



SNAP TO READ

INDONESIAN GRAMMAR IN PETJO

Deanty Rumandang Bulan

Universitas Bale Bandung
deantyrbulan@unibba.ac.id

First received: May 31, 2018

Final proof received: Jan 14, 2019

Abstract:

Petjo was created by mixing Dutch and local languages in Dutch East Indisch. This language is the language spoken by the Indos in the Dutch colonial era. It has a unique feature despite being named as 'broken Dutch'. This present study is a descriptive qualitative study that looks into the feature of Indonesian language grammar in Petjo. This study elaborates the feature of Indonesian grammar in Petjo from morpho-syntax perspective. Results show that there are at least seven characteristics of Indonesian grammar appeared in Petjo. This explains why Petjo is called 'broken Dutch'.

Keywords: *Petjo, mixed-language, creole,*

Pidgin and creole are the product of the situation where more than one language is used in the same place at the same time. According to Thomason and Kaufman (2001:158) pidgin and creole emerge in the situation where people from different language background need to talk to each other regularly. In that situation, pidgin exists as a mixed language without native speaker. Meanwhile, creole language is the language that arises when pidgin had acquired native speakers (Appel and Muysken, 2006:175)

Petjo is the mixed language born from the mixture of Dutch and local languages such as Malay, and Javanese. The language was spoken

by the Indos (Dutch-Indonesian offspring) in the Dutch East Indies (now Indonesia) presumably from about the second half of the nineteenth century till the complete departure of Dutch from Indonesia in 1949. It has existed in several varieties in relation with the place in Java where the language spread out. The name of Petjo was taken from the Javanese word “*pecuk*”, a name of a little black bird which is the sign of death and disaster. Petjo was also named as the language of *Liplap*. *Liplap* refers to Asian-born people who have parents that were born in Europe (Van Rheedeen, 1994).

The Dutch occupation in East Indies started by the establishment of VOC (*Verenigde Oost-indische Compagnie*) in 1602. At first, the Dutch had little influence upon the Indonesian society. However, after the installation of the Dutch colonial government at the beginning of the eighteenth century, they gained more power to control economic, demographic, and social aspects of the local people. Thus, in result, the contact between Dutch people and the local people became inevitable. Dutch men commonly took Indonesian women as a wife or only as a concubine. This interaction gave birth to the existence of the Indo people. Unfortunately, since most of their mothers were only concubines, the Indos did not get the recognition from their Dutch father. They lived in a poor circumstance with their mothers in *kampoeng*. There, Petjo was born because the majority of the Indo-European children did not receive proper education and did not acquire Dutch formally. At least, they did not experience Dutch education until the second half of the nineteenth century when Dutch education (on a low level) finally came within reach of more children, including Indo-European children. It appears that Malay was always spoken alongside Petjo, and Dutch was only acquired at a later age, and often not completely (Croft, 2000).

Petjo has always had a very low prestige in the Dutch-Indies and was called as “*Krom-Holland*” or ‘broken Dutch’ by the Dutch (de Gruiter, 1994). Due to the stratified character of the colonial society, one’s status was dependent on one’s skin color and language use. On the other hand, many Indos had wished to be as Dutch as possible, because of the better chances

for education and jobs so they tried to speak Dutch as perfectly as they could (Van Rheeden, 1994).

In the late 1950s and early 1960s many Dutch and Indo-European returned to the Netherlands, in particular following the economic and political turmoil in Indonesia. The nationalization of Dutch properties, the struggle for New Guinea (Indonesia's present province of Irian Jaya), and Soekarno's Confrontation Politics were some of the many problems which forced Dutch and "Indo" people leave the country (Giebers, 1997). In the Netherlands, the Indos had to assimilate into their new life. They also were very aware of the pejorative judgement by the Europeans. These circumstances have determinate that the Petjo-speaking Indos were never very proud of their language; it is also the reason why nowadays it is so hard to find Indos in the Netherlands who want to talk about their language use in colonial times. In general they want to make belief they spoke perfect Dutch, because that was the prestige language at the time, and some deny having spoken Petjo (Van Rheeden, 1994).

Nowadays, since the group of Indos has fallen apart, and the particular condition under which Petjo was spoken ceased to exist, the language, unfortunately, is almost extinct. According to Lee (2018:15), the number of Petjo speakers is less than a hundred people. it shows that now the language in the level of endangered.

Although Petjo is listed as creole by majority scholars, Van Rheeden (1994) considers Petjo lacks Pidgin aspects. Van Rheeden argues that the pidgin aspect of Petjo is merely created by the fact that Malay had been functioned as lingua Franca in Nusantara (now Indonesia) for a long time and the simplification of the languages that the speaker used to create Petjo. Nevertheless, I agree with most scholars to classify Petjo as one of the creoles in the world since Petjo has acquired native speakers.

Appel and Pieter Muysken (2006:175) suggests, "the vocabulary of a pidgin generally derives from one language; the one that socially and politically dominant in the contact situation". In Petjo, Dutch lexicons are

apparent. However, the speakers frequently mix Malay and others local languages lexicons in their utterance. Also, note that Indonesian language is derived from Malay. On 28 October 1928, at the Second Indonesian Youth Congress known as the Youth Pledge, the delegation of Indonesian Youth agreed to refer Malay as Indonesian language, the national language of the future Indonesian state (Sneddon, 2003:5).

Due to the familiarity and great influence of Malay and local languages, Petjo strongly bears the feature of Malay and local languages. Consider the following example (1):

(1) Jij	verkouden,	Nenek?	Ja,	Nenek	ziek.
2SG	cold	grandmother	yes	grandmother	sick

In the standard Dutch, the present of copula to link subject and adjective is compulsory. In addition, to make an interrogative sentence, the speaker needs to invert the position of the subject and the verb (Donaldson, 2008:171). In the other words, the position of the verb is placed at the beginning of the sentence. So the correct sentence in standard Dutch has to be “*ben jij verkoud, Nenek? Ja, Nenek is ziek*”. In the example, however, the speaker omits the copula ‘*ben*’ and ‘*is*’ and, I suppose, the speaker construct the sentence based on Malay syntax. This explains the omission of copula and the ‘ill-structured’ sentence above. Dropping copula is very common in Petjo. In this study however, I look into others traits of Indonesian language in Petjo.

Study in petjo is actually vast. Some studies on Petjo mostly have carried out in the 90’s. Some of the the studies were conducted by de Gruiter (1990; 1994); Van Rheeden (1993; 1994); and Giebers (1995). Therefore, this study is expected to enrich more perspectives to the previous studies of Petjo by looking at the Indonesian grammatical structure, specifically Indonesian morpho-syntax, in Petjo.

METHOD

This study is a descriptive qualitative study. In order to investigate the Indonesian structure in Petjo, I built the corpus by extracting a clip from YouTube to be the source of my data. The clip is called “*Roodkapje op z’n Indich*”. The clip tells the story of the well-known Red Riding Hood. The story, however, is narrated in Petjo. The storyteller of the clip is Johan Fabricius, a Dutch East Indisch-born writer and journalist.

The clip has translated by Lissete Maas, a Dutch speaker. Then, I investigated and looked for the characteristic of Indonesian syntax in the transcription. I classified similar cases into categories then analysed them in order to draw conclusion.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Despite the use of Dutch lexicons, the structure of Indonesian grammatical feature is noticeable. As mentioned in the introduction, dropping copula is very common in Petjo. Besides, there are seven cases can be taken into account. First, the speaker frequently deletes definite marker, as in (2)

- (2) Ik ben niet bang voor **boze** **wolf**
1SG CPL NEG scare angry wolf
“I’m not scared of the angry wolf”

Dutch, as well as most European languages, obliges the use of the definite article to mark whether the noun is definite or indefinite. Therefore, the present of definite marker is mandatory. In Dutch, in order to use proper definite marker, the gender of the noun has to be taken into consideration. Definite article ‘*de*’ is common to be used before gender noun and ‘*het*’ is used before a neuter noun (Donaldson, 2008:27). On the other hand, Indonesian language is simpler. The language has no definite article to mark definiteness but, it has other systems to do so. One of many ways to mark definiteness in Indonesian language is by using the suffix *-nya* (see

Englebretson, 2003:157-172; Collins, 2005:237; Sneddon, 2010:155; Arka, 2011:77). In the utterance (2), the speaker leaves the noun phrase unmarked. This occurs due to the speaker familiarity to Indonesian language and the habit of Indonesian speaker that often unmarked the noun in daily colloquial conversation.

Second, the speaker attaches Indonesia suffix to the Dutch verb as presented in (3) below:

- (3) Coba jij **brengken** pisang en rambutan en borden nasi
IMP you bring+SUF banana and rambutan and plate rice
'bring her banana and rambutan and a plate of rice, please!'

In (3), instead of saying '*breng je*', Dutch imperative to say 'bring her', the speaker opts to say '*brengken*'. For the records, '*-ken*' is another way of Indonesian people, mostly Javanese descendants, of saying '*-kan*'. According to Sneddon (2010:87), the suffix *-kan* functions to mark object as a beneficiary and as a patient. In this case, the speaker uses suffix *-kan* to marking the object as beneficiary.

Indonesian language is an agglutinative language that entitles affixes to derive verb. In contrary, Dutch language demands subject to agree with the verb (Zwaart, 2011:11). Furthermore, if the subject is third or second singular person, the verb has to be followed by isolating the stem of the verb and adding *-t* (Donaldson, 2008:171). Moreover, the speaker set up the imperative sentence by adding Indonesian imperative '*coba*' instead of the interchange the location of the subject and the verb as requested in Dutch. In Dutch, an imperative sentence requires the verb to precede the subject (Grune, 2013). The other case that I discovered is the order of verb-second and subject as in (4):

- (4) Ik **zal** **opendoen,** de deur
I will do open, the door
'i will open the door'

In (4), the speaker put verb infinitive *'opendoen'*, derived from *'open'*, straight after the modal *'zal'*. Term *'zal'* means *'akan'* in Indonesian, classified as a temporary marker to indicate a future event or state. Sometime *'akan'* also grouped with modals or auxiliary verbs (Sneddon, 2010:204). In the Indonesian syntax, a verb infinitive is placed right after the temporary marker and modals. However, in Dutch *'zal'*, another form of *'zullen'*, is an auxiliary that functions to form future tenses. Also, verb infinite is not located after auxiliary but the verb needs to be sent to the end of the clause (Donaldson, 2008:230). This also occurs when the speaker uses verb-second in the clause as presented in (5):

Zij		doet	open	de	deur
3SG	do	open	the	door	

“She (does) open the door”

Similar to (5), in this utterance the speaker also puts the verb-second after the verb. In this case too, the verb-second should be placed at the end of the clause. Thus, the utterance in (5) sounds more Indonesian than Dutch. A similar case also in the inverted clause presented in (6):

(6) Daarom	roodkapje,	zij	herkent	boze	wolf	niet
Therefore		3SG	recognize	evil	wolf	no

“Therefore roodkapje, she did not/ does not recognize the evil wolf

Dutch allow sentences to be inverted from corresponding main clause by swapping the subject and the conjugative verb. In (6), the speaker put the subject *'zij'* before the verb *'herkent'* and made the SVO construction. It resembles more to the construction of Indonesian clause since the standard clause in Indonesian constructs in SVO (Sneddon, 2000:24). In the standard Dutch, the clause can be simplified as *'daarom herkent roodkapje de boze wolf niet'*. Last, the speaker also simplifies the interrogative sentence, as

can be seen in (7):

(7) **Naar waar** rodkapje? Naar nenek meneer de wolf
To where red hood to grandmother mister DEF wolf
“where are you going rodkapje? I’m going to my grandmother’s house, mr. wolf”

To create an interrogative direct question in Dutch, the speaker needs to use interrogative adverb ‘*waar*’ and locates it at the beginning of the sentence (Donaldson, 2008:158). Therefore, instead of asking ‘*naar waar?*’, the speaker supposed to ask ‘*waar ga je naartoe?*’. In Indonesian however, Indonesian speaker tends to shorten the question, especially in daily conversation. So, to say the same sentence as ‘*waar ga je naartoe?*’, Indonesian speaker mostly prefers to only say ‘*ke mana?*’. Thus, the example (7) sounds more a literal translation from Indonesian sentence ‘*ke mana?*’.

CONCLUSION

Being a creole, Petjo was created by blending languages into one new language. On the surface, Petjo sounds like the ‘real’ Dutch because it is dominated by Dutch lexicons. However, by looking into the grammatical structure of the language, it is clear that Petjo has never belonged to the Dutch.

From the morpho-syntax point of view, it appears that the grammar of Petjo is more similar to the grammar of Indonesian language. This might cause a native Dutch speaker who never acquires Indonesian language would have trouble understanding Petjo

Based on data of this study, at least there are eight Indonesian grammatical features shown in Petjo. First, Petjo speaker frequently drops the Dutch copulas. Second, the speaker also eliminates the use of the Dutch definite article. In the utterance, the speaker tends to leave the noun phrase unmarked. Third, the speaker attaches Indonesian suffix to Dutch verb. The speaker ignores the grammatical rule in Dutch in which the subject and the

verb have to be in agreement. Forth, the speaker put the verb immediately after the auxiliary. In Dutch, however, the verb is supposed to be located at the end of the clause or sentence. This makes Dutch very distinct from Indonesian. Next, the speaker use verb-second straight after the verb as well. Sixth, in the inverted form, the speaker does not swap the position of the subject and the verb, although in Dutch, the swap is necessary to create inverted clause or sentence. So, by doing so, the utterance becomes more Indonesian because it is constructed in SVO order. Last, the speaker shortens the interrogative sentence and makes it sounds more literally like a direct translation of Indonesian colloquial interrogative sentence. In short, although Petjo might sounds more Dutch than Indonesian, it grammatically does not belong to Dutch.

REFERENCES

- Appel, R., & Muysken, P. (2006). *Language contact and bilingualism*. Amsterdam University Press.
- Arka, I. W. (2011, February). On modality and finiteness in Indonesian: complexities of= nya nominalisation. In *Workshop on TAM markers and evidentiality in Indonesian Languages*, Tokyo University of Foreign Studies (pp. 17-18).
- Collins, J. T. (2005). *Bahasa Melayu bahasa dunia: sejarah singkat*. Yayasan Obor Indonesia.
- Croft, W. (2000). *Explaining language change: An evolutionary approach*. Harlow [etc.]: Longman.
- De Gruiter, Miel. (1994). Javindo, a contact language in pre-war Semarang. In: P. Bakker & Donaldson, B. (2017). *Dutch: A comprehensive grammar*. Routledge.
- Englebretson, R. (2003). *Searching for structure: The problem of complementation in colloquial Indonesian conversation (Vol. 13)*. John Benjamins Publishing.
- Giebers, Herman. (1997). Dutch in Indonesia: Language Attrition or Language Contact, In: H.A.K Klatter-Folmer & J.W.M Kroon (eds.). *Dutch overseas: Studies in maintenance and loss of dutch as an immigrant language*. Tilburg: Tilburg University Press.
- Grune, Dick. (2013). *Making Sense of Dutch Word Order*. Available at: https://dickgrune.com/NatLang/Dutch/Making_Sense_of_Dutch_Word_Order.pdf
- Lee, N. H. (2018). *Contact languages around the world and their levels of endangerment*.
- Sneddon, J. N. (2003). *The Indonesian language: Its history and role in modern society*. Sydney: UNSW Press.
- Sneddon, J. N. (2010). *Indonesian reference grammar*. Crows Nest, N.S.W: Allen & Unwin.
- Thomason, S. G., & Kaufman, T. (2001). *Language contact* (pp. 8325-8329). Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.
- Van Rheedden, Hadewych. (1994). *Petjo, the mixed language of the Indos*

311. **Jurnal Bahasa Lingua Scientia**, *Vol. 10, No. 2, November 2018*

in Batavia. In: P. Bakker & M. Mous (eds.). *Mixed languages: 15 case studies in language intertwining*, 223-237. Amsterdam: IFOTT

Zwart, J. W. (2011). *The syntax of Dutch*. Cambridge University Press.

