CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter consists of many important aspects concerning the theoretical framework and related studies.

2.1 Theoretical Framework

2.1.1 Language Variation

Not everyone in a single geographical area speaks in the same way in every situation (Yule, 2010). For instance, a director may speak to his wife using Javanese but he may change Bahasa when he asks information to the hotel receptionist. He may also change the language to English when he speaks in the meeting abroad. This shift of language are based on individual language choice. Meyerhoff (2006, p.28) states that people pay more or less attention to their speech when they are engaged in different kinds of situations, so they design their speech to suit with their audiences.

People have some reasons why they choose a variation of a language. The reason is just not stand to reach successful in communication only. Meyerhoff (2006, p.24) states that there are a lot of reasons why people use the language variation. First, desire to speak the language which is different from others, but fit in with some people, people do that in order to differentiate themselves from others. Second, desire to utter the language that has value or consider has the most positive effect in society. Third is desire to avoid to do something wrong. For instance, upper class like

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lecturer or the president more selective in communication and eliminate the language which has a negative value, indeed they use the variation language to avoid that it may look down in the society. The last is desire to train how people appreciate themselves.

Yule and Wardaugh find that the language variation are divided into regional variation and social variation. Regional variation and social variation develop when people are separated from geographically and socially.

Regional variation covers accent and dialect in a certain areas. Dialect is a language which claim as the language of the people in a certain region. Wardaugh (2006, p.135) states that a regional variation is the regional dialect which marks off the residents in one region from other regions. It has aspects of the grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation of a variety of the language.

Moreover, people that come from different social groups use different linguistic variation. Social variation is analysis of the language from social perspective. It will require us to be able to find linguistic features which are associated with differences in classes or groups and to define what we mean by these latter terms (Meyerhoff, 2006). The language variation based on social variation is more interesting to be analyzed because it directly engaged with the society. It includes registers, styles, or any other sociolinguistic variation including standard & non-standard variety (Wardaugh, 2006).

Although, people can use standard or non-standard English variation, the majority of people consider that Standard English is the correct way to speak. Standard English has written in grammar books, pronunciation and uses in spelling conventions. It is used by the media and other public linguistics such as the education system (Radford, Atkinson, Britain, Clahsen and Spencer, 2003).

Otherwise, non-standard English variation is a language which often considered to be lazy, ungrammatical forms which betray a lack of both educational training and discipline in learning. Finch (2000, p. 217) claims that non-standard English are restricted in function and have no fixed orthographic form. It is usually used as daily communication with family, friends and non-formal activity.

2.1.1.1 Language and Identity

The language that we use shows who we are, which refers to our identity. Edward (2009, p.20) states that identity is central to all human and concerned with the ways in which human beings understand themselves and others. Identity are divided into two, there are social identity and personal identity. In general, each individual or social group will reflect its identity.

Edward also says that individual identity cannot be separated from individual action. It is based on level of education, social status and social class. The example in the level of education, a teacher more using appropriate words than a member of Gang Street. Then social status, for example based on occupation, president will selective in using the language.

Social class, the language used by personal may show that he or she is upper-class person or upper-class person.

Social identity shows the speech in communities, national groups, and ethnic group. The language of pilots, criminals, financiers are the example of language in specific communities. Yet, each communities has different language from others. Second example, Indonesia has kinds of regional dialect, when two Indonesian meet in some places in America then they have a conversation, indirectly they use Bahasa Indonesia than using English. It because they are as national group of Indonesia.

Ethnic group sometimes boundaries with a region. The language variation in the ethnic group could happen when people want to show their ethnic's identity. In an ethnic group, a majority language in a region as the signal of the identity. For example, when Sundanese men move to the other region in Madura Island, then they speak using Bahasa Indonesia although the accent and dialect of Sundanese and Madurese are different. It shows that Sundanese applying the identity of the ethnic group. In this cases, the way people using language of ethnic group is to make them differentiate with the others. Yet, it is because he proudly using his ethnic group language.

2.1.1.2 Language and Social Interaction

Interaction with a society will be taking place as long as we are alive. It is impossible if we use language without any purposes for social interaction. Style-shifting, dialect-switching, diglossia, and language-

switching have relationship between social situation and language variation. Sometimes, people are using a language based on the situation. For instance, Chinese students at the Hong-Kong University often switch his language of Cantonese and English. If they spoke only Cantonese, they might be regarded as being loyal to their community.

Within the context of an English-language university, Cantonese as uneducated and unsophisticated language. When Chinese students meet in their community then they spoke Cantonese, it makes the conversation more intimate and may be viewed as being solidary to their community. Therefore, not all surprising that code-switching is a very widespread phenomenon.

2.1.2 African American Vernacular English (AAVE)

Vernacular is the first language learned by people in multilingual communities and they often used for relatively narrow range of informal situation. Vernacular… generally refers to a language which has not been in standardized form and which not have an official status (Holmes, 1995). Therefore, vernacular is a general expression of a kind of social dialect, typically spoken by a lower status group which is treated as non-standard because of the marked differences from the standard language. It has aspects of the grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation of a variety of a language (Yule, 2010).

The most widespread and most familiar vernacular of African American is African-American Vernacular English (AAVE). Green (2002,

p.6) said that it is a kind of another variation of American English. AAVE has a list of labels, they are: Negro Dialect, Nonstandard Negro English, Negro English, American Negro Speech, Black Communications, Black Dialect, Black Folk Speech, Black Street Speech, Black English, Black English Vernacular, Black Vernacular English, Afro American English, African American English, African American Language, African American Vernacular English (AAVE). The last four are more commonly used today. However, people more often heard those beginning with 'Black'.

Black American English or AAVE came from the historical of slavery. Koh in the Taylor (2000) says that African separated from their African family and friends in childhood. They herded into the wretched and stinking hold a slave ship, and sold at auction to a Waccamaw rice planter. The slave found himself among various other enslaved Africans whose speech could not understand with strange customs and they was unfamiliar.

Masters in this environment commands at them, which they struggled to comprehend. Little by little they effort to communicate with one another, they discovered common grammatical patterns in their diverse African languages. While they lacked a common linguistic heritage, through trial and error in their effort to communicate with one another, African increasingly became aware of common elements in their diverse tongues as they found other speakers of their own or similar African

languages. Out of the opposing tendencies to learn English and to retain African speech patterns, they created a new language.

African American reveals the link between oral and written expression. Ball (1996, p.28) states that the oral style or structures of expression in AAVE are less easily translatable into the standard academic forms of expository written than those of some other cultural groups in our society. Some AAVE speakers who have been adept at integrating their everyday language into their writing, their syntactic features that appeared in their texts as errors. She (1996, p. 29) adds that traditionally, AAVE speakers also use rhythmic language, patterns of repetition and variation, expressive sound, and phenomena encouraging participative sense-making, like using dialogue, tropes, hyperbole, and call and response patterns in their traditional ways of expressing their ideas.

Not all African are fluent speakers of AAVE. Like other social groups, speakers of AAVE also share characteristic ways of interacting. It has characteristic phonological, morphological, syntactic features and vocabulary (Finegan, 2004).

2.1.2.1 Linguistics Features of AAVE

Linguistics features in African American Vernacular English is a language variation which has a number of characteristics which a bit different from Standard American English. Green (2002, p.1) argued that AAVE is a variety that has set phonological (system of sounds), morphological (system of structure of words and relationship among

words), syntactic (system of sentence structure), semantic (system of meaning) and lexical (structural organization of vocabulary items and other information) patterns. So when speakers know AAVE, they know the system of sounds, word and sentence structure, meaning and structural organization of vocabulary items and other information.

A. Phonological

Phonological pattern of AAVE shows the different sound that reflected in the combination of sounds. Words in AAVE and in SAE that have the same meanings may have different pronunciations due to constraints on sounds. For examples:

1. Final Consonant Sound

Analyses of final consonant groups is a process in which the final consonant group composed of two consonant sounds such as *tes* (test), *des* (desk) and *han* (hand). The sound *tes*, des and *han* is reduced to a single consonant sound. In contrary, the pronunciations when the speakers produce minimal two words, first word ending with the two consonants and the following word beginning with a vowel, for instance *I will **test out** of math*. They add the final consonant to the first word.

2. Devoicing

The process of consonant devoicing is make a voiced consonant become voiceless. Words ending in the voiced *b, d, g* are

pronounced in *p*, *t* and *k.*. For examples *cab* (for SAE cap), d *feed* (for SAE feet) and g *pig* (for SAE pick).

3. Sound Patterns and *th*

The other pattern in the sound system of AAVE is the production of *t/d* and *f/v* in the words which the *th* sound occurs in SAE. For instances, the words such as *that*, *bath*, *with* and *these* in SAE will be sound *dat*, *baf*, *wit* and *dese* in AAVE.

4. *r* and *l*: Liquid Vocalization

This section focus in the pattern that associated on the consonant with *r* and *l* which is them will disappear in AAVE.

AAVE	Phonethic transcription	SAE
Cout	[kot]	'court'
Brotha	[brʌdə]	'brother'
Toe	[to]	'tore'
Bea	[bɛə]	'bell'
Coo	[ko:]	'cold'

5. Reduction Phonological Patterns

The pattern is omitted in the suffix–*ing* when the words with more one than one syllable such as *walking*, *running*, *spending*, *thinking,* and *listening* that included the property of –*ing* (ɪŋ) will be pronounced as –*in* (Iŋ) *walkin*, *runnin, spenin, thinkin* and *listenin* in AAVE.

B. Lexical and Semantic

Lexical and semantics of AAVE reveal the information about the type of meaning that is associated with lexical items (words and phrases) and also reveal the information about the unique meanings of AAVE. Speakers who know AAVE, they know the lexical of these words. It is usually used by African American adolescence, teenagers, and young adult. This variation generally not accepted in the marketplace in America. The lexical of AAVE may be used in different linguistic environments, but they have different meanings

The example below provide gloss or sentence in SAE for corresponding sentences with terms from AAVE lexical. Example:

1. Some [sʌm] Adv,—{Adj, Adv}, very; to a great extent (meaning in SAE)

Note: The adverb some is generally pronounced with stress.

a. I really want *some* candy.

The sentence above has an acceptable in SAE but different in *some* occurs in the sentences below.

b. Kareem Abdul Jabar is *some* tall.

c. She can cook *some* good.

Gloss: She can cook *very* well.

As an adverb, *some* serves to indicate the extremity of a state or action; it has the meaning of very.

C. Morphological and Syntactic

The morphological and syntactical features of AAVE are covered by grammatical pattern. Syntactical is the rules of grammar for the arrangements of words into phrase and of phrases into sentence. Word classes are the basic elements of syntactic. Traditionally, word classes are known as part of speech. Part of speech includes; nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, pronouns, preposition, conjunction, and articles. The example sentences of syntactic pattern of AAVE such as omitting auxiliary *be* form in *She here*, *She running*. While, the perspective from SAE that auxiliary *be* form should occur both in nominal sentence or verbal sentence, such as *I am here* and *I am running*. Other part of grammatical pattern of AAVE is morphological.

Morphological is a system that deals with the function of smaller unit of words, it has relation with the internal economy of words. The example of morphological pattern of AAVE such as verbal –s, verb base may occurs with third person singular in the present tense. As the result, the verb base for present tense that occurs with the third person singular subject is not marked with an –s, speakers who using AAVE often produce sentences in *She come, He go*, so on. In contrary, the speakers intentionally leave out –s in verb base for the third person and add it where it does not belong to SAE form. The distinction between singular and plural verb is neutralized. Therefore, the

characteristics of grammatical pattern of AAVE against the SAE norms.

2.1.3 Grammatical Pattern of AAVE

The grammatical pattern of AAVE includes syntactical and morphological pattern. In syntactical features, there are absence of copula/aux be, the use of *ain't*, inverting auxiliary in question, omitting auxiliary in question, auxiliary in question tag, VP-ellipsis, invariant *be*, invariant *BIN*, invariant *dən*, multiple negation, existential *it* and dey functions as there, relative clause, and preterit *had*. Then in the morphological features, there are past morphology, verbal –*s*, and the absence of possessive -'*s*

2.1.3.1 Syntactical Features

1.   The Absence of Auxiliary or Conjugated Forms

Examples:

a.   They ø walking too fast

b.   He ø be there in a minute

c.   The teacher ø got all the papers

The auxiliary *is, am, are, was, were* or conjugated forms *to be*, *do*, *have* and *modals* in AAVE can be characterized by a set of properties that usually reduced. It makes the sentence cannot be indicated as present tense, present progressive tense, and perfect tense.

The sentence point (a) shows the example of zero auxiliary *be* form, there is no *to be* form before verb progressive *walking*. The sentence for SAE can be *they is walking too fast* or *they were walking too fast*. Now, for sentence point (b), there is a reduced form of *will* for the future tense or *would* for past tense. The sentence in SAE can be *He will be there in a minute* or *He would be there in a minute*. The last for the sentence point (1c), there is an absence of the auxiliary preceding verb *got* for perfect tense. The absence form is *have* which corresponds to SAE as the perfect tense. The sentence should be *The teacher have got all the papers* for SAE.

2.   **The Use of *Ain't***

Examples:

    a.   Bruce ain't talking calculus this semester

    b.   Bruce ain't finish his homework las night

Green stated that the *ain't* features in AAVE has classified as negation. Usually, all negative sentences in AAVE using negation *ain't*. In contrary, the negation form for SAE occurs in the forms *isn't* for to be *is* and contracted *not*, then *didn't, can't, hasn't, haven't* and so on.

The example point (a) presents the negative progressive sentence, because the negation *ain't* preceded by the verb progressive *talking*. Besides that, there is an adverb of time *this semester* that indicates an event at this time. For SAE, the sentence

should be *Bruce isn't taking calculus this semester*. For example point (b) which *ain't* preceding by the verb base *finish* and the adverb of time *last night* which indicates an event in the past. The SAE for point (b) should be *Bruce didn't finish his homework last night*. All the use of *ain't* based on the examples above has the function as a negation.

3. **Inverting Auxiliary in Question**

Example:

a.   Cook Bruce can?

An analysis for interrogative sentence in AAVE helps to reveal another property of auxiliaries in question. The auxiliary in question formation of AAVE is a unique feature.

For example in point (a), the main verb *cook* has inverted preceding the subject *Bruce*. The rule in SAE which an auxiliary (but not main verb) can be placed in the position preceding subject like in *Can Bruce cook?* for yes-no question. It is contrary with the question uttered by AAVE speakers. Yet, the important thing form them, they can understand that the sentences is question seen by the intonations.

4. **Omitting Auxiliaries in Question**

Auxiliary verb *to be, have, do, does, did* or modal auxiliary *can, may, will, shall, must, could, might, should, would* precede the

subject is described as questions. However, you may find some yes-no questions in AAVE that are formed without overt auxiliaries in the sentence initial position, the following may also be used in this examples:

    a.   You know her name?

    b.   He sleeping in the car?

    c.   Bob left?

There are no auxiliaries *do* and *is* in the initial position of the for sentences (a,b), but the intonation pattern marks them as questions. The SAE sentence for (a) should *Do you know her name?*, and for point (b) *Is he sleeping in the car?* Or *was he sleeping in the car?,* it means the point (b) has two interpretations same as the next point. The identical question in point (c) has 2 interpretations in SAE, it can be *Have Bob left?* or *Did Bob leave?*, point (c) can be distinguished by the context in which they occur.

5.   Auxiliary in Question Tag

Examples:

    a.   Bruce ø eating, ø not he?

    b.   Bruce ø eating, ain't he?

Tag questions are formed by copying the auxiliary in a declarative sentence in the position at the end of the sentence, making it negative it its original occurrence positive and positive if its original occurrence negative. The pronoun corresponding to the

subject of declarative sentence is copied in the position following the copied auxiliary.

The AAVE sentences in (a) and (b) show that the tag questions which cannot be formed without placing an auxiliary in the tagged part of the sentence even if there is no overt auxiliary in the declarative. For SAE point (a) should be in *Bruce is eating, is not he?*. But, the example point (b) has provided the negative auxiliary form whether it using ain't.

6. **Verb Phrase Ellipsis**

Examples:

a.   Bruce ø dancing, and Dee is, too

The term VP-elipsis is used to refer the structures which an auxiliary is substituted for deleted material. The showing of ø is used to indicate that an auxiliary does not occur in that position. In verb phrase ellipsis, the auxiliary *is* in example (a) substitutes for *dancing* and the verb *dancing* is omitted in the second clause of the sentence.

7. **Invariant *be***

Invariant *be* in this point has the meaning as the sequence of verbs. It shows the meaning of sentence based on the construction. When invariant *be* occur in the sentences, it may not receive ambiguous interpretation.

Examples:

a.   Bruce be running

Aspectual be of AAVE in the example point (a) receive ambiguous interpretation. *Be* form in here can be replaced by auxiliary *was* or *is*. Otherwise, be form will appear in SAE such as *Bruce is running* to be which occur on the surface will make the emphatic context. It indicates that running is already in progress and shows the use of present progressive tense.

8. **Invariant *BIN***

Examples:

a.   She bin running

b.   I been knowing he died

BIN (been) which occurs in AAVE has the function as present perfect progressive tense, this should add has/have before BIN. The correct sentences for point (a) should be in "She has been running", and "I have known for a long time that he died". For point number (b), the verb forms in *BIN* constructions that are interpreted as meaning 'for a long time' or 'a long time ago'.

9. **Invariant *Dən***

Examples:

a.   She dən been to church.

b.   I dən lost my wallet!

The verbal maker *dən* denotes that an event has ended. Sometimes, *dən* has the function as the replacement of the verb *has* or *have*. For example in the point number (a), *dən* indicates the person has had the experience of attending the church. In (b) indicates the recent past, an example of the person who has just lost his wallet or just realize that his wallet lost. The correct sentences for those examples should be "She has been to church before" and "I have just lost my wallet!".

10. **Multiple Negation**

The multiple negation is a sentence which consists of more than one negator, it can be double negator, triple, or more. In AAVE, the multiple negation can be used in a single negative sentence. The multiple negation can be marked in the auxiliaries *don't*, *isn't*, *aren't*, *won't* and indefinite nouns such as *anybody* (nobody) and *anything* (nothing).

Examples:

a. Sometimes it didn't have no chalk, no books, no teacher

b. Ain't nothing you can do

For instance in point (a), there are negation *did't* and *no* in one sentence. On one hand, double negation in one sentence is grammatical correct for AAVE rule. On the other hand, a prescriptive rule from SAE states that double negation are not

grammatical correct because they make a positive one. The sentences above, should be *Sometimes it has no chalk, no books, no teacher* and *nothing you can do* in SAE rule.

11. **Existential *it* and *dey***

It and *dey* occur in AAVE construction to indicate that something exists. The existential sentences in AAVE can be constructed with an existential element it and *dey* and following obligatory form of *to be*, *have* or *got*. The use of it and *dey* here have the functions as existential *there* in the same sentence for SAE. Examples:

a.   It be too many cars in that parking lot

b.   It was seventy in the family that went down to Israel

c.   Dey got a fly messing with me

d.   Dee gat anoao leedi laas tu

The sentences point (a and b) should be in *There are always too many cars in that parking lot*, and *There were seventy in the family that went to Israel* for SAE rule. Same as the function of it, *dey* is used to indicate that something exist. As in example point (a) that *dey* is followed by got. The SAE form for example point (a) should be in *There is a fly messing with me* and point (b) *There is another lady who lost two*.

12. **Relative Clause**

Examples:

a. There are many mothers [ø don't know where their

children are]

b. It's a whole lot of people [ø don' wanna go to hell]

These clauses (enclosed brackets) may be introduced by an

overt relative pronoun, *that* or *who*. The symbol ø to indicate that

nothing in the specific position.

The example point (a) should *There are many mothers who*

don't know where their children are for SAE forms and point (b)

should be *It's a whole lot of people who don't want to go to hell.*

13. **Preterit *had***

The use of preterit or past tense form *had* appear appears in

certain environments which is *had* in AAVE is used to mark past

tense. In contrary, the use of *had* + pluperfect in SAE is used to mark

the past activity before the past or indicates as past perfect tense.

Examples:

a. My mother had cooked fish last night when I had got

my clothes together

The example above shows that the use of *had* followed by

pluperfect *cooked* and *got* is not used to indicate the events that took

place in the past before the past or past perfect tense. Yet, the AAVE

sentence point (a) refers to an event in the past. There are two events

in that sentence, the cooking fish event and the getting clothes event which taken place simultaneously, or the time of one has overlapped the time of the other. *My mother was cooking fish last night when I was getting my clothes* is the correct sentence based on SAE.

2.1.3.2 Morphological Features

1. **Past Morphology**

The past morphology in AAVE usually has no distinction verb form for the simple past and the past participles sentence. The same form for simple past and past participle are same. In the terminology, participle forms are used with helping verbs, as in I eat, I ate, I have eaten. The participle or -*en* form is eaten.

Examples:

a.   The mirror BIN broke

b.   Did you walked?

The perfect tense form such as in example point (a) which using verb base *broke*, then there is BIN which has the function as replacement *has been* should be followed by pluperfect. The correct sentence for SAE rule should in *the mirror has been broken*.

The second example indicates of the activity has been completed. There is *did* in the first construction, which indicates the past tense interrogative sentence. The interrogative sentence in the past tense should be followed by base form, otherwise the verb in

the point (b) is past simple. The correct interrogative past tense in SAE should *Did you walk?*.

2. **Verbal –*s***

Examples:

    a.   When he come down here, I be dən talked to him

    b.   When I think about Palm Sunday, I gets excited

In verbal –*s* feature, verb base may occurs in the subject third person singular. As the result, the base form for the present tense sentence with the third person singular subject is not marked with an –*s*. AAVE speakers often produce sentences like *She come, He go*, so on. In contrary, the speakers intentionally leave out the third person –*s* and add it where it does not belong to SAE form, the distinction between singular and plural verb is neutralized.

In the example point (a), which the subject *he* refers to the 3rd singular subject, then the verb which followed should adding –*s*. The SAE rule for the present tense should be *when he comes down here, I have usually talked to him*. Moreover, the subject of the second example is 1st person singular *I*, but the verb ends in –*s* for *get*. The SAE form for example point (b) should be *when I think about Palm Sunday, I get excited*.

3. **The Absence of Possessive -*'s***

Examples:

    a.   Sometimes Rolanda bed don't be made up

    b.   That's the church responsibility

In AAVE, the possessive –s may also be deleted. As in the sentences point (a and b) Rolanda bed and church responsibility. There are no possessive -*'s* marker is used. A possession may also be indicated by *of*, however, the loss of possessive –*s* can be happened in AAVE. The correct sentence based on SAE should be *Sometimes Rolanda's bed don't be made up* and *that's the church's responsibility.*

2.2 Review of Related Studies

The writer inspired to study African American vernacular English (AAVE) from the previous studies that have successfully research about AAVE. On December 1996, Pullum (1999) reported about the Oakland school district school board that allow to use AAVE in school that primarily language of Niggers. He also describes several features of AAVE which usually occur in environment. He concludes that AAVE speakers use different grammar that clearly distinguishes from Standard American English (SAE) though it massively similar to SAE overall. Americans concludes that Niggers are bad and stupid. Yet, this study provides an argument that a linguistic study of AAVE makes quite clear that AAVE is not Standard English with mistakes. Pullum argued that AAVE is not a bad

language. It just another variation of English American because it has systematic rules.

In relation to the above issues, Deak (2007) observed the status AAVE in educational practice in the famous 1996 school board of Black speech sounds. The result of the study clarifies that the educators in Los Angeles have brought AAVE into the schools as a tool for learning, an object of study, and a complement to cultural instruction in other aspects of the curriculum.

Different from the study before, since the emergence of urban areas became the contemporary norm of AAVE, Wolfram (2000) classifies the grammar of urban AAVE in rural south 14 different kinds of language grammar of urban AAVE. Those are verb phrase, copula/auxiliary absence, invariant be, completive done, sequential be done, remote been, simple past had + verb, specialized auxiliaries, irregular verbs, subject-verb agreement, other verb phrase structures, negation, nominals, question formation. The factors influenced Nigger to use AAVE are the social class, speech community, identity, and language ideology. The studies above summarize the status of grammatical structure in tables (innovate and intensifying features of urban AAVE, receding features, summarize stable features. But she also compare urban AAVE with earlier AAVE (the nineteenth century), Southern European American vernacular English, and Northern European American vernacular varieties. It concludes that young African Americans in urban areas do not want to 'act white'.

Ezgetta (2012) study AAVE and her object is ten African-American public figures, they are Redman, Chuck D, Oprah Winfrey, Prodigy, Queen Latifah, Colin Powell, Whoopi Goldberg, B.B. King, MC Lyte and Michelle Obama. She examines grammatical variation of the selected AAVE features include the third person singular –s absence, the possessive –s absence, the plural –s absence, and the generalization of is and was to plural and second person pronouns in interviews. And the result of her study the use of AAVE features contribute to a better understanding and wider acknowledgement of the fact that AAVE is a regular and systematic form of vernacular language.

Ningrum (2014) studied entitle African American English (AAVE) and slang used by Jim and Huck Finn in the Adventures of Huckleberry Finn Novel by Mark Twain. She was analyze AAVE used theory by Trudgill. She found ten types AAVE features and four types of slang word formation in that novel. Her study use qualitative method.

After exploring some related studies, the writer found the similarity between Ningrum (2014) and this study. Both of those studies are taken from the written form. Moreover, (Pullum, 1999) Wolfram (2000), (Deak, 2007) and Ezgeta (2012) analyzed AAVE grammatical features in the urban area and the school board. Yet, the object of those studies is different from this study. After share similarities of the object study, the writer concludes the differences of from the previous studies. Ningrum (2014) focuses on AAVE patterns and slang in written form. As a conclusion, AAVE

grammatical pattern by Green (2002) as the focus for this study while the

data are taken from utterances in the short story.