from LIPI (The Indonesian Research Agency) (Virna P, 2013) suggests that only nine major heritage languages will survive. Even this may be debatable as Gunarwan (2002) predicts that in fifty years the Javanese language, despite it being the largest heritage language in Indonesia and having hundreds of years of tradition, may become a moribund language. If a language with such a large group of speakers is not safe, it is conceivable that a similar or worse fate awaits other languages.

Muhlhauser (1996) even predicts that Indonesia may become a monolingual country in the twenty first century. This prediction is plausible, considering the fact that various studies that note the shift from heritage languages to the national language reveal the influence of various factors, such as urbanization, age, attitude, socio-economic class, and gender. They show that shifts are stronger among urban dwellers, younger generations, the more affluent class, and women. With the passage of time and the result of Indonesian development, more urbanization may take place, affluent community members may grow in numbers, the older generation will pass away, and heritage languages may be viewed as less suitable to modernisation, especially among the youth who will be influenced more by technology and social media. These factors may increasingly have adverse effects on the future of heritage languages.

Therefore, it becomes of paramount significance that discussions be started among Indonesian policy makers, academics, and the general public, in order to address the introduction of Type-3 LPP in a timely fashion. With respect to the Indonesian situation, the right time is as soon as possible, to utilise the fact that there are still sizable numbers of the population who use heritage languages and who could serve as a core for the effort to reverse the shift (Fishman, 1991).

### **5.10. Summary**

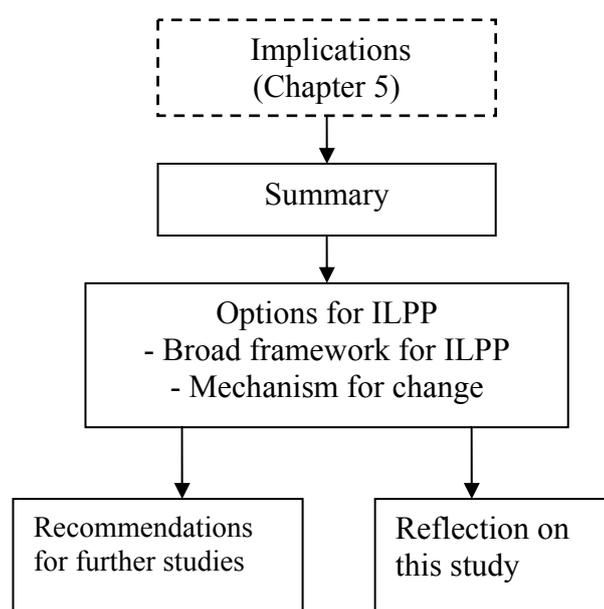
This chapter has shown that the current ILPP does not seem be able to stem language shift and, therefore, to adequately conserve Indonesian heritage languages. On the other hand, the Constitution and the spirit of the original Youth Pledge mandate their conservation. Thus, reconsideration for the ILPP is necessary and two models were reviewed. The first was the model suggested by the Micro Perspective, the view of the Javanese language teachers in Sleman. The second was the model derived from the external Macro Perspectives, which offer two perspectives for alternative LPPs; namely, theoretical perspective and a suitable practical perspective in the form of the Indian LPP. Both models contain the features of Type-3 LPP in that they demand public functions for heritage languages. A synthesis of both models points out the features of a Type-3 LPP that demands public functions for heritage languages and one that operates on a territoriality principle for major heritage languages and a norm-and-accommodation principle for minor heritage

languages. Attention is also drawn for the need for timely implementation for an effective LPP. The options available for establishing such an LPP in Indonesia are discussed in the following chapter.

## CHAPTER SIX

### CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter provides a summary and presents some options for consideration for changing the Indonesian Language Policy and Planning (ILPP), along with some reflections on this study and a number of recommendations for further study. The outline is shown below.



**Figure 11 Outline of Chapter 6**

#### 6.1. Summary

The ILPP seems to belong to a Type-2 LPP, one that does not interfere in the private domains but does not confer many public domains for heritage languages. From the perspective of the dynamics of language shift, it has little promise to stem the shift. As a consequence, the ILPP is not congruent with the mandate of the Constitution for conserving heritage languages in Indonesia. As such, consideration for its revision needs to be contemplated.

The views of the Javanese language teachers in Sleman indicated their preference for a Type-3 LPP; one that bestows a lot of public domains for heritage languages. Their views, of course, do not represent the views of all heritage language speakers

in Indonesia. However, through the nature of them being an informed user group of the heritage language with the largest number of speakers in Indonesia, and the similarity of the constraints facing all heritage languages in Indonesia, their views serve as an indication of preference for heritage language speakers in Indonesia. As such, it provides a Micro Perspective that is worthy of consideration.

The other perspectives, the Macro Perspectives, consist of various theoretical principles and practical bases for Type-3 LPP. There is growing global support for the conservation of heritage languages. Studies have shown that allocating public domains for heritage languages, through the establishment of Type-3 LPP, is essential for heritage language conservation. In this respect, the allocation of domains for heritage languages could be performed through norm-and-accommodation rights and territoriality rights. The Indian LPP provides a practical example of Type-3 LPP; one which supports the establishment of a national official language in combination with the conservation of heritage languages and, thus, is deemed suitable for Indonesia. A synthesis of these perspectives provides the basis for a model that is applicable to Indonesia.

## **6.2. Some Options for ILPP Consideration**

The discussion in previous chapters shows a similarity between the LPP model based on the Macro Perspectives and one based on the Micro Perspective. These models are closer to the ideal of Type-3 LPP and might be better suited to fulfil the mandate given by the Constitution and the spirit of *Bhinneka Tunggal Ika* (Unity in diversity). On the basis of these models, some suggestions are offered for reconsideration of the ILPP; these suggestions involve a broad framework for the conservation of heritage languages and the mechanism required.

### **6.2.1. A broad framework for heritage languages**

At present, among 700 plus languages in Indonesia, none is used for provincial administration or as a medium of instruction. This even applies to major heritage languages, although some of them have a large number of speakers. For example, the Javanese and Sundanese languages, with around 84 million and 34 million of speakers respectively, have a greater number of speakers than many UN countries.

In this respect, the Indian model is particularly relevant to Indonesia. This model gives a balance between the need for a unification language and the need to maintain diversity. As Indonesia has more than 700 heritage languages, it is evident that a language of unification is necessary and this has been served by the Indonesian language. However, in the face of the threat to heritage languages, a system needs to be devised in order to ensure their survival. In this respect, the regions need to be empowered to elevate heritage languages into some public functions. It may be difficult to apply full regional official status for every heritage language due to the large number of the languages and the fact that a lot of heritage languages have relatively few speakers. Patten (1990) recommends the establishment of general criteria, based on a number of factors such as size, territorial concentration, and usability for wider communication; the criteria are then applied to determine which languages get official status and which ones get norm-and-accommodation status.

To assist this process, cooperation between India and Indonesia might be contemplated. Indonesia is noted for its success in developing an indigenous heritage language into a national official language but, as this study shows, still lacks an adequate approach for conserving heritage languages. On the other hand, while India has implemented a Type-3 LPP that offers adequate protection for heritage languages, it seems to still struggle to make Hindi acceptable as the official-national language for the whole country. Therefore, cooperation between the countries' LPP decision makers and academics, in which both parties share and learn from each other's experiences, may prove beneficial for improving the language situations in both countries.

There are three kinds of heritage languages in Indonesia (Poedjosoedarmo, 1976). The first comprises the Malay dialects. The second consists of larger heritage languages (*bahasa daerah besar*), such as the Javanese, Sundanese, Madura, Balinese, Minangkabau, Makassar and Bugis, Lampung, Aceh, and Sasak languages, with speakers ranging from several million to nearly 100 million speakers. The third includes those smaller heritage languages (*bahasa daerah kecil*), such as the Bakumpai, Gayo, Ehari, Mandar, and Tetun languages, with 100,000 to 400,000 speakers (Macaryus, 2008).

The Malay dialects constitute an exception to the endemic state of Indonesian heritage languages, as various Malay dialects are spoken in Malaysia and they are

close to the Indonesian language and, thus, they might not be threatened to the same degree as that which is experienced by other heritage languages. Thus, the remaining discussion will be limited to the remaining languages.

In principle, due to the endemic state of these heritage languages, the promotion principle (Kloss, 1971) needs to be applied. In this respect, co-official status and the territoriality principle could be applied to major heritage languages in their respective regions, much like the provision for scheduled languages in India; while the norm-and-accommodation principle could be applied to minor heritage languages, similar to the provision for non-scheduled languages in India.

The new arrangement could run as follows:

#### 1. Status planning

Major heritage languages would be co-official in their respective regions. This means that they would be allocated most domains in status planning, such as the language of the workplace, the language for government administration, the language in the public service areas, the language of the signage, the language of science and technology, and the right to establish a language reserve area. The exception comprises the domains of the official national language and the language for wider communication, as these domains are the preserve of the Indonesian language. Also excepted is the international language domain, which is the sole preserve of the Indonesian language inside Indonesia and is shared between Indonesian and English outside Indonesia.

Major heritage languages could be made co-official in the following regions:

- a. The Javanese language in Central Java, Yogyakarta, and Eastern Java provinces
- b. The Sundanese language in West Java province and the Cirebon language in the Cirebon region of Western Java
- c. The Madura language in the Madura region of East Java province
- d. The Lampung and the Javanese languages in Lampung province
- e. The Minangkabau language in Western Sumatra province
- f. The Aceh language in the Special Area of Aceh
- g. The Balinese language in Bali province
- h. The Makassar, Bugis and Toraja languages in Southern Sulawesi province

Meanwhile, minor heritage languages would receive norm-and-accommodation rights; in this respect, the group language rights, which would be applicable in the public service areas. Capital language, religious language, family language, and community language would continue to be unregulated.

## 2. Acquisition planning

Major heritage languages would be allocated all domains in acquisition planning. These domains would include the mass media and the medium of instruction up to a certain level of education. Both major and minor heritage languages would be allocated the domain of language as a subject as the minimum language rights requirement.

## 3. Corpus planning

When status and acquisition planning have been implemented, corpus planning needs to follow in order for the languages to cope with the new functions (Kaplan and Baldauf, 1997). Corpus planning is usually performed by a special body (Cooper, 1989, Spolsky, 2004). To this end, academies for heritage languages should be established.

Essentially, co-official status aims to impart greater value and prestige to the heritage languages. For example, public service areas could be offered in the Indonesian language or the co-official heritage language. Signage could be written in both languages. In government administration and the workplace, written documents need to be written in both languages, while oral interaction could be done in either language or mandated to be used alternatively between the Indonesian language and the co-official heritage language.

With respect to status planning, Suwarno (2006) proposes a similar model to the Indian LPP; one in which heritage languages are given co-official status in their respective areas. Suwarno's (2006) proposal has an additional feature, in which English is given a degree of co-official status in areas where contacts with foreigners are frequent, such as in Denpasar and Badung (Bali) and Batam (Riau Archipelago). His proposal is based on the premise that Indonesians need to cope with global challenges as well as maintaining their identity, something that is also recommended by Toffler (1990).

Concerning education, heritage languages need to be introduced as an independent subject at kindergarten level, junior secondary level, senior secondary level, and in

the universities. The inclusion of university studies is important to enhance their prestige. More importantly, heritage languages need to be made the medium of instruction in educational institutions.

In this respect, UNESCO (2002) recommends that heritage languages be made the medium of instruction up to the minimum compulsory educational level. At present, the minimum compulsory education level in Indonesia is the junior secondary level. If the UNESCO proposal is to be implemented, there are two options:

1. Heritage language as the exclusive medium of instruction in the lower years

In this option, the co-official heritage language needs to be used as the medium of instruction exclusively in a greater proportion of schooling. The use of the heritage language as the medium of instruction would continue to the upper level of the elementary school and the junior secondary level. The Indonesian language would start to be used as the medium of instruction at the junior high school level. The proportion of instruction in the Indonesian language would increase as the years progress until, in the last classes in the senior secondary school, all instruction is conducted in the Indonesian language.

2. Bilingual instruction in the national official language and co-official heritage language

Here, the national official language and co-official heritage language are both used as the medium of instruction in primary and secondary levels, in which some subjects are taught in the co-official heritage language while others in the Indonesian language. The co-official heritage language is predominantly used in lower grades; while the national official language is given an increasing proportion in higher grades until, in the senior secondary years, all instructions is given in the national official language.

The purpose of these arrangements is to utilise the younger years in which children are most amenable to language acquisition and learning. Such arrangements may help children to acquire and learn the heritage language that they would then maintain through life and, thus, be ready to impart their heritage language to the next generation. The use of heritage languages as the medium of instruction at the elementary and junior secondary levels also opens the possibility of using heritage

languages as the language of science and technology, and this may enhance their utility and interest for the users.

### **6.2.2. Mechanism for reconsideration**

A number of ways are available for implementing the change. One option is to revise U 20, the national educational law, and U 24, the national language law. Another option is to introduce a new law with a focus on the revitalisation and empowerment of heritage languages. Setyawan (2011) thinks that such a new law is necessary:

*... belum ada Undang-Undang (UU) yang mengatur keberadaan bahasa Daerah sebagai salah satu budaya yang harus dipelihara dan dijaga kelestariannya. Sudah seharusnya pemerintah juga memperhatikan kebijakan bahasanya secara cermat melalui sebuah UU atau peraturan pemerintah (p. 65).*

[There is as yet no law that regulates the existence of heritage languages that constitute an element of culture and that which need to be maintained and conserved. The government also needs to pay attention to the language policy through a law or government regulation] (p. 65).

The fact that Setyawan thinks so after the enactment of U 24 in 2009, one that was planned to regulate language functions in Indonesia, further indicates that the present LPP may not be adequate for heritage language conservation.

Another way to empower the regions is through U 32 on regional government. Article 22 of U 32 states as follows:

*Dalam menyelenggarakan otonomi daerah mempunyai kewajiban:*

*m. melestarikan nilai social budaya*

[In executing regional autonomy the region has the obligation of:

m. conserving socio-cultural values]

Heritage language is a core component of a heritage culture. Therefore, the conservation of socio-cultural values could be interpreted as including the implementation of necessary measures for conserving heritage languages. In fact, as Moriyama (2008) observes, the West Java government utilised U 22, a predecessor of U 32, to enable the Sundanese regional government to use the Sundanese

language as the medium of instruction in schools and as a regional official language in the West Java government administration.

Still another way is through establishing language conservation areas. This is especially possible with regions that have special status, like the province of Special Area of Yogyakarta. This is because the Constitution acknowledges the special right of such regions, in Article 18 B,

*Negara mengakui dan menghormati satuan-satuan pemerintahan daerah yang bersifat khusus atau istimewa yang diatur dengan undang-undang.*

[The country acknowledges and respects the regional area units that have the special characteristics, which is regulated through laws].

However, other heritage language areas could request such status. The reason is that the primary consideration for setting up heritage language reserve areas in Indonesia is the fact that Indonesian heritage languages are endemic (not found in any other place). As these heritage languages are now facing shifts to the Indonesian language, they need protection in their respective areas. This could be performed through the Cultural Law, which may provide for the establishment of cultural reserves. As language is a core component of culture, the establishment of cultural reserves could be elaborated to include the establishment of co-official status for the relevant heritage language.

For example, Bali is considered to have a unique culture; one that draws admiration from inside as well as outside Indonesia. However, how long could the Balinese culture survive if the Balinese language were to deteriorate? Thus, to conserve the Balinese culture, the Balinese language needs to be protected. The best protection is to enhance its value and prestige through its elevation to co-official status in Bali province. If a whole province is deemed too big for such a purpose, then selected areas could be devoted for designation as language and cultural reserves. For example, in Java, certain regencies in Central Java and Eastern Java provinces could be made Javanese language and cultural reserves, in which the Javanese language would be co-official language alongside the Indonesian language.

As to the manner of how this arrangement is to be implemented, the European Charter for Regional and Minority Languages (Grin, 2003) provides a model of how different measures for conserving heritage languages can be implemented,

depending on whether they are large or small heritage languages. For example, in the matter of language in education, the Charter stipulates as follows:

Article 8 – Education

I. With regard to education, the Parties undertake, within the territory to which such languages are used, according to the situation of each of these languages, and without prejudice to the teaching of the official language(s) of the state:

....

b. (primary education)

- i. To make available primary education in the relevant regional or minority languages; or
- ii. To make available a substantial part of primary education in the relevant regional or minority languages; or
- iii. To provide, within primary education, for the teaching of the relevant regional or minority languages as an integral part of the curriculum; or
- iv. To apply one of the measures provided for under i to iii above at least to those pupils whose families so request and whose number is considered sufficient.

Verse I.b. deals with primary education; this verse consists of verses I.b.i. and I.b.ii., which call for the use of regional or minority languages as the medium of instruction in all or a substantial part of education, and verse I.b.iii., which calls for the introduction of the regional or minority languages as school subjects. In the Indonesian context, verse I.b.i. and I.b.ii. could apply to large heritage languages, while verses I.b.ii. and I.b.iii. could apply to large and small heritage languages. Verses I.a., I.c., I.d., and I.e. call for similar arrangements for the pre-primary, general secondary, vocational, and university levels.

The Charter provides a guideline for various stages for the allocation of domains (such as the language for government administration, workplace, public service areas and signage, education, and mass media) for heritage languages and, thus, may constitute an excellent reference for countries like Indonesia that may wish to implement a Type-3 LPP.

Still another mechanism is to implement practices that have been proved to be effective elsewhere. For example, *Kohanga* (language nests) in New Zealand, in which elderly Maoris are involved with kindergarten students, has been found to be effective in generating and cultivating an interest in the Maori language. Similar arrangements could be adopted in Indonesia in which elderly heritage language speakers are involved in the education of kindergarten children.

### **6.3. A reflection on the study**

On the completion of this thesis some reflection is appropriate. In the first place, this study constitutes a policy analysis of a policy entrepreneur type, one that corresponds to a transition stage in the Indonesian policy-making cycle. Its main objective is to provide stimulus and some materials for generating broader discussion among decision makers, academics, and the general public, in the form of an assessment of the ILPP and an exploration of some possible alternatives, not a formal policy analysis for the government. Therefore, a more sophisticated policy analysis, such as a feasibility study, was not performed. In the analysis of the ILPP, some techniques of law analysis and evaluation were necessary. However, this is not a legal study per se and the manner of its presentation is not the one commonly found in legal studies. Nor am I a lawyer and, thus, my interpretation of the laws might not be as detailed as one performed by a lawyer.

Secondly, I realize that the ILPP is a sensitive issue. Recently, an article appeared in the 'Kompasiana' forum (a web forum for the readers of 'Kompas', the largest daily newspaper in Indonesia) under the title of 'Ketika bahasa Indonesia Menjajah' (When the Indonesian Language Colonises) (Taliawo, 2013). The article reiterated the fact that there is a shift from heritage languages to the Indonesian language, something that has been observed by various researchers, some of whom are mentioned in this study, and starting as early as a decade ago, and even as early as 1976. Nevertheless, two readers made similar comments, one of which was as follows:

*Jika bahasa daerah punah ... tidaklah tepat menyalahkan dominasi bahasa Indonesia. Bahasa Indonesia adalah bahasa persatuan. Dengan susah payah pejuang masa lampau mencari strategi [sic] untuk bersatu. .... sudah benar kalau bahasa Indonesia menjadi satu-satunya bahasa [sic] di Tanah Air.*

[Should the heritage languages become extinct ... it is not correct to blame the domination of the Indonesian language. The Indonesian language is the language of unification. With great difficulty, the fighters of the past sought a strategy for becoming united .... it is right that the Indonesian language becomes the only language in the motherland].

This sensitivity may indicate that the spirit of the revised New Pledge may still hold at present. This sensitivity may also explain why, although all Javanese language teachers in Sleman were targeted in this study, only 48.7% responded. The most sensitive issue could be Item 8, which explored preferences for the Javanese language as an independent subject as opposed to an embedded subject. The reason was that, at that time of the survey, the central government decided to abolish independent heritage language instruction and to include it in the art and culture subject. It turned out that an overwhelming majority of the respondents (more than 90%) preferred it to be an independent subject, contrary to the government's decision. This might be construed as 'opposition', something that was sensitive for the teachers, who mostly worked in public schools or government-subsidised private schools. However, others, who might have felt uneasy about expressing a view that could be viewed as opposition, might have decided not to participate at all.

Despite the sensitivity, concern for language shift that affects the Javanese language could be inferred from several respondents' comments, for example:

*... generasi muda sudah mulai tidak dapat berbahasa Jawa .... bahasa Jawa ... nasibnya sangat tragis, terpinggirkan, tersingkirkan.*

[... the younger generation could not use the Javanese language any more ... the Javanese language ... its fate is very tragic, marginalised, shoved aside].

In this respect, the urgency for this study, as a possible contribution to address the concern and generate further discussion on measures for heritage language conservation, might be inferred from another respondent's comment:

*Penelitian tentang Bahasa Jawa ini sangat bagus dan perlu dukungan dari berbagai pihak. Dengan penelitian ini sebagai salah satu cara 'nguri-uri kabudayan Jawi' agar tidak punah ....*

[This study on the Javanese language is excellent and needs support from various parties. With the study as one means to ‘conserve the Javanese culture’ so that it would not be extinct ....]

It is acknowledged that the heritage language teachers, in answering the questionnaire, may have introduced a certain bias toward heritage language conservation. However, it is to be noted that their views, which constitute the Micro Perspective for the study, are parallel or congruent with what is revealed by the Macro Perspectives. The teachers might not be perceived as the group with the most theoretical knowledge in heritage language conservation; however, their similarity of insight with that which is revealed by the Macro Perspectives indicates that their views are worthy of consideration.

From another angle, the sensitivity may also account for the fact that, despite the existence of heritage language researchers and teachers in various educational institutions, there has been no study that analyses or evaluates the Indonesian situation with respect to the ILPP to date. In this respect, this study was undertaken in the hope that the topic of the ILPP would not constitute a ‘taboo’ or a ‘sacred cow’, but instead as one in which questions, analysis, or evaluation is considered appropriate.

It might be fitting to conclude this section by quoting the following reflection from Abdullah (2006):

*Tidak ada salahnya menuntut penggunaan bahasa persatuan karena masyarakat yang beragam membutuhkan alat komunikasi yang lebih universal, tetapi keberadaan bahasa daerah (hendaknya) tidak dinafikan, apalagi dibiarkan mati perlahan-lahan ....* (p. 13).

[There is nothing wrong with the demand for using the unity language (the Indonesian language) because a heterogeneous society requires a more universal means of communication; however, this should not mean that heritage languages are ignored or, worse, *left to slowly die* ....] (p.13) (Italics added).

Finally, this study does not offer a single panacea in the search for an effective ILPP for heritage languages. Therefore, further studies are proposed.

#### 6.4. Recommendations for further studies

Given the dearth of studies involving the Indonesian LPP and the users' view, further studies are essential in order to find more effective ways to conserve Indonesian heritage languages.

##### 1. Law related studies

The Indonesian Constitution does not provide guidelines as to how to conserve heritage languages. This is in striking contrast to the general human rights in which the Constitution provides more detailed guidelines. In this respect, a study could be carried out on whether there is a need for amendments in order to provide the detailed guidelines for heritage language conservation, just as the Indian Constitution has been amended several times to accommodate heritage language protection.

Another study could be performed to pave the way for the amendment for existing language-related laws or to introduce new laws for heritage language conservation, as Setyawan (2011) suggests, or to incorporate heritage language conservation measures in the forthcoming Cultural Law. Still another study could be performed to explore the views of key persons with access to and/or influence to policy formulations, such as the officers of *Pusat Bahasa* and the lawmakers in the relevant committees in the national and regional parliaments.

##### 2. Exploration from other users groups

There are numerous heritage languages in Indonesia. The major ones have millions of users. While the minor ones have fewer than 1 million users, they also constitute Indonesian cultural heritage. In order to determine a more common perspective, further investigations need to be made to explore the preferences and views of these users. Even within the Javanese language users, there is a need to explore the preferences of various other user groups (such as the professionals, the community leaders, and the general public). Exploration is also needed from the Javanese language users from outside the heartland areas.

##### 3. Experimentation

Small scale experimentation could be performed to determine whether heritage language conservation measures that have been found to have been effective in other countries, like *Kohanga* in New Zealand, could be used in Indonesia. Experiments could also be conducted with the use of heritage languages as the

medium of instruction, either in immersion style or bilingual style, in some selected schools with appropriate evaluation of their outcomes. Another experiment may involve the development of language reserves on a small scale, such as at the village level.

## REFERENCES

The References comprises two parts: General References and Laws

### General References

- Abdelhay, A. (2007). *The politics of language planning in Sudan: The case of the Naivasha language policy*. (PhD dissertation), University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh, UK.
- Abdullah, I. (1999). Pendahuluan: Bahasa daerah menjelang abad ke-21 [Introduction: The heritage languages on the eve of the 21st century]. In I. Abdullah (Ed.), *Bahasa Nusantara: Posisi dan penggunaannya menjelang abad ke 21* [The Nusantara languages: Their positions and uses on the eve of 21st century] (pp. 1-31). Yogyakarta, Indonesia: Pustaka Pelajar.
- Abdullah, I. (2006). Tantangan multikulturalisme dalam pembangunan [The challenge of multiculturalism in development]. *Etnovisi*, 2(1), 12-21. <http://repository.usu.ac.id/handle/123456789/15287>
- Adisumarto, M. (1976). *Teknik-teknik pembinaan bahasa daerah* [The techniques for heritage language conservation]. Paper presented at the Seminar Bahasa Daerah [Heritage Language Conference], Yogyakarta, Indonesia.
- Ager, D. (1997). *Language, community and the state*. Exeter, UK: Intellect.
- Alamsyah, T., Taib, Rostina, Azwardi, & Idham, M. (2011). Pemilihan bahasa Indonesia sebagai bahasa pertama dalam keluarga masyarakat Aceh penutur bahasa Aceh di Nanggroe Aceh Darussalam [The choice of Indonesian as the children's first language in the Acehnese families who comprise Acehnese native speakers in Nanggroe Aceh Darussalam] *Jurnal Pendidikan Bahasa Melayu* [Malay Language Journal Education (MyLEJ)] (Vol. 1, pp. 31-44).
- Alip, F. B. (1993). *Social norms and variation in language choice: The case of English speaking students in Java*. (Doctor of Arts dissertation), State University of New York, Stony Brook, NY.
- Alisyahbana, S.T. (2003). Language planning in Indonesia. In R. B. Kaplan & R. B. Baldauf, Jr. (Eds.), *Language and language-in-education planning in the Pacific basin* (pp. 83-102). Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Kluwer Academic Publishers.
- Amery, R. (2001). Language planning and language revival. *Current Issues in Language Planning*, 2(2-3), 141-221. doi: 10.1080/14664200108668023
- Annamalai, E. (2003). Reflections on a language policy for multilingualism. *Language Policy*, 2(2), 113-132. doi: 10.1023/a:1024689217801

- Anonymous. (2011). Sumpah Pemuda, baru dikenal tahun 1954 di Medan [Youth Pledge, only known in 1954 in Medan]. Retrieved 12 November, 2013, from <http://bacawawasan.wordpress.com/2011/01/10/sumpah-pemuda-baru-dikenal-tahun-1954-di-medan/>
- Arzoz, X. (2010). Accommodating linguistic difference: Five normative models of language rights. *European Constitutional Law Review*, 6(1), 102-122. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S1574019610100066>
- Asshiddiqie, J. (2008). Perlindungan bahasa daerah berdasarkan UUD 1945 [The protection of heritage languages based on the 1945 Constitution] In Mulyana (Ed.), *Pembelajaran bahasa dan sastra daerah: Dalam kerangka budaya [The instruction of heritage language and culture: In cultural context]*. Yogyakarta, Indonesia: Tiara Wacana.
- Balai Penelitian Bahasa Yogyakarta. (1976). *Seminar bahasa daerah [Heritage language conference]*. Yogyakarta, Indonesia: Balai Penelitian Bahasa Yogyakarta [Yogyakarta Language Research Agency].
- Baldauf, R.B., Jr. (2002). Methodologies for policy and planning. In R. B. Kaplan (Ed.), *The Oxford handbook of applied linguistics* (pp. 391-403). Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Bardach, E. (2012). *A practical guide for policy analysis: The eightfold path to more effective problem solving*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Barrena, A., Idiazabal, I., Juaristi, P., Junyent, C., Ortega, P., & Uranga, B. (2006). The world languages review: Some data. In D. Cunningham, D. E. Ingram & K. Sumbuk (Eds.), *Language diversity in the Pacific: Endangerment and survival* (pp. 15-23). Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Basri, H. (2008). Menuju generasi monolingual di kota Palu: Penggunaan bahasa daerah oleh anak sekolah di kota Palu [Towards a monolingual generation in Palu municipality: The use of heritage languages by the school children in Palu municipality]. *Linguistik Indonesia*, 26(2), 169-182.
- Bautista, M.L.S., & Gonzales, A.B. (2006). Southeast Asian Englishes. In B. B. Kachru, Y. Kachru & C. L. Nelson (Eds.), *The handbook of world Englishes* (pp. 130-144). Malden, MA: Blackwell Publishing.
- Bradley, D. (2012). The science of language policy and planning. In C. A. Chapelle (Ed.), *The encyclopedia of applied linguistics* (pp. 308-310). London, UK: Wiley-Blackwell.
- Brenzinger, M. (1997). Language contact and language displacement. In F. Coulmas (Ed.), *The handbook of sociolinguistics* (pp. 273-284). Oxford, UK: Blackwell.
- Burg, E. (1994). Bahasa Indonesia. *Esperanto U.S.A.*, (1994(1)). <http://donh.best.vwh.net/Languages/burg.html>

- Cartwright, D. (2006). Geolinguistic analysis in language policy. In T. Ricento (Ed.), *An introduction to language policy: Theory and method* (pp. 194-209). Malden, MA: Blackwell Publishing.
- Chynoweth, P. (2008). Legal research. In A. Knight & L. Ruddock (Eds.), *Advanced research methods in the built environment* Oxford, UK: Basil Blackwell.
- Cooper, R. L. (1989). *Language planning and social change*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Coronel-Molina, S. (1999). Functional domains of the Quechua language in Peru: Issues of status planning. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 2(3), 166-180. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/1367005908667687>
- Coulmas, F. (2005). *Sociolinguistics: The study of speakers' choices*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Crystal, D. (2000). *Language death*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Czaja, R., & Blair, J. (1996). *Designing surveys: A guide to decisions and procedures*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Pine Forge Press.
- Dardjowidjojo, S. (2003). *Rampai bahasa, pendidikan, dan budaya: Kumpulan esai. Pengantar oleh Anton Moeliono*. [An anthology of language, education, and culture: A collection of essays. Introduction by Anton Moeliono]. Jakarta, Indonesia: Yayasan Obor.
- Darwis, H.M. (2011). Nasib bahasa daerah di era globalisasi: Peluang dan tantangan [The Fate of heritage languages in the globalization era: Challenge and opportunity]. Paper presented at the Workshop Pelestarian Bahasa Daerah Bugis Makassar [Workshop on the Conservation of Bugis Macassar Heritage Languages], Parepare, Indonesia. <http://repository.unhas.ac.id/bitstream/handle/123456789/652/NASIB%20BAHASA%20DAERAH%20DI%20ERA%20GLOBALISASI.%20Ed.pdf?sequence=1>
- De Bruijn, H., ten Heuvelhof, E. F., & Enserink, B.. (2013). Organizing the policy analysis process. In W. A. H. Thissen & W. E. Walker (Eds.), *Public policy analysis: New developments* (pp. 133-150). New York, NY: Springer.
- Dodds, A. (2013). *Comparative public policy*. Basingstoke: Basingstoke, UK: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Dornyei, Z. (2010). *Questionnaires in second language research: Construction, administration, and processing (2nd ed.)*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Dua, H.R. (1985). *Language planning in India*. New Delhi, India: Harnam Publications.
- Errington, J. (1985). *Language and social change in Java*. Athens, OH: Ohio University.

- Ethnologue. (2014). Ethnologue: Languages of the world. Retrieved 5 June, 2014, from <http://www.ethnologue.com/country/ID/languages>
- Evers, C.W., & Lakomski, G. (1991). *Knowing educational administration: Contemporary methodological controversies in educational administration research*. Oxford, UK: Pergamon Press.
- Fasold, R. W. (1984). *The sociolinguistics of society*. Oxford, UK: Blackwell.
- Ferguson, G. (2006). *Language planning and education* Retrieved from [http://books.google.com.au/books?id=sVdAKNzdGlcC&pg=PA20&dq=ferguson+corpus+planning+2006&hl=en&ei=OyKwTp61LoO4iAea3ZnOAg&sa=X&oi=book\\_result&ct=result&resnum=1&ved=0CC4Q6AEwAA#v=onepage&q&f=false](http://books.google.com.au/books?id=sVdAKNzdGlcC&pg=PA20&dq=ferguson+corpus+planning+2006&hl=en&ei=OyKwTp61LoO4iAea3ZnOAg&sa=X&oi=book_result&ct=result&resnum=1&ved=0CC4Q6AEwAA#v=onepage&q&f=false)
- Fishman, J. A. (1967). Bilingualism with and without diglossia; diglossia with and without bilingualism. *Journal of Social Issues*, 23(2), 29-38. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4560.1967.tb00573.x
- Fishman, J. A. (1971). The impact of nationalisms on language planning: Some comparisons between early twentieth-century Europe and more recent years in South and Southeast Asia. In J. Rubin & B. H. Jernudd (Eds.), *Can language be planned?* Honolulu, HI: The University Press of Hawaii.
- Fishman, J. A. (1972). The relationship between micro-and macro-sociolinguistics in the study of who speaks what language to whom and when. In J. B. Pride & J. Holmes (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics* (pp. 15-32). Harmondsworth, UK: Penguin.
- Fishman, J. A. (1973). Language modernization and planning in comparison with other types of national modernization and planning. *Language in Society*, 2(1), 23-43.
- Fishman, J. A. (1991). *Reversing language shift: Theoretical and empirical foundations of assistance to threatened languages*. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Fishman, J. A. (2001). *Can threatened languages be saved? Reversing language shift, revisited: A 21st century perspective*. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Flick, U. (2002). *An introduction to qualitative research*. London, UK: Sage Publications.
- Foulcher, K. (2000). Sumpah Pemuda: The making and meaning of a symbol of Indonesian nationhood. *Asian Studies Review*, 24(3), 377-410. doi: 10.1111/1467-8403.00083
- Fraenkel, J. R., & Wallen, N. E. (2009). *How to design and evaluate research in education* (9th ed.). New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

- Gadellii, K. E.. (1999). *Language planning: Theory and practice: Evaluation of language planning cases worldwide*. Paris, France: UNESCO.
- Grin, F. (2003). *Language policy evaluation and the European charter for regional or minority languages*. New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Groff, C. (2004). *Status and acquisition planning and linguistic minorities in India*. Paper presented at the Language development, language revitalization and multilingual education in minority communities in Asia, Bangkok, Thailand. [http://www.sil.org/asia/ldc/parallel\\_papers/cynthia\\_groff.pdf](http://www.sil.org/asia/ldc/parallel_papers/cynthia_groff.pdf)
- Gunarwan,A. (2002). *The unstable state of the Indonesian-Javanese bilingualism: Evidence from language use in the home domain*. Paper presented at the II Simposio Internacional sobre o Bilinguismo [Second University of Vigo International Symposium on Bilingualism], Vigo. <http://webs.uvigo.es/ssl/actas2002/04/08.%20Asim%20Gunarwan.pdf>
- Gunarwan, A. (2006). Kasus-kasus pergeseran bahasa daerah: Akibat persaingan dengan bahasa Indonesia? [The cases of shift in regional languages: A consequence of competition with the Indonesian language?]. *Linguistik Indonesia*, 24(1), 95-113.
- Halim, A. (1976). Fungsi dan kedudukan Bahasa Indonesia [The function and role of Bahasa Indonesia]. In A. Halim (Ed.), *Politik Bahasa Nasional* [The national language policy] [Vols 1-2]. Jakarta, Indonesia: Pusat Pembinaan dan Pengembangan Bahasa Departemen Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan [The Centre for the Supervision and Development of Language of the Department of Education and Culture].
- Harjawiya, H, & Supriya, Th. (2001). *Kamus unggah-ungguh basa Jawa* [The Javanese language style dictionary]. Yogyakarta, Indonesia: Kanisius.
- Haugen, E. (1972). *The ecology of language: Essays by Einar Haugen: Selected and introduced by Anwar S. Dill*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.
- Hoffman, C. (1991). *An introduction to bilingualism*. London, UK: Longman.
- Hornberger, N. H. (1994). Literacy and language planning. *Language and Education*, 8(1-2), 75-86. doi: 10.1080/09500789409541380
- Howlett, M., & Ramesh, M. (1995). *Studying public policy: Policy cycles and policy subsystems*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Hutchinson, T. C. (2010). *Researching and writing in the law* (3 ed.). Sydney, Australia: Thomson Reuters.
- Hutchinson, T. C., & Duncan, N. (2012). Defining and describing what we do: Doctrinal legal research. *Deakin Law Review*, 17(1), 83-119.
- Huws, C. (2006). The Welsh Language Act 1993: A measure of success? *Language Policy*, 5(2), 141-160. doi: 10.1007/s10993-006-9000-0

- Joseph, J.E. (2006). *Language and politics*. Edinburgh, UK: Edinburgh University Press.
- Judd, E. (1992). Language-in-education policy and planning. In W. Grabe & R. B. Kaplan (Eds.), *Introduction to Applied Linguistics* (pp. 169-188). Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Kaplan, R. B., & Baldauf, R. D. (1997). *Language planning from practice to theory*. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Kaplan, R. B., & Baldauf, R. B. (2003). *Language and language-in-education planning in the Pacific Basin*. Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Kluwer Academic Publishers.
- Kennedy, C. (1982). Language planning. *Language Teaching*, 15(4), 264-284.
- Kloss, H. (1969). Research possibilities on group bilingualism (pp. iv+91). Quebec, Canada: International Centre for Research on Bilingualism.
- Kloss, H. (1971). Language rights of immigrant groups. *International Migration Review* (5), 250-268.
- Kurniasih, Y.K. (2005). *Gender, class and language preference: A case study in Yogyakarta*. Paper presented at the 2005 Conference of the Australian Linguistic Society, Monash University, Melbourne, Australia.
- Lauder, A. (2008). The status and function of English in Indonesia: A review of key factors. *Makara, Sosial Humaniora*, 12(1), 9-10.
- Lewis, M. P. & Simons, G. F. (2009). *Assessing endangerment: Expanding Fishman's GIDS*. Retrieved from [http://www.lingv.ro/resources/scm\\_images/RRL-02-2010-Lewis.pdf](http://www.lingv.ro/resources/scm_images/RRL-02-2010-Lewis.pdf)
- Listyorini, A. (2008). Persepsi mahasiswa terhadap bahasa Indonesia dan bahasa Jawa: Implikasinya pada penggunaan bahasa [The students' perception towards the Indonesian and the Javanese languages: Its implication to language use]. Yogyakarta, Indonesia: Universitas Negeri Yogyakarta [Yogyakarta State University].
- Macaryus, S. (2008). Aneka problem pembelajaran bahasa daerah [Various problems in the heritage language instruction] In Mulyana (Ed.), *Pembelajaran bahasa dan sastra daerah [Heritage language and literature instruction]* (pp. 121-136). Yogyakarta, Indonesia: Tiara Wacana.
- Mardikantoro, H. B. (2007). Pergeseran bahasa Jawa dalam ranah keluarga pada masyarakat multibahasa di wilayah kabupaten Brebes [The Javanese language shift in the family domain among the multilingual community in the region of Brebes regency]. *Humaniora*, 19(1), 43-51.
- Mayor, F., & Binde, J. (2001). *The world ahead: Our future in the making*. Dhaka, Bangladesh: UPL.

- Miller, F. A., & Alvarado, K. (2005). Incorporating documents into qualitative nursing research. *Journal of Nursing Scholarship*, 37(4), 348-353.
- Moeliono, A. M. (1986). *Language development and cultivation: Alternative approaches in language planning* (K. Ikranagara, Trans.). Canberra, Australia: The Australian National University.
- Montolalu, L. R., & Suryadinata, L. (2007). National language and nation-building: The case of Bahasa Indonesia. In L. H. Guan & L. Suryadinata (Eds.), *Language, nation and development in Southeast Asia* (pp. 39-50). Singapore, Sing.: Institute of Southeast Asian Studies.
- Moriyama, M. (2008). Revival of the Sundanese language?: Some preliminary views on a regional language in Indonesia *Academia Literature and Language Guide* (83), 211-226.
- MPR. (2012). J.J. Rizal: Bahasa, pilar penting yang terlupakan. Retrieved 1 February, 2014, from <http://www.mpr.go.id/berita/read/2012/10/30/11344/jj-rizal-bahasa-pilar-penting-yang-terlupakan>
- Mufwene, S. S. (2002). Colonisation, globalisation, and the future of languages in the twenty-first century. *International Journal on Multicultural Societies (IJMS)*, 4(2), 162-193.
- Muhlhauser, P. (1996). *Linguistic ecology: Language change and linguistic imperialism in the Pacific region*. London, UK: Routledge.
- Murwamphida, S. C. (2008). *Effects of language policy in South Africa with special reference to Tshivenda: Exploring the interface between policy and practice*. (PhD dissertation), University of Limpopo, Limpopo, South Africa.
- Musgrave, S. (2010, forthcoming). Language shift and language maintenance in Indonesia.
- Nababan, P.W.J. (1991). Language in education: The case of Indonesia. *International Review of Education*, 37(1), 115-131.
- Nelde, P. H., Labrie, N., & Williams, C. H. (1992). The principles of territoriality and personality in the solution of linguistic conflicts. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 13(5), 387-406. doi: 10.1080/01434632.1992.9994504
- Neustupny, J.V. (1974). Basic types of treatment of language problems. In J. A. Fishman (Ed.), *Advances in language planning* (pp. 37-48). The Hague, The Netherlands: Mouton.
- Ngadiman. (2011). *Tingkat tutur bahasa Jawa wujud kesantunan manusia Jawa (dulu dan sekarang)* [The Javanese language speech levels as a manifestation of Javanese ethics (then and now)]. Paper presented at the Kongres Bahasa Jawa 5 [The Fifth Javanese Language Congress], Surabaya, Indonesia. <http://ki-demang.com/kbj5/index.php/makalah-kunci/1132-09-tingkat-tutur-bahasa-jawa-wujud-kesantunan-manusia-jawa>

- Nurhayati, E. (2010). Model pemertahanan bahasa Jawa provinsi Daerah Istimewa Yogyakarta [The model for the conservation of the Javanese language in the province of Special Area of Yogyakarta]. Yogyakarta, Indonesia: Universitas Negeri Yogyakarta [Yogyakarta State University].
- Paauw, S. (2009). One land, one nation, one language: An analysis of Indonesia's national language policy. In H. Lehnert-Le-Houillier & A. B. Fine (Eds.), *University of Rochester working papers in the language sciences* (Vol. 5, pp. 2-16). Rochester, NY: University of Rochester.
- Parsons, D. W. (1995). *Public policy: An introduction to the theory and practice of policy analysis*. Brookfield, VT: Edward Elgar
- Patten, A., and Kymlicka, W. (2003). Introduction: Language rights and political theory: Context, issue, and approaches. In W. Kymlicka & A. Patten (Eds.), *Language rights and political theory* (pp. 1-51). Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Patten, A. (2009). The justification of minority language rights. *Journal of Political Philosophy*, 17(1), 102-128. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-9760.2008.00321.x
- Patton, M.Q. (2012). *Qualitative research & evaluation method* (Vol. 3). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Paulston, C. B. (1994). *Linguistic minorities in multilingual settings: Implications for language policies*. Amsterdam, The Netherlands: John Benjamins.
- Paulston, C.B. (1997). Language policies and language rights. *Annual Review of Anthropology*, 26(1), 73-85. doi: doi:10.1146/annurev.anthro.26.1.73
- Perez, D. C. (2010). Heritage language instruction in the 21st century. *New Waves - Educational Research & Development*, 13(1), 70-82. <http://www.caerda.org/journal/index.php/newwaves/article/view/41>
- Phillipson, R. (1992). *Linguistic imperialism*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Pikiran-Rakyat. (2010). Bahasa Sunda terancam punah [The Sundanese language is endangered], News, *Pikiran Rakyat*. Retrieved from <http://www.pikiran-rakyat.com/node/107687>
- Poedjosoedarmo, S. (1968). *Javanese speech levels*. (PhD dissertation), Southeast Asia Program, Cornell University. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/3350711> (6)
- Poedjosoedarmo, S. (1976). *Keadaan bahasa-bahasa daerah [The condition of heritage languages]*. Paper presented at the Seminar Bahasa Daerah [Conference on heritage languages], Yogyakarta, Indonesia.
- Pujiastuti, S, Surono, & Maziyah, S. (2008). Penentuan faktor keengganan keluarga Jawa dalam bertutur Jawa untuk memperoleh model pembinaan dan

pelestarian bahasa Jawa pada ranah keluarga [The exploration of the reluctancy factor to speak Javanese among Javanese families in order to obtain a model for the cultivation and conservation of the Javanese language in the family domain]. Semarang, Indonesia: Universitas Diponegoro.

Quinn, G. (2011). Teaching Javanese respect usage to foreign learners. *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*, 9(Supplement 1), 362-370. Retrieved from <http://e-flt.nus.edu.sg/v8s12011/quinn.pdf>

Rubin, J. & Jernudd, B. H. (1970). Introduction: Language planning as an element in modernization. In J. Rubin & B. H. Jernudd (Eds.), *Can language be planned? Sociolinguistic theory and practice for developing nations*. Schiffman, H. F. (1996). *Linguistic culture and language policy*. New York, NY: Routledge.

Setyawan, A. (2011). *Bahasa daerah dalam perspektif kebudayaan dan sosiolinguistik: Peran dan pengaruhnya dalam pergeseran dan pemertahanan bahasa* [Heritage languages in cultural and sociolinguistic perspectives: Their impacts on language shift and maintenance]. International Seminar "Language Maintenance and Shift". Diponegoro University. Semarang, Indonesia.

Shaeffer, S. (2004). *Language development and language revitalization: An educational imperative in Asia*. Paper presented at the Language development, Language Revitalization and Multilingual Education in Minority Communities in Asia, Bangkok, Thailand. <http://www.sil.org/asia/ldc>

Skutnabb-Kangas, T. (2000). *Language genocide in education - or worldwide diversity and human rights*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Smolicz, J.J. (2002). Core values and nation-states. In L. Wei, J. M. Dewaele & A. Housen (Eds.), *Opportunities and challenges of bilingualism*. Berlin, Germany: Mouton de Gruyter.

Sobarna, C. (2007). Bahasa Sunda sudah di ambang pintu kematiankah? [Is the Sundanese language on the verge of death?]. *Makara Sosial Humaniora*, 11(1), 13-17. <http://journal.ui.ac.id/index.php/humanities/article/viewFile/39/35>

Spolsky, B. (2004). *Language policy*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Sridhar, K. K. (1996). Language in education: Minorities and multilingualism in India. *International Review of Education / Internationale Zeitschrift für Erziehungswissenschaft / Revue Internationale de l'Education*, 42(4), 327-347. doi: 10.2307/3444906

Stewart, W. A. (1968). A sociolinguistic typology for describing national multilingualism. In J. A. Fishman (Ed.), *Readings in the sociology of language* (pp. 531-545). The Hague, The Netherlands: Mouton.

- Strubell, M. (2001). Catalan a decade later. In J. A. Fishman (Ed.), *Can threatened languages be saved?* (pp. 260-283). Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Subroto, H.D. Edi, Dwiraharjo, Maryono, & Setiawan, B. (2007). Model pelestarian dan pengembangan kemampuan berbahasa Jawa krama di kalangan generasi muda wilayah Surakarta dan sekitarnya [The model for the conservation and development of Javanese fluency among the young generation in the region of Surakarta and neighbouring area]: Laporan tahun pertama [First year report]. Surakarta, Indonesia: Universitas Sebelas Maret.
- Subroto, H.D. E., Dwiraharjo, Maryono, & Setiawan, B. (2008). Model pelestarian dan pengembangan kemampuan berbahasa Jawa krama di kalangan generasi muda wilayah Surakarta dan sekitarnya [The model for the conservation and development of Javanese fluency among the young generation in the region of Surakarta and neighbouring area]: Laporan tahun kedua [Second year report]. Surakarta, Indonesia: Universitas Sebelas Maret.
- Sumarsana, & Partana, Paina. (2002). *Sosiolinguistik* [Sociolinguistics]. Yogyakarta, Indonesia: Sabda-Pustaka Pelajar.
- Sumukti, Rumantoro Hadi. (1971). *Javanese morphology and morphophonemics*. (PhD dissertation), Cornell University, Ithaca, NY.
- Suwarno, B. (2006). *Multilingualism, competitive power, and the forthcoming language law*. Paper presented at the 54th International TEFLIN Conference, Salatiga, Indonesia.
- Taliawo, R. G. (2013). Ketika bahasa Indonesia menjajah [When the Indonesian language colonises]. Retrieved from <http://sosbud.kompasiana.com/2013/12/13/ketika-bahasa-indonesia-menjajah-616045.html>
- Thissen, Wil A.H., & Walker, Warren E. (Eds.). (2013). *Public policy analysis: New developments*. New York, NY: Springer.
- Toffler, A. (1990). *Power shift: Knowledge, wealth, and violence at the edge of the 21st century*. New York, NY: Bantam Books.
- Tollefson, J. W. (1991). *Planning language, planning inequality: Language policy in the community*. London, UK: Longman.
- UNESCO (2002). *UNESCO declaration on cultural diversity*. Paris, France: UNESCO.
- Valdez, G. (2005). Bilingualism, heritage language learners, and SLA research: Opportunities lost or seized? *The Modern Language Journal*, 89(3), 410-426. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.2005.00314.x
- Van Parijs, P. (2010). Linguistic justice and the territorial imperative. *Critical Review of International Social and Political Philosophy*, 13(1), 181-202. doi: 10.1080/13698230903326323

- Virna, P. (2013). LIPI: Hanya sembilan bahasa yang akan bertahan [LIPI: Only nine languages will survive]. Retrieved 2 February 2014, from [www.antaraneews.com/berita/408903/lipi-hanya-semilan-bahasa-yang-akan-bertahan](http://www.antaraneews.com/berita/408903/lipi-hanya-semilan-bahasa-yang-akan-bertahan)
- Weiss, C.H. (1998). *Evaluation: Methods for studying programs and policies* (Vol. 2). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Van Parijs, P. (2010). Linguistic justice and the territorial imperative. *Critical Review of International Social and Political Philosophy*, 13(1), 181-202. doi: 10.1080/13698230903326323
- Wibawa, S. (2011). Bahasa dan sastra Jawa sebagai sumber pendidikan karakter dan implementasinya dalam pendidikan [The Javanese language and literature as source for character education and its implementation in education]. Paper presented at the Kongres Bahasa Jawa 5 [The Fifth Javanese Language Congress], Surabaya, Indonesia. <http://ki-demang.com/kbj5/index.php/makalah-komisi-a/1139-05-bahasa-dan-sastra-jawa-sebagai-sumber-pendidikan-karakter>
- Wilian, S. (2010). Pemertahanan bahasa dan kestabilan kedwibahasaan pada penutur bahasa Sasak di Lombok [The language conservation and bilingual stability among Sasak language speakers in Lombok]. *Linguistik Indonesia*, 28(1), 23-39
- Yadnya, I. B. P. (2003). *Revitalisasi Bahasa Daerah (Bali) di Tengah Persaingan Bahasa Nasional, Daerah, dan Asing untuk Memperkuat Ketahanan Budaya* [The Revitalization of heritage language [Balinese] in the competition among national, heritage, and foreign languages to strengthen cultural resilience]. Paper presented at the Kongres Bahasa Indonesia VIII [The 8th Indonesian Language Congress], Jakarta, Indonesia. <http://staff.unud.ac.id/~putrayadnya/wp-content/uploads/2009/06/paper-kongres.pdf>
- Ytsma, J. (2007). Language use and language attitude in Friesland. In D. Lasagabaster & A. Huguet (Eds.), *Multilingualism in Europea Bilingual Contexts: Language use and attitudes*. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.

## Laws

The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996).

The Constitution of India (2007).

*Undang-undang Dasar Negara Republik Indonesia Tahun 1945, or Undang-undang Dasar 1945, (setelah amandemen)* [The Constitution of the State of the Republic of Indonesia Year 1945, or The 1945 Constitution (after amendment)] (2002).

*Undang-Undang Republik Indonesia Nomor 20 Tahun 2003 tentang Sistem Pendidikan Nasional* [The Law of the Republic of Indonesia Number 20 Year 2003 on the National Educational System].

*Undang-Undang Republik Indonesia Nomor 32 Tahun 2004 tentang Pemerintahan Daerah* [The Law of the Republic of Indonesia Number 32 Year 2004 on Regional Government].

*Undang-undang Republik Indonesia Nomor 24 Tahun 2009 tentang Bendera, Bahasa, dan Lambang Negara, serta Lagu Kebangsaan* [The Law of the Republic of Indonesia Number 24 Year 2009 on State Flag, Language, and Symbol, and National Hymn].

*Peraturan Menteri Dalam Negeri Nomor 40 Tahun 2007 tentang Pedoman bagi Kepala Daerah dalam Pelestarian dan Pengembangan Bahasa Negara dan Bahasa Daerah* [The Interior Minister Regulation Number 40 Year 2007 on the Guideline for the Regional Heads in the Conservation and Cultivation of the State Language and Heritage Languages].

*Surat Edaran Gubernur Daerah Istimewa Yogyakarta No. 423.5/0912 Tahun 2005 tentang Penerapan Kurikulum Muatan Lokal Bahasa Jawa* [The Circular from the Governor of Yogyakarta Special Area No. 423.5/0912 Year 2005 on the Implementation of Javanese Language Local Content Curriculum].

*Instruksi Gubernur Daerah Istimewa Yogyakarta Nomor 1/Instr/2009 tentang Penggunaan Bahasa Jawa pada Hari Tertentu di Lingkungan Provinsi Daerah Istimewa Yogyakarta* [The Decree of the Governor of Yogyakarta Special Area Number 1/Instr/2009 on the Use of the Javanese Language on Certain Day within Yogyakarta Special Area Province].

Every reasonable effort has been made to acknowledge the owners of copyright material. I would be pleased to hear from any copyright owner who has been omitted or incorrectly acknowledged.

## APPENDICES

### Appendices Overview

The appendices are grouped into several parts.

#### Part 1

Part 1 deals with the instrument (Questionnaire). It comprises the following appendices:

- Appendix 1: Questionnaire Items and their Legal Reference
- Appendix 2: Questionnaire Items and their Literature Review Reference
- Appendix 3: Survey Instrument: Questionnaire (English Version)
- Appendix 4: Survey Instrument: Questionnaire (Indonesian Version)

#### Part 2

Part 2 deals with additional and detailed information of the chapters in the body of the thesis. It includes the following appendices:

- Appendix 5: Additional information for Chapter 2 and other chapters. It presents Language Shift Indicators (GIDS and EGIDS)
- Appendix 6: Additional Information for Chapter 3, Section 3.1. The Study's Approach
- Appendix 7: Additional Information for Chapter 3, Section 3.2.2.4. It presents the use of logic in analysing legal texts
- Appendix 8: Additional information for Chapter 3, Section 3.3.1. It presents a detailed rationale for the sampling of the respondents of the questionnaire
- Appendix 9: Additional information for Chapter 3, Section 3.3.1.3. It conveys the outline of questionnaire refinement
- Appendix 10: Detailed information for Chapter 4, Section 4.1. It presents the original articles and verses of language-related laws, in Indonesian, and their corresponding translations in English
- Appendix 11: Additional information for Chapter 4, Section 4.2. It shows an example of data analysis for the respondents' answers to the *multiple choice parts* of the questionnaire

Appendix 12: Detailed information for Chapter 4, Section 4.2. It reveals detailed distribution of respondents' answers to the *multiple choice parts* of the questionnaire

Appendix 13: Additional information for Chapter 4, Section 4.2. It shows an example of analysis of respondents' Answers to the *open parts* of the questionnaire

Appendix 14: Detailed information for Chapter 4, Section 4.2. It reveals the summary analysis of respondents' answers to the open parts of the questionnaire, plus examples of respondents' answers to on their knowledge of Javanese manuals

Appendix 15: Additional information for Chapter 4, Section 4.2. and other chapters. It presents the summary analysis of respondents' *comments*

### **Part 3 Miscellaneous**

Part 3 deals with administrative documents and consists of the following appendices.

Appendix 16: Information for participants and consent forms, English version

Appendix 17: Information for participants and consent forms, Indonesian version

There is also an additional appendix

Appendix 18: Some notes on the Javanese language

## Appendix 1 Questionnaire Items and their Legal References

Item no.	Law/Article/Verse	Wording		Regulatory status for HL (Heritage Language)
		<b>STATUS PLANNING</b>		
1.a., 1.a.1., 1.a.2., 1.b.,1.b.1., 1.b.2., 2, 2.1., 2.2.	U24/25/3	The <b>Indonesian language</b> as the country's <b>official language</b> ...	RP	The use of HL as an official language is RP (regulated but prohibited)
	U24/30/-	The use of <b>Indonesian language</b> is <b>obligatory</b> in the <b>service of public administration</b> in governmental institutions	RP	The use of HL in public service is RP (regulated but prohibited)
	U24/33/1	The use of <b>Indonesian language</b> is <b>obligatory</b> in <b>official communication</b> in governmental and private <b>workplace environments</b> .	RP	The use of HL as an official language is RP (regulated but prohibited)
	Y1	Instruction to (various regional heads and the heads of government institutions within Yogyakarta province) to: Facilitate the <b>use of the Javanese language</b> within their work environment on <b>every Saturday</b> during work hours	RC, limited	The use of Javanese in public environment is regulated and compulsory, but only on Saturday and only on oral communication

**Appendix 1 (Continued) Questionnaire Items and their Legal References**

Item no.	Law/Article/Verse	Wording		Regulatory status for HL (Heritage Language)
		<b>STATUS PLANNING (CONTINUED)</b>		
3, 3.1., 3.2.	U24/36/3	The use of <b>Indonesian language</b> is <b>obligatory</b> for the names of buildings ... compounds ... institutions ... organisations ...	RP	The Use of HL for the names of buildings ... compounds ... institutions ... organisations ... is generally prohibited
	U24/38/1	The use <b>of Indonesian languages</b> is <b>obligatory</b> in street signs, street directories, public facilities, posters, and other information media that comprise public service.	RP	The use of HL for public signage is generally RP (regulated and prohibited)
4, 4.1., 4.2.	U24/25/2	The <b>Indonesian language</b> as <b>the country's official language</b> ... functions as ... the development and utilization of <b>science, technology</b>	RP	The use of HL for science and technology is RP (regulated and prohibited)
5, 5.1., 5.2.	None		NR	The establishment of Heritage language reserve area is not regulated
6, 6.1., 6.2.	None		NR	The use of the Javanese language in private domain - household is NR (Not regulated)
7, 7.1., 7.2.	None		NR	The use of the Javanese language in private domain - neighbourhood is NR (Not regulated)

**Appendix 1 (Continued) Questionnaire Items and their Legal References**

<b>Item no.</b>	<b>Law/Article/ Verse</b>	<b>Wording</b>		<b>Regulatory status for HL (Heritage Language)</b>
		<b>ACQUISITION PLANNING</b>		
8, 8.1., 8.2., 8.3., 8.4.	U20/37/1	<b>Secondary and primary education curricula should include:</b> ... j. local content	RO	At the <b>national level</b> , the instruction of HL at elementary and junior and senior secondary school levels is RO ( <b>regulated</b> but <b>optional</b> ), as it is included in the local content, which is open to interpretation as to whether it should constitute HL or other subjects.
	Y 423.5	The <b>Javanese language</b> ... as an <b>obligatory local content</b> for the <b>elementary, junior secondary, senior secondary, and vocational levels</b> .	RC	At Yogyakarta level, the instruction of Javanese HL at elementary and junior and secondary school levels is RC ( <b>regulated</b> and <b>compulsory</b> )
9, 9.1., 9.2.	U24/29/1	The use of <b>Indonesian language is obligatory as the medium of instruction in national education</b>	RP	The use of HL as the medium of instruction is RP (regulated but prohibited)
	U20/33/1	The <b>Indonesian language</b> as the official language <b>serves as the medium of instruction in national education.</b> A heritage language could be used as the medium of instruction in the early years of education ... the first and second years of elementary level.	RP & RC	The use of HL as the medium of instruction is RP (regulated but prohibited) at all levels except the 1st and 2nd years of elementary level. At 1st and 2nd elementary school, the use of HL is RO (regulated but optional)
10, 10.1, 10.2.	U24/39/1	The use of <b>Indonesian language is obligatory in information through the mass media.</b>	RP	The use of HL in mass media is in general RP (regulated but prohibited)
		The mass media ... <b>could use heritage or foreign languages</b> with special objectives or audience.	RO	The use of HL in the mass media with special objectives or audience is RO (regulated but optional)

**Appendix 1 (Continued) Questionnaire Items and their Legal References**

Item no.	Law/Article/ Verse	Wording		Regulatory status for HL (Heritage Language)
<b>CORPUS PLANNING</b>				
11, 11.1., 11.2.	None		NR	The establishment of heritage language academy is NR (Not regulated)
12, 13, 13.1., 13.2., 13.3., 13.4, 14, 15, 16, 16.1., 16.2.	U24/42/1	<b>The regional governments are obligated to develop, cultivate, and protect heritage languages and cultures</b> in order that they continue <b>to serve their status and function in the community life</b> in line with societal development and to continue as components of Indonesian cultural heritage.	RC	The development, cultivation, and protection of HL to function in the community, by regional governments, under the coordination of a language institution is RC (regulated and compulsory)
	U24/42/2	<b>The said development, cultivation, and protection ... by the regional governments under the coordination of a language institution.</b>	RC	The coordination with a language institution is RC (regulated and compulsory)
	U32/22	... regional autonomy has an obligation: m. conserve socio cultural values	RC, implicit	The regions have an obligation to conserve socio-cultural values, which could be interpreted as consisting heritage language
	M40/2	The regional head has the duty of: b. conserving and developing the heritage language as an element of cultural heritage .... c. socializing the use of heritage language in the context of conserving and developing art and culture in the region.	RC	The development and conservation of HL, in relation to art and culture, is regulated and compulsory

## Appendix 2 Questionnaire Items and their Literature Review References

Item no.	General Reference	Specific Reference
	<b>STATUS PLANNING</b>	
1.a., 1.a.1., 1.a.2., 1.b.,1.b.1., 1.b.2., 2, 2.1., 2.2.	Cooper (1989); Spolsky (2004); Fishman (1991), Stewart (1968)	Annamalai (2003); Barrena et al. (2006); Coronel-Molina, S. (1999), Crystal (2006).
3, 3.1., 3.2.	Cooper (1989); Spolsky (2004); Fishman (1991), Stewart (1968)	Annamalai (2003); Barrena et al. (2006)
4, 4.1., 4.2.	Cooper (1989); Spolsky (2004); Fishman (1991), Stewart (1968)	Crystal (2000)
5, 5.1., 5.2.	Cooper (1989); Spolsky (2004); Fishman (1991), Stewart (1968)	Annamalai (2003); Barrena et al. (2006)
6, 6.1., 6.2.	Cooper (1989); Spolsky (2004); Fishman (1991), Stewart (1968)	Amery (2001); Crystal (2000); Soebroto et al. (2007)
7, 7.1., 7.2.	Cooper (1989); Spolsky (2004); Fishman (1991), Stewart (1968)	Amery (2001); Crystal (2000); Soebroto et al. (2007)

**Appendix 2 (Continued) Questionnaire Items and their Literature Review References**

<b>Item no.</b>	<b>General Reference</b>	<b>Specific Reference</b>
	<b>ACQUISITION PLANNING</b>	
8, 8.1., 8.2., 8.3., 8.4.	Cooper (1989); Spolsky (2004); Fishman (1991), Stewart (1968)	Kaplan & Baldauf (1997); Barrena et al. (2006); Grin (2003)
9, 9.1., 9.2.	Cooper (1989); Spolsky (2004); Fishman (1991), Stewart (1968)	Kaplan & Baldauf (1997); Barrena et al. (2006); Grin (2003)
10, 10.1, 10.2.	Cooper (1989); Spolsky (2004); Fishman (1991), Stewart (1968)	Kaplan & Baldauf (1997); Barrena et al. (2006); Grin (2003)
11, 11.1., 11.2.	Cooper (1989); Spolsky (2004); Fishman (1991), Stewart (1968)	Moeliono (1986)
	<b>CORPUS PLANNING</b>	
12, 13, 13.1., 13.2., 13.3., 13.4, 14, 15, 16, 16.1., 16.2.	Cooper (1989); Spolsky (2004); Fishman (1991), Stewart (1968)	Baldauf (1990); Errington (1985); Poedjosoedarmo (1968); Kloss (1969)

**Appendix 3 Survey Instrument: Questionnaire (English Version)**

**SURVEY INSTRUMENT**

**INDONESIAN TEACHERS' VIEWS ON JAVANESE AS A HERITAGE LANGUAGE AND ON LANGUAGE POLICY**

**INSTRUCTION:**

Dear Participant,

Thank you very much for agreeing to take part in this survey. This questionnaire needs about 30 minutes to complete. It consists of 2 types of multiple choice questions.

**A. Example of multiple choice question/item that requires 1 answer**

This is answered by writing a check sign (**V**) on a suitable answer.

Do you think that Heritage languages constitute a national heritage?

- a. ( **V** ) Yes                      b. (   ) No

**B. Example of multiple choice question/item that has more than 1 possible answer**

It is indicated by (MORE THAN ONE ANSWER IS POSSIBLE). There are two ways to answer:

- a) By writing: a) check sign(s) (**V**) on suitable answer(s) (see **example on the left**), or,  
b) By writing your own answer, using your own sentence or phrase [could be combined with check sign (see **example on the right**)].

What language(s) do you use for daily activities at home?

a.	( <b>V</b> )	The Javanese language
b.	(   )	The Sundanese language
c.	( <b>V</b> )	The Indonesian language
d.	(   )	Other, please mention
		_____

Or

a.	(   )	The Javanese language
b.	(   )	The Sundanese language
c.	( <b>V</b> )	The Indonesian language
d.	( <b>V</b> )	Other, please mention
		<i>The Madura language</i>

**Note: Change on answer**

If you want to change your answer, cross out (≡) your initial answer to indicate that you have changed your mind, and then write a check sign on your intended answer.

Example:

Do you think that Heritage languages constitute a national heritage?

- a. ( ~~V~~ ) Yes                      b. ( **V** ) No

**BLANK PAGE**

**QUESTIONNAIRE**  
**(English Version)**

**1.a.** At present Javanese is not used in formal communications, in addition to the Indonesian language, **in the workplace**.  
Should Javanese be used in formal communications in the workplace?

a. ( ) Yes

b. ( ) No

If you select “Yes” please proceed to number 1.a.1.; if you select “No” please proceed to number 1.a.2.



**1.a.** Why should Javanese be used in formal communications, in addition to  
**1.** the Indonesian language, **in the workplace**?

(MORE THAN ONE ANSWER IS POSSIBLE)

- a. ( ) To improve the prestige of the Javanese language
- b. ( ) To enhance the relevance of the Javanese language to daily activities
- c. ( ) To encourage the use of the Javanese language in other environments (e.g., family and neighbourhood)
- d. ( ) Other, please mention

**1.a.** Why should Javanese not be used in formal communications, in addition  
**2.** to the Indonesian language, **in the workplace**?

(MORE THAN ONE ANSWER IS POSSIBLE)

- a. ( ) There is already the Indonesian language for formal communications in the workplace
- b. ( ) To accommodate the non-Javanese
- c. ( ) To avoid perception of Javanese exclusivism
- d. ( ) Other, please mention

---

**1.b.** At present Javanese is not used in formal communications, in addition to the Indonesian language, in **regional government’s activities** (e.g., regional parliamentary sessions, regional head’s speech and regional bylaws).

Should Javanese be used in formal communications in **regional government’s activities**?

a. ( ) Yes

b. ( ) No

If you select "Yes" please proceed to number 1.b.1.; if you select "No" please proceed to number 1.b.2.



**1.b.1.** Why should Javanese be used in formal communications, in addition to the Indonesian language, **in regional government's activities**?  
(MORE THAN ONE ANSWER IS POSSIBLE)

**1.b.2.** Why should Javanese not be used in formal communications, in addition to the Indonesian language, **in regional government's activities**?  
(MORE THAN ONE ANSWER IS POSSIBLE)

- a. ( ) To improve the prestige of the Javanese language
- b. ( ) To enhance the relevance of the Javanese language to daily activities
- c. ( ) To encourage the use of the Javanese language in other environments (e.g., family and neighbourhood)
- d. ( ) Other, please mention

- a. ( ) There is already the Indonesian language for formal communications in regional government's activities
- b. ( ) To accommodate non-Javanese
- c. ( ) To avoid perception of Javanese exclusivism
- d. ( ) Other, please mention

---



---



---



---

**2.** At present Javanese is not used in formal communications, in addition to the Indonesian language, **in public service areas** (e.g., customer reception lounges, sales counters, etc.).

Should Javanese be used in formal communications in public service areas?

a. ( ) Yes

b. ( ) No

If you select "Yes" please proceed to number 2.1.; if you select "No" please proceed to number 2.2.



**2.1.** Why should Javanese be used in formal communications, in addition to the Indonesian language, **in public service areas**?  
(MORE THAN ONE ANSWER IS POSSIBLE)

**2.2.** Why should Javanese not be used in formal communications, in addition to the Indonesian language, **in public service areas**?  
(MORE THAN ONE ANSWER IS POSSIBLE)

- a. ( ) To improve the prestige of the Javanese language

- a. ( ) There is already the Indonesian language for formal communications in public service areas

- b. ( ) To enhance the relevance of the Javanese language to daily activities
- c. ( ) To facilitate those Javanese people who could not use Indonesian well
- d. ( ) Other, please mention

---



---

- b. ( ) To avoid perception of Javanese exclusivism
- c. ( ) All citizens, including Javanese, should master Indonesian, the national language
- d. ( ) Other, please mention

---



---

3. At present Javanese is not used for **public signage** (e.g., notice and information boards in public venues, names of buildings, names of streets, names of room and desks within offices), in addition to the Indonesian language. Should Javanese be used for public signage?

a. ( ) Yes

b. ( ) No

If you select "Yes" please proceed to number 3.1.; if you select "No" please proceed to number 3.2.



3.1. Why should Javanese be used for **public signage**, in addition to the Indonesian language?

(MORE THAN ONE ANSWER IS POSSIBLE)

- a. ( ) To improve the prestige of the Javanese language
- b. ( ) To enhance the relevance of the Javanese language to daily activities
- c. ( ) To encourage the use of the Javanese language in other environments (e.g., family and neighbourhood)
- d. ( ) To facilitate those Javanese people who could not use Indonesian well
- e. ( ) Other, please mention

3.2. Why should Javanese not be used in **public signage**, in addition to the Indonesian language?

(MORE THAN ONE ANSWER IS POSSIBLE)

- a. ( ) There is no need for duplication as there is already the Indonesian language for public signage
- b. ( ) To accommodate non-Javanese
- c. ( ) To avoid perception of Javanese exclusivism
- d. ( ) All citizens, including Javanese, should master Indonesian, the national language
- e. ( ) Other, please mention

---

---

---

---

4. Should Javanese be developed so that it can more adequately express **science and technology**?

a. ( ) Yes

b. ( ) No

If you select “Yes” please proceed to number 4.1.; if you select “No” please proceed to number 4.2.



4.1. Why should Javanese be developed so that it could more adequately express **science and technology**?

(MORE THAN ONE ANSWER IS POSSIBLE)

- a. ( ) To expand the body of the Javanese language (vocabulary and structure) so that it could be used for discussing any topic
- b. ( ) To enhance its relevance to modern life
- c. ( ) To enhance the prestige of the Javanese language
- d. ( ) Other, please mention

---

---

4.2. Why should not Javanese be developed so that it could more adequately express **science and technology**?

(MORE THAN ONE ANSWER IS POSSIBLE)

- a. ( ) There is already the Indonesian language to express science and technology
- b. ( ) It may be too expensive to develop Javanese to express science and technology
- c. ( ) It is enough for Javanese to be used in limited areas, e.g., literature
- d. ( ) Other, please mention

---

---

5. In order to conserve the Javanese language, is it necessary to **reserve special geographic areas** for the Javanese language?

a.  Yes

b.  No

If you select "Yes" please proceed to number 5.1.; if you select "No" please proceed to number 5.2.



**5.1.** Why should a **reserve area** for the Javanese language be established?  
(MORE THAN ONE ANSWER IS POSSIBLE)

- a.  To create an environment for the better development of the Javanese language
- b.  To provide greater prestige to the Javanese language
- c.  To enhance the relevance of the Javanese language to daily activities
- d.  Other, please write

---

---

**5.2.** Why should a **reserve area** for the Javanese language not be established?  
(MORE THAN ONE ANSWER IS POSSIBLE)

- a.  There are other ways to conserve the Javanese language, e.g., through custom rituals, Javanese gatherings, etc.
- b.  To accommodate the non-Javanese
- c.  It will be too difficult to implement
- d.  Other, please write

---

---

**6.** Should the use of the Javanese language in the **family** be regulated?

a.  Yes

b.  No

If you select "Yes" please proceed to number 6.1; if you select "No" please proceed to number 6.2.



**6.1.** Why should the use of Javanese in the **family** be regulated?  
(MORE THAN ONE ANSWER IS POSSIBLE)

- a.  To maintain the continuity of the Javanese language

**6.2.** Why should the use of Javanese in the **family** not be regulated?  
(MORE THAN ONE ANSWER IS POSSIBLE)

- a.  The use of language in the family should be left to the

- between generations
- b.  To provide an environment for the children to begin to learn the Javanese language
  - c.  To cultivate respect for Javanese among younger generation
  - d.  Other, please write

---



---

- family and thus does not need a regulation
- b.  There is no need to continue using the Javanese language in the family if the family do not want to
  - c.  The learning of the Javanese language could be done outside the family (e.g., in school)
  - d.  Other, please write

---



---

7. Should the use of Javanese among community members in the **neighbourhood** (RT, or *Rukun Tetangga*) be regulated?

a.  Yes

b.  No

If you select “Yes” please proceed to number 7.1.; if you select “No” please proceed to number 7.2.



**7.1.** Why should the use of Javanese among community members in the **neighbourhood** be regulated?

(MORE THAN ONE ANSWER IS POSSIBLE)

- a.  To maintain the Javanese language community
- b.  To provide a wider environment for children to learn the Javanese language
- c.  To provide an environment for the non-Javanese to learn the Javanese language
- d.  Other, please mention

---

**7.2.** Why should the use of the Javanese language among community members in the **neighbourhood** not be regulated?

(MORE THAN ONE ANSWER IS POSSIBLE)

- a.  There is no need to maintain the Javanese language community if community members do not want to
- b.  The choice of language in the neighbourhood should be left to community members and thus does not need a regulation
- c.  To accommodate the non-Javanese
- d.  Other, please mention

---

---

**8. Which option would you choose for teaching Javanese at school?**

a. ( ) As a separate subject

b. ( ) Integrated to another subject

If you select (a) please proceed to number 8.1, then 8.3; ----- if you select (b) please proceed to number 8.2., then 8.4.

**8.1.**



**8.1. Why should Javanese be taught as a separate subject?**

- a. ( ) A regional autonomy could empower an autonomous region to introduce Javanese as a subject in schools
  - b. ( ) It gives Javanese an independent subject, equal to other subjects, and thus more effective to teach
  - c. ( ) To give greater motivation for students in learning Javanese
  - d. ( ) Other, please write
- 
- 

**8.3.**



**8.3. As you think that Javanese should be taught as a separate subject, at what level(s) should Javanese be taught?**

- a. i. ( ) Yes    ii. ( ) No    Kindergarten
  
- b. i. ( ) Yes    ii. ( ) No    Grades 1, 2 of elementary level

**8.2.**



**8.2. Why should Javanese be taught in integration with another subject?**

- a. ( ) If the authority decides to do so, teachers have no choice but to adhere to it
  - b. ( ) It could be used as a kind of immersion program in Javanese
  - c. ( ) The teachers could learn to integrate content with language
  - d. ( ) Other, please write
- 
- 

**8.4.**



**8.4. As you think that Javanese should be taught in integration with another subject, at what level(s) should Javanese be taught?**

- a. i. ( ) Yes    ii. ( ) No    Kindergarten
  
- b. i. ( ) Yes    ii. ( ) No    Grades 1, 2 of elementary level



10. At present, Javanese is not used in general **mass media**.  
Should Javanese be used in general mass media?

a. ( ) Yes

b. ( ) No

If you select “Yes” please proceed to number 10.1.; if you select “No” please proceed to number 10.2.



10.1 Why should Javanese be used in general **mass media**?

. (MORE THAN ONE ANSWER IS POSSIBLE)

- a. ( ) To create an environment in which community members could use the Javanese language more frequently
- b. ( ) To improve the relevancy of the Javanese language to daily activities
- c. ( ) To enhance the prestige of the language to community members
- d. ( ) Other, please write

---

---

10.2 Why should Javanese not be used in general **mass media**?

. (MORE THAN ONE ANSWER IS POSSIBLE)

- a. ( ) There is already the Indonesian language for the language of general mass media
- b. ( ) It may be too expensive for the mass media providers (producers/publishers)
- c. ( ) It may not generate sufficient audience
- d. ( ) Other, please write

---

---

11. Is it necessary to establish a Javanese **language academy** (a collection of experts and scholars in Javanese) for guiding the development and use of Javanese language?

a. ( ) Yes

b. ( ) No

If you select “Yes” please proceed to number 11.1; if you select “No” please proceed to number 11.2.



11.1 Why should a Javanese **language academy** be established?

. MORE THAN ONE ANSWER IS POSSIBLE)

- a.  To provide an institution that could guide the development and use of the Javanese language
- b.  To enhance the prestige of the Javanese language
- c.  The experts and scholars are in better position to conserve the Javanese language
- d.  Other, please mention

---



---

11.2 Why should a Javanese **language academy** not be established?

. MORE THAN ONE ANSWER IS POSSIBLE)

- a.  The development and use of the Javanese language should be left to the users, not to experts and scholars
- b.  There is no need to artificially enhance the prestige of the Javanese language through the academy
- c.  The conservation of a Javanese language should be left to the community members, not experts and scholars
- d.  Other, please mention

---



---

12. There are two types of **orthography** to be used for writing in Javanese; i.e. Latin and *Carakan* (Javanese traditional orthography). What type of orthography should be used in the following environments?

a.	Regional government's activities	b.	Workplace	c.	Education
i.	<input type="checkbox"/> Latin only	i.	<input type="checkbox"/> Latin only	i.	<input type="checkbox"/> Latin only
ii.	<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Carakan</i> only	ii.	<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Carakan</i> only	ii.	<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Carakan</i> only
iii.	<input type="checkbox"/> Both Latin and <i>Carakan</i>	iii.	<input type="checkbox"/> Both Latin and <i>Carakan</i>	iii.	<input type="checkbox"/> Both Latin and <i>Carakan</i>

d.	Mass media	e.	Neighbourhood	f.	Family
i.	<input type="checkbox"/> Latin only	i.	<input type="checkbox"/> Latin only	i.	<input type="checkbox"/> Latin only
ii.	<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Carakan</i> only	ii.	<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Carakan</i> only	ii.	<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Carakan</i> only



chief, from child to parent)? (Choose one only)

- i. ( ) High *kromo*                      iii. ( ) High *ngoko*  
ii. ( ) Low *kromo*                      iv. ( ) Low *ngoko*

honoured, the less honoured, equals), without regard to standings.

c. Between equals (e.g. between chiefs, between parents)? (Choose one only)

- i. ( ) High *kromo*                      iii. ( ) High *ngoko*  
ii. ( ) Low *kromo*                      iv. ( ) Low *ngoko*

14. Are you aware of the following **Javanese manuals**?

- a. i. ( ) Yes    i. ( ) No    Orthography manual:  
Balai Bahasa Yogyakarta. 2006. *Pedoman umum ejaan bahasa Jawa yang disempurnakan*. Yogyakarta: Balai Bahasa.
- b. ii. ( ) Yes    ii. ( ) No    Orthography manual:  
Pustaka Nusatama. 2002. *Pedoman penulisan aksara Jawa*. Yogyakarta: Pustaka Nusatama.
- c. iii. ( ) Yes    iii. ( ) No    Grammar manual:  
Wedhawati et al. 2006. *Tata bahasa Jawa mutakhir. Edisi revisi*. Yogyakarta: Kanisius.
- d. iv. ( ) Yes    iv. ( ) No    Dictionary:  
Balai Bahasa Yogyakarta. 2001. *Kamus Basa Jawa*. Yogyakarta: Kanisius.
- e. v. ( ) Yes    v. ( ) No    Style manual:  
Harjawiyana, H. and Supriya, Th. 2001. *Kamus unggah-ungguh Basa Jawa*. Yogyakarta: Kanisius.

15. If you are aware of other Javanese manuals, please write below; otherwise please left the space blank and proceed to number 16.

a. Orthography manuals

---

---

b. Grammar manuals

---

---

c. Vocabulary manuals

---

---

d. Style manuals

---

---

**16. In what language should such Javanese language manuals be written?**

a. ( ) In Javanese, if necessary with Indonesian translation version  
for non-Javanese audience

b. ( ) In Indonesian, if necessary with Javanese translation version  
for Javanese audience

If you select (a) please proceed to number 16.1.; if you select (b) please proceed to number 16.2.



**16.1** Why should such **manuals** be written in Javanese?

. (MORE THAN ONE ANSWER IS POSSIBLE)

- a. ( ) The manuals themselves should describe good Javanese
  - b. ( ) The manuals could only describe the Javanese language in its totality if they are written in Javanese
  - c. ( ) A translation in the Indonesian version could be published for non-Javanese
  - d. ( ) Other, please mention
- 

**16.2** Why should the **manuals** be written in Indonesian?

. (MORE THAN ONE ANSWER IS POSSIBLE)

- a. ( ) To facilitate the non-Javanese to read them
  - b. ( ) A good manual could be written in any language, including Indonesian
  - c. ( ) A translation in the Javanese version could be published for Javanese
  - d. ( ) Other, please mention
-

---

**FINAL NOTE**

If you want to give suggestions/comments or to raise questions, please write them below.

---

---

---

---

---

---

---

---

\*\*\*\*\* THANK YOU VERY MUCH \*\*\*\*\*

**Appendix 4 Survey instrument: Questionnaire (Indonesian Version)**

**INSTRUMEN ANGKET**

**PANDANGAN GURU INDONESIA ATAS BAHASA JAWA SEBAGAI BAHASA LELUHUR SERTA KEBIJAKAN BAHASA**

**PETUNJUK:**

Yth Bapak/Ibu,

Terima kasih banyak atas kesediaan Anda untuk meluangkan waktu bagi survai ini. Pengisian angket memerlukan waktu kira-kira 30 menit. Angket terdiri atas 2 jenis pertanyaan pilihan ganda.

**A. Contoh butir angket yang memerlukan 1 jawaban**

Ini dijawab dengan menuliskan tanda contreng (V) pada jawaban yang dipilih.

Menurut Anda, apakah bahasa daerah merupakan warisan nasional?

- a. ( **V** ) Ya
- b. (   ) Tidak

**B. Contoh butir angket yang memiliki kemungkinan jawaban lebih dari satu**

Ini ditandai dengan (JAWABAN BISA LEBIH DARI SATU). Ada dua pilihan cara menjawab:

- a) Dengan menuliskan tanda contreng (V) pada jawaban yang dipilih (lihat **contoh kiri**), atau,
- b) Dengan menuliskan jawaban Anda sendiri, dengan menggunakan kalimat atau ungkapan Anda sendiri [bisa dikombinasikan dengan tanda contreng (lihat **contoh kanan**)].

Bahasa apakah yang Anda gunakan untuk kegiatan sehari-hari di rumah?

(JAWABAN BISA LEBIH DARI SATU)

a.	( <b>V</b> )	Bahasa Jawa
b.	(   )	Bahasa Sunda
c.	( <b>V</b> )	Bahasa Indonesia
d.	(   )	Lainnya, mohon sebutkan
		_____

atau

a.	(   )	Bahasa Jawa
b.	(   )	Bahasa Sunda
c.	( <b>V</b> )	Bahasa Indonesia
d.	( <b>V</b> )	Lainnya, mohon sebutkan
		<u>Bahasa Madura</u>

**Catatan: Perubahan jawaban**

Jika Anda ingin mengubah jawaban Anda, coretlah (==) jawaban Anda semula untuk menunjukkan bahwa Anda berubah pendapat, kemudian tuliskan tanda contreng (V) pada jawaban yang diinginkan.

Contoh:

Menurut Anda, apakah bahasa daerah merupakan warisan nasional?

- a. ( ~~V~~ ) Ya
- b. ( **V** ) Tidak

**HALAMAN KOSONG**

**ANGKET  
(Halaman 1-14)**

**1.a.** Saat ini, bahasa Jawa tidak digunakan dalam komunikasi resmi, di samping bahasa Indonesia, **di tempat kerja**.  
Apakah seharusnya bahasa Jawa digunakan dalam komunikasi resmi **di tempat kerja**?

a.  Ya

b.  Tidak

Jika Anda memilih “Ya” silahkan maju ke nomor 1.a.1.;----- jika Anda memilih “Tidak” silahkan maju ke nomor 1.a.2.



**1.a.1.** Mengapa bahasa Jawa seharusnya digunakan dalam komunikasi resmi, mendampingi bahasa Indonesia, **di tempat kerja**?  
(JAWABAN BISA LEBIH DARI SATU)

- a.  Untuk meningkatkan prestise bahasa Jawa
- b.  Untuk meningkatkan relevansi bahasa Jawa dengan kegiatan sehari-hari
- c.  Untuk menggairahkan penggunaan bahasa Jawa di lingkungan lain (misalnya, keluarga dan tetangga)
- d.  Lainnya, mohon sebutkan

---

---

**1.a.2.** Mengapa bahasa Jawa seharusnya tidak digunakan dalam komunikasi resmi, mendampingi bahasa Indonesia, **di tempat kerja**?  
(JAWABAN BISA LEBIH DARI SATU)

- a.  Sudah ada bahasa Indonesia untuk komunikasi resmi di tempat kerja
- b.  Untuk mengakomodasi warga non-Jawa di tempat kerja
- c.  Untuk menghindari kesan eksklusif Jawa
- d.  Lainnya, mohon sebutkan

---

---

**1.b.** Saat ini, bahasa Jawa tidak digunakan dalam komunikasi resmi, di samping bahasa Indonesia, **dalam kegiatan pemerintah daerah** (misalnya, sidang DPRD, pidato kepala daerah, dan peraturan daerah).

Apakah seharusnya bahasa Jawa digunakan dalam komunikasi resmi **dalam kegiatan pemerintah daerah**?

a.  Ya

b.  Tidak

Jika Anda memilih “Ya” silahkan maju ke nomor 1.b.1.;----- jika Anda memilih “Tidak” silahkan maju ke nomor 1.b.2.



**1.b.1**

- . Mengapa bahasa Jawa seharusnya digunakan dalam komunikasi resmi, mendampingi bahasa Indonesia, **dalam kegiatan pemerintah daerah?**  
(JAWABAN BISA LEBIH DARI SATU)
- a. ( ) Untuk meningkatkan prestise bahasa Jawa
  - b. ( ) Untuk meningkatkan relevansi bahasa Jawa dengan kegiatan sehari-hari
  - c. ( ) Untuk menggairahkan penggunaan bahasa Jawa di lingkungan lain (misalnya, keluarga dan tetangga)
  - d. ( ) Lainnya, mohon sebutkan

---

---



**1.b.2.** Mengapa bahasa Jawa seharusnya tidak digunakan dalam komunikasi resmi, mendampingi bahasa Indonesia, **dalam kegiatan pemerintah daerah?**

- (JAWABAN BISA LEBIH DARI SATU)
- a. ( ) Sudah ada bahasa Indonesia untuk komunikasi resmi untuk kegiatan pemerintah daerah
  - b. ( ) Untuk mengakomodasi warga non-Jawa dalam kegiatan pemerintah daerah
  - c. ( ) Untuk menghindari kesan eksklusif Jawa
  - d. ( ) Lainnya, mohon sebutkan

---

---

2. Saat ini, bahasa Jawa tidak digunakan dalam komunikasi resmi, mendampingi bahasa Indonesia, di tempat-tempat layanan publik (misalnya ruang terima pelanggan di hotel, meja kasir di bank, ruang terima penumpang di stasiun, dsb.).

Apakah seharusnya bahasa Jawa digunakan **di tempat-tempat layanan publik?**

a. ( ) Ya

b. ( ) Tidak

Jika Anda memilih “Ya” silahkan maju ke nomor 2.1.; ----- jika Anda memilih “Tidak” silahkan maju ke nomor 2.2.



- 2.1.** Mengapa bahasa Jawa seharusnya dipergunakan dalam komunikasi resmi, mendampingi bahasa Indonesia, **di tempat-tempat layanan publik?**  
(JAWABAN BISA LEBIH DARI SATU)



- 2.2.** Mengapa bahasa Jawa seharusnya tidak dipergunakan dalam komunikasi resmi, mendampingi bahasa Indonesia, **di tempat-tempat layanan publik?**  
(JAWABAN BISA LEBIH DARI SATU)

- a. ( ) Untuk meningkatkan prestise bahasa Jawa
- b. ( ) Untuk meningkatkan relevansi bahasa Jawa dengan kegiatan sehari-hari
- c. ( ) Untuk memudahkan warga Jawa yang tidak menguasai bahasa Indonesia
- d. ( ) Lainnya, mohon sebutkan

---



---

- a. ( ) Sudah ada bahasa Indonesia untuk komunikasi resmi di tempat kerja
- b. ( ) Untuk menghindari kesan eksklusif Jawa
- c. ( ) Seluruh warga negara, termasuk dari Jawa, wajib menguasai bahasa Indonesia
- d. ( ) Lainnya, mohon sebutkan

---



---

3. Saat ini, bahasa Jawa tidak digunakan dalam **papan tanda publik** (misalnya, papan pengumuman di tempat-tempat umum, nama bangunan, nama jalan, nama ruangan dan meja dalam kantor), mendampingi bahasa Indonesia. Apakah seharusnya bahasa Jawa digunakan dalam papan tanda publik?

a. ( ) Ya

b. ( ) Tidak

Jika Anda memilih “Ya” silahkan maju ke nomor 3.1.; ----- jika Anda memilih “Tidak” silahkan maju ke nomor 3.2.



**3.1.** Mengapa bahasa Jawa seharusnya digunakan dalam **papan tanda publik**, mendampingi bahasa Indonesia?

(JAWABAN BISA LEBIH DARI SATU)

- a. ( ) Untuk meningkatkan prestise bahasa Jawa
- b. ( ) Untuk meningkatkan relevansi bahasa Jawa dengan kegiatan sehari-hari
- c. ( ) Untuk menggairahkan penggunaan bahasa Jawa di lingkungan lain (misalnya, keluarga dan tetangga)
- d. ( ) Untuk memudahkan warga Jawa yang tidak menguasai

**3.2.** Mengapa bahasa Jawa seharusnya tidak digunakan dalam **papan tanda publik**, mendampingi bahasa Indonesia?

(JAWABAN BISA LEBIH DARI SATU)

- a. ( ) Tidak perlu duplikasi karena sudah ada bahasa Indonesia dalam papan tanda publik
- b. ( ) Untuk mengakomodasi warga non-Jawa
- c. ( ) Untuk menghindari kesan eksklusif Jawa
- d. ( ) Seluruh warga negara, termasuk dari Jawa, wajib

bahasa Indonesia  
e. ( ) Lainnya, mohon sebutkan

---

---

menguasai bahasa Indonesia  
e. ( ) Lainnya, mohon sebutkan

---

---

4. Apakah seharusnya bahasa Jawa dikembangkan agar dapat lebih memadai untuk mengungkapkan **sains (ilmu pengetahuan) dan teknologi**?

a. ( ) Ya

b. ( ) Tidak

Jika Anda memilih “Ya” silahkan maju ke nomor 4.1.; ----- jika Anda memilih “Tidak” silahkan maju ke nomor 4.2.



4.1. Mengapa bahasa Jawa seharusnya dikembangkan agar dapat lebih memadai untuk mengungkapkan **sains dan teknologi**?

(JAWABAN BISA LEBIH DARI SATU)

- a. ( ) Untuk mengembangkan bahasa Jawa dalam berbagai aspeknya (kosa kata, tata bahasa, gaya bahasa) sehingga dapat digunakan untuk membahas topik apa saja
- b. ( ) Untuk meningkatkan relevansi bahasa Jawa dengan kehidupan modern
- c. ( ) Untuk meningkatkan prestise bahasa Jawa
- d. ( ) Lainnya, mohon sebutkan

---

---

4.2. Mengapa bahasa Jawa seharusnya tidak dikembangkan agar dapat lebih memadai untuk mengungkapkan **sains dan teknologi**?

(JAWABAN BISA LEBIH DARI SATU)

- a. ( ) Sudah ada bahasa Indonesia untuk mengungkapkan sains dan teknologi
- b. ( ) Mungkin biayanya terlalu mahal untuk meningkatkan bahasa Jawa agar dapat lebih memadai untuk mengungkapkan sains dan teknologi
- c. ( ) Sudah cukup jika bahasa Jawa digunakan dalam bidang terbatas, misalnya sastra
- d. ( ) Lainnya, mohon sebutkan

---

---

5. Untuk melestarikan bahasa Jawa, Apakah seharusnya dikembangkan **suaka (kawasan khusus)** untuk bahasa Jawa

a.  Ya

b.  Tidak

Jika Anda memilih “Ya” silahkan maju ke nomor 5.1.; ----- jika Anda memilih “Tidak” silahkan maju ke nomor 5.2.



5.1. Mengapa **kawasan khusus/suaka** untuk bahasa Jawa seharusnya dikembangkan?

(JAWABAN BISA LEBIH DARI SATU)

- a.  Untuk menciptakan lingkungan yang lebih baik bagi pengembangan bahasa Jawa
- b.  Untuk meningkatkan prestise bahasa Jawa
- c.  Untuk meningkatkan relevansi bahasa Jawa dengan kegiatan sehari-hari
- d.  Lainnya, mohon sebutkan

---

---

5.2. Mengapa **kawasan khusus/suaka** untuk bahasa Jawa seharusnya tidak dikembangkan?

(JAWABAN BISA LEBIH DARI SATU)

- a.  Ada cara lain untuk melestarikan bahasa Jawa, misalnya, melalui kegiatan adat, pertemuan warga Jawa, dsb.
- b.  Untuk mengakomodasi warga non-Jawa yang tinggal di kawasan tersebut
- c.  Akan terlalu sulit untuk diterapkan
- d.  Lainnya, mohon sebutkan

---

---

6. Apakah seharusnya penggunaan bahasa Jawa **dalam keluarga** diatur melalui peraturan?

a.  Ya

b.  Tidak

Jika Anda memilih “Ya” silahkan maju ke nomor 6.1.; ----- jika Anda memilih “Tidak” silahkan maju ke nomor 6.2.



6.1. Mengapa penggunaan bahasa Jawa dalam **keluarga** seharusnya diatur melalui peraturan?

(JAWABAN BISA LEBIH DARI SATU)

- a.  Untuk menjaga kesinambungan bahasa Jawa antar generasi
  - b.  Untuk memberikan lingkungan bagi anak-anak untuk mulai belajar bahasa Jawa
  - c.  Untuk menanamkan rasa hormat terhadap bahasa Jawa di kalangan generasi muda
  - d.  Lainnya, mohon sebutkan
- 
- 

6.2. Mengapa penggunaan bahasa Jawa dalam **keluarga** seharusnya tidak diatur melalui peraturan?

(JAWABAN BISA LEBIH DARI SATU)

- a.  Penggunaan bahasa dalam keluarga seyogyanya diserahkan kepada keluarga dan tidak perlu diatur
  - b.  Tidak ada perlunya melanjutkan penggunaan bahasa Jawa dalam keluarga jika keluarga tidak menginginkannya
  - c.  Pembelajaran bahasa Jawa bisa dilakukan di luar keluarga (misalnya, di sekolah)
  - d.  Lainnya, mohon sebutkan
- 
- 

7. Apakah seharusnya penggunaan bahasa Jawa antar warga di **lingkungan tetangga (RT)** diatur melalui peraturan?

a.  Ya

b.  Tidak

Jika Anda memilih “Ya” silahkan maju ke nomor 7.1.; ----- jika Anda memilih “Tidak” silahkan maju ke nomor 7.2.



7.1. Mengapa penggunaan bahasa Jawa antar warga di **lingkungan tetangga** seharusnya diatur melalui peraturan?

(JAWABAN BISA LEBIH DARI SATU)

- a.  Untuk menjaga kelangsungan komunitas bahasa Jawa
- b.  Untuk memberikan lingkungan yang lebih luas bagi anak-

7.2. Mengapa penggunaan bahasa Jawa antar warga di **lingkungan tetangga** seharusnya tidak diatur melalui peraturan?

(JAWABAN BISA LEBIH DARI SATU)

- a.  Tidak ada perlunya mempertahankan komunitas bahasa Jawa jika warga tidak menginginkannya
- b.  Pilihan bahasa di lingkungan tetangga seyogyanya

anak untuk belajar bahasa jawa

- c. ( ) Untuk memberikan lingkungan bagi warga non-Jawa untuk belajar bahasa Jawa
- d. ( ) Lainnya, mohon sebutkan

---

---

diserahkan kepada warga; tidak perlu diatur melalui peraturan

- c. ( ) Untuk mengakomodasi warga non-Jawa
- d. ( ) Lainnya, mohon sebutkan

---

---

### 8. Manakah yang Anda Pilih untuk **mengajarkan bahasa Jawa** di sekolah?

a. ( ) Sebagai pelajaran tersendiri

b. ( ) Tergabung dengan pelajaran lain

Jika Anda memilih (a) silahkan maju ke nomor 8.1., terus ke 8.3.; ----- jika Anda memilih (b) silahkan maju ke nomor 8.2., terus ke 8.4.

↓  
**8.1.**

↓  
**8.2.**

#### 8.1. Mengapa bahasa Jawa seharusnya diajarkan sebagai **pelajaran tersendiri**?

#### 8.2. Mengapa bahasa Jawa seharusnya diajarkan **tergabung dengan pelajaran lain**?

(JAWABAN BISA LEBIH DARI SATU)

(JAWABAN BISA LEBIH DARI SATU)

- a. ( ) Melalui otonomi daerah, daerah seyogyanya dapat menetapkan agar bahasa Jawa menjadi pelajaran tersendiri
- b. ( ) Pengaturan semacam ini membuat bahasa Jawa menjadi pelajaran yang mandiri, sejajar dengan pelajaran lain, sehingga pengajaran bisa lebih efektif
- c. ( ) Untuk meningkatkan motivasi siswa dalam belajar bahasa Jawa
- d. ( ) Lainnya, mohon sebutkan

- a. ( ) Jika pihak yang berwenang memutuskan cara tersebut, guru tidak mempunyai pilihan lain selain melakukannya
- b. ( ) Pengaturan ini bisa digunakan sebagai program pembelajaran imersi parsial dalam bahasa Jawa [program pembelajaran dengan bahasa pengantar sebagian dalam bahasa Jawa]
- c. ( ) Guru dapat belajar untuk mengintegrasikan isi dengan bahasa
- d. ( ) Lainnya, mohon sebutkan

---



---

↓ 8.3. ↓

**8.3.** Karena Anda berpendapat bahwa bahasa Jawa seharusnya diajarkan sebagai **pelajaran tersendiri**, pada jenjang mana saja bahasa Jawa seharusnya diajarkan?

a.	i. ( ) Ya	ii. ( ) Tidak	TK
b.	i. ( ) Ya	ii. ( ) Tidak	SD kelas 1, 2
c.	i. ( ) Ya	ii. ( ) Tidak	SD kelas 3, 4, 5, 6
d.	i. ( ) Ya	ii. ( ) Tidak	SMP
e.	i. ( ) Ya	ii. ( ) Tidak	SLTA
f.	i. ( ) Ya	ii. ( ) Tidak	Perguruan tinggi

---



---

↓ 8.4. ↓

**8.4.** Karena Anda berpendapat bahwa bahasa Jawa seharusnya diajarkan **tergabung dengan pelajaran lain**, pada jenjang mana saja bahasa Jawa seharusnya diajarkan?

a.	i. ( ) Ya	ii. ( ) Tidak	TK
b.	i. ( ) Ya	ii. ( ) Tidak	SD kelas 1, 2
c.	i. ( ) Ya	ii. ( ) Tidak	SD kelas 3, 4, 5, 6
d.	i. ( ) Ya	ii. ( ) Tidak	SMP
e.	i. ( ) Ya	ii. ( ) Tidak	SLTA
f.	i. ( ) Ya	ii. ( ) Tidak	Perguruan tinggi

**9.** Saat ini, bahasa Jawa tidak digunakan secara resmi sebagai **bahasa pengantar dalam pembelajaran**.  
Apakah seharusnya bahasa Jawa digunakan sebagai **bahasa pengantar dalam pembelajaran**?

a. ( ) Ya

b. ( ) Tidak

Jika Anda memilih “Ya” silahkan maju ke nomor 9.1.; ----- jika Anda memilih “Tidak” silahkan maju ke nomor 9.2.



**9.1.** Mengapa bahasa Jawa seharusnya digunakan sebagai **bahasa pengantar dalam pembelajaran**?

(JAWABAN BISA LEBIH DARI SATU)

**9.2.** Mengapa bahasa Jawa seharusnya tidak digunakan sebagai **bahasa pengantar dalam pembelajaran**?

(JAWABAN BISA LEBIH DARI SATU)

- a. ( ) Untuk menciptakan lingkungan agar siswa lebih sering menggunakan bahasa Jawa
  - b. ( ) Untuk meningkatkan motivasi siswa dalam menguasai bahasa Jawa
  - c. ( ) Untuk meningkatkan prestise bahasa Jawa
  - d. ( ) Lainnya, mohon sebutkan
- 
- 

- a. ( ) Sudah ada bahasa Indonesia untuk bahasa pengantar dalam pembelajaran
  - b. ( ) Akan terlalu mahal untuk diterapkan
  - c. ( ) Akan menyulitkan siswa non-Jawa untuk memahami pelajaran yang menggunakan bahasa Jawa sebagai bahasa pengantar
  - d. ( ) Lainnya, mohon sebutkan
- 
- 

**10.** Saat ini, bahasa Jawa tidak digunakan dalam **media massa** umum  
Apakah seharusnya bahasa Jawa digunakan dalam **media massa** umum?

a. ( ) Ya

b. ( ) Tidak

Jika Anda memilih “Ya” silahkan maju ke nomor 10.1.; ----- jika Anda memilih “Tidak” silahkan maju ke nomor 10.2.



**10.1.** Mengapa bahasa Jawa seharusnya digunakan dalam **media massa umum**?

(JAWABAN BISA LEBIH DARI SATU)

- a. ( ) Untuk menciptakan lingkungan di mana warga dapat lebih sering menggunakan bahasa Jawa
- b. ( ) Untuk meningkatkan relevansi bahasa Jawa dengan kegiatan sehari-hari
- c. ( ) Untuk meningkatkan prestise bahasa Jawa
- d. ( ) Lainnya, mohon sebutkan

**10.2.** Mengapa bahasa Jawa seharusnya tidak digunakan dalam **media massa umum**?

(JAWABAN BISA LEBIH DARI SATU)

- a. ( ) Sudah ada bahasa Indonesia sebagai bahasa untuk media massa umum
- b. ( ) Akan terlalu mahal bagi penyedia media massa umum (produser/penerbit)
- c. ( ) Bisa jadi peminatnya tidak mencukupi
- d. ( ) Lainnya, mohon sebutkan

---

---

---

---

11. Apakah seharusnya didirikan **akademi bahasa Jawa** (kumpulan pakar & cendekiawan bahasa Jawa) untuk membimbing pengembangan dan penggunaan bahasa Jawa?

a. ( ) Ya

b. ( ) Tidak

Jika Anda memilih “Ya” silahkan maju ke nomor 11.1.; ----- jika Anda memilih “Tidak” silahkan maju ke nomor 11.2.



**11.1.** Mengapa **akademi bahasa Jawa** seharusnya didirikan?

(JAWABAN BISA LEBIH DARI SATU)

- a. ( ) Untuk menyediakan lembaga yang dapat membimbing pengembangan dan penggunaan bahasa Jawa
- b. ( ) Untuk meningkatkan prestise bahasa Jawa
- c. ( ) Para pakar dan cendekiawan tersebut dapat mencari cara-cara untuk melestarikan bahasa Jawa
- d. ( ) Lainnya, mohon sebutkan

---

---

**11.2.** Mengapa **akademi bahasa Jawa** tidak didirikan?

(JAWABAN BISA LEBIH DARI SATU)

- a. ( ) Pengembangan dan penggunaan bahasa Jawa seyogyanya diserahkan kepada pengguna, tidak kepada pakar & cendekiawan
- b. ( ) Tidak perlu meningkatkan prestise bahasa Jawa melalui akademi
- c. ( ) Cara-cara melestarikan bahasa Jawa sebaiknya diserahkan kepada warga, tidak kepada pakar & cendekiawan
- d. ( ) Lainnya, mohon sebutkan

---

---

12. Ada dua jenis **aksara** untuk menulis dalam bahasa Jawa; yaitu, *Latin* dan *Carakan/ho-no-co-ro-ko* (aksara tradisional Jawa). Jenis aksara yang manakah yang seharusnya digunakan dalam berbagai lingkungan berikut?

a.	Kegiatan Pemerintah Daerah	b.	Tempat Kerja	c.	Pendidikan
i.	( ) Latin saja	i.	( ) Latin saja	i.	( ) Latin saja
ii.	( ) <i>Carakan</i> saja	ii.	( ) <i>Carakan</i> saja	ii.	( ) <i>Carakan</i> saja
iii.	( ) Keduanya (Latin dan <i>Carakan</i> )	iii.	( ) Keduanya (Latin dan <i>Carakan</i> )	iii.	( ) Keduanya (Latin dan <i>Carakan</i> )
d.	Media Massa	e.	Lingkungan tetangga	f.	Keluarga
i.	( ) Latin saja	i.	( ) Latin saja	i.	( ) Latin saja
ii.	( ) <i>Carakan</i> saja	ii.	( ) <i>Carakan</i> saja	ii.	( ) <i>Carakan</i> saja
iii.	( ) Keduanya (Latin dan <i>Carakan</i> )	iii.	( ) Keduanya (Latin dan <i>Carakan</i> )	iii.	( ) Keduanya (Latin dan <i>Carakan</i> )

13. Bahasa Jawa memiliki beberapa **tataran bahasa** (kromo alus, kromo kasar, ngoko alus, ngoko kasar). Apakah seharusnya berbagai tataran ini dipertahankan?

a. ( ) Ya

b. ( ) Tidak

Jika Anda memilih (a) silahkan maju ke nomor 13.1., terus ke 13.3.; ----- jika Anda memilih (b) silahkan maju ke nomor 13.2., terus ke 13.4.

13.1. ↓

31.1.

Mengapa berbagai **tataran bahasa** ini seharusnya dipertahankan?

(JAWABAN BISA LEBIH DARI SATU)

a. ( ) Tataran ini merupakan ciri khas bahasa Jawa

13.2. ↓

13.2. Mengapa berbagai **tataran bahasa** ini seharusnya tidak dipertahankan?

(JAWABAN BISA LEBIH DARI SATU)

a. ( ) Kurang demokratis

- b. ( ) Membantu menanamkan rasa hormat di kalangan orang yang berbeda kedudukan (misalnya, anak terhadap orang tua)
- c. ( ) Tataran ini membantu mempertahankan identitas budaya Jawa
- d. ( ) Lainnya, mohon sebutkan

---

↓  
**13.3.**

**13.3.** Karena tataran yang berbeda ini seharusnya dipertahankan, tataran manakah yang seharusnya digunakan dalam komunikasi di bawah ini:

- a. Dari yang lebih dihormati terhadap yang kurang dihormati (misalnya, dari atasan ke bawahan, dari orang tua ke anak)? (Pilih satu saja)
 

i. ( ) Kromo alus	iii. ( ) Ngoko alus
ii. ( ) Kromo kasar	iv. ( ) Ngoko kasar
  
- b. Dari yang kurang dihormati terhadap yang lebih dihormati (misalnya, dari bawahan ke atasan dari anak ke orang tua)? (Pilih satu saja)
 

i. ( ) Kromo alus	iii. ( ) Ngoko alus
ii. ( ) Kromo kasar	iv. ( ) Ngoko kasar
  
- c. Antar sederajat (mis., antar atasan, antar orang tua)? (Pilih satu saja)
 

i. ( ) Kromo alus	iii. ( ) Ngoko alus
ii. ( ) Kromo kasar	iv. ( ) Ngoko kasar

**14.** Apakah Anda mengenal berbagai **pedoman bahasa Jawa** berikut?

- a. i. ( ) Ya    ii. ( ) Tidak    Pedoman aksara:

- b. ( ) Adanya tataran ini menjadikan bahasa Jawa terlalu rumit bagi generasi muda untuk belajar bahasa Jawa
- c. ( ) Memberi kedudukan yang lebih tinggi pada satu identitas budaya
- d. ( ) Lainnya, mohon sebutkan

---

↓  
**13.4.**

**13.4.** Karena tataran yang berbeda ini seharusnya tidak dipertahankan, tataran manakah yang seharusnya digunakan dalam komunikasi antara semua pihak?\* (Pilih satu saja)

- |                     |                     |
|---------------------|---------------------|
| i. ( ) Kromo alus   | iii. ( ) Ngoko alus |
| ii. ( ) Kromo kasar | iv. ( ) Ngoko kasar |

\* Catatan: istilah ‘semua pihak’ artinya mencakup semua orang (yang lebih dihormati, yang kurang dihormati, sederajat), tanpa memandang kedudukan.

- |    |              |                  |  |
|----|--------------|------------------|--|
| b. | i. (    ) Ya | ii. (    ) Tidak | Balai Bahasa Yogyakarta. 2006. <i>Pedoman umum ejaan bahasa Jawa yang disempurnakan</i> . Yogyakarta: Balai Bahasa.          |
|    |              |                  | Pedoman aksara:<br>Pustaka Nusatama. 2002. <i>Pedoman penulisan aksara Jawa</i> . Yogyakarta: Pustaka Nusatama.              |
| c. | i. (    ) Ya | ii. (    ) Tidak | Pedoman tata bahasa:<br>Wedhawati et al. 2006. <i>Tata bahasa Jawa mutakhir. Edisi revisi</i> . Yogyakarta: Kanisius.        |
| d. | i. (    ) Ya | ii. (    ) Tidak | Kamus:<br>Balai Bahasa Yogyakarta. 2001. <i>Kamus Basa Jawa</i> . Yogyakarta: Kanisius.                                      |
| e. | i. (    ) Ya | ii. (    ) Tidak | Pedoman gaya tulisan:<br>Harjawiyana, H. and Supriya, Th. 2001. <i>Kamus unggah-ungguh Basa Jawa</i> . Yogyakarta: Kanisius. |

15. Jika Anda mengenal pedoman bahasa Jawa yang lain, silahkan menulis di bawah ini; jika tidak, kosongkan saja dan silahkan maju ke nomor 16.

a. Pedoman aksara

---



---

b. Pedoman tata bahasa

---



---

c. Pedoman kosa kata

---



---

d. Pedoman gaya menulis

---



---

16. Dalam penulisan berbagai **pedoman bahasa Jawa** tersebut, bahasa apa yang seharusnya digunakan?

a. ( ) Bahasa Jawa

b. ( ) Bahasa Indonesia

Jika Anda memilih (a) silahkan maju ke nomor 16.1.; jika Anda memilih (b) silahkan maju ke nomor 16.2.



**16.1.** Mengapa berbagai pedoman bahasa tersebut seharusnya dituliskan dalam bahasa Jawa?

(JAWABAN BISA LEBIH DARI SATU)

- a. ( ) Berbagai pedoman tersebut harus dapat menggambarkan bahasa Jawa yang baik dan benar
- b. ( ) Berbagai pedoman tersebut hanya dapat menggambarkan bahasa Jawa dalam keseluruhannya jika dituliskan dalam bahasa Jawa
- c. ( ) Untuk pembaca non-Jawa dapat diterbitkan terjemahannya dalam bahasa Indonesia
- d. ( ) Lainnya, mohon sebutkan

---

---

**16.2.** Mengapa berbagai pedoman tersebut seharusnya dituliskan dalam bahasa Indonesia?

(JAWABAN BISA LEBIH DARI SATU)

- a. ( ) Untuk memudahkan bagi pembaca non-Jawa
- b. ( ) Pedoman yang baik dapat dituliskan dalam bahasa apa saja, termasuk bahasa Indonesia
- c. ( ) Untuk pembaca Jawa dapat diterbitkan terjemahannya dalam bahasa Jawa
- d. ( ) Lainnya, mohon sebutkan

---

---

#### CATATAN AKHIR

Jika Anda ingin menyampaikan saran/komentar atau mengajukan pertanyaan tentang berbagai topik dalam angket ini, silahkan menulis di bawah ini.

---

---

---

---

---

\*\*\*\*\* TERIMA KASIH BANYAK \*\*\*\*\*

## Appendix 5 Language Shift Indicators

In order to assess the vitality of a language, several indicators have been developed. A recent indicator is the Extended Graded Intergenerational Disruption Scale (EGIDS) (Lewis and Simmons (2009). This is an extended version on the Graded Intergenerational Disruption Scale (GIDS) (Fishman, 1991). EGIDS provides greater detail and includes a UNESCO level for the safety of a language. These scales could indicate the shift in situation of a heritage language at the present and to plan suitable measures to reverse the shift and conserve the heritage languages.

**Appendix 5 Table 1 Summary of Fishman’s GIDS (1991)**

<b>GIDS</b>	
<b>LEVEL</b>	<b>DESCRIPTION</b>
1	The language is used in education, work, mass media, government at the nationwide level
2	The language is used for local and regional mass media and governmental services
3	The language is used for local and regional work by both insiders and outsiders
4	Literacy in the language is transmitted through education
5	The language is used orally by all generations and is effectively used in written form throughout the community
6	The language is used orally by all generations and is being learned by children as their first language
7	The child-bearing generation knows the language well enough to use it with their elders but is not transmitting it to their children
8	The only remaining speakers of the language are members of the grandparent generation

**Appendix 5 Table 2 EGIDS (Lewis and Simmons, 2009)**

<b>Expanded Graded Intergenerational Disruption Scale (adapted from Fishman 1991)</b>			
<b>LEVEL</b>	<b>LABEL</b>	<b>DESCRIPTION</b>	<b>UNESCO</b>
0	International	The language is used internationally for a broad range of functions.	Safe
1	National	The language is used in education, work, mass media, and government at the nationwide level.	Safe
2	Regional	The language is used for local and regional mass media and governmental services.	Safe
3	Trade	The language is used for local and regional work by both insiders and outsiders.	Safe
4	Educational	Literacy in the language is being transmitted through a system of public education.	Safe
5	Written	The language is used orally by all generations and is effectively used in written form in parts of the community.	Safe
6a	Vigorous	The language is used orally by all generations and is being learned by children as their first language.	Safe
6b	Threatened	The language is used orally by all generations but only some of the child-bearing generations are transmitting it to their children.	Vulnerable
7	Shifting	The child-bearing generation knows the language well enough to use it among themselves but none are transmitting it to their children	Definitely Endangered
8a	Moribund	The only remaining active speakers of the language are members of the grandparent generation.	Severely Endangered
8b	Nearly Extinct	The only remaining speakers of the language are members of the grandparent generation or older who have little opportunity to use the language.	Critically Endangered
9	Dormant	The language serves as a reminder of heritage identity for an ethnic community. No one has more than symbolic proficiency.	Extinct
10	Extinct	No one retains a sense of ethnic identity associated with the language, even for symbolic purposes.	Extinct

## **Appendix 6 Additional Information for Chapter 3, Section 3.1. The Study's Approach**

There are two different approaches in policy studies (Evers and Lakomsky, 1991):

1. The 'Laswell' approach in which there is a distinction between facts and values
2. The 'Wildavsky' approach in which there is a blend of facts and values.

Although a number of writers (e.g., Fishman, 1991; Crystal, 2000) have declared the values for heritage language conservation, this study is not based on the value of heritage language conservation.

Instead, the stand in this study is as follows:

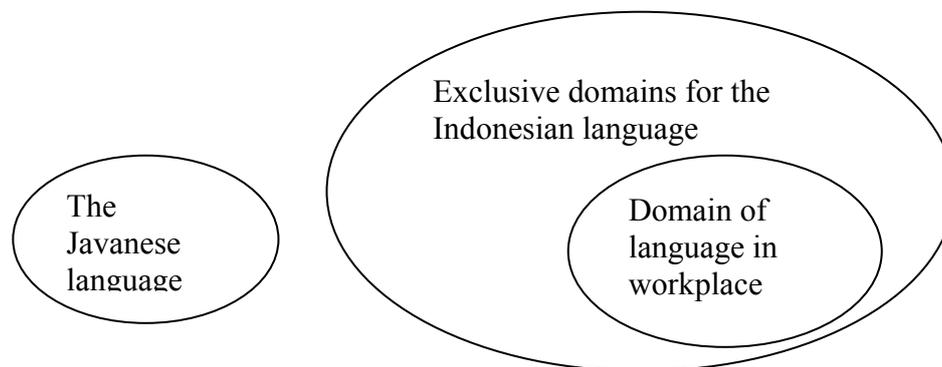
1. The value for heritage language conservation in Indonesia is already stated in the Constitution and this requires adherence from (Indonesian) government as well as citizens.
2. Whether or not the Constitutional stipulation is in fact be carried out, instead of being mere rhetoric, is up to the Indonesian public.
3. If the Constitutional mandate is to be followed (and the answer to this question is left to the Indonesian public), then adequate measures need to be taken to achieve this. In this study, it is shown that:
  - a. At present, the laws and regulations that constitute the policy for carrying out the constitutional mandate do not provide adequate domains for heritage languages; as seen in literature review, this situation results in shift to the dominant language.
  - b. The Micro Perspective recommends that a number of public domains need to be provided for the use of heritage languages.
  - c. The Macro Perspectives also suggest a similar recommendation.
4. This is why the aim of this study is not to provide a panacea for conserving heritage languages. Rather, it aims to provide stimulus and some materials to generate public discussion on the conservation of Indonesian heritage languages.

### Appendix 7 Additional Information for Chapter 3, Section 3.2.2.4.: The Use of Logic in Analysing Legal Texts

Analysis for legal texts basically used logical reasoning, in the form of deductive reasoning, inductive reasoning, and analogy. A real example is given below (from Article 33, Verse 1 of U 24).

The use of Indonesian language is obligatory in official communication in governmental and private workplace environments.

From the reading of the text, with respect to the *range* of allocation, the domain of concern was the domain of language in the workplace. Meanwhile, with respect to *extent* of allocation, the word ‘obligatory’ denoted that the domain was exclusive for the Indonesian language. Therefore, the extent of allocation was ‘RC’ (regulated and compulsory) for the Indonesian language. The stipulation could be depicted in the Venn diagram.



### Appendix 7 Figure 1 Venn Diagram for Possible Domains for the Javanese Language

Now, to explore whether the ILPP allows for the use of a heritage language in the workplace, the following reasoning was used:

Major premise: The Indonesian language possesses the domain of ‘the language in the workplace’

Minor premise: The Javanese language is not the Indonesian language.

Conclusion: The Javanese language could not access the domain of ‘the language in the workplace’. In other words, in the range of possible

domains for the Javanese language, the domain of *language in the workplace* was not available. In a more detailed expression, the degree of allocation for the Javanese language in this domain was ‘regulated and prohibited’.

Similar analysis is performed in all articles and verses that contain language-related components. Then, the result of analysis was presented in a summary table. An example is given below.

**Appendix 6 Table 3 Legal Texts Governing the Domain of the Language in the Workplace**

No	Domain	Elaboration/ Sub-domain	Legal Reference			State provision of		
			Law	A	V	IL	HL	FL
	Language for workplace	Workplace in general: public and private	U24	33	1	RC	RP	RP
		National communication & business transaction & documentation	U24	25	3	RC	RP	RP

The analysis in step 4 formed the basis for the findings of Stage 1. The finding was used for two purposes: (a) inferring ILPP type, (b) basic material for the analysis of the adequacy of ILPP for heritage language conservation in ‘Implications’ and (b) guide for developing the instrument for the survey (Strand 2).

## Appendix 8 Additional Information for Chapter 3, Section 3.3.1. Sampling

### A. Detailed sampling strategy for Strand 2

This study employs four levels of purposeful sampling selection: heritage language (HL), site, group, and users within the group.

#### 1. Purposeful sampling selection of heritage language: JL

There are more than 700 heritages languages (HLs) in Indonesia. In this study, the selected language was the Javanese language (JL). Sampling selection was critical case sampling. Patton (2012) refers critical case as the one “that can make a point quite dramatically ... or ... particularly important in the scheme of things” (p. 236). The Javanese language (JL) is arguably a critical case, for the reason that it is the largest HL in Indonesia. If the ILPP fails to protect JL, then its ability for protecting other languages might be called into question. Thus, the ILPP position on JL may serve as a barometer for its position on other HLs.



Appendix 8 Figure 2 Map of Java and Bali

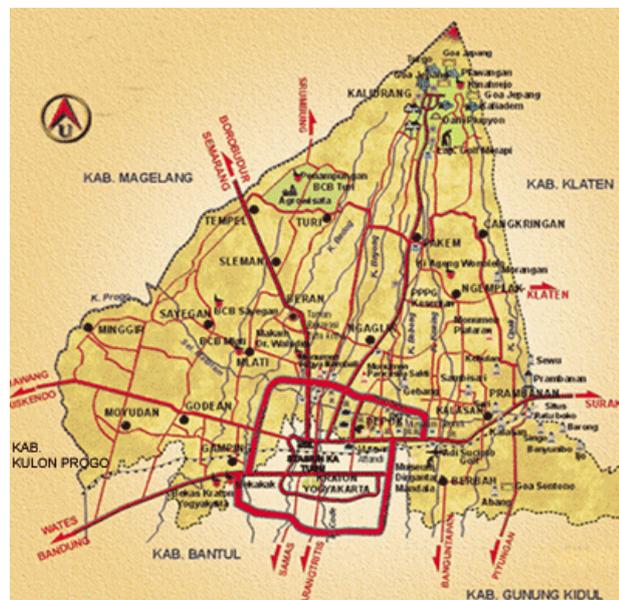
[http://www.ethnologue.com/map/ID\\_jb](http://www.ethnologue.com/map/ID_jb)

#### 2. Purposeful sampling of site: Yogyakarta province as a Javanese heartland

JL speakers still comprise around 80 million and they reside in areas in three provinces, i.e., Yogyakarta, Central Java, and Eastern Java provinces. Thus, purposeful sampling was required. The survey part of this study aimed to find an

indication of the users' view on distribution of domains and means for HL, and, by selection in the previous section, for JL. The users needed to fulfil the criteria that they had closer attachment to JL and, thus, assumed to care most for its conservation. Among various regions in the three provinces, the Yogyakarta province and the Surakarta region in Central Java province were considered the heartlands of Javanese culture and language (Errington, 1985). Thus it was assumed that their residents have closer affiliation for the language and thus would pay more attention to the allocation of domains and means in the effort of conserving JL.

However, when Strand 1 of this study was performed, only Yogyakarta had passed language-related bylaws that cover status and acquisition planning. Thus, Yogyakarta, rather than Surakarta, was selected. Another selection criterion has to do with language shift. Shift from HL to the dominant language may inspire the users to seek policy for stemming the shift. In this respect, it was found that Yogyakarta provides some evidence of language shift (Kurniasih, 2006). This provides another reason for the selection of Yogyakarta area.



<http://www.slemankab.go.id/profil-kabupaten-sleman/geografi/peta>

### Appendix 8 Figure 3 Map of Sleman Regency

#### 3. Purposeful sampling of site: Sleman regency as an area that is more exposed to language shift

When an area is undergoing a language shift, the need for measures for language conservation might be felt to be more urgent, especially by the concerned language group. In this respect, the regency of Sleman, in Yogyakarta province, was assumed to be undergoing shift to a larger extent due to a combination of the following factors:

- 1) The concentration of most tertiary institutions in Yogyakarta Province is in Sleman. Many of the students come from all parts of Indonesia due to the fact

that it has been a popular destination for non-Javanese students to seek higher education. As students generally prefer to live near the campuses, they will induce interaction with locals in IL, and this is assumed to have effect on shift.

- 2) The existence of a large airport and two state highways, which intensify contact with people from other parts of Indonesia and foreigners
3. The existence of one of the most frequented tourist sites in Indonesia, i.e., the Prambanan-Kalasan-Sewu temple compound in Sleman, and the Borobudur temple compound near the border of Sleman with Central Java. As the tourists come from other parts of Indonesia and also abroad, the necessity to speak with other languages than JL is assumed to affect shift.
4. The concentration of industry, which employs various labours from other parts of Indonesia, which necessitates the use of IL

#### *4. Purposeful sampling of speaker group*

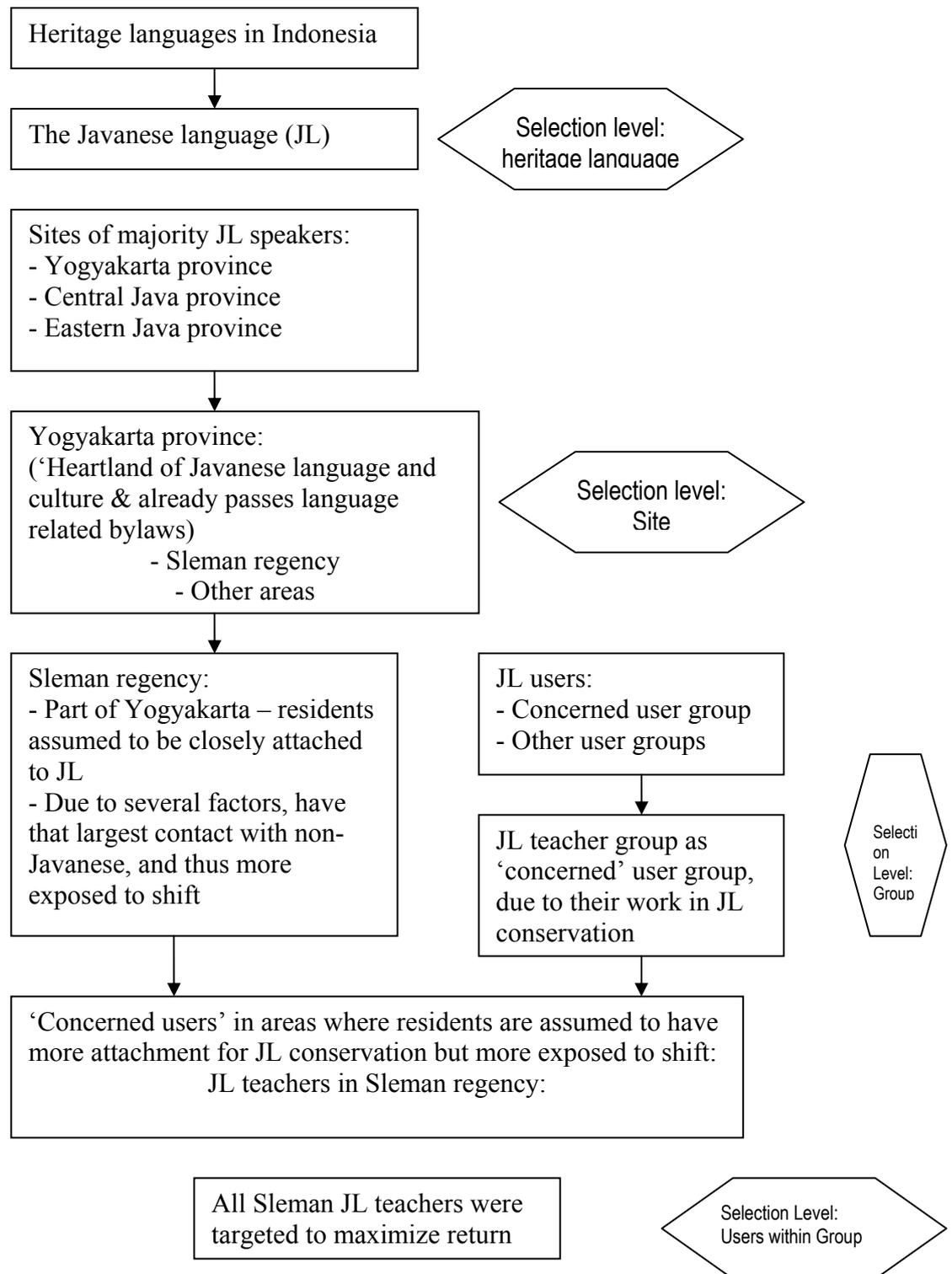
Within Sleman regency, there are various groups, like professionals, politicians, business persons, Javanese teachers, teachers of other subjects, government officials, social figures, community leaders etc. The focus in this study is on Javanese language conservation, not just Javanese language use. Thus the group to be targeted for view needs to comprise not just users, but concerned users.

Analysis of ILPP, in stage 1, revealed that the HL conservation seems to be achieved through limited domains, i.e. education. In fact, it was more limited as the HL was not even an independent subject, but included in another subject, i.e., art and culture. Therefore, HL teachers would be given a great, if not the sole, responsibility for conserving the HL.

Kaplan and Baldauf (2007) argue that the education system, by itself, may not be effective for language conservation, because: (1) the school may focus more on formal language, which may not always related to the communicative needs in real life, (2) proficiency is not distributed evenly but follows a bell-shaped statistical distribution, and this means that some students are not proficient, (3) acquired proficiency is probably limited due to limitation of exposure. In other words, for language conservation and revival to succeed, it has to be achieved in other domains as well.

In Indonesia, as revealed by ILPP analysis, support in other domains only scantily exists. This means that HL teachers have to deal with the unenviable task of conserving JL while there is little support, by way of distribution of domains and means for the Javanese language, beyond the classroom. Thus, JL teachers could purposively be selected as the concerned user group.

The combined sampling strategy is depicted in the figure below.



**Appendix 8 Figure 4 Overall Plan of sampling Strategy**

#### 4. Sampling procedure for the selected group: Sleman JL teachers

It has been discussed that the Javanese language teacher group is purposefully selected for the concerned users of the JL. However, while the selection of language, site, and group-which lead to the selection of Javanese language teachers in Sleman, the selection of respondents within the group is not purposeful. Instead, all teachers in the populations were taken as possible respondents. There is also another reason. A preliminary distribution of questionnaire using another sampling procedure (stratified sampling) yielded in a very poor return. Thus, the census technique was employed to maximise return.

#### 5. Further information on Sleman JL teachers

The group under study had the following characteristics:

- a. They taught the Javanese heritage language;
- b. They comprised three school levels, i.e., the primary, junior secondary and secondary levels. Through the inclusion of these levels, it was hoped that the views might represent heritage language teachers from various school levels so that the information which was gathered could be comprehensive. The kindergarten level was excluded as there is no Javanese language teacher working at the level. The SLBs (*Sekolah Luar Biasa*, schools for handicapped children) were also excluded, too, as the syllabus for this kind of school may not follow those of the mainstream education.

After the nature of the groups composing the population was known, sampling procedure could be applied to them. The details of the procedure were as follows.

##### 1. Developing sampling frame

A sampling frame is the list(s) or resource(s) that contains elements of the defined population (Czaja and Blair, 1996). The Indonesian educational systems below the tertiary level consists of three levels, namely, the elementary school level, junior secondary school level and senior secondary school level. Each school level further consists of state schools, private schools and Islamic schools. The details are as follows:

##### a. Elementary school level

- 1) SDN (*sekolah dasar negeri*), or state elementary school
- 2) SDS (*sekolah dasar swasta*), or private elementary school
- 3) MIN (*madrassah ibtidaiyah*), or Islamic elementary school

##### b. Junior secondary school level

- 1) SMPN (*sekolah menengah pertama negeri*), or state junior secondary school
- 2) SMPS (*sekolah menengah pertama swasta*), or private junior secondary school
- 3) MT (*madrassah tsanawiyah*), or Islamic junior secondary school

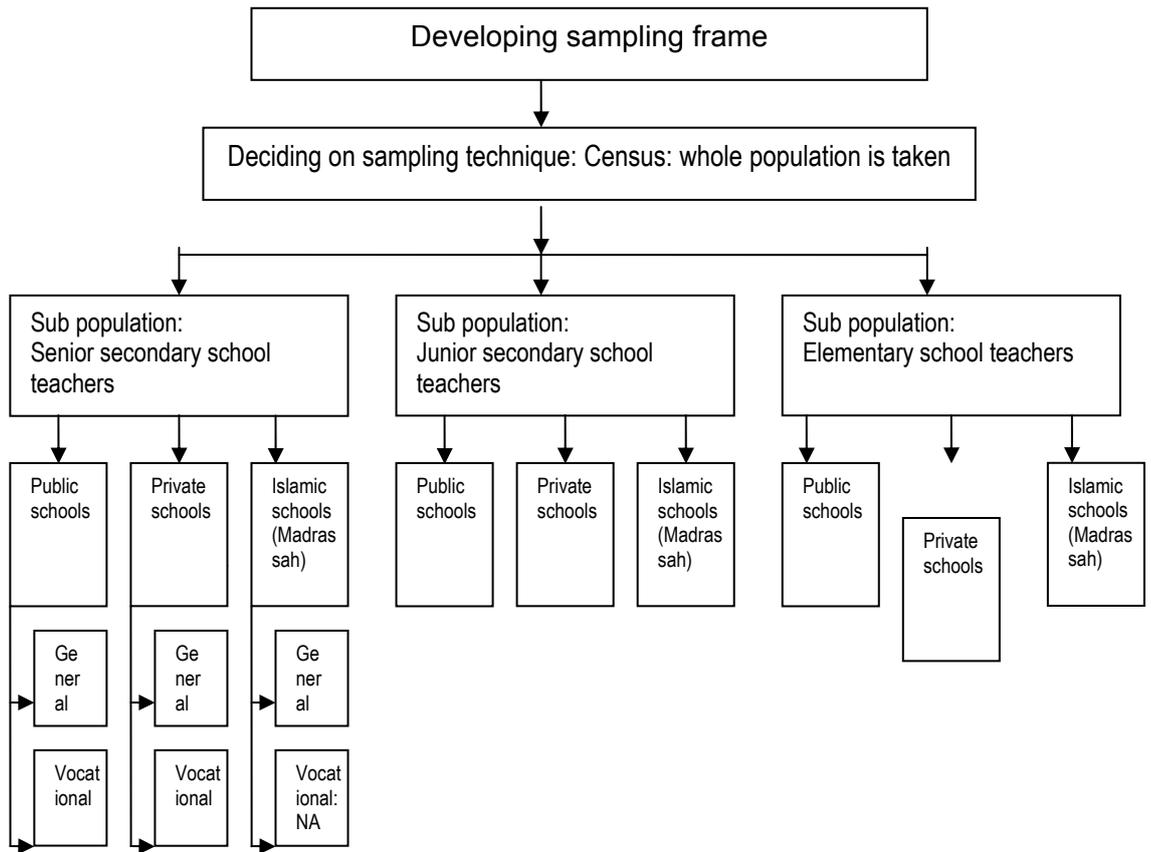
##### c. Senior secondary school level

This level consists of two streams, i.e., the general stream (SMA) and the vocational stream (SMK)

- 1) SMA (*sekolah menengah atas*), or general senior secondary school
  - a) SMAN (*sekolah menengah atas negeri*), or state senior secondary school
  - b) SMAS (*sekolah menengah atas swasta*), or private senior secondary school
  - c) MA (*madrassah aliyah*), or Islamic senior secondary school

- 2) SMK (*sekolah menengah kejuruan*), or vocational secondary school
  - a) SMKN (*sekolah menengah kejuruan negeri*), or state vocational school
  - b) SMKS (*sekolah menengah kejuruan swasta*), or private vocational school
  - c) – (There is no vocational *madrassah*)

As their numbers were too small if taken separately, both *madrassah* types at every level were combined into just ‘Islamic school’.

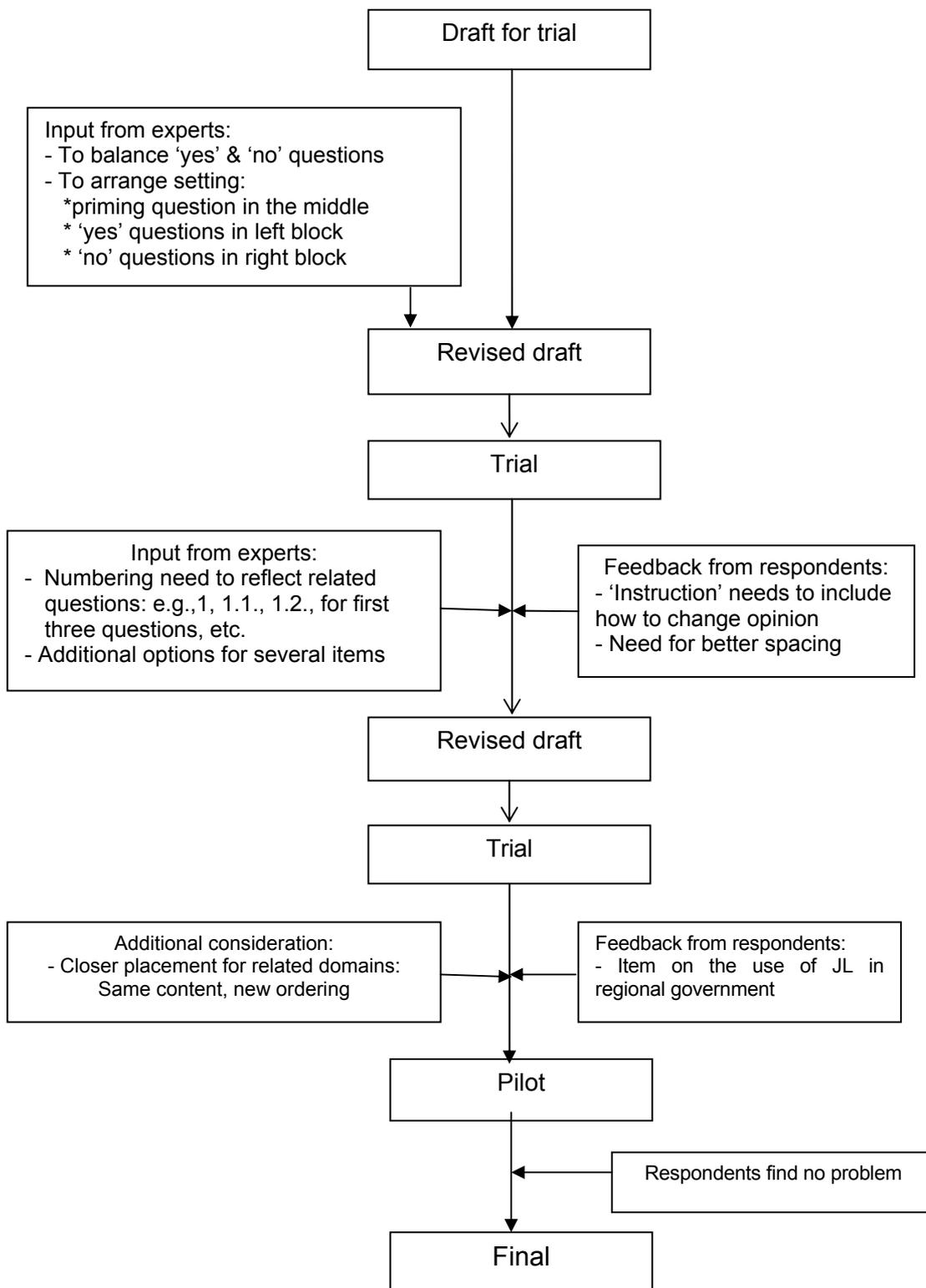


**Appendix 8 Figure 5 Breakdown of Population of Sleman JL Teachers**

**Appendix 8 Table 4 The Composition of Sleman JL Teachers' Population**

	School level/type			Population size (N)	%	
				Composition		
				f		
a	Senior secondary school	SMA (general stream)	Islamic	12	1.62%	
			Private	27	3.64%	
			Public	17	2.29%	
		SMK (vocational stream)	Islamic	0	0.00%	
			Private	44	5.94%	
			Public	8	1.08%	
b	Junior secondary school	SMP	Islamic	17	2.29%	
			Private	47	6.34%	
			Public	54	7.29%	
c	Elementary school	SD	Islamic	17	2.29%	
			Private	116	15.65%	
			Public	382	51.55%	
<b>Total</b>				<b>741</b>	<b>100.00%</b>	

**Appendix 9 Additional Information for Chapter 3, Section 3.3.1.3. Outline of Questionnaire Refinement**



**Appendix 9 Figure 6 Procedure for Questionnaire Trial and Pilot**

## Appendix 10 Detailed Information for Chapter 4, Section 4.1. The Original Articles and Verses of Language-Related Laws (in Indonesian) and their Corresponding Translations in English

Note:

In various laws, the Indonesian language is sometimes written as *bahasa Indonesia* while at other times as *Bahasa Indonesia*), even when the expression does not lie at the start of a sentence. For consistency, in this thesis, the Indonesian language is written as *bahasa Indonesia*, except when the expression lies at the start of a sentence or when it represents a direct quotation.

### Appendix 10 Table 5 Status Planning in National Official Languages: Legal Reference

U 24					
P 1		<i>... Bahasa Indonesia adalah bahasa resmi nasional yang digunakan di seluruh wilayah Negara Kesatuan Republik Indonesia</i>	A 1		... The Indonesian language is the official national language that is used <u>throughout the area of the Unitary State of the Republic of Indonesia</u> .
P 25	Ay 3	<i>Bahasa Indonesia sebagai bahasa resmi negara ... berfungsi sebagai bahasa resmi kenegaraan ...</i>	A 25	V 3	The Indonesian language as the country's official language ... functions as the state's (country's) official language ...
P 26		<i>Bahasa Indonesia wajib digunakan dalam peraturan perundang-undangan.</i>	A 26		The use of the Indonesian language is obligatory in laws and regulations.
P 27		<i>Bahasa Indonesia wajib digunakan dalam dokumen resmi Negara....</i>	A 27		The use of the Indonesian language is obligatory in official public documents....

Note: *Negara Kesatuan Republik Indonesia* (the Unitary State of the Republic of Indonesia) is the full formal name of the Republic of Indonesia

### Appendix 10 Table 6 Status Planning in Regional Official Languages

M 40					
2		<i>Kepala daerah bertugas melaksanakan: a. pelestarian dan pengutamaan penggunaan bahasa negara ... c. sosialisasi penggunaan bahasa Negara sebagai bahasa pengantar dalam kegiatan ... forum pertemuan resmi pemerintah dan pemerintahan daerah, surat menyurat resmi/ kedinasan ...</i>	A2		A regional head serves to implement: a. conservation and prioritisation of the use of the state language ... c. the socialisation of the use of the state language as the language of communication in the activities of ... official forums for the government and regional government, in official correspondence ...

**Appendix 10 Table 7 Status Planning in the Languages in the Workplace**

		U 24			
P 25	Ay 3	<i>Bahasa Indonesia sebagai bahasa resmi negara ... berfungsi sebagai ... komunikasi tingkat nasional ... transaksi dan dokumentasi niaga ....</i>	A 25	V 3	The Indonesian language as the country's official language ... national communication ... business transaction and documentation ....
P 27		<i>Bahasa Indonesia wajib digunakan dalam dokumen resmi negara.</i>	A 27		The use of Indonesian language is obligatory in official public documents.
Pen		<i>Yang dimaksud "dokumen resmi negara" adalah antara lain surat keputusan, surat berharga, ijazah, surat keterangan, surat identitas diri, akta jual beli, surat perjanjian, putusan pengadilan.</i>	Ex p		What is meant by "official public documents" include letters of decisions, securities, certificates, letters of explanation, identification documents, letters of transaction, letters of agreement, court decisions
P 33	Ay 1	<i>Bahasa Indonesia wajib digunakan dalam komunikasi resmi di lingkungan kerja pemerintah dan swasta.</i>	A 33	V 1	The use of Indonesian language is obligatory in official communication in governmental and private workplace environments.
		<b>Y 1</b>			
		<i>Instruksi ... untuk: Menerapkan penggunaan bahasa Jawa di lingkungan kerja masing-masing setiap hari Sabtu pada jam kerja dalam hal: a. Rapat dinas b. Percakapan melalui telepon c. Percakapan sehari-hari</i>			Instruction ... to: Facilitate the use of the Javanese language within their respective work environment on Saturday during work hours with respect to: a. Official meetings b. Telephone conversations c. Daily conservations

**Appendix 10 Table 8 Status Planning in the Languages in the Workplace: Forum**

		U 24			
P 32	Ay 1	<i>Bahasa Indonesia wajib digunakan dalam forum yang bersifat nasional atau forum yang bersifat internasional di Indonesia.</i>	A 32	V 1	The Indonesian language must be used in a national or international forum that is held in Indonesia.

**Appendix 10 Table 9 Status Planning in the Languages for Public Service Areas**

U 24					
P 30		<i>Bahasa Indonesia wajib digunakan dalam pelayanan administrasi negara di instansi pemerintahan.</i>	A 30		The Indonesian language must be used in the service of public administration in governmental institutions.
P 37	Ay 1	<i>Bahasa Indonesia wajib digunakan dalam informasi tentang produk barang atau jasa produksi ... di Indonesia.</i>	A 37	V 1	The Indonesian language must be used in the information on the products and services ... in Indonesia.
P 37	Ay 2	<i>Informasi ... dimaksud ... dapat dilengkapi dengan bahasa daerah atau bahasa asing sesuai dengan keperluan.</i>	A 37	V 2	The stated information ... could be supplemented with heritage or foreign languages as necessary.

**Appendix 10 Table 10 Status Planning in Signage Languages**

U 24					
P 36	Ay 3	<i>Bahasa Indonesia wajib digunakan untuk nama bangunan atau gedung, jalan, apartemen atau permukiman, perkantoran, kompleks perdagangan, merek dagang, lembaga usaha, lembaga pendidikan, organisasi yang didirikan atau dimiliki oleh warga negara Indonesia atau badan negara Indonesia.</i>	A 36	V 3	The use of the Indonesian language is obligatory for the names of buildings, streets, apartments or housing compounds, offices, business compounds, trade marks, trade institutions, educational institutions, organisations that are founded or owned by Indonesian citizens or Indonesian legal entities.
P 36	Ay 4	<i>Penamaan ... dimaksud ... dapat menggunakan bahasa daerah atau bahasa asing apabila memiliki nilai sejarah, budaya, adat istiadat, dan/atau keagamaan.</i>	A 36	V 4	The stated naming ... could use heritage or foreign languages if [the stated objects] possess historical, cultural, customs and/or religious values.
P 38	Ay 1	<i>Bahasa Indonesia wajib digunakan dalam rambu umum, penunjuk jalan, fasilitas umum, spanduk, dan alat informasi lain yang merupakan pelayanan umum.</i>	A 38	V 1	The Indonesian language must be used in street signs, street directories, public facilities, posters, and other information media that comprise public service.
P 38	Ay 2	<i>Penggunaan Bahasa Indonesia ... dapat disertai bahasa daerah dan/atau bahasa asing.</i>	A 38	V 2	The use of the Indonesian language ... could be accompanied with heritage and/or foreign languages.

**Appendix 10 Table 11 Status Planning in the Languages for Wider Communication**

		U 24			
P 25	Ay 2	<i>Bahasa Indonesia ... berfungsi sebagai jati diri bangsa, kebanggaan nasional, sarana pemersatu berbagai suku bangsa, serta sarana komunikasi antar daerah dan antar budaya daerah.</i>	A 25	V 2	The Indonesian language ... functions as the nation's identity, national pride, the means for uniting various ethnic groups, and the means of communication among regions and regional cultures.

**Appendix 10 Table 12 Status Planning in International Languages**

		U 24			
P 31	Ay 1	<i>Bahasa Indonesia wajib digunakan dalam nota kesepahaman atau perjanjian yang melibatkan lembaga negara, instansi pemerintah Republik Indonesia, lembaga swasta Indonesia atau perseorangan warga negara Indonesia.</i>	A 31	V 1	The Indonesian language must be used in the letters of understanding or agreements that involve state institutions, the government institutions of the Republic of Indonesia, Indonesian private or personal institutions.
P 31	Ay 2	<i>Nota kesepahaman atau perjanjian ... dimaksud ... yang melibatkan pihak asing ditulis juga dalam bahasa nasional pihak asing tersebut dan/atau bahasa Inggris.</i>	A 31	V 2	The ... stated ... letters of understanding or agreement that involve a foreign party are also written in the national language of the foreign party and/or English
P 32	Ay 1	<i>Bahasa Indonesia wajib digunakan dalam forum yang bersifat nasional atau forum yang bersifat internasional di Indonesia.</i>	A3 2	V 1	The Indonesian language must be used in a national or international forum in Indonesia.
P 32	Ay 2	<i>Bahasa Indonesia dapat digunakan dalam forum yang bersifat internasional di luar negeri.</i>	A3 2	V 2	The Indonesian language can be used in international forums overseas.
P 44	Ay 1	<i>Pemerintah meningkatkan fungsi Bahasa Indonesia menjadi bahasa internasional secara bertahap, sistematis, dan berkelanjutan.</i>	A 44	V 1	The government elevates the function of the Indonesian language to become an international language in a gradual, systematic and continuous manner.

**Appendix 10 Table 13 Status Planning in the Languages of Literature and Scholarly Works: Literature**

		U 24			
P 25	Ay 3	<i>Bahasa Indonesia sebagai bahasa resmi negara berfungsi sebagai bahasa resmi ... pengembangan kebudayaan nasional ... seni ....</i>	A 25	V 3	The Indonesian language as the country's official language functions as the official language of ... the development of national culture ... art ....
P 41	Ay 1	<i>Pemerintah (pusat/nasional) wajib mengembangkan, membina, dan melindungi bahasa dan sastra Indonesia agar tetap memenuhi kedudukan dan fungsinya dalam kehidupan bermasyarakat, berbangsa, dan bernegara, sesuai dengan perkembangan zaman.</i>	A 41	V 1	The (central/national) government is obligated to develop, cultivate and protect the Indonesian language and culture in order that it continues its status and function in the community, national and state affairs in line with societal development.
P 42	Ay 1	<i>Pemerintah daerah wajib mengembangkan, membina, dan melindungi bahasa dan sastra daerah agar tetap memenuhi kedudukan dan fungsinya dalam kehidupan bermasyarakat sesuai dengan perkembangan zaman dan agar tetap menjadi bagian dari kekayaan budaya Indonesia.</i>	A 42	V 1	The regional governments are obligated to develop, cultivate, and protect heritage languages and cultures in order that they continue to serve their status and function in the community affairs in line with societal development and to continue as the components of Indonesian cultural heritage.

**Appendix 9 Table 14 Status Planning in the Languages of Literature and Scholarly Works: Science and Technology**

		U 24			
P 25	Ay 3	<i>Bahasa Indonesia sebagai bahasa resmi negara berfungsi sebagai ... sarana pengembangan dan pemanfaatan ilmu pengetahuan, teknologi ....</i>	A 25	V 3	The Indonesian language as the country's official language functions as ... the means for developing and utilising science, technology, art ....
P 35	Ay 1	<i>Bahasa Indonesia wajib digunakan dalam penulisan karya ilmiah dan publikasi karya ilmiah di Indonesia.</i>	A 35	V 1	The use of the Indonesian language is obligatory in the writing of scientific works and their publication in Indonesia.
P 35	2	<i>Penulisan dan publikasi ... dimaksud .... Untuk tujuan atau bidang kajian khusus dapat menggunakan bahasa daerah atau bahasa asing.</i>		2	The stated writing and publication ... for special objectives or disciplines may use heritage or foreign languages.
P 32	Ay 1	<i>Bahasa Indonesia wajib digunakan dalam forum yang bersifat nasional atau forum yang bersifat internasional di Indonesia.</i>	Ar 32	V 1	The use of the Indonesian language is obligatory in a national or international forum that is held in Indonesia.

**Appendix 10 Table 15 Status Planning in Group and Community Languages**

		U 24			
P 41	Ay 1	<i>Pemerintah (pusat/nasional) wajib mengembangkan, membina, dan melindungi bahasa dan sastra Indonesia agar tetap memenuhi kedudukan dan fungsinya dalam kehidupan bermasyarakat, berbangsa, dan bernegara, sesuai dengan perkembangan zaman</i>	A 41	V 1	The (central/national) government is obligated to develop, cultivate and protect the Indonesian language and culture in order that it continues its status and function in the community, national and state affairs in line with societal development
P 42	Ay 1	<i>Pemerintah daerah wajib mengembangkan, membina, dan melindungi bahasa dan sastra daerah agar tetap memenuhi kedudukan dan fungsinya dalam kehidupan bermasyarakat sesuai dengan perkembangan zaman dan agar tetap menjadi bagian dari kekayaan budaya Indonesia.</i>	A 42	V 1	The regional governments are obligated to develop, cultivate, and protect heritage languages and cultures in order that they continue to serve their status and function in community affairs in line with societal development and to continue as the components of Indonesian cultural heritage.

**Appendix 10 Table 16 Acquisition Planning in Foreign Languages**

		U 24			
P 43	Ay 1	<i>Pemerintah dapat memfasilitasi warga negara Indonesia yang ingin memiliki kompetensi berbahasa asing dalam rangka peningkatan daya saing bangsa.</i>	A 43	V 1	The government may provide facilitation to Indonesian citizens who want to improve their foreign language abilities in order to improve the national competitive edge.

Note: Pen (Exp) *Penjelasan* (Explanation)

**Appendix 10 Table 17 Acquisition Planning in Languages as Subjects for Instruction**

<b>U 20</b>					
<i>P</i> 37	<i>Ay</i> 1	<i>Kurikulum pendidikan dasar dan menengah wajib memuat: ... c. bahasa ... g. seni dan budaya ... j. muatan local ...</i>	<i>A</i> 37	<i>V1</i>	Primary and secondary education curricula must include: ... c. language ... g. art and culture ... j. local content ...
<i>Pe</i> <i>n</i>		<i>Penjelasan: Bahan kajian bahasa mencakup Bahasa Indonesia, bahasa daerah, dan bahasa asing dengan pertimbangan: 1. Bahasa Indonesia merupakan bahasa nasional; 2. Bahasa daerah merupakan bahasa Ibu bagi peserta didik; dan 3. Bahasa asing terutama bahasa Inggris merupakan bahasa internasional yang sangat penting kegunaannya dalam pergaulan global.</i>	<i>Exp</i>		<i>Explanation: The subjects for instruction include the Indonesian language, heritage languages, and foreign languages with the consideration: 1. The Indonesian language is a national language; 2. Heritage languages are mother tongues for the students; and 3. Foreign languages, especially English comprise international languages that are highly important for global communication.</i>
<i>P3</i> 7	<i>Ay</i> 2	<i>Kurikulum pendidikan tinggi wajib memuat: ... c. bahasa ...</i>	<i>A</i> 37	<i>V2</i>	The curriculum for tertiary education must include: ... c. language ...
<b>Y 423.5</b>					
	<i>Ut</i> <i>am</i> <i>a</i>	<i>... dihimbau kepada: 1. Bupati/Walikota se Propinsi DIY untuk ... memberlakukan bahasa Jawa sebagai kurikulum muatan local wajib bagi SD, SMP/MTs, SMA/MA dan SMK.</i>		<i>Ma</i> <i>in</i>	<i>... call for: 1. The regents/mayors within the Province of Special Area of Yogyakarta to ... implement the Javanese language as obligatory local content for elementary, junior secondary, senior secondary, and vocational schools.</i>

Note: Pen (Exp) *Penjelasan* (Explanation)

**Appendix 10 Table 18 Acquisition Planning in Languages for the Medium of Instruction**

		<b>U 24</b>			
<i>P</i> 25	<i>Ay</i> 3	<i>Bahasa Indonesia ... berfungsi sebagai ... pengantar pendidikan ....</i>	A 25	V 3	The Indonesian language ... functions as ... the medium of instruction in education ....
<i>P</i> 29	<i>Ay</i> 1	<i>Bahasa Indonesia wajib digunakan sebagai bahasa pengantar dalam pendidikan nasional.</i>	A 29	V 1	The use of the Indonesian language is obligatory as the medium of instruction in national education.
	<i>Ay</i> 2	<i>Bahasa pengantar ... dimaksud ... dapat menggunakan bahasa asing untuk tujuan yang mendukung kemampuan berbahasa asing peserta didik.</i>		V 2	The stated medium of instruction ... may consist of a foreign language in order to attain a goal that enhances the ability to use a foreign language among students.
		<b>U 20</b>			
<i>P</i> 33	<i>Ay</i> 1	<i>Bahasa Indonesia sebagai bahasa negara menjadi bahasa pengantar dalam pendidikan nasional.</i>	A 33	V 1	The Indonesian language as the official language serves as the medium of instruction in national education.
<i>P</i> 33	<i>Ay</i> 2	<i>Bahasa daerah dapat digunakan sebagai bahasa pengantar dalam tahap awal pendidikan apabila diperlukan dalam penyampaian pengetahuan dan/atau keterampilan tertentu.</i>	A 33	V 2	A heritage language could be used as the medium of instruction in the early years of education if it is required in the transmission of certain knowledge and/or skills.
<i>Pen.</i>		<i>Pengajaran bahasa daerah pada jenjang pendidikan dasar di suatu daerah disesuaikan dengan intensitas penggunaannya dalam wilayah yang bersangkutan. Tahap awal pendidikan adalah pendidikan pada tahun pertama dan kedua sekolah dasar.</i>	<i>Exp.</i>		The instruction of a heritage language in elementary school in a region is varied according to the intensity of its use in the corresponding region. The early years in education comprise the first and second years of elementary level.
<i>P</i> 33	<i>Ay</i> 3	<i>Bahasa asing dapat digunakan sebagai bahasa pengantar pada satuan pendidikan tertentu untuk mendukung kemampuan berbahasa asing peserta didik.</i>	A 33	V 3	A foreign language could be used as the medium of instruction in a certain educational unit in order to support the mastery of a foreign language among students.

Note: Pen (Exp) *Penjelasan* (Explanation)

### Appendix 10 Table 19 Acquisition Planning in the Languages in Mass Media

		U 24			
P 25	A3	<i>Bahasa Indonesia ... berfungsi sebagai ... bahasa media massa.</i>	A 25	V3	The Indonesian language ... functions as ... the language of mass media.
P 39	A1	<i>Bahasa Indonesia wajib digunakan dalam informasi melalui media massa.</i>	A 39	V1	The use of the Indonesian language is obligatory in information through the mass media.
	A2	<i>Media massa ... dapat menggunakan bahasa daerah atau bahasa asing yang mempunyai tujuan khusus atau sasaran khusus.</i>		V2	The mass media ... could use heritage or foreign languages for special objectives or audience.

### Appendix 10 Table 20 Corpus Planning in Language Academy

		U 24			
P	Ay		A	V	
41	1	<i>Pemerintah wajib mengembangkan, membina, dan melindungi bahasa dan sastra Indonesia ....</i>	41	1	The government is obligated to develop, cultivate and protect the Indonesian language ...
41	2	<i>Pengembangan, pembinaan, dan perlindungan ... pada ayat 1 dilakukan ... oleh lembaga kebahasaan</i>	41	2	The development, cultivation and protection ... in V 1 are performed ... by a language institute.
42	1	<i>Pemerintah daerah wajib mengembangkan, membina, dan melindungi bahasa dan sastra daerah ....</i>	42	1	The regional governments are obligated to develop, cultivate, and protect heritage languages ...
	2	<i>Pengembangan, pembinaan, dan perlindungan ... dimaksud ... dilakukan ... oleh pemerintah daerah di bawah koordinasi lembaga kebahasaan.</i>		2	The said development, cultivation, and protection are performed by regional governments under the coordination of a language institution.

**Appendix 10 Table 21 Corpus Planning in Codification and Elaboration for Languages: General Case**

		U 24			
P	Ay		A	V	
41	1	<i>Pemerintah wajib mengembangkan, ... bahasa dan sastra Indonesia agar tetap memenuhi kedudukan dan fungsinya dalam kehidupan bermasyarakat, berbangsa, dan bernegara, sesuai dengan perkembangan zaman</i>	41	1	The government is obligated to develop ... the Indonesian language and literature in order that it continues its status and function in the community, national and state affairs in line with societal development
Pen		<i>'Pengembangan bahasa' adalah upaya memodernkan bahasa melalui pemerikayaan kosakata, pemantapan dan pembakuan system bahasa, pengembangan laras bahasa.</i>	Exp		'Language development' is the effort of modernising the language through vocabulary enrichment, the stabilisation and standardisation of the language system, the development of language style.
42	1	<i>Pemerintah daerah wajib mengembangkan ... bahasa dan sastra daerah agar tetap memenuhi kedudukan dan fungsinya dalam kehidupan bermasyarakat sesuai dengan perkembangan zaman dan agar tetap menjadi bagian dari kekayaan budaya Indonesia.</i>	42	1	The regional governments are obligated to develop... heritage languages and cultures in order that they continue to serve their status and function in the community life in line with societal development and to continue as the components of Indonesian cultural heritage.

**Appendix 10 Table 22 Corpus Planning in Codification and Elaboration for the Javanese Language**

		Y 1			
Utama		<i>Menginstruksikan .... Untuk: ... b. Memaklumi kekurangtepatan penggunaan Bahasa Jawa</i>	Main		Giving instruction ....To: ,, b. Accept the inaccuracies in the use of the Javanese language

**Appendix 11 Additional Information for Chapter 4, Section 4.2. Example of Data Analysis for the Respondents' Answers to the Multiple Choice Parts of the Questionnaire**

Resp No	1.a	1a1				1a2				
		a	b	c	d	a	b	c	d	
1	N	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	
2	Y	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	
3	Y	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	
4	&	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
5	Y	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	
6	Y	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	
7	Y	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	
8	Y	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	
9	Y	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	
===== No 10 through No 352 are excluded from this example =====										
353	Y	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	
354	Y	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	
355	Y	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	
356	Y	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	
357	Y	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	
358	Y	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	
359	Y	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	
360	Y	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	
361	Y	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	
Recapitulation										
	Y	292	150	222	223	81	50	38	9	9
	N	62								
	\$	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	&	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
		361								
Recapitulation for answers to priming question										
	1.a	Yes	No	Inv	Blk	Total				
		f	f	f	f	f	f	f	f	f
		%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
		292	62	1	6	361				
		80.9%	17.2%	0.3%	1.7%	100.0%				

Recapitulation for answers to follow up questions										Note:
Following 'Yes'					Following 'No'				Y=yes	N=No
1a1	f	% fr y	% fr T	1a2	f	%n	%T	\$=invalid		
a	150	51.4%	41.6%	a	50	80.6%	13.9%	&=blank		
b	222	76.0%	61.5%	b	38	61.3%	10.5%	% fr y= % from 'Yes'		
c	223	76.4%	61.8%	c	9	14.5%	2.5%	% fr n = % from 'No'		
d	81	27.7%	22.4%	d	9	14.5%	2.5%	% fr T = % from Total		

**Appendix 12 Detailed information for Chapter 4, Section 4.2. Detailed Distribution of Respondents' Answers to the Multiple Choice Parts of the Questionnaire**

In Chapter 4, Section 4.2., in order to simplify discussion, only valid 'Yes' an 'No' answers are presented. In this Appendix, all answers are presented; namely, 'Yes', 'N', blank, and invalid answers.

**Appendix 12 Table 23 JL in the Workplace and Government Administration: Level of Support**

1.a	Yes		No		Invalid		Blank		Total	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
	292	80.9%	62	17.2%	1	0.3%	6	1.7%	361	100.0%

1.b	Yes		No		Invalid		Blank		Total	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
	192	53.2%	163	45.2%	0	0.0%	6	1.7%	361	100.0%

**Appendix 12 Table 24 JL in the Workplace and Government Administration: Reasons for "Yes"**

1.a.1	f	% from 'yes'	% from Total
a	150	51.4%	41.6%
b	222	76.0%	61.5%
c	223	76.4%	61.8%
d	81	27.7%	22.4%

1.b.1	f	% from 'yes'	% from Total
a	118	61.5%	32.7%
b	155	80.7%	42.9%
c	136	70.8%	37.7%
d	46	24.0%	12.7%

**Appendix 12 Table 25 JL in the Workplace and Government Administration: Reasons for "No"**

1.a.2	f	% from 'no'	% from Total
a	50	80.6%	13.9%
b	38	61.3%	10.5%
c	9	14.5%	2.5%
d	9	14.5%	2.5%

1.b.2	f	% from 'no'	% from Total
a	136	83.4%	37.7%
b	106	65.0%	29.4%
c	33	20.2%	9.1%
d	16	9.8%	4.4%

**Appendix 12 Table 26 JL Public Service Areas and Public Signage: Level of Support**

2	Yes		No		Invalid		Blank		Total	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
	226	62.6%	132	36.6%	0	0.0%	3	0.8%	361	100.0%

3	Yes		No		Invalid		Blank		Total	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
	244	67.6%	116	32.1%	0	0.0%	1	0.3%	361	100.0%

**Appendix 12 Table 27 JL in Public Service Areas and Public Signage: Reasons for “Yes”**

2.1	f	% from ‘yes’	% from Total
a	111	49.1%	30.7%
b	170	75.2%	47.1%
c	167	73.9%	46.3%
d	38	16.8%	10.5%

3.1	f	% from ‘yes’	% from Total
a	117	48.0%	32.4%
b	160	65.6%	44.3%
c	175	71.7%	48.5%
d	150	61.5%	41.6%
e	47	19.3%	13.0%

**Appendix 12 Table 28 JL in Public Service Areas and Public Signage: Reasons for “No”**

2.2	f	% from ‘no’	% from Total
a	110	83.3%	30.5%
b	35	26.5%	9.7%
c	70	53.0%	19.4%
d	16	12.1%	4.4%

3.2	f	% from ‘no’	% from Total
a	67	57.8%	18.6%
b	62	53.4%	17.2%
c	29	25.0%	8.0%
d	57	49.1%	15.8%
e	7	6.0%	1.9%

**Appendix 12 Table 29 JL in Science and Technology and the Need for Reserve  
Area: Level of Support**

4	Yes		No		Invalid		Blank		Total	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
	264	73.1%	96	26.6%	0	0.0%	1	0.3%	361	100.0%

5	Yes		No		Invalid		Blank		Total	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
	268	74.2%	90	24.9%	0	0.0%	3	0.8%	361	100.0%

**Appendix 12 Table 30 JL in Science and Technology and the Need for Reserve  
Area: Reasons for “Yes”**

4.1	f	% from ‘yes’	% from Total
a	241	91.3%	66.8%
b	209	79.2%	57.9%
c	100	37.9%	27.7%
d	26	9.8%	7.2%

5.1	f	% from ‘yes’	% from Total
a	253	94.4%	70.1%
b	133	49.6%	36.8%
c	182	67.9%	50.4%
d	40	14.9%	11.1%

**Appendix 12 Table 31 JL in Science and Technology and the Need For Reserve  
Area: Reasons for “No”**

4.2	f	% from ‘no’	% from Total
a	83	86.5%	23.0%
b	25	26.0%	6.9%
c	46	47.9%	12.7%
d	8	8.3%	2.2%

5.2	f	% from ‘no’	% from Total
a	86	95.6%	23.8%
b	43	47.8%	11.9%
c	31	34.4%	8.6%
d	10	11.1%	2.8%

**Appendix 12 Table 32 JL in the Family and Neighbourhood: Level of support**

6	Yes		No		Invalid		Blank		Total	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
	195	54.0%	166	46.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	361	100.0%

7	Yes		No		Invalid		Blank		Total	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
	196	54.3%	165	45.7%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	361	100.0%

**Appendix 12 Table 33 JL in the Family and Neighbourhood: Reasons for “Yes”**

6.1	f	% from ‘yes’	% from Total
a	174	89.2%	48.2%
b	170	87.2%	47.1%
c	157	80.5%	43.5%
d	22	11.3%	6.1%

7.1	f	% from ‘yes’	% from Total
a	161	82.1%	44.6%
b	179	91.3%	49.6%
c	134	68.4%	37.1%
d	20	10.2%	5.5%

**Appendix 12 Table 34 JL in the Family And Neighbourhood: Reasons for “No”**

6.2	f	% from ‘no’	% from Total
a	156	94.0%	43.2%
b	9	5.4%	2.5%
c	105	63.3%	29.1%
d	18	10.8%	5.0%

7.2	f	% from ‘no’	% from Total
a	23	13.9%	6.4%
b	152	92.1%	42.1%
c	73	44.2%	20.2%
d	14	8.5%	3.9%

**Appendix 12 Table 35 JL as the Subject for Instruction: Level of support**

8	For ‘Independent’		For ‘Embedded’		Invalid		Blank		Total	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
	348	96.4%	11	3.0%	1	0.3%	1	0.3%	361	100.0%

**Appendix 12 Table 36 JL as Separate (Independent) Subject: Reasons for Support**

8.1	f	% from 'yes'	% from Total
a	298	85.6%	82.5%
b	312	89.7%	86.4%
c	272	78.2%	75.3%
d	41	11.8%	11.4%

**Appendix 12 Table 37 JL as Separate (Independent) Subject: Support for Instruction at Various Levels**

	Y		N		&		\$		Sum	
	f	% from Total	f	% from Total	f	% from Total	f	% from Total	f	% from Total
Kindergarten	295	81.7%	11	3.0%	41	11.4%	2	0.6%	349	96.7%
Elementary, year 1-2	328	90.9%	4	1.1%	13	3.6%	4	1.1%	349	96.7%
Elementary, year 3-6	338	93.6%	2	0.0%	6	0.0%	3	0.0%	349	93.6%
Junior secondary	330	91.4%	3	0.8%	14	3.9%	2	0.6%	349	96.7%
Senior secondary	321	88.9%	5	1.4%	21	5.8%	2	0.6%	349	96.7%
Tertiary	183	50.7%	27	7.5%	137	38.0%	2	0.6%	349	96.7%

Note: Support for JL instruction as independent subject: 349

Support for JL instruction as embedded subject: 12 (see below) Total: 361

**Appendix 11 Table 38 JL as Embedded (integrated into Another) Subject: Reasons:**

8.2	f	% from 'no'	% from Total
a	4	36.4%	1.1%
b	10	90.9%	2.8%
c	7	63.6%	1.9%
d	1	9.1%	0.3%

**Appendix 12 Table 39: JL as Embedded (Integrated into Another) Subject: Support for Instruction at Various Levels**

	Y		N		&		\$		Sum	
	f	% from Total	f	% from Total	f	% from Total	f	% from Total	f	% from Total
Kindergarten	10	2.8%	0	0.0%	1	0.3%	1	0.3%	12	3.3%
Primary, year 1-2	10	2.8%	0	0.0%	1	0.3%	1	0.3%	12	3.3%
Primary, year 3-6	9	2.5%	0	0.0%	2	0.6%	1	0.3%	12	3.3%
Junior secondary	10	2.8%	0	0.0%	1	0.3%	1	0.3%	12	3.3%
Senior secondary	9	2.5%	0	0.0%	2	0.6%	1	0.3%	12	3.3%
Tertiary	3	0.8%	1	0.3%	7	1.9%	1	0.3%	12	3.3%

Note: Support for JL instruction as independent subject: 349 (see above)

Support for JL instruction as embedded subject: 12 Total: 361

**Appendix 12 Table 40: JL as the Medium of Instruction and in the Mass Media: Level Of Support**

9	Yes		No		Invalid		Blank		Total	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
	256	70.9%	103	28.5%	1	0.3%	1	0.3%	361	100.0%

10	Yes		No		Invalid		Blank		Total	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
	216	59.8%	142	39.3%	0	0.0%	3	0.8%	361	100.0%

**Appendix 12 Table 41 JL as the Medium of Instruction and in the Mass Media: Reasons for “Yes”**

9.1	f	% from ‘yes’	% from Total
a	219	85.5%	60.7%
b	233	91.0%	64.5%
c	122	47.7%	33.8%
d	56	21.9%	15.5%

10.1	f	% from ‘yes’	% from Total
a	190	88.0%	52.6%
b	167	77.3%	46.3%
c	105	48.6%	29.1%
d	33	15.3%	9.1%

**Appendix 12 Table 42 JL as the Medium of Instruction and in the Mass Media: Reasons for “No”**

9.2	f	% from ‘no’	% from Total
a	78	75.7%	21.6%
b	5	4.9%	1.4%
c	85	82.5%	23.5%
d	7	6.8%	1.9%

10.2	f	% from ‘no’	% from Total
a	124	87.3%	34.3%
b	20	14.1%	5.5%
c	50	35.2%	13.9%
d	21	14.8%	5.8%

**Appendix 12 Table 43: Language Academy for JL: Level of Support**

11	Yes		No		Invalid		Blank		Total	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
	352	97.5%	8	2.2%	0	0.0%	1	0.3%	361	100.0%

**Appendix 12 Table 44 Language Academy for JL: Reasons for “Yes”**

11.1	f	% from ‘yes’	% from Total
a	337	95.7%	93.4%
b	198	56.3%	54.8%
c	303	86.1%	83.9%
d	31	8.8%	8.6%

**Appendix 12 Table 45 Language Academy for JL: Reasons for “No”**

11.2	f	% from ‘no’	% from Total
a	7	87.5%	1.9%
b	0	0.0%	0.0%
c	5	62.5%	1.4%
d	1	12.5%	0.3%

**Appendix 12 Table 46: Orthography for JL: Preference**

12	L		C		Both		Blank		Invalid		Total	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Workplace	228	63.2%	5	1.4%	111	30.7%	12	3.3%	5	1.4%	361	100.0%
Regional government	226	62.6%	5	1.4%	110	30.5%	18	5.0%	2	0.6%	361	100.0%
Education	22	6.1%	6	1.7%	303	83.9%	6	1.7%	24	6.6%	361	100.0%
Mass Media	170	47.1%	5	1.4%	165	45.7%	17	4.7%	4	1.1%	361	100.0%
Neighbourhood	218	60.4%	9	2.5%	116	32.1%	16	4.4%	2	0.6%	361	100.0%
Family	165	45.7%	7	1.9%	168	46.5%	16	4.4%	5	1.4%	361	100.0%

Note: L: Latin C: *Carakan* (traditional)

**Appendix 12 Table 47: Retention of Speech Level for JL: Level of support**

13	Yes	No	0.0%	Invalid	0.0%	Blank	0.0%	Total	0.0%	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
	355	98.3%	4	1.1%	0	0.0%	2	0.6%	361	100.0%

**Appendix 12 Table 48: Retention of Speech Level for JL: Reasons**

13.1	f	% from ‘yes’	% from Total
a	299	84.2%	82.8%
b	339	95.5%	93.9%
c	294	82.8%	81.4%
d	25	7.0%	6.9%

**Appendix 12 Table 49: Retention of Speech Level for JL: Choice of Level for Various Communication Types**

13.3	<i>Krama alus</i> (High & Refined)		<i>Krama</i> (High)		<i>Ngoko alus</i> (Low & Refined)		<i>Ngoko</i> (Low)		Invalid		Blank		Sum	
	f	% of T	f	% of T	f	% of T	f	% of T	f	% of T	f	% of T	f	% of T
a	47	13.0%	39	10.8%	242	67.0%	9	2.5%	17	4.7%	2	0.6%	356	98.6%
b	327	90.6%	8	2.2%	9	2.5%	0	0.0%	10	2.8%	2	0.6%	356	98.6%
c	93	25.8%	48	13.3%	184	51.0%	4	1.1%	25	6.9%	2	0.6%	356	98.6%

Note: a: Superior to subordinate b: Subordinate to superior c: Between equals  
 Support for retention of speech level: 356  
 Support for abandonment of speech level: 6. Total: 361

**Appendix 12 Table 50 Abandonment of Speech Level for JL: Reasons**

13.2	f	% from 'no'	% from Total
a	3	75.0%	0.8%
b	4	100.0%	1.1%
c	0	0.0%	0.0%
d	0	0.0%	0.0%

**Appendix 12 Table 51 Abandonment of Speech Level for JL: Choice of Level for Various Communication Types**

13.4	<i>Krama alus</i> (High & Refined)		<i>Krama</i> (High)		<i>Ngoko alus</i> (Low & Refined)		<i>Ngoko</i> (Low)		Invalid		Blank		Sum	
	f	% of T	f	% of T	f	% of T	f	% of T	f	% of T	f	% of T	f	% of T
	1	0.3%	1	0.3%	1	0.3%	0	0.0%	2	0.6%	0	0.0%	5	1.4%

Note: a: Superior to subordinate b: Subordinate to superior c: Between equals  
 Support for retention of speech level: 356  
 Support for abandonment of speech level: 6. Total: 361

**Appendix 12 Table 52 Awareness of JL Manuals Published or Approved by Balai Bahasa Yogyakarta (Yogyakarta Language Institute)**

14	Yes		No		Blank		Invalid		Total	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
a	145	40.2%	165	45.7%	51	14.1%	0	0.0%	361	100.0%
b	109	30.2%	175	48.5%	77	21.3%	0	0.0%	361	100.0%
c	62	17.2%	208	57.6%	91	25.2%	0	0.0%	361	100.0%
d	113	31.3%	172	47.6%	76	21.1%	0	0.0%	361	100.0%
e	61	16.9%	201	55.7%	99	27.4%	0	0.0%	361	100.0%

**Appendix 12 Table 53 Language for JL Manuals: Level of Support**

16	JL		IL		Invalid		Blank		Total	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
	275	76.2%	83	23.0%	1	0.3%	2	0.6%	361	100.0%

**Appendix 12 Table 54 Language for JL Manuals: Reasons for Selecting the Javanese Language for JL Manual**

16.1	f	% from 'yes'	% from Total
a	262	95.3%	72.6%
b	134	48.7%	37.1%
c	193	70.2%	53.5%
d	10	3.6%	2.8%

**Appendix 12 Table 55 Language for JL Manuals: Reasons for Selecting the Indonesian Language for JL Manual**

16.2	f	% from 'no'	% from Total
a	79	95.2%	21.9%
b	62	74.7%	17.2%
c	61	73.5%	16.9%
d	2	2.4%	0.6%

**Appendix 13 Additional information for Chapter 4, Section 4.2. Example of Analysis for Respondent Answers to the Open Parts of the Questionnaire ('d' Options of the Questionnaire)**

**Appendix 13 Table 56 Example of Analysis to Open Option Following 'YES' Answer**

	Answer to questionnaire 1.a.1, option d	Category											
		c	d	i	b	h	o	n	r	uc	e	nr	
1	To support the national language (and) to conserve the Javanese language (JL).	c											
2	To <u>conserve JL</u> so that it won't be extinct.	c											
3	To <u>maintain ethics</u> in social relationship in the workplace				b								
4	To <u>conserve JL</u> in school environment	c											
5	For character education of JL				b								
6	To <u>conserve regional cultural heritage</u> and enrich vocabulary	c											
7	Usually the use of JL is to <u>respect</u> others				b								
8	To <u>conserve noble cultural heritage (JC)</u>	c											
9	To reduce emotional tension (maintain manners) when there is a dispute/argument				b								
10	It is used on Saturday where all school members use JL	c											
11	To <u>develop ethic</u>				b								
12	To <u>conserve Javanese culture (JC)</u>	c											
13	To <u>conserve JC</u> , in which the young generation has scant knowledge/cultural appreciation/cultural conservation.	c											
14	To <u>conserve regional culture (JC)</u>	c											
15	To accustom oneself and maintain <u>identity</u>			i									
16	To <u>conserve JC</u>	c											
The rest of answers to 1.a.1, option d, (no. 18 to no. 82) is not shown in this example													
		34	10	5	17	0	5	4	4	3	0	0	
	Total												82

**Note**

c: involve the conservation/preservation of the Javanese language (JL) and Javanese culture (JC)

o: other reason  
n: news (information)

d: disseminate JL and JC

i: show/maintain (Javanese) feature/identity

m: improve behaviour, through the cultivation of MEMR  
(morality, ethics, manners, and respects)

h: help other people

r: recommendation

uc: unclear

e: expand science and  
technology

**nr:** not relevant

**Appendix 13 Table 57 Example of Analysis to Open Option Following ‘No’ Answer**

	Answer to questionnaire 1.a.2, option d	Category									
		a	d	s	u	o	n	r	uc	nr	
1	Because in the <u>Youth Pledge</u> , there is a mention of “ <u>Speaking one language, the Indonesian language</u> ”			s							
2	Sometimes <u>Javanese people themselves</u> are not <u>fluent</u> in JL (accommodate those who are not fluent in JL).	a									
3	In the <u>Indonesian language</u> there are no levels as they existed in JL.					o					
4	In Yogyakarta, every Saturday there is an obligation to use JL in all institutions (Information).						n				
5	Sometimes does not know the “ <i>kromo</i> ” level when speaking with the more respected person (accommodate those who are not fluent in JL)	a									
		2	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	
	Total										5

Note:

a: accommodate people who are not fluent in JL

d: difficult to implement

s: maintain the spirit of unity through the use of language of Indonesian language

u: unnecessary

o: other reason

n: news (information)

r: recommendation

uc: unclear

nr: not relevant

**Appendix 14 Detailed information for Chapter 4, Section 4.2. Summary Analysis of Respondents' Answers to the Open Parts of the Questionnaire ('d' Options of the Questionnaire) plus Examples of Respondents' Answers on their Knowledge of Javanese Manuals**

**Appendix 14 Table 58 Summary of Open Answers Following 'Yes' Answers**

Ques t. No	Category of open answer											Total
	To conserve JL & JC (c)	To disseminat e JL (d)	To mainta in identit y (i)	To improve behaviour (b)	To help those not fluent in IL (h)	Other reason (o)	Informat ion/ news (n)	Recom menda tion ®	Unclea r (uc)	To expan d JL (e)	Not rele vant (nr)	
1.a	33	11	6	18	2	1	6	4	0	0	0	<b>81</b>
1.b	16	4	4	5	0	0	7	4	1	0	0	<b>41</b>
2	8	9	2	3	3	1	0	8	1	0	0	<b>35</b>
3	22	7	3	0	1	1	8	3	0	0	0	<b>45</b>
4	5	3	0	1	1	4	1	0	3	5	0	<b>23</b>
5	11	4	2	1	3	6	0	4	0	1	0	<b>32</b>
6	9	2	0	6	0	2	0	3	0	0	0	<b>22</b>
7	5	3	1	3	0	3	3	2	0	0	0	<b>20</b>

**Appendix 14 Table 59 Summary of Open Answers Following ‘Yes’ Answers (Continued)**

Ques t. No	Category of open answer											
	To conserve JL & JC (c)	To disseminat e JL (d)	To maintain identity (i)	To improve behaviour (b)	To help teaching and learning (t)	Other reason (o)	Inform ation/n ews (n)	Recom menda tion (r)	Unclea r (uc)	To expan d JL	Not rele vant (nr)	Total
8	9	6	1	2	9	3	6	3	1	0	0	<b>40</b>
9	3	8	0	2	23	2	8	2	0	0	2	<b>50</b>
	To conserve JL & JC (c)	To disseminat e JL (d)	To maintain identity (i)	To improve behaviour (b)	To help those not fluent in IL	Other reason (o)	Inform ation/n ews (n)	Recom menda tion (r)	Unclea r (uc)	To expan d JL	Not rele vant (nr)	Total
10	3	12	0	0	1	4	6	5	1	0	2	<b>34</b>
	To conserve JL & JC (c)	To disseminat e JL (d)	To maintain identity (i)	To improve behaviour (b)	To serve as resource institutio n	Other reason (o)	Inform ation/n ews (n)	recom menda tion ®	Unclea r (uc)	expan d JL	Not rele vant (nr)	Total
11	11	2	0	0	8	1	2	0	0	1	4	<b>29</b>

**Appendix 14 Table 60 Summary of Open Answers Following ‘Yes’ Answers (Continued)**

Ques t. No	Category of open answer											
	To conserve JL & JC (c)	To disseminat e JL (d)	To maintain identity (i)	To improve behaviour (b)	To help people	Other reason (o)	Informat ion/new s (n)	Recom mendati on (r)	Uncle ar (uc)	To expan d JL	Not relewa nt (nr)	Tot al
13	2	1	0	15	0	3	0	0	1	0	1	<b>23</b>
16	0	0	1	0	0	2	0	2	1	0	2	<b>8</b>

Note: most of the pieces of information and recommendation were redundant: they re-iterate what has been revealed by ILPP analysis or already included in the closed options of the questionnaire.

**Appendix 14 Table 61 Summary of open answers following ‘No’ answers**

Quest. No	To accommodate those not fluent in JL (a)	Difficult to implement (d)	To cultivate spirit of nationalism through IL (s)	Unnecessary (u)	Other reason (o)	Information (n)	Recommendation ®	Unclear (uc)	Not relevant (nr)	Total
1.a	2	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	<b>5</b>
1.b	4	2	8	0	2	0	0	0	0	<b>16</b>
2	10	0	4	0	0	0	0	1	0	<b>15</b>
3	1	1	1	2	0	0	0	1	0	<b>6</b>
4	1	1	0	3	3	0	0	0	0	<b>8</b>
5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	<b>0</b>
6	1	0	0	8	4	1	2	0	3	<b>19</b>
7	0	0	0	10	1	0	0	0	0	<b>11</b>
8	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	<b>1</b>
9	0	0	1	0	2	0	2	0	0	<b>5</b>
10	10	0	2	3	1	2	1	1	0	<b>20</b>
11	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	<b>0</b>
13	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	<b>0</b>
16	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	<b>1</b>

**Appendix 14 Table 62: Awareness of Other Javanese Manuals: Examples**

	<b>Books</b>	<b>Remark</b>
<b>a.</b>	<b>Orthography manual</b>	
	<i>Pedoman Mengajar/LKS</i>	Teaching manual
	Prayitna, H., and Tabrani, M. (No Year). <i>Pepak Basa Jawa</i> . Surabaya, Indonesia: Karya Utama	School textbook
	Padmosoekodjo. (1989). <i>Wewaton Panulise Basa Jawa nganggo Aksoro Jawa</i> . Surabaya, Indonesia: Citra Jaya Murti.	Manual – published elsewhere
<b>b.</b>	<b>Grammar manual</b>	
	<i>Pedoman Mengajar/LKS</i>	Teaching manual
	Prayitna, H., and Tabrani, M. (No Year). <i>Pepak Basa Jawa</i> . Surabaya, Indonesia: Karya Utama.	School textbook
	Padmosoekodjo, S. (1987). <i>Paramasastra Djawa</i> . Surabaya, Indonesia: Citra Jaya Murti.	Manual – published elsewhere
	Subalidinata, R.S. (1994). <i>Kawruh Paramasastra Jawa</i> . Yogyakarta, Indonesia: Yayasan Pustaka Nusantara.	Manual – published elsewhere
<b>c.</b>	<b>Vocabulary manual</b>	
	<i>Pedoman Mengajar/LKS</i>	
	Prayitna, H., and Tabrani, M. (No Year). <i>Pepak Basa Jawa</i> . Surabaya, Indonesia: Karya Utama	School textbook
	Prawiroatmojo, S. (1989). <i>Bausastra Jawa-Indonesia</i> . Jakarta, Indonesia: Masagung.	Manual – published elsewhere
<b>d.</b>	<b>Style manual</b>	
	Padmosoekodjo, S. (1960). <i>Ngengrengan Kasusastran Djawa I, II</i> . Yogyakarta, Indonesia: Hien Hoo Sing.	Manual – published elsewhere
	Poerwadarminta, W.J.S. 1939. <i>Baoesastra Jawa</i> . Batavia: J.B. Wolters Maatschappij.	Old manual

**Appendix 15 Additional information for Chapter 4, Section 4.2. and other Chapters. Summary Analysis of Respondents' Comments**

Comment analysis reveals that the comments consist of recommendation, information, question, request and specific comment on questionnaire.

**Appendix 15 Table 63 Summary of Comment Analysis**

A	Recommendation	Occurrence
1	The Yogyakarta policy on 'JL use once a week' need to be implemented consistently	8
2	The community needs to cultivate JL along with good behaviour	27
3	JL needs to be taught in schools with added hours	30
4	JL needs to be used as the medium of instruction	3
5	Special education and training needs to be provided for JL teachers	4
6	JL manuals and learning materials need to be published and disseminated	7
7	JL needs to be taught by specially trained JL teachers	5
8	Families needs to cultivate JL	3

B	Information	Occurrence
1	JL cultivation also improves behaviour	11
2	Families do not cultivate JL and behaviour in young people	9
3	Incorrect orthography on some manuals	1
4	Information on JL orthography and grammar	5
5	JL instruction is not fully optimised	1
6	JL is used in mass media	1
7	Traditional orthography is not suitable for communication	1

C	Question	Occurrence
1	How to teach JL effectively	5
2	How to find reference institution and publication for JL	3
3	The meaning of Javanology	1

D	Request	Occurrence
1	Request for JL manuals	1
2	Request for crossword puzzle for JL	1
3	Request for the establishment of JL conservation community	1

E	Comment on questionnaire	
1	Questionnaire is significant for JL cultivation and policy	5
2	Comment on item 5.1	1
3	Best wish for questionnaire	1

## **Appendix 16 Information for Participant and Consent Form, English Version**

### **Information Sheet**

Project title: Indonesian Teachers' Views on Javanese as a Heritage Language and on Language Policy

This project seeks your opinions on Indonesian language policy. You will be asked to answer questions on Indonesian language policies, especially on the Javanese language. There are 16 clusters of questions in the questionnaire and it will take about 30 minutes.

All data that you provide will be stored in a secure place and only the research supervisors will have access to the data. You will not be identified in the results of this study.

Involvement in this study is voluntary and you can withdraw at any time without prejudice.

If that you have any questions regarding this study, please be advised to contact:

1. The researcher, Bambang Suwarno, by phone: +61424770887, or email: [bambang.suwarno@postgrad.curtin.edu.au](mailto:bambang.suwarno@postgrad.curtin.edu.au)
2. Human Research Ethics Committee, Curtin University, by phone: +61892662784, or through email: [hrec@curtin.edu.au](mailto:hrec@curtin.edu.au)

### Consent Form

Project title: Indonesian Teachers' Views on Javanese as a Heritage Language and on Language Policy

I have been informed about this study and understand the aim of this study. I have been given an opportunity to ask questions. I understand that I can withdraw at any time without prejudice. Any information which might potentially identify me will not be used in published materials.

I agree to participate in this study.

Name of participant : \_\_\_\_\_

Signature : \_\_\_\_\_

Date : \_\_\_\_\_

## Appendix 17 Information for Participant and Consent Form, Indonesian Version

### Lembar Informasi

Judul Penelitian: *Indonesian Teachers' Views on Javanese as a Heritage Language and on Language Policy*  
(*Pandangan Guru Indonesia atas Bahasa Jawa sebagai Bahasa Leluhur dan Kebijakan Bahasa*)

Penelitian ini bertujuan menanyakan pendapat Anda tentang kebijakan bahasa di Indonesia. Anda akan diminta mengisi angket tentang kebijakan bahasa di Indonesia, khususnya yang menyangkut bahasa Jawa. Ada 16 kelompok pertanyaan dalam angket dan Anda akan memerlukan waktu sekitar 30 menit untuk menjawabnya.

Semua data dari angket akan disimpan di tempat yang aman. Data dari angket ini hanya boleh diakses oleh pembimbing riset. Identitas diri Anda akan dirahasiakan dalam penelitian ini.

Partisipasi Anda dalam penelitian ini bersifat sukarela dan Anda boleh mengundurkan diri dari penelitian ini tanpa ada masalah.

Jika ada hal-hal yang kurang jelas, Anda dipersilahkan menghubungi:

1. Peneliti, Bambang Suwarno, melalui telepon: +61424770887, atau email: or [bambang.suwarno@postgrad.curtin.edu.au](mailto:bambang.suwarno@postgrad.curtin.edu.au)
2. Human Research Ethics Committee, Curtin University, melalui telepon: +61892662784, atau email: [hrec@curtin.edu.au](mailto:hrec@curtin.edu.au)

## Surat Persetujuan

Judul Penelitian: *Indonesian Teachers' Views on Javanese as a Heritage Language and on Language Policy*  
(Pandangan Guru Indonesia atas Bahasa Jawa sebagai Bahasa Leluhur dan Kebijakan Bahasa)

Saya sudah mendapatkan informasi tentang penelitian ini dan saya memahami tujuan penelitian ini. Saya sudah mendapatkan kesempatan untuk bertanya. Saya mengerti dan saya dapat sewaktu-waktu mengundurkan diri dari penelitian ini. Segala hal yang menyangkut identitas diri saya tidak akan dipublikasikan dalam hasil penelitian ini.

Saya setuju untuk berpartisipasi dalam penelitian ini.

Nama peserta : \_\_\_\_\_

Tanda tangan : \_\_\_\_\_

Tanggal : \_\_\_\_\_

## Appendix 18 Some Notes on the Javanese Language

### 1. Javanese speech levels

In former times the Javanese language consisted of numerous speech levels. At present levels are simplified into four levels (Harjawiyana and Supriya, 2001), namely:

1. *Krama alus* (high and refined)
2. *Krama* (high)
3. *Ngoko alus* (low and refined)
4. *Ngoko* (low)

Note:

In the questionnaire used in this study, the speech levels are expressed in slightly different phrases, namely:

1. *Kromo alus*, which stands for *krama alus* ('high *kromo*', which is the equivalent of 'high and refined')
2. *Kromo kasar* (high), which stands for *krama*
3. *Ngoko alus*, which stands for *ngoko alus* ('high *ngoko*', which is the equivalent of 'low and refined')
4. *Ngoko kasar* (low), which stands for *ngoko*.

Some examples for the speech levels are given below.

*Krama alus*: *Panjenengan saenipun tindak sapuniko.*

*Krama* : *Sampeyan saene kesah saniki.*

*Ngoko alus*: *Panjenengan apike tindak saiki.*

*Ngoko* : *Kowe apike lungo saiki.*

Translation: You had better go now.

While lexical words overlap among adjacent sub-levels, the difference in lexical repertoire between the highest sub-level (*krama inggil/alus*) and the lowest sub-level (*ngoko*) for most parts are mutually exclusive. This creates difficulty in learning the Javanese language.

### 2. Javanese orthography

Below is a set of basic Javanese traditional characters (*Carakan*) and their Latin counterparts

ꦲ ꦤ ꦕ ꦫ ꦏ ꦢ ꦠ ꦱ ꦮ ꦭ

ha na ca ra ka da ta sa wa la

ꦥ ꦢ ꦲ ꦗ ꦪ ꦚ ꦩ ꦁ ꦧ ꦠ ꦲ ꦚ ꦁ

pa dha ja ya nya ma ga ba tha nga

[http://ms.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bahasa\\_Jawa#mediaviewer/File:Hanacaraka-jawa.png](http://ms.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bahasa_Jawa#mediaviewer/File:Hanacaraka-jawa.png)

### 3. The spelling of /ɔ/

In the Javanese language, both the spelling of ‘a’ and ‘o’ are used for the phoneme /ɔ/.

Javanese speakers from certain regions, notably the Yogyakarta and Surakarta areas, generally use the former, while Javanese speakers from other areas and non-Javanese speakers generally use the latter.

For example, with respect to this study, concerning the Javanese speech levels, both *krama* and *kromo* are used. The pronunciation is the same: /krɔmɔ/. *Krama* is used in the thesis, while *kromo* is used in the questionnaire.

Note:

Symbol /ɔ/ is downloaded from

[http://clas.mq.edu.au/speech/phonetics/transcription/phonemic\\_transcription/phonemic\\_transcription.html](http://clas.mq.edu.au/speech/phonetics/transcription/phonemic_transcription/phonemic_transcription.html)