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Grammatical Features in Indonesia English: A Study of Indonesian College Students

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ABSTRAK

Penelitian ini bertujuan untuk mendeskripsikan secara rinci tentang fitur gramatikal bahasa Inggris Indonesia. Bahasa Inggris Indonesia mengacu pada variasi linguistik bahasa Inggris yang baru diakui seperti yang dikemukakan oleh Coleman (2017). Ciri-ciri gramatikal sebagai hasil pemerolehan bahasa baru menyebabkan hadirnya ragam bahasa Inggris Indonesia yang baru. Penelitian ini menggunakan desain penelitian kualitatif deskriptif, data dikumpulkan berdasarkan rekaman pidato 24 mahasiswa pada tiga topik yang berbeda. Mengikuti prinsip yang dikemukakan oleh Cogo dan Dewey (2012), penelitian ini mengungkap dua belas fitur gramatikal sebagai ciri bahasa Inggris Indonesia. Yaitu overgeneralisasi dan penghilangan kopula BE (i.e am, is, are), penggunaan kolokasi bahasa Indonesia dan terjemahan literal, kesepakatan subjek-verba, penghilangan penanda jamak 's', pemberian makna leksikal yang berbeda, ketidaktepatan preposisi, penghilangan penanda posesif, penghilangan dan penambahan kata sandang, penerapan tenses verba, penggunaan akronim dan singkatan bahasa Indonesia, konstruksi bentuk pasif yang tidak benar, dan penggunaan item leksikal bahasa Indonesia. Terlihat bahwa salah satu faktor utama munculnya varian bahasa Inggris baru ini adalah kontak dari berbagai bahasa yang digunakan oleh penuturnya.

ABSTRACT

This study aims to expose detailed descriptions of the grammatical features of Indonesian English. Indonesian English refers to a newly recognised linguistic variety of English as proposed by Coleman (2017). The grammatical characteristics as the result of acquiring a new language lead to the presence of a new variety of Indonesian English. Applying descriptive qualitative research, the data were collected based on recordings of the speech of 24 college students on three different topics. Following the principle proposed by Cogo and Dewey (2012), this study reveals twelve grammatical features as the characteristics of Indonesian English. They are namely the over-generalisation and omission of the copula BE (i.e am, is, are), the use of Indonesian collocation and literal translation, subject–verb agreement, the omission of the plural marker 's', assigning different lexical meanings, inappropriate prepositions, the omission of possessive markers, the omission and addition of articles, the application of verb tenses, the use of Indonesian acronyms and abbreviations, the incorrect construction of passive forms, and the use of Indonesian lexical items. It is shown that one of the main factors in the emergence of this new English variant is the contact of the multiple languages used by the speakers..

1. INTRODUCTION

Indonesia, one of the world's most populous non-English-speaking nations, continues to be a significant market for English language education (Zein et al., 2020). English is taught in schools as a foreign language (Apriliani & Listyani, 2021; Razak et al., 2018; Tauchid et al., 2022). The decree of the minister of education and culture in 1993, English is taught as local content starting from class IV (9–10 years old) in the Indonesian education system. It becomes a compulsory subject in junior high school when pupils are around 12–13 years old. However, it has never been a part of the everyday lives of Indonesians and is situated alongside 707 local living languages (Simons & Fennig, 2017). Indonesian

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(locally referred to as Bahasa Indonesia) is the official language (Paramita et al., 2022; Wikanengsih et al., 2015). It is a standardised version of Malay that acts as the archipelago's lingua franca. Indonesia, the national language, competes daily with indigenous languages, and almost every Indonesian can speak two or more languages with varying degrees of proficiency (Abtahian et al., 2016; Cohn & Ravindranath, 2014). English, on the other hand, is limited to a few narrow fields, such as multinational business, tourism, and academics. However, it occupies a prominent role within the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) community, where English has become the driving force behind globalisation and exerting control across economic, political, cultural, and idiosyncratic spheres (Hamied, 2013; Nofrika, 2019).

The English language has grown in prominence and is now playing a significant role in Indonesia. Its prestige is growing in society, and there is a prevalent social discourse that considers English essential for social mobility, upward economic mobility, and global economic participation (Dewi, 2014; Zein et al., 2020). It is commonly used in mass media, social media, podcasts, and advertisements. Indonesian influencers and youtubers often insert English into their dialogue, which is becoming increasingly common among Indonesian people. In their content, they use language mixing or code switching, involving English. The younger generation prefers to communicate in English in order to keep up with the fast pace of globalisation (Apriliani & Listyani, 2021; Bonafix & Manara, 2016; Tauchid et al., 2022). Nowadays, an increasing number of National Plus schools and so-called 'international' schools promote their services by emphasising English as an integral part of classroom instruction. The usage of English by Indonesians, schools, and businesses demostrates prestige, expertise, and modernity.

Thus, Indonesia, a multilingual nation, poses a challenge to English language education. The country, as a linguistically diverse nation, necessitates a shift toward multilingual education (Rahmayanti et al., 2020; Razak et al., 2018; Tauchid et al., 2022; Zein, 2019). Multilingual education recognises English as a global language that provides opportunities for social and economic advancement. Likewise, it prioritises both the promotion of Indonesian as the national language and the preservation of local languages. In light of Indonesia's multilingualism, studies have shown that teachers and students use their first language in English classes. Teachers overuse Indonesian while instructing students in English (Hidayati, 2012; Yulia, 2013). Incorporating Indonesian, the students' native language, into the teaching–learning process increases their use of jargon but impairs their grammar abilities due to L1 interference. Teachers often use the Indonesian language to address topics and, to some degree, clarify the grammatical rules of the target language (Kasmini, 2015; Mattarima & Hamdan, 2011). Teachers struggle to communicate effectively in English in class (Yulia, 2013). Classroom teaching was mostly performed in Bahasa Indonesia's low variety and Javanese. Indonesian teachers and scholars use translanguaging to combine two languages into a single linguistic unit, enabling them to selectively pick features for effective communication (Zein et al., 2020).

Innovations in technology and demography have led to the continuous globalisation of English, which has not only changed its usage but also its conceptualisation (Cogo & Dewey, 2012; Sert & Boynueğri, 2017). Recently, the concept of English as a native language, which has been widely applied in the teaching of English in Indonesia, has been questioned (Ahmadi, 2018; Zein et al., 2020). A change in attitude has occurred lately regarding the teaching of the language (Zein et al., 2020). When English comes into contact with both the national language, Indonesian, and other indigenous languages, it undergoes natural processes of variation and change. The circumstances in which English has become more intertwined with other languages and the fact that it is spoken by a growing number of people from a wide range of backgrounds in a large variety of communities establishes English as a lingua franca and makes it a unique phenomenon (Cogo & Dewey, 2012). Thus, its sociolinguistic status in Indonesia seems to be shifting from English as a foreign language (EFL) to English as a lingua franca. Indonesian English, according to (Coleman, 2017), is a newly recognised linguistic variety. (Hamied, 2012) asserts that the varieties of English spoken by Indonesians are as diverse as the varieties of Indonesian, owing to the country's rich linguistic diversity. Therefore, it is critical to investigate how English varieties emerged during the process of Indonesians learning English. There is still a lack of linguistic research on Indonesians' use of the language. So far, research has concentrated on error analysis and interlanguages (Aini et al., 2020; Burhansyah, 2019; Fauziati, 2011, 2017; Fauziati & Maftuhin, 2016; Fauziati & Nugroho, 2019; Gayo & Widodo, 2018; Gumilar et al., 2018; Kusumawardani & Adnyani, 2020; Maheswari et al., 2020; Mandarani, 2020; Pratiwi et al., 2020; Puspita, 2019; E. Sari, 2016; P. Sari et al., 2020; Suwastini et al., 2020; Tiarina, 2017). In this study, the English used by Indonesians in spoken discourse is referred to as 'Indonesian English'. This research delves into the linguistic characteristics, specifically the grammatical features, of the English spoken by Indonesian college students who have studied the language for at least nine years through formal education. This research aims to analyze the grammatical features of Indonesian English.

2. METHOD

This study is a descriptive qualitative study which aims to get in-depth insights towards the grammatical features of Indonesian English produced by college students. The data were gained through classroom observation during Speaking class using audio recording. The data were identified, classified, and analysed referring to Cogo and Dewey's theory of 'innovative language forms'. The result of the analysis then was reported in the form of narrative about the grammatical features that are taken to be the characteristics of Indonesian English. The participants of the study were 24 college students enrolled in a state university in Bali. This study applied purposive sampling techniques with consideration that the students had been exposed to English instruction from elementary school. Thus, they spent an average of nine years in formal education learning the language. They can communicate in both Indonesian and Balinese, the local language. The recordings took place towards the end of 2020 and the beginning of 2021, and each participant talked about a given topic.

In collecting the data, the students were given particular topics. These were: (1) Self-introduction, (2) What you experienced in 2020 and what to expect in 2021, and (3) An interesting event or place. The participants were informed about each topic two weeks prior. Each presentation was approximately two to three minutes long. Their speech were recorded and transcribed. The data transcription then were identified referring to the grammatical features of Indonesian English produced by participants. The data then classified based on the features that appeared in their speech. After classifying the data, they were analysed and the result of analysis then described. This thesis adheres to Cogo and Dewey's theory of referring to non-native features as 'innovative language forms' rather than 'learners' errors'. This principle was also adopted by Yamaguchi (2018). 'Learners' errors' is a term that has been used in the past to describe the form of data proposed by Corder (1967) and Selinker (1972). The Cogo and Dewey theory, abbreviated as C&D by Yamaguchi, considers new forms to have systematic occurrence and structured patterns within the 'localised repertoire'.

3. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

Result

The study reveals that there are twelve main grammatical characteristics of Indonesian English, namely the overgeneralisation and omission of the copula BE (i.e am, is, are), the use of Indonesian collocation and literal translation, subject–verb agreement, the omission of the plural marker 's', assigning different lexical meanings, inappropriate prepositions, the omission of possessive markers, the omission and addition of articles, the application of verb tenses, the use of Indonesian acronyms and abbreviations, the incorrect construction of passive forms, and the use of Indonesian lexical items, as discussed in the following.

The majority of non-native features occurred in the participants' speech due to the use and absence of copula BE. In the Indonesian language's grammatical system, the BE concept does not exist. The participants either overgeneralised or omitted the use of BE. The following examples demonstrate its use in the present or past tense. (1) It is happen because a corona virus 'It happened because of coronavirus'. (2) I'm come from Kintamani 'I come from Kintamani'. (3) I'm probably present some achievement for my faculty 'I probably presented some achievement to my faculty'. (4) I am performed in hotel event 'I performed at a hotel event'. (5) You are look so serious, guys 'You looked so serious, guys'. (6) In the 2020, we are all had the pandemic problem of Covid-19 'In 2020, we all had the problem that was the Covid-19 pandemic'. (7) I was bought it yesterday 'I bought it yesterday'. (8) Everything was happen 'Everything happened'.

In examples , the BEs 'is', 'am', 'are', and 'was' are often used by participants in contexts where they do not belong. To help them articulate their ideas in English, the participants used some linguistic knowledge of the target language that they had previously learned. Along with overgeneralisation, participants omit BE when it is required. Examples of BE omission; (9) My father a farmer 'My father is a farmer'. (10) Now, Meli 15 years old 'Now, Meli is 15 years old'. (11) I student college 'I am a college student'. (12) If I wrong forgive me 'Forgive me if I am wrong'. (13) I really sorry because may be I made mistakes 'I am really sorry because I might make mistakes'. (14) My hobbies listening to music and adventures 'My hobbies are listening to music and going on adventures'.

As shown in examples, the learners neglected the use of copula BE. The absence of BE in the participant's speech is notable. BE does not exist in Indonesian, the participants' native language. They used the grammar structure of their native language, which is what they were most familiar with. While BE is required in English, it is not in Indonesian. The following sentences show the non-obligation of copula BE in Indonesian. (15) *Saya Susi* 'I Susi 'I am Susi'. (16) *Kuenya enak* 'The cake delicious' 'The cake

is delicious'. (17) *Tiketnya mahal*, The ticket expensive, 'The ticket is expensive'. (18) *Bisma dan Rama cerdas*, Bisma and Rama smart, 'Bisma and Rama are handsome'.

Another issue for *Indonesian English* speakers is the use of Indonesian collocation. The participants in this study tended to do word-by-word translations to communicate their thoughts, as seen in the examples below. (19) I am never seen my friends class 'I have never seen my classmate'. (20) There is still a side positive 'There is still a positive side'. (21) I student college 'I am a college student'. (22) That is yours? 'Is that yours?'. (23) You understand? 'Do you understand?'. (24) You know me? 'Do you know me?'. (25) I work for clean the hotel 'I cleaned the hotel'. (26) I can't meet with a new friends in campus 'I can't meet my new friends on campus'. (27) My connection is very bad because the rain 'My connection was bad because of the rain'.

In example, the phrase 'friend class' is actually a literal translation from *teman sekelas*, or 'classmate', and it might sound right for a native speaker of Indonesian. In examples, the phrases 'side positive' and 'student college' are expressed using Indonesian noun-phrase construction. The phrase 'side positive', or *sisi positif,* is constructed of head ('side', or *sisi*) + modifier ('positive', or *positif*), which is Indonesian noun-phrase construction, while an English noun phrase is constructed of a modifier followed by the head (the noun). The phrase 'student college' is similar. In English, it should be 'college student' where 'college' is the noun modifier, and 'student' is the head of the phrase.

In examples, it can be seen that the participants used declarative sentence construction to express questions. In colloquial Indonesian, using a declarative sentence to ask a question is acceptable. This study found that participants produce declarative sentence construction with a rising intonation as one way to ask a question, such as in the following:

Dia pergi ke Medan?
He/she went to Medan
'Did she go to Medan?'

Susan pintar?
Susan clever
'Is Susan clever?'

Kamu lapar?
You hungry
'Are you hungry?

Subject–verb agreement (SVA) is an important aspect of grammatical encoding in English. The grammatical subject of a sentence must agree in number (singular or plural) with the main verb. Moreover, the verbs must agree with their subjects in person (first, second, or third). Singular subjects require singular verbs, while plural subjects require plural verbs. In the participants' speech, the following sentences were produced. (28) My mother work as a staff in the hotel 'My mother works in the hotel'. (29) My sister also accompany me to exercising. (30) 'My sister also accompanies me when I exercise'. (31) This principle help encourage me to always get up when I fall 'This principle encourages me to always get up when I fall'. (32) This situation make it difficult for us to carry out our daily life 'This situation makes it difficult for us to carry on with our daily lives.'. (33) Everyone help me to pass it 'Everyone is helping me to pass it'. (34) Everybody in this world know that 2020 was a tough year 'Everybody in this world knows that 2020 was a tough year'. (35) Each country decide to stay at home 'Each country decides to stay at home'. (36) So, the government ask all people to stay wear mask 'So, the government asked everyone to keep wearing a mask'.

In examples the participants do not apply the suffix *–s* or *–es* to the verbs when the subjects are in the third person, such as in 'my mother', 'my sister', 'the principle', 'the situation', 'everyone', 'everybody', 'each', and 'the government'. In English, the third-person singular subject (*he, she,* and *it*) triggers the suffix *-s* or *-es*. The first-person singular (*I*), second-person singular/plural (*you*), and first- and third-person plural (*we* and *they*, respectively) do not trigger overt agreement in finite verbs (Iman, 2020). However, in Indonesian, verbs do not change according to the subject or tense.

Indonesian English speakers also experienced problems with plural forms. The plural marker -s, which is added to nouns productively, does not exist in Indonesian. Thus, the following issues occurred in the participants' speech. (37) I learn many thing 'I learn many things'. (38) I want to learn many foreign language 'I want to learn many foreign languages'. (39) through the K-Pop I learn many culture 'Through K-Pop, I learned about many cultures. (40) I went there for several time 'I went there several times'. (41) One of the most important aspect 'One of the most important aspects'. The plural marker -s was attached

to the majority of the countable nouns in the participants' speech, and they had no obvious problems when attaching the plural marker to concrete nouns. However, they do not tend to pluralise abstract nouns, like those mentioned with words like 'thing', 'language', 'culture', 'time', and 'aspect'. As a result, the critical factor appears to be whether nouns are abstract or concrete – the suffix -s is frequently affixed to the latter but not to the former when it comes to plural formation with Indonesian–English speakers.

English words with similar meanings are used by *Indonesian English* speakers as can be seen in the following examples: (42) Your presentation about chemical reaction is very nice 'Your presentation about chemical reactions was great'. (43) I entered to junior high school 'I applied to junior high school'. (44) The government decided to not do the final exam 'The government decided to cancel the final exam'. (45) The government tell us to stay at home 'The government ordered us to stay at home'. (46) My mother is a trader 'My mother is a seller'.

In example, the phrase 'very nice' was used to express 'great/impressive/amazing/ interesting'. The phrase 'very nice' was used as an equivalent of the Indonesian expression *sangat bagus*. The word 'entered' in example is used to replace 'applied to'. Again, the word 'entered' has an Indonesian equivalent, *masuk*. In Indonesian, when people say that they were educated in certain schools or colleges, they often use the colloquial expressions *saya masuk SD,* 'I attend primary school'*, Dia masuk SMP,* 'He attends junior high school', or *mereka masuk SMA,* 'They attend senior high school'. In the other examples, 'not do' means 'cancel', 'tells' replaces 'orders', and 'trader' replaces 'seller'. Thus, Indonesian–English speakers try to replace certain words with their synonyms even though they are not contextually or situationally appropriate.

Because of the disparities between the prepositional systems of English and Indonesian, the English prepositional system appears to be one of the most difficult aspects of the language for learners. The problems experienced by the participants in applying prepositions can be seen in examples (47) to (50). (47) It looks great for you 'It looks great on you'. (48) We must use a mask for keep healthy 'We must use a mask to stay healthy'. (49) I wrote this letter for my mom and my dad. 'I wrote this letter for my mom and my dad'. (50) I like to listen of music 'I like listening to music'. Compared to Indonesian, English has a far larger number of prepositions describing various types of relationships. For example, the Indonesian preposition *di,* used to signify place, has various English equivalents, such as 'in', 'at', and 'on'. The Indonesian preposition *pada,* which denotes time, has the equivalents 'on' and 'at'. In examples (47) to (49), the participants use the Indonesian preposition *untuk,* or 'for', to replace 'to', such as in 'for you', *untuk kamu*, 'to stay healthy', *untuk menjaga kesehatan,* and 'for my mom and my dad', *untuk ibu saya dan ayah saya*. Thus, the word *untuk* is translated to 'for'. While in English, contextually, *untuk* has several equivalents, i.e. 'for', 'to', 'on', and 'towards'.

The participants in this study tended to omit the possessive marker ''s', and this problem might have been influenced by their first language. Noun phrases are used in Indonesian to convey something that belongs to a person or animal (possession). For example, *anjing Joni,* or 'Joni's dog', refers to a dog, so the word 'dog' comes first. Joni (name of a person) specifies to whom the dog belongs, so it is placed after the noun. However, the participants omit the use of possessive markers in their speech, as can be seen in the following examples: (51) My first little sister name is Ni Kadek Devi 'My youngest sister's name is Ni Kadek Devi'. (52) The government decision to handle the pandemic 'The government's decision to handle the pandemic'. (53) I am happy with my teacher support 'I am happy with my teacher's support'. (54) My father job is a supervisor at private company 'My father's job is a supervisor at a private company'. (55) My mother job is an accountant 'My mother's job is an accountant.' In examples (51) to (55), the participants omit the use of possessive markers in their noun phrases, such as in 'sister name', 'government decision', 'teacher support', 'father job', and 'mother job'.

Another element of the participants' speech was that their usage of articles was non-native. In the Indonesian grammatical system, there are no articles. One could argue that problems involving articles are caused by their absence in L1, but this is not always the case. In many cases, participants produced nouns with no articles. (56) She is student at senior high school 'She is a student at a senior high school'. (57) My mother is housewife 'My mother is a housewife'. (58) I was chosen to be tourism ambassador 'I was chosen to be a tourism ambassador'. (59) My plan for 2021 is to become active student in the campus 'My plan for 2021 is to become an active student on the campus'. (60) I student college 'I am a college student'. (61) Last is cyber bullying 'The last is cyber bullying'. (62) Today I will let you know about one of beautiful temples on Lombok island 'Today, I will tell you about one of the beautiful temples on Lombok Island'.

In some instances, though, they include an article that isn't required, as shown in examples (63) I will make you a fruit salad 'I will make you fruit salad'. (64) I can't meet with a new friends in campus 'I can't meet with new friends on campus'. (65) I want to learning a new things 'I want to learn new things'. (66) I heard some a good news. 'I heard some good news'. (67) The many people can call me Isma 'People can call me Isma'. In examples (56) to (62), the participants omit the articles 'a', 'an', and 'the' in their

speech. Meanwhile, examples (63) to (67) show that the participants add the articles 'a' and 'the' unnecessarily in their presentations. It can be inferred that the participants know the concept of articles in English, but they do not use them in the proper way.

In English, a verb denotes an action, and the action has a time relationship with the person who performs the action. English has two simple tenses, present and past tense. The simple verb form denotes the present. The stem and inflection *-ed* for a regular verb reflects the past tense. (68) I gradute from high school 1 South Kuta 'I graduated from high school 1 of South Kuta'. (69) first, I start my education at kindergarten 'First, I started my education in the kindergarten'. (70) what I experience in 2020 'what I experienced in 2020'. (71) I just stay at home until one month 'I just stayed at home for a month'. (72) I just study in semester one 'I just studied in semester one'. (73) In 1910, Nathaniel Baldwin begin manufacturing the first modern headphones. 'In 1910, Nathaniel Baldwin began manufacturing the first modern headphones'. In examples it can be seen that verb tenses are one of the most difficult areas of grammar to learn. The regular verbs 'graduate', 'start', 'experience', 'stay', and 'study' should be 'graduated', 'started', 'experienced', 'stayed', and 'studied', while the irregular verbs 'begin' and 'make' should be 'begun' and 'made'. Unlike English, Indonesian lacks morphological tense, which means that no verb is used to distinguish between the present and past. The only way to distinguish between the present and past is to use a time adverbial. As a result, without a time adverbial, a sentence's time frame can be ambiguous.

Indonesian has many acronyms, for example *Menristek (Kementerian Riset dan Teknologi),* 'The Ministry of Research and Technology', *Kemendikbud (Kementerian Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan),* 'The Ministry of Education and Culture', *PSSI (Persatuan Sepakbola Seluruh Indonesia),* 'The Indonesian Football Association', *and IDI (Ikatan Dokter Indonesia),* 'Indonesian Doctors Association'. Acronyms are used by the participants as can be seen in. (74) I graduate from *SMK* Negeri 1 Sukasada 'I graduated from state vocational school 1 of Sukasada'. (75) I'm from *D3* English Department. 'I'm from the 3-year diploma of English department'. (76) The government does not allow big event like *PKB* 'The government does not allow big events like the Bali Art Festival'. In examples the acronyms *SMK (Sekolah Menengah Kejuruan),* 'Vocational School', *D3 (Diploma 3),* '3-year diploma', and *PKB (Pesta Kesenian Bali),* 'Bali Art Festival', are used.

Another problematic area in *Indonesian English* speakers' speech is the application of passive form. The incorrect construction of passive forms can be seen in the following examples. (77) Many schools in Indonesia must be close 'Many schools in Indonesia must be closed'. (78) It built in the middle of deep forest 'It was built in the middle of the deep forest'. (79) Social media can be use to know whatever is happening around the world 'Social media can be used to know whatever is happening around the world'. (80) The First Bali Art Festival held 41 years ago 'The first Bali Art Festival was held 41 years ago'. (81) This tradition is usually carry on the five moon according to the Balinese calendar 'This tradition is usually carried out on the fifth moon according to the Balinese calendar'. (82) The island of Bali is also knows as a place for relaxing with yoga and meditation. 'The island of Bali is also known as a place for relaxing with yoga and meditation'

In the examples, the participants frequently had difficulty applying passive forms, for example 'close', 'built', 'use', 'held', 'carry on', and 'knows'. This is caused by the influence of their first language. Passive construction is made with prefixation with *di-*, as in *diambil,* or 'taken', *dipakai,* or 'used', *dilempar,* or 'thrown', *dilipat,* or 'folded', and so on, without modifying the verb. English has nearly identical rules for constructing passive forms, which can be confusing for students. The feature that distinguishes it is the presence of a verb that changes form into the past participle. In English, passive constructions are frequently produced using an auxiliary verb BE, followed by the past participle. To construct the passive form, the recipient of an action is changed from the doer to the subject of the sentence. Then, an auxiliary BE is inserted, followed by the change of verbs into past participle. Finally, the doer of the action is included as an object in the sentence following 'by'.

One of the main features of the *Indonesian English* speakers' speech is the use of Indonesian lexical items as follows: (83) Today, I will do a presentation about Balinese traditions, namely *Perang Pandan* tradition. (84) The festival takes for use about work of art and artistic aspiration *ngelawang* parade, *wayang kulit* performs, *drama gong, joged bumbung, prembon,* and others culture of the people of Bali. (85) This *Wayang Wong* is an ancient dance. In examples (, the words *perang pandan and ngelawang* refer to Balinese traditions, while the words *wayang kulit, wayang wong, drama gong, jogged bumbung,* and *prembon* refer to Balinese traditional performances. *Perang pandan* refers to Balinese traditions held in the village of Tenganan, where pandan leaves are shared by two people. *Ngelawang* refers to a dance performance accompanied by a simple, traditional orchestra. *Wayang kulit* and *wayang wong* refer to art performances with masks and puppets. *Drama gong* and *prembon* refer to a combination of thick, modern drama with Balinese traditional accents. *Jogged bumbung* refers to one of many Balinese traditional

dances that are accompanied by a traditional bamboo musical instrument. Because these phrases are firmly established in their culture and difficult to translate into English, the participants struggled with this challenge. Therefore, they just used the original terms in their speech.

Discussion

The presence of new variety of language by EFL students who are in the process of acquiring new language is common, where in the past, it is considered as "error" (Fauziati, 2011; Rahman, 2021). The present study identified several grammatical characteristics of Indonesian English appeared in participants' speech. This grammatical characteristics as the result of learning process lead to the presence of a new variety of Indonesian English. This study takes the same position to define Indonesian English as a variety that belongs to its users and is independent of native English. The emergence of this new variety is due to less chance of Indonesian to communicate with English native speakers. English is the foreign language learned in formal education. It means that English is not the primary language of communication. It is reasonable to conclude that innovative linguistic forms in Indonesian English emerge from a speaker's first language and the basic knowledge of the native norm learned in the classroom. Thus, condition developed the newly recognized linguistic variant known as Indonesian English (Inglish), as in Chinglish (Chinese English), Japlish (Japan English) and Hinglish (Hindi English) (Coleman, 2017).

The present study identified twelve main grammatical characteristics of Indonesian English, namely the overgeneralisation and omission of the copula BE (i.e am, is, are), the use of Indonesian collocation and literal translation, subject–verb agreement, the omission of the plural marker 's', assigning different lexical meanings, inappropriate prepositions, the omission of possessive markers, the omission and addition of articles, the application of verb tenses, the use of Indonesian acronyms and abbreviations, the incorrect construction of passive forms, and the use of Indonesian lexical items. The result of the study found the overgeneralization and omission of the copula BE (i.e am, is, are) in participants' speech. Overgeneralisation is a basic learning technique involving the learner's language, according to (Fauziati & Nugroho, 2019). The overgeneralisation of BE by Indonesians has been recorded by numerous studies (Aziez, 2016; Burhansyah, 2019; Fauziati, 2011, 2017; Fauziati & Maftuhin, 2016; Kusumawardani & Adnyani, 2020; Pratiwi et al., 2020; Suwastini et al., 2020). Another findings also revealed the omission of the copula BE (i.e am, is, are). Indonesian as the participants' native language does not require BE. Due to the fact that a copula is not required, predication may be expressed using a two-word or one-word nonverbal utterance (Adnyani et al., 2018). Various studies have reported the absence of BE in a student's English production (Burhansyah, 2019; Fauziati, 2011; Fauziati & Maftuhin, 2016; Gayo & Widodo, 2018; Iman, 2020; Kusumawardani & Adnyani, 2020; Mandarani, 2020; P. Sari et al., 2020).

This study also identified the presence of Indonesian collocation and literal translation. A number of linguists claimed that having collocation competency could bring a high possibility for EFL learners to use language accurately and fluently (Bui, 2021; Sanguannam, 2017; Shamsudin et al., 2013; Wei et al., 2022). They all believe that collocation is essential for linguistic fluency. The term 'Indonesian collocation' refers to a combination of two or more words that sound natural to an Indonesian native speaker but not to an English native speaker (Fauziati, 2017). Indonesian English speakers tend to produce English collocation through directly translating word by word from Indonesian to English. This grammatical characteristic is mostly found in the writing production (Rahman, 2021). This grammatical characteristic was caused by several factors such as the language transfer from their first language (L1) to their second language (L2), synonyms, and lack of collocation competency (Boonraksa & Naisena, 2022; Rahman, 2021). This study corroborates with previous findings which found that learners who still in the process of learning another language tend to produce literal translation from native to their target language (Harta et al., 2021; Rahman, 2021; Simanjuntak et al., 2022; Syaifullah & Sukova, 2022; Yusuf et al., 2021). Another finding revealed that Indonesian English participants produce grammatical characteristic in using declarative sentence to ask question.

The participants in this study ignored the subject–verb agreement (SVA) in producing sentence. SVA is a component of grammatical encoding (Veenstra, 2014). However, in Indonesian, the same grammatical rules do not apply. Another characteristic was also found in plural formation. Indonesian English speakers tend to ignore the change of noun in plural form when they produce sentence in English due to the absence of this rules in their native language. In Indonesia, to state something in plural, it just need to put article *banyak, beberapa* or doubling the noun such as the noun *buku* 'book' becomes *buku-buku* 'books'. The participants also conduct error in using English words with similar meanings. The problems experienced with plural formation are revealed by various studies (Aini et al., 2020; Aziez, 2016; Burhansyah, 2019; Gayo & Widodo, 2018; Puspita, 2019; Suwastini et al., 2020; Tiarina, 2017). This present study also revealed grammatical characteristic produced by the participants namely assigning different lexical meaning. Assigning different lexical meanings is a creative use of word meaning is to

slightly alter the original meaning to make it more appropriate for a certain context or situation (Yamaguchi, 2018). It is related to the choice of words that is used which appropriate with the context in the sentence.

Besides, the present study found the grammatical character of Indonesian English in the use of tenses. Tense is a grammatical category that denotes the time period of an event; the tense is expressed by the verb's form (Greenbaum & Nelson, 2016). In English, the use of tense influence the change in BE and verb. The present tense in English is used to express the current situation while past tense is used to express action in the past (Leech et al., 2002). The participants produced error in using past tense where they forgot to change the verb into past form. This confusi.on was caused by lack of morphological tense in Indonesia. In Indonesia, there is no change in verb that distinguish the present and past. The only way to distinguish between the present and past is to use a time adverbial. As a result, without a time adverbial, a sentence's time frame can be ambiguous. In Indonesia, the adverbial aspect markers *sedang, tengah*, and *lagi* are used to express that an event is taking place (Prasentianto, 2015). The adverbial aspect markers are used to express that an event is taking place. In contrast to English, it does not require verbs to have obvious morphological markers. Indonesian does not have subject–verb agreement. Therefore, the participants tend to use verbs without inflections. Besides ignoring the change in verbs, they also omit the articles in producing English sentence. A number of studies have revealed Indonesian students' difficulties in applying articles (Aini et al., 2020; Aziez, 2016; Burhansyah, 2019; Fauziati, 2011; Gayo & Widodo, 2018; Pratiwi et al., 2020; Subekti, 2018). Another grammatical character identified in participants' speech is the incorrect of passive form. EFL students avoided English passive construction because the passive construction was more complex than the active construction (Wang & Pongpairoj, 2021). In Indonesian, although the subject doer is transformed into the object receiver, the verb form remains unchanged (Bahar et al., 2019). However, to change the sentence into passive form in English requires several steps.

4. CONCLUSION

This research presents an analysis of grammatical features derived from the English of college students enrolled in a state university in Indonesia who gave free speeches in English on three different topics. Applying descriptive qualitative research, this study reveals twelve grammatical features that are taken to be the characteristics of Indonesian English. They are namely the overgeneralisation and omission of the copula BE (i.e am, is, are), the use of Indonesian collocation and literal translation, subject–verb agreement, the omission of the plural marker 's', assigning different lexical meanings, inappropriate prepositions, the omission of possessive markers, the omission and addition of articles, the application of verb tenses, the use of Indonesian acronyms and abbreviations, the incorrect construction of passive forms, and the use of Indonesian lexical items. The data analysis revealed how certain new varieties or 'innovative language forms', emerged. The above-mentioned feature descriptions should aid the identification of a new variety, and hopefully, this study will be of help in this regard. Given that Indonesian English is primarily learned, which means that it emerges from formal education in a context where English is not the primary language of communication, it is reasonable to conclude that innovative linguistic forms in Indonesian English emerge from a speaker's first language and the basic knowledge of the native norm learned in the classroom. Thus, English as a lingua franca (ELF) is considered an example of multi-competence. This shaped the newly recognised linguistic variety called Indonesian English. It shows that one of the main factors in the emergence of this new English variant is the contact of the multiple languages used by the speakers.

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