CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

To formulate the research problem, understanding the theories which are relevant to the research problems are needed. This chapter contains of theoretical framework and previous study. It involves about Standard English, the definition of African American Vernacular English (AAVE), the origin of AAVE, Grammatical characteristic of AAVE and Previous study.

2.1   Definition of Standard English (SE)

Chaer (2003) simply stated that Standard language is used in formal situation, while non standard language is used in informal situation. Moreover, Fromkin and Rodman (1998 :408) stated that Standard English (SE) is the customary use of the community. The standard dialect in the United States is called "Standard American English (SAE)". It is a dialect of English that many Americans almost speak. Furthermore, Stewart and Vaillette explain:

> As with any standard dialect, SAE is not a well- defined variety but rather than an idealization, which even now defies definition because agreement on what exactly constitutes this variety is lacking. SAE is not a single, unitary, homogenous dialect but instead comprises a number of varieties. When we speak of SAE, we usually have in mind features of grammar more than pronunciation.

On the other hand, Trudgill (1983) defines SE as variety of English which is normally taught in schools and non-native speaker learning the language. It is also the variety which is normally spoken by educated people and used in

9

broadcasts and other similar situations. He also state that SE has widely accepted codified grammar and vocabulary.

2.2 Grammar of Standard English

Victoria and Robert (1998:408) state that American English (AmE) has few distinctive grammatical features, however, some are noteworthy.

2.2.1 Agreement rules

Frank (1972) explained that there are some grammatical features of Standard English (SE) as describe below:

a. The verb must agree with the subject in number

For example:

- The **girl** is eating

- The **girls** are eating

If the subjects are modifiers, the verb agrees with the noun head in the subject, like in these sentences:

- **His technique** for solving crimes is very simple

- The **advertisements** in the front part of a newspaper **are** usually the most expensive.

A nouncountable noun used as a subject requires a singular verb, like in these sentences:

- His **baggage** was lost yesterday (his bags were lost yesterday)

- This **information is** correct (this facts are correct)

A collective noun used a subject generally occurs with a singular verb in American English, unless emphasis is to be placed on the individual members of the collective unit, like in these sentences:

-The committee has been preparing a new proposal. But the committee has disagreed among themselves about the terms of the proposal.

In addition, Finegan explains that in American English, agreement rules between verb and subjects that are collective nouns (*family, team, staff, committee*) or the names of sport teams (*Clevelan, Manchester),* or companies, institution, and organization *(Lipton, CNN, the government, ford).*

b.   Some nouns ending in *s* may cause problem of agreement.

1.   Some are singular nouncountable noun-**news, measles** (name of a disease), **English, Biography, Economic** (name of study)

      For example:

- **The news** about the war **is** not good

- **English is** a difficult subject

- **The acoustics** in this room are not good

      However, the name used for a field of study may be plural if it refers to a practical matter.

2.   Some nouns have the same form for *singular* or *plural* eg. (series, species, means)

3.   Some nouns are plural only and require *plural verb* eg. (brains, goods, riches)

4. Nouns representing quantities and amounts that are considered as one unit are singular (five dollars, three quarts)

For example:

Five dollars is too much for pay that pen.

c. Adjective used as a noun often refer to a group of person and require a plural verb. Such adjective forms are usually preceded by *the.* for the example:

- **The rich** get richer

- **The poor** get poorer

2.2.2 The verb 'be'

Betty (1989:A4-A5) summarized rules of the verb *be*:

(a) John is *a student* = is (Be) *a student* (Noun)

(b) John is *intelligent =* is (Be) *intelligent* (Adjective)

(c) John was *at the library =* was (Be)*at the library* (Prepositional Phrase)

(d) Mary *is* writing a letter

(e) They *were* listening to some music

(f) That letter *was* written by Alice

A sentence with *be* as the main verb has three basic patterns:

In (a): *be* + *a noun*

In (b): *be* + *an adjective*

In (c): *be* + *a prepositional phrase*

Be is also used as an auxiliary verb in progressive verb tenses and in the passive. In (d) *is* = auxiliary; *writing = main verb*

Table 2.2.2.1

Tense form of 'be'

	Simple Present	Simple Past	Present perfect
Singular	*I am* *You are* *He,she,it is*	*I was* *you were* *He,she,it was*	*I have been* *you have been* *He,she,it has been*
Plural	we, you, they *are*	we, you, they *were*	we, you, they *have been*

2.2.3 Negatives

According to Betty (C-1) using not and other negative words, thus in the following:

(a) AFFIRMATIVE   : The earth is round   ⎤ *Not* means that express a

(b) NEGATIVE   : The earth is **not** flat ⎦ negative idea

AUX + NOT + MAIN VERB

(c) **I will   not   go**   there

I have not   gone there

I am   not   going there

I was   not   going there

I do   not   go   there

He does not   go   there

I did   not   go   there

Not immediately follows an auxiliary verb or *be*. (Note: if there is more than one auxiliary, *not* comes immediately after the first auxiliary: ***I will not be going there***.)

Do or *does* is used with **not** to make a simple present verb (except *be*) negative.

Did is used with *not* to make a simple past verb (except *be*) negative.

Contractions of Auxilary Verb

Are not = aren't

Cannot = can't

Could not = couldn't

Did not = didn't

Does not = doesn't

Do not = don't

Has not = hasn't

Have not = haven't

Had not = hadn't

Is not = isn't

Must not = mustn't

Should not = shouldn't

Was not = wasn't

Were not = weren't

Will not = won't

Would not = wouldn't

(d)   I **never** go there

I have hardly ever gone there

(e)   There is **no** chalk in the drawer

In addition to **not,** the following are negative adverbs:

(f)   I **never** go there

I have hardly ever gone there

(g)   There is **no** chalk in the drawer

In addition to **not,** the following are negative adverbs:

Never, rarely, seldom

Hardly (ever), scarcely (ever), barely (ever)

No also express a negative idea.

COMPARE: *NOT* **vs.** *NO*

(h)   ***I do not have*** any money

(i)   I have ***no money***

Not is used to make a verb negative, as in (f)

No is used as an adjective in front of a noun (**e.g**., **money**), as in (g).

Note: (f) and **(g)** have the same meaning

*Sometimes in spoken English you will hear **ain't**, its mean I am not, **isn't or aren't. ain't** is not considered proper English, but many people use **ain't** regularly, and it is also frequently used for humor.

Then, according to Finegan state that American English conversation shows a strong preference for *do not have the (don't have the time,* do not have the information) and *have no (has no plans, has no doubt, has none of your character, has nothing* to fear) as compared with British English.

2.2.4 Avoiding *Double Negatives*

Here are the examples of a "double negative" based on Betty (C-2):

(a)   INCORRECT : I *don't* have *no* money

(b)   CORRECT   : I *don't* have *any* money

     CORRECT   : I have *no* money

As in an example of (a) double negative, a confusing and grammatically incorrect sentence that contains two negatives in the same clause. "one clause should contain only one negative.

Negatives in two different clauses in the same sentence cause no problem; for example:

*A person who **doesn't** have love **can't** be truly happy.*

*I **don't** know why he **isn't** here.*

2.3 Definition of AAVE

African American Vernacular English (AAVE) is a variety spoken by many African-Americans in the USA which shares a set of grammatical and other linguistics features that distinguish it from various other American dialect (see.eg.Carmen Fought, 2006,p.46).

Then, Jack Sidnell (May, 22, 2015) AAVE is the variety formerly known as Black English Vernacular or Vernacular Black English among Sociolinguists, and

commonly called Ebonics outside the academic community. As explained by Green:

> Among the many labels used to refer to this variety over the past forty years are "Negro Dialect," American Negro Speech", "Black Communication" , "Black Dialect", "Black Street Speech", "Black English", and African American Vernacular English ...". Some researchers have chosen to use "African American English" others agree on "African American Vernacular English". "Vernacular" is often used to underscore the point that what is being referred to be a spoken language with socially stigmatized language pattern.

According to Rickford, as quote by fought, AAVE refers to a system that contains distinct (non-standard) grammatical elements, reserving the broader "African American English" for all varieties used by African Americans, even if they are completely standard one.

2.4 The Origin of AAVE

 According to Thomas (2001, p. 320) There are two main theories about the origin of AAVE:

2.4.1 Dialectologist view

Dialect are defined as "variations of a language that are mutually intelligible, but include some grammatical or pronunciation pattern that are unique to speakers in certain regions, social classes, or ethnic group (see.org. Redd and Webb,2005.p.8).

Some linguists point to the similarities between AAVE pronunciation patterns and those of Southern American English simply dialectical variation of American English which is spoken by African Americans and Non-African Americans in the United States. Thomas W.Stewart and Nathan Vaillette (2001:320).

2.4.2 Creolist view, AAVE as a Distinct Language

Other linguists have noted the grammatical structures of AAVE shares with West African languages to support their argument that AAVE might most accurately be classified as "an African based language with English words" (May, 22, 2015).

Thomas W.Stewart and Nathan Vaillette (2001:321) argue that AAVE's similarities with many of the world's Creole languages suggest that AAVE was a Creole, but separated language that has recently decreolized as it has begun to more closely resemble Standard American English (SAE).

2.5 Grammatical Characteristics of AAVE

Wolfram outlines some of the major structures of urban AAVE grammar:

2.5.1 Verb Phrases

The most noteworthy traits of AAVE have typically been associated with the verb phrase, including the use of tense, mood, and aspect. Although there are a number of distinguishing traits, the most prominent features are a distinct set of preverbal particles or auxiliaries.

2.5.1.1.Copula (auxiliary absence)

The absence of copula and auxiliary of contractible forms of "is" and "are"

Eg: *She Nice* ➡️ *she's Nice*

They acting silly ➡️ *they **are** acting silly*

It's has been one of the most often described structures of AAVE, although there are a number of descriptive and explanatory dimensions of copula absence that remain in dispute, including whether it is derived thought a grammatical or phonological process, there is general agreement about its ethno linguistic status.

2.5.1.2 Invariant *be*

Invariant be in sentences such as *Sometimes they be playing games,* also referred to as non-finite be, habitual be, and be, is probably the most salient grammatical trait of AAVE, to the point of becoming a stereotype. However, most analysts agree that be marks a unique aspect referring to an intermittent activity, hence the reference to *habitual be*.

2.5.1.3 Completive *done*

The use of done with the past tense of the verb, as in they done used all the good ones, is a persistent structural trait of AAVE that is shared with Southern European American Vernacular varieties of English. In AAVE, done occurs only in preverbal auxiliary position with past tense forms whereas it occurs with a bar verb steam. Eg. (They *done* go*)* and can occur in clause-final position in creoles. Janet Holmes (1992: 162)

In many respects, the function of AAVE sounds like perfect, referring to an action completed in the recent past, but it can also be used to highlight the

change of state or to intensify and activity, as in a sentence like "I done told you not to mess up" it is a stable feature, but it is more frequently used in Southern rural versions of AAVE than in urban AAVE.

2.5.1.4 Sequential *be done*

AAVE may also show a combination of be and done together in sentences such as:

- My ice cream *be done* melt by the time we get there. (Marking a regulative or a future conditional state).

2.5.1.5 Remote *been*

The stressed use of been with a past tense form of the verb may denote a special aspectual function that marks an activity that took place in the distant past. In sentences such as:

- I *been* had it for about three years

- I *been* known him

It refers to an event that took place, literally or figuratively, in a distant time frame.

2.5.1.6 Simple past *had + verb*

One of the newer features of AAVE is the narrative use of the auxiliary *had* with a past or perfect form of the verb to indicate a simple past tense, as in:

- They *had* went outside ⎤ This is use in equivalent to the
- They *had* messed up the yard ⎦ use of simple past.

- They went outside   Standard English (SE)

- They messed up the yard

2.5.1.7 Specialized auxiliaries

Several auxiliaries fill specialized semantic- pragmatic roles that subtly set apart AAVE from other vernacular varieties of English. Among these auxiliary like constructions are the use of come to indicate a state of indignation, the use of steady to mark a continuative intensifying activity, and the use of finna to indicate an immediate future or planned event. The use of *come* in verb-ing in the sentence:

- He come walkin' in here like he owned the damn place (indicates a speaker annoyance about the action or event).

2.5.1.8 Irregular verbs

The irregular verbs of urban AAVE follow those found in other vernacular varieties of English. In particular, rural Southern white varieties, thus in:

Example:

- I had went down there (These include the extension of past as participle)

- They seen it (The participle as past)

- They run there yesterday (The bare root as past)

- Everybody knowed him (Regularization of past tense)

2.5.1.9 Subject-Verb agreement

Two aspect of subject verb concord are prominent in urban AAVE, one relating to the attachment of the verbal suffix –s and the other relating to the

conjugated forms of past and present be forms. Practically all studies of urban and rural AAVE have documented the current-day pattern of 3rd. –s absence in sentence such as:

- She walk ➡ She walks

- He run ➡ He runs

- She have money ➡ She has money

The second concord pattern affecting urban AAVE is the regularization of present and past forms of conjugated be. AAVE is much like the fast majority of other vernacular varieties of English in its use of be leveling;

- In the present tense (are and am level to is) as in *the folks is home* or *you all is here*.

- In the past tense (be level to was) as in *the folks was there* or *you all was here*.

Past tense was be leveling is much more common than present tense leveling in AAVE, as it in virtually all varieties of vernacular English having be regularization.

2.5.2 Negation

The formation of negation in AAVE is not particularly distinct from other vernacular varieties of English in US (United State) and beyond. It participated in concord, or multiple negations, in which a single negative preposition may be marked both within the verb phrase and on post verbal indefinites, as in:

- *It wasn't nothing*

- *They didn't do nothing about nobody having no money*

- *Nothing like that.*

AAVE also participates in a type of negative concord that involves a preverbal indefinite and verbal negative as in *Nobody don't like him* which is equivalent to the standard sentence *Nobody likes him.*

Related to the preverbal negative pattern is a type of inversion of the negative auxiliary and indefinite subject, as in :

- *Don't nobody like him* means that "Nobody likes him"

- *Ain't nobody home* means that "Nobody is home"

Construction like these are often use for emphasis, especially is the indefinite is stressed as in *Don't nobody like him.* Like other vernacular English dialects, AAVE used *ain't* as a general preverbal negative for present tense be (am not, aren't, isn't) and for the perfect auxiliary (haven't, hasn't) as in:

- She ain't here

- She ain't been there lately

Finally, ain't and don't may be used with but or to indicate "only" or "no more than" as in:

- *she ain't but three years old*

- *He didn't take but three dollars*

2.5.3 Nominal

Although many of the characteristics of the noun phrase in AAVE are shared with a wide range of English vernacular varieties, there are also a few traits that set it apart from European American Vernacular in the US. Perhaps the most noteworthy of these is the absence of inflectional –s on possessive and plurals.

The absence of possessive –s in sentence like *the dog- tail* was wagging or *the man – hat* was old are rare among other American Vernacular English.

AAVE shares a number of pronominal traits with other vernacular varieties of English, including the regularization of the reflexive his self, the extension of the objective form them for attributive demonstrative such as *She likes them apples,* and the use of objective forms in coordinate subject as in Me and Him got style. Urban AAVE also shares null subjective relative pronoun in embedded sentences such as *it's a man come over here talking trash.*

2.5.4 Question formation

There are two aspects of question formation that distinguish AAVE syntax, both involving subject auxiliary inversion. First, question may be formed without subject- auxiliary inversion, as in *Where that is?* Or *Why I can't go?* These non- inverted forms to occur with *wh-* question and syntactically simple sentence.

Walt wolfram state that while the productive use of simple non-inverted question order may be receding, it is still quite common in some fixed phrases such as *What it is?* Or *who that is?* At the same time, embedded questions may retain subject auxiliary inversion, as in *I asked her could I go with her,* contrasting with the standard pattern in which if or whether is used in non-inverted order, as in *I asked him if I could I go with him.*

In addition, based on Fasold and Wolfram; Owens; William and Wolfram can be summarized the grammatical characteristic of AAVE into the following table:

Adapted from Fasold and Wolfram (1970); Owens (1995); and William Wolfram

(1977).

Table 2.5.4.1

Structure	Description
Verbs	
Regular past *–ed*	Not obligatory: frequently omitted (e.g., I talk to him last week)
Irregular past *-ed*	May remain inflected, or regularized with "-ed" (e.g., He begin work yesterday, ; She knowed all about it)
Regular present 3rd person singular	Not obligatory : frequently omitted (e.g., Bob sleep too much)
Irregular present 3rd person singular	Not obligatory : frequently omitted (e.g., He always do silly things)
Future tense	"will" is replaced by "gonna" . "will" is omitted preceding the verb "be" (e.g., The dig gonna bite you ; I be back tomorrow)
Copula and auxiliary	Not obligatory: may be omitted if contractible (e.g., He ready ; They eating)
Perfect tense	"been" is used to signify action in the distant past (e.g., He did a long time a go ⟶ He been dead
Habitual state	Ongoing or general states are marked by uninflected "be" (e.g., She be funny)
Modals	Double modals are permitted with forms, such as: might, could, should (e.g., They might could come)
Noun phrase	
Regular plural *-s*	Not obligatory: frequently omitted when quantifiers are present I see three book over there)
Irregular plural	May be doubly inflected (e.g., help me find the children's)
Possesive *-s*	Not obligatory: frequently omitted when word order indicates possession (e.g., Debbi big got wet)
Pronouns	
Apposition	Pronoun immediately follows the referent noun (e.g., my brother he bigger than me)
Relative pronouns	Not obligatory: frequently omitted (e.g., there is the dog bit me)
Reflexive pronouns	Reflexive form of –self can be extended to possessive pronouns (e.g., his self, their self)
Demonstratives	Certain demonstrative / Pronominal phrases are permissible (e.g., these here apples; them there toys)
Adverbs and adjectives	

Comparative and superlatives	The forms "-er" and "-est" can be extended to many adjectives (e.g., worser; horriblest) The modifiers "more" and "most" can be added to comparative and superlative forms (e.g., more taller ; most oldest)
Intensifiers	Certain modifiers can be added to adverbs or adjectives for emphasis (e.g., right quick, plumb crazy)

2.6   Previous Studies

Previous Study is to show the difference and similarity between this research and another research. Some researchers have been analyzed Grammar and Vernacular English as their case study. Several researchers also have been analyzing with movie as their subject, but there are similarities and differences from several researchers with my research. The researcher takes four previous studies from 2010, 2011, 2013 and 2015.

African American Vernacular English is also used by Miftahul Huda (2010) with the title *Syntactic Characteristics of African American Vernacular English on A Raisin' in The Sun Film.* This research investigates the syntactic characteristics of African American Vernacular English used in a Raisin' in the Sun film. African American Vernacular English syntactic characteristic is a syntactic item of African American Vernacular English which has identifiable characteristic. The similarity between this research with my research is both of them use African American Vernacular English but the difference is this research use syntax and my research use grammar.

Studies of Grammar that focused on Vernacular style of "*Kenji Mizoguchi*" movie have been done by Paul Spicer (2011) with the title of thesis *The film of Kenji Mizoguchi: Authorship and Grammar Vernacular Style.* The

thesis contains passages of film dialogue. Where appropriate, these passages are in English and Japanese. This is used to highlight important issues such as social status which can be read in the Japanese text. Where more direct language is used, the Japanese has not been included. The difference is this research used Japanese Vernacular English but the researcher used African American Vernacular English.

Tomi Paakinen (2013) with the title *A Study of African American Vernacular English in Three Novels and Colloquial Finish in Their Translation – The Dark Tower II, The Drawing of the Three, A Time to Kill and Push* also use African American Vernacular English but the difference of this research is use Novel as the subject and my research is Movie. he focused on describing African American Vernacular English as a language variety.

Analyzing Grammar has been done by Yudi Prasetyo (2015) with the title of thesis *An Analysis of AAVE Grammatical Features as Depicted in the Utterances of Christopher Wallace in "Notorious" Movie* concluded that most of AAVE grammatical features are found in the utterances of Christopher Wallace in Notorious Movie namely ain't as a general preverbal negator, multiple negations, formation of direct question, absence of relative pronoun, absence of third person singular present tense –s, absence of auxiliary, generalization of was to use with plural subject, use of been to mark a state or action that began a long time ago and is still relevant, use of existential they got as a plural equivalent of singular it is, use of done to emphasize the completed nature of an action, use of auxiliary verb don't instead of doesn't, use of negative inversion, and use of y'all and they to mark second person plural and third person plural posessive. The similarity

between this research with my research is both of them use multiple negations and absence of third person singular present tense –s and also used movie as the subject but the difference is this research use "*Notorious*" movie and my research use "*Rush Hour 2*" movie.