

CROSS-LINGUISTIC INFLUENCES OF MALAY THROUGH CARTOONS ON INDONESIAN CHILDREN'S LANGUAGE USE IN THE HOME DOMAIN

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Abstract

The Malay cartoons that air on Indonesian television channels are now popular among children in Indonesia. The shows *Upin & Ipin*, *Boboboi*, and *Pada Zaman Dahulu* are especially popular with Acehese children. Initial observations found that these cartoons have played a great role in the increased use of contemporary Malay in their Indonesian. Thus, this study discusses the cross-linguistic influences of Malay from cartoons in Indonesian children's language use in the home domain. Data were collected through recordings and field notes. Some steps based on the framework by Lacey and Luff (2007) were taken to analyze the data. The results were transcribed and sifted to distinguish the significant data. The recording and its transcription were then re-checked. The last step was categorizing the data into cross-linguistic influences based on Ringbom (1987). These influences include borrowing, hybrids, phonetic influence, and relexification. The results showed the presence of only two aspects of cross-linguistic influences: borrowing and phonetic influences. Borrowing was the most frequent aspect, followed by phonetic influence. Relexification and hybrid did not appear in the data. Nevertheless, there were other cross-linguistic aspects that were found in the data, including intonation, parenthetical remark, and interjection. In the broad-spectrum, the initial mimic on the Malay cartoon characters has expanded to employment in the language use of the children while speaking Indonesian. This study is expected to contribute in some ways or another towards the development of sociolinguistics, especially in cross-linguistic influence in children's language use. Indonesia and Malaysia are neighboring countries, and language contact between the two countries is inevitable and evident. Hence, the study on the influences can benefit sociolinguistics, especially when investigating language change in the future.

Keywords: cross-linguistic influences; cartoons; children; Indonesian; Malay

Media have a role in children's language acquisition; the child spontaneously and gradually develops an ability to use language through interactive situations in his/her natural environment (Christakis, 2009). In addition to the immediate members of the child's family, the child is exposed to language by means of media, especially televised one. In early childhood, ages 4-10 years old, children tend to watch cartoons. Christakis (2009) further claims that every human being who watches television can grasp 94% of the information through their eyes and ears. People can remember 85% of what they see on television up to three hours later and 65% up to three days later. Thus, as the human brain learn from events experienced by oneself (Goswami, 2015), there seems to be a tendency that it acquires more information from audio-visual media.

Animation is one of the media that is influential in children's language development. The use of a combination of sensory experiences

heightens children's learning (Dongo, 2015). In that sense, animation utilizes a combination of sight and hearing sensors at the same time that make it easier for children to acquire a new language. Nowadays, animation is often played on television in Indonesia and popular among Indonesian children are Malaysian cartoons. Among many western and Japanese cartoons that dominate television in Indonesia, the presence of the Malay cartoons is more relatable to the Indonesian children audiences, perhaps because both countries share the same ancestry (Clark & Pietsch, 2014). These animations are known to be highly entertaining as well as educational. The Malay cartoon that first aired in Indonesia is *Upin & Ipin*. Due to the popularity of this cartoon, other Malay cartoons began to air as well, such as *Boboboi* and *Pada Zaman Dahulu*. They are broadcasted on one of the Indonesian terrestrial television channels.

After making the initial observations on a number of families in Banda Aceh, Indonesia, the

researchers found that some Acehese children today who are immense fans of the Malay cartoons and use the Malay language in their daily conversations. They mimic the language style performed by their favorite characters while talking to their siblings or parents. They speak as if they are the characters in the cartoons and often employ catchphrases such as “*betul, betul, betul*”, “*dua singgit lah*”, or “*selamat pagi cikgu*”. The Malay cartoons leave lasting effects on these children not only in the matter of knowledge and entertainment, but also on their daily language use with their peers and families. The daily frequency of watching these cartoons help the children memorize dialogues, and further their Malaysian vocabulary in their conversations at home. They also pronounced the words in the Malay language and used its language expressions. Even though their parents do not speak Malay at home, they still produced questions and statements using the Malay language. In view of that, the researchers are interested in studying this phenomenon and the cross-linguistic aspects that influence these children’s language use, especially in the home domain.

Motivated by the aforementioned findings, the current study attempted to investigate the cross-linguistic influences of Malay from cartoons on the Indonesian children’s language use, especially at home. A number of studies have been conducted on the cross linguistic influences from one language to another on the learners in the classroom or learning contexts (Cenoz, 2003; Chondrogianni, Vasić, Marinis & Blom, 2015; Ilomaki, 2005). Nevertheless, no studies have investigated the cross linguistic influences of Malay cartoons on the Indonesian spoken by children in the home domain. And so, this research intends to fill that gap. The result of this study can be used as additional information and resources for related sociolinguistics studies in cross-linguistic influences among different language speakers. Since Indonesia and Malaysia are neighboring countries and the phenomena of language contact between the two countries are inevitably evident, the study intends to benefit sociolinguistics especially in investigating future language evolution.

Cross-linguistic Influence

The terms *cross-linguistic influence* and *language transfer* have been used interchangeably to refer to the “practice which assumes that some kind of influence is essential to the phenomenon of ‘transfer’” (Odlin, 2005, p. 3). Several expressions can be used to refer to cross-linguistic influence, such as language transfer, linguistic interference, the role of the mother tongue, native language influence, and language mixing (Odlin, 2005; Ilomaki, 2005). In second language acquisition, it is noticeable that some transfer occurs in the process between the first and second language. Thus, the

amount and type of transfer diverge according to several factors (Ilomaki, 2005). Early investigations on cross-linguistic influence focused on language change arising from contexts of language contact, e.g. the existence of language mixing, code switching, and the emergence of pidgins and creoles as a result of communications between two or more speech communities (Sankoff, 2001). The interplay between earlier and later acquired languages is termed by Sharwood Smith and Kellerman (1986) as cross-linguistic influence.

Cross-linguistic influence embraces phenomena such as transfer, interference, avoidance, borrowing, and second language related aspects (Chapetón, 2011). Studies of cross-linguistic influence in second language acquisition (or SLA) have been conducted at all the linguistic levels such as phonological, lexical, syntactical, and semantic. For the purpose of this paper, the researchers concentrate on the lexical levels only.

Cross-linguistic Influence on the Lexicon

The cross-linguistic influence on the lexicon, or vocabulary of a speaker, is more noticeable than the influence on grammar. The first language is a factor in learning the second language vocabulary, and closely related languages often share much more cognate vocabulary with one another than distant languages (Ilomaki, 2005). Many studies have shown that non-native language influence is more common and frequent at the lexical level. In terms of linguistic transfer at the lexical level, Ringbom (1987) proposes a framework of explicit cross-linguistic lexical influence in production that includes borrowing, semantic extension, cognate, hybrid, blend, and relexification. According to Ringbom (1987), borrowing covers hybrids, blends, relexifications and complete language shift. However, an item is taken to the target language production in an unmodified form in language shift. Thus, hybrids, blends, and relexifications occur when an item is modified morphologically or phonologically to a target language-like norm.

Borrowing

Borrowing or lexical borrowing is when terms or words from one language are taken and used in another language. The words from the source language are usually inserted into the target language without being adapted to the target language’s morpho-syntactic and/or phonological rules (Llach, 2010). Myers-Scotton (2006, p. 211) refers to lexical borrowing as “incorporating words from one language (the donor language) in another (the recipient language)” which occurs mostly in one direction from the language which is regarded as more prestigious to the less prestigious. An effective form of borrowing is direct borrowing from another language as the result of contacts with the people of another country or with their literature.

However, a word may also be borrowed indirectly not from the source language, but through another language (Sankoff, 2001). The amount and character of borrowings depend on many factors: on the historical conditions, on the nature and length of the contacts and on the genetic and structural proximity of the languages concerned. The closer the language, the deeper and more versatile the influence.

According to Ringbom (1987), borrowing happens when the search for a lexical item activates a word in the first language or previously acquired non-native language, and this item is taken over into the second language in an unmodified form. Examples of English borrowing words from French include: *ballet*, *garage*, and *champagne*. Indonesian words have also been borrowed into English, for example: *bamboo*, *orangutan* and *amok*. Other cases of Indonesia borrowed words from Arabic are: *akhlak*, *kursi*, *halal*, *haram*, *lisan* and many others.

Relexification

Relexification is when words have been phonologically modified to make them more like the target language (Ilomaki, 2005). It is a mechanism of language change by which one language changes much of or the entirety of its lexicon, including basic vocabulary, with the lexicon of another language, without drastically changing the grammar of the relexified language (Matthews, 2007). The term is mainly used to describe pidgins, creoles, and mixed languages.

Relexification is not identical with lexical borrowing, where the language only completed basic vocabulary with words borrowed from another language. Trask (2007, pp. 60-61) says that relexification has been used to refer to the concept that “all creoles were descended from a single ancestral creole by massive vocabulary replacement”. Thus, relexification is a mental process that constructs new words by copying words of an already established lexicon and substituting their phonological representations with representations drawn from another language (Lefebvre, 2004). An example of relexification from Lefebvre (2004, p. 64) is the Haitian verb *bezwen* ‘to need,’ which takes its phonological representation from the French noun *besoin* ‘need’.

Hybrids

Hybrids are forms that consist of morphemes from different languages (Crystal, 2008). An example of a hybrid is, as provided by Crystal (2008, p. 232), “mono-lingual”, which has a Greek prefix and a Latin root. Other examples of hybrid words were given by Ilomaki (2005) such as *swimmen*. *Swimmen* is derived from the English word *swimming*, but here the English *-ing* ending has been replaced by a German ending *-en*.

Phonetic Influence

Errors in the production of sound systems produced by foreign language learners usually occur due to different pronunciation in their first and second languages. Ringbom (1987) says that learners may mispronounce a word because it is greatly influenced by the way it is spelled, or misspell it being influenced by the way it is pronounced. Learners of a second language tend to assimilate some phonemes into their first language phonemic categories (Pallier, Colome & Sebastian-Galles, 2001) which result in difficulties in producing the native-like pronunciation (Fan & Yongbing, 2014). Indonesian and Malay can be said to have the same root. These languages have been found to originate from the same language called proto-Melayu. It was the language spoken by the people who lived on the coastal plains of east and southeast Sumatra and offshore islands (Kwary & Jalaluddin, 2015).

Throughout history, influences of different colonial languages took place; Dutch in the case of Indonesia and English in the case of Malaysia (Yusuf, 2013). Hence, it would be obvious that these two languages today would still have many words that only slightly differ in pronunciation. For example the Malay words pronounced *kenape* [kənəpə] and *tak ade* [tak adə] today by Malaysians are pronounced *kenapa* [kənəpa] and *tak ada* [tak ada] in Indonesian.

The Influence of Television on Children’s Language Development

Krcmar, Grela, and Lin (2007) and Roseberry, Hirsh-Pasek, and Golinkoff (2009) see that children could effectively learn vocabulary from a video if it is associated with live social interactions. They also conclude that toddlers could also learn new vocabulary from the video alone. Consequently, Roseberry, Hirsh-Pasek, and Golinkoff (2009) conducted three studies to examine the influence of video on children’s language development. Their sample consisted of 96 children (30 to 42 months old). They investigated whether these children learned vocabulary from video and social interactions together. The study further examined whether children can learn vocabulary from the video alone and finally looked at whether live social interaction had the same power of influence when the experimenter appeared on the TV screen as in person. Their study found that older children could learn vocabulary from TV alone, whereas younger children can learn vocabulary only when supported by social interaction.

Apparently, exposure to language on TV can lead to the development of passive vocabulary while interaction can turn that into active vocabulary (Al-Harbi, 2015). Linebarger and Vaala (2010) have investigated how screen media affects children’s language development by observing the abilities of infants and toddlers when exposed to screen media.

They focused on three factors: attributes of the child, characteristics of screen media stimuli, and the varied environmental context surrounding the child's display media used. They found that media has an effect if the child can recognize the content. Linebarger and Piotrowski (2009) also found in their study that children's exposure to children's TV programs helps children develop and improve their narrative skills and a sense of chronology in retelling a story.

Previous Studies on Cross-linguistic Influence

There are many studies conducted experts, which concerns cross-linguistic influence on second language acquisition. Among them is Cenoz (2003). His research looked into the influence of the first and second languages towards third language acquisition of 20 students in the fourth and sixth year of primary school in Basque Country (Spain). These students were bilinguals in Basque and Spanish, and were receiving English instructions in their school. In the study, the children were to tell the wordless picture story entitled, 'Frog, where are you?' in English. He noted all cases of interactional strategies, code switching and transfers of cross linguistics influences during the activity. These cases were then analyzed to examine the development of cross-linguistic influence on their English. The results of the study showed that the three languages were activated during the students' activity, i.e. their multilingual mental lexicon. Factors such as linguistic typology (Spanish is typologically closer to English compared to Basque), general sociolinguistic context (Spanish is the majority language spoken in their area of residence) and individual differences play important roles in the children's cross-linguistic influences of their English use. Furthermore, cross-linguistic influence is more frequent after two more years of instruction, in this case, towards the 6th graders compared to the 4th graders.

Ilomaki (2005) further studied the cross-linguistic influence on Finnish-speaking and English-speaking learners of German. The research aimed to address some issues in second language acquisition on cross-linguistic influence, the varying factors that affect the acquisition process, the learner's native language and the effect of other previously acquired languages on the acquisition process and outcome. The quantitative cross-sectional study was done in a classroom environment and used tests as the instrument to collect data. The results showed that the Finnish-speaking learners were more likely to make use of their Swedish and English knowledge rather than to transfer from their native Finnish compared to English-speaking learners. While in production, the Finnish-speaking students' cross-linguistic influence on the lexicon came from Swedish or English, and some Finnish influence could be seen in their grammar.

Finally, another study on cross-linguistic influence of English in Japanese learners was conducted by Hayashi (1994). The study examined second language (English) influence to first language (Japanese) in the lexical, syntactic, and pragmatic of learners' speaking styles and writing styles. The subjects of this study were two male and two female Japanese learners selected randomly from 98 participants of the UBC-Rits Program. The instruments used to collect data were diary books and questionnaire. Hayashi took the role of observer-participant during the analysis of subjects' writing styles and oral presentation styles. The results showed that there were second language features that were transferred to the first language of the learners, both at the grammatical and pragmatic levels.

These previous studies largely focused on the cross linguistic influence of second or third languages that are learned in the formal contexts (i.e. schools). English is among the second or foreign languages that are taught as one of the compulsory subjects in schools all over the world. However, this present study in Indonesia focuses on a language that is introduced by cartoons from another country, not learned formally in institutions. The popularity of these cartoons among the children has led them to incorporate the new language into their daily language use. This intrigues the researchers of the present study to investigate the phenomenon further.

METHOD

The researchers used the qualitative approach in this study. According to Creswell (2009), qualitative research is an approach for exploring and understanding the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem. Data were obtained from two siblings coming from an Acehese family. The first child is SSY, age 5; her first language is Indonesian and she studies at a preschool near her home. The second child is ARP, age 8; her first language is also Indonesian and she is now in the third grade of elementary school. The sisters regularly watch Malaysian cartoons shown on one of Indonesia's television channels; the cartoons are *Upin & Ipin*, *Boboboi*, and *Pada Zaman Dahulu*.

This study used recording and field notes to collect data from the two children. The recording preserved the total spoken part of their conversations at home for later analysis. Meanwhile, field notes were used to note things that happened when the recording occurred. These notes complement the data from the recording.

Technique of Data Collection

When recording the children, a digital recorder was used. There were three sessions of recording and each session lasted for about an hour. This makes a

total of three hours of recording. The recording process took place at the children's surroundings: home, school, and a playground near their house. The parents of the children had given consent for their children to take part in this research. Field notes consisted of direct observations while the recordings took place.

The third author is a kin to these children, and thus, her presence during data collection did not hassle the children because they were used to having her around the house. During the observations, she noted the children's nonverbal behaviors that occurred in their immediate surroundings and the activities the participants engaged in while the recording took place.

Technique of Data Analysis

The results of the recording were later transcribed. The transcription was analyzed using the qualitative framework by Lacey and Luff (2001), which consists of four stages: transcriptions, organize, familiarization, and categorize. In transcription, the recording was transformed into a written text. Not only spoken words, but also non-verbal cues were transcribed because laughter or gestures can give added meaning to the spoken words. After transcription, the data were organized; this was when data to be used were kept and unnecessary

data were removed. Next was familiarization, where the researchers listened again to the recording, read and re-read the data, made memos and made a summary of what had been found. Finally, the data were categorized into the cross-linguistic influences: borrowing, hybrids, phonetic influence and relexification (Ringbom, 1987).

Meanwhile, the data from the field notes were analyzed based on Bogdan and Biklen (2007), which classified them into the descriptive part and the reflective part. For the descriptive part, detailed description of the subjects and setting, the actual dialogue of participants, descriptions of events and activities, as well as descriptions of the observer's behavior were compiled. For the reflective part, the researchers built on notes that reflect personal accounts such as speculations, feelings, clarifications, syntheses and other ideas about the connections between the categorized data from the recordings.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The result of the recordings shows that several cross-linguistic influences on the lexicon occurred when the children interacted with each other and their surroundings.

Table 1. Cross-linguistic influence aspects

No.	Cross-linguistic Influence	Occurrence	%	Extra Note
1.	Borrowing	64	63.8%	Based on Ringbom's framework
2.	Phonetic Influence	30	31.9%	Based on Ringbom's framework
3.	Parentetic Remark	3	3.1%	Additional cross-linguistic influence from data
4.	Interjection	2	2.1%	Additional cross-linguistic influence from data
5.	Intonation	-	-	Additional cross-linguistic influence from data

From Table 1, it can be seen that borrowing occurred most in the data at 63.8% followed by phonetic influence at 31.9%. Accordingly, only two aspects of cross-linguistic influence were found to occur in the children's language use. Meanwhile, the other two aspects, hybrids and relexification, were not found. For the case of relexification, perhaps it was because the children did not yet have the ability to modify the language to make it more like the target language. As Miller and Gildea (1987) claim, children have the ability to conform to grammatical rules and learn new words, but they cannot form new words from combining two languages. For the case of hybrid, the children were also not found to produce words that consist of morphemes from another language. From the data, the children were seen to mimic what was heard in the cartoons on television.

Nevertheless, there were other aspects not mentioned by Ringbom (1987) that were found in data. Parentetic remarks occurred at 3.1%, interjection at 2.1 %, and intonation (i.e. this aspect could not be counted for percentage because the

case can occur within just one word, phrase or even one whole sentence). The children made parentetic remarks sound more like their favorite Malaysian cartoon characters. Besides borrowing Malay words into their Indonesian, the children were also heard to use the Malay intonation. From here, imitation played a role; they imitated how the characters in the cartoons spoke.

The next subsections present and explain each aspect found in data with extracts of conversations that occurred between the two children.

Borrowing

In this study, the children were heard to use borrowed words from Malay that they often heard in the cartoons. These words included *akak*, *padan muke*, *seronok*, *bising*, *sekejap*, *lepas*, and *makan angin*, among others. For example, the word *padan muke* means "to serve you right", or its equivalent phrase in Indonesian "*rasain/rasakan*". It is a way to tell someone that they deserve whatever (negative things) happens to them. The expression *padan muke* does not exist in the Indonesian language.

Literally in Indonesia, *padan* means “to match”, whilst *muke* [mukə] from *muka* [muka] means “face”. However, after the Malaysian animations become popular, this phrase was popularized among the children who regularly watch the cartoons. An excerpt from the data is shown in C1 (C refers to Conversation; furthermore SSY refers to herself as *Adek* when talking to her family members, *Adek* means “little sister”, whilst ARP refers to herself as *Kakak* when talking to her family members, *Kakak* means “elder sister”):

- C1
 SSY: *Tak nak lah game ni.* (This game is not fun)
 ARP: *Emang enak, padan muke kau.* (It is (not) fun...it serves you right)
 SSY: *Siapa suruh lari cepat-cepat?!* (Who told you to run fast?!)

Based on C1, ARP used the word *padan muke* to her sister while they were playing a video game on their tablet. She used this word to express her disappointment toward her sister who complained that she did not enjoy playing the game. This conversation implies that the children understood how to use the phrase in their daily interactions. Thus, during data collection, they never used this expression to their parents; they knew that it would be impolite to use this phrase in front of elders.

Another borrowed word found in the recording was *seronok*. *Seronok* in Malay means “having fun” in a positive way. However, in Indonesian, *seronok* means “having fun”, but in a negative way, suggesting improper behavior. The meaning of this word from both languages is in contrast, nevertheless, the children did not find it strange to use this word positively in their conversations.

- C2
 SSY: *Ape lah game ni!* (What a game!)
 ARP: *Nasib baik Adek menang.* (It is good that (you) won)
 SSY: *Seronok rupanya game ni!* (It turns out this game is fun!)

In C2, SSY used the word *seronok* without any hesitation and used it in a positive connotation. It is unclear whether she knew the negative implication of this word in Indonesian; however, we noticed that the mother had also once commented on their activity while playing outdoors with, “*Seronoknya kalian main!*” [You (two) look (like you are having) fun (while) playing!]. It seems that the mother ignored the negative connotation in Indonesian and encouraged the positive connotation it bears in Malay.

Phonetic Influence

The phonetic influence recognized from data were when they pronounced Indonesian words such as *apalagi* [apalagi], *suka* [suka], *kita* [kita] with the Malay equivalent words of *apalagi* [apalagi], *suke*

[sukə] and *kite* [kitə]. Hence, this choice could be purely borrowing, purely phonetic, or both combined. As mentioned earlier in the paper, the Indonesian and Malay language are from the same root (Clark & Pietsch, 2014; Yusuf, 2013), so there are some words that, while spelled a bit differently, have the same meaning and uses. A common difference is in the pronunciation of /a/ that appears at the end of words such as above. The following conversation shows a clear phonetic influence of the Malay language into their Indonesian.

- C3
 ARP: *Adek mau kaya Elsa ya?* [Do (you) want to look like Elsa?]
 SSY: *Kite tak suke Frozen.* [We (I) don't like Frozen]
 ARP: *Sukanya apa?* [What do you like then?]
 SSY: *Adek suke Digimon.* [(I) like Digimon]

Based on C3, the phonetic influence is seen in the word *suke* [sukə], which means “to like”. In Indonesian, it is pronounced *suka* [suka]. Another example spoken by the children can be seen in C4 below:

- C4
 SSY: *Hmm sedapnye permen ni habis aku makan.* (Hmm this candy is very tasty, I will eat it all)
 ARP: *Bagilah permennya.* (Share the candy (with me))
 SSY: *Tak boleh, ini semua punya aku.* (No, it is all mine)

In C4, the children used the morpheme *nye* [ɲə] to the word *permen* (meaning “candy”) instead of what Indonesians generally pronounce as *nya* [ɲa]. Both morphemes have the same meaning and functions as a suffix in both languages.

Parenthetic Remark

This aspect was not mentioned by Ringbom (1987), but in the data, the children were found to use several parenthetic remarks in the Malay language such as *la* [la], *ni* [ni], and *ke* [kə]. The parenthetic remark is a word class which only has grammatical meaning but no lexical meaning (Yusuf, 2009). They stand side by side with other words and cannot stand alone. A parenthetic remark in Malay and Indonesian are almost the same. Again, the difference largely lies in the pronunciation. In sequence with the examples above, the Indonesian language uses *lah* [lah], *ini* [ini] or *nih* [nih], and *kah* [kah]. Each equivalent set has the same meaning and use in both languages. Below are the examples of parenthetic remarks found in the data:

- C5
 ARP: *Pusing la kite.* (I'm so dizzy)
 SSY: *Banyaknya PR ini.* (There is too much homework)
 ARP: *Gak siap-siap dikerjakan.* (It seems forever to finish them)

In Malaysian discourse, it is common to tag a sentence with the particle *lah* or *la*, but it is less common in the Indonesian discourse. Based on the data, this particle has many functions depending on the context in which it is used. Nevertheless, in the discourse between the children in C5, they incorporated the Malay phrase and particle, “*pusing la kite*”, in their conversation, which is mostly in Indonesian. The function is to emphasize her frustration and to strengthen the point that she was making (i.e. too much homework).

- C6
 ARP: *Eh, Adek, nak main badminton tak? Bise, ke?* (Eh, Adek, do you want to play badminton? Can you (play or cannot play?)
 SSY: *Ayok!* (Let's go!)
 ARP: *Jangan cubak lari-lari tau, nanti jatuh lebam.* (Don't try to run (around too much) okay, you may fall and get bruised)

In C6, *ke* or *kah* is used in an interrogative sentence to emphasize a question. *Ke* is also used to clarify an interrogative sentence that has no question. The child used the question, “*bise, ke?*” Actually, the interrogative phrase in Malay is, “*boleh, ke?*” Thus, the children replaced *boleh* [bəlɔh] to the more common *bisa* [bisa] in Indonesian but changed the pronunciation into Malay, *bise* [bisə]. Nevertheless, the word pronounced as *bisa* [bisa] in Malay refers to “venom or poison”, and this is similar to Indonesian. However, Indonesian also has another meaning for it, “able (to)”. Here, the children combined the commonly used Indonesian word for “able (to)” with the Malay particle *ke* and the interrogative phrase became, “*bise, ke?*”

Interjection

An interjection can convey the information of a whole sentence. What is equivalent to an interjection is not a single word, but a whole speech act, which is, a communicative act including the meaning of both a performative and a propositional content (Poggi, 2009). The interjection is a part of speech, which is more commonly used, in informal language than in formal writing or speech. The examples of interjections spoken by the children are shown below:

- C7
 SSY: *Kakak pandai tak main game ni?* (Kakak, can (you) play this game?)
 ARP: *Gak.* (I can't)
 SSY: *Ish ish ish.* (tsk tsk tsk)

In C7, SSY used the interjection “*ish ish ish*” while talking to her sister. This interjection can be paraphrased into “I am disappointed in you” in Malay, and this is not found in the Indonesian discourse. This interjection was used by the child to

express her unpleasant feeling towards her sister. This interjection is quite commonly found in the Malay cartoon *Upin dan Ipin*, in which the main characters, Upin and Ipin, would frequently use this interjection to express disappointment when talking to their family or their friends. Another example which was found in the data, is shown below:

- C8
 ARP: *Ambooyo, enak kali nasi goreng buatan Mama kita. Iya kan, Adek?* (Wow, the fried rice made by Mom is very delicious. Right, Adek?)
 SSY: *Iya, benar kali itu.* (Yes, that is right)

Amboy can be interpreted as “wow” or an expression of being “in awe” in English. Meanwhile, in Indonesian, this word is similar to the expression of *wah* or *aduhai*. In this case, the child used *amboy* to express her admiration towards her mother's cooking. She knew how to use this word and function it correctly in her discourse. That interjection is often spoken by Atok, an elder character from the *Upin dan Ipin* cartoon when he is impressed by the children's behavior in the village.

Intonation

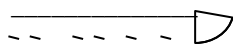
Intonation is the variance of pitch, which is the rise and fall of the voice in speaking (Beckman & Venditti, 2010). It is essential in oral communication because its function is to express intentions (Achmad & Yusuf, 2014). In the data, it was found that when the children switched into the Malay language, they used the Malay intonation and when they switched back to the Indonesian language, the intonation was also changed. They seemed to understand that the intonation in the Malay and Indonesian languages are different. Examples from the data are:

- C9
 ARP: *Tak usah lah keras-keras macam tu. Kite lagi sibuk ni.* (Be quiet, we are busy)
 SSY: *Sibuk apa?* (Busy of what?)
 ARP: *Main tablet lah, apelaagi?* (Playing the tablet, what else?)
 C10
 ARP: *Eh, yok kite pergi, Akak lame lah. Ajip nak tunggu die ke? Tak mau main ke?* (Eh, let's go, Kakak (I) is so late. Ajip do you want to wait for her? Do you want to play?)

From C9, it was heard that the intonation from the sentence “*kite lagi sibuk ni*” was not enunciated in the Indonesian intonation. The children had mimicked the intonation of Malay to say the sentence. Perhaps that was because the phrase is quite commonly said by the characters in the Malay cartoons such as Upin and Ipin when their elder sister, Kak Ros, asked them to do something and

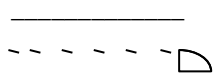
they would respond to her in an annoyed phrase of "kite lagi sibuk ni" to avoid their chores. The illustration below shows the difference in intonation between Indonesian and Malay in the phrase discussed. It shows that to utter the phrase, the Malay would end it with a rising intonation while the Indonesian would end it with a falling intonation.

Malay:



Kite lagi sibuk ni.

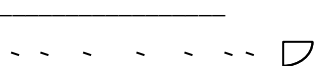
Indonesian:



Kita lagi sibuk nih.

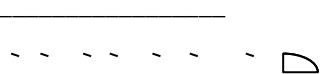
In the meantime, in C10, the children used the Malay intonation in the sentence, "Ajip nak tunggu die ke?" It can be seen that the Malay language often has a raising pitch at the end of a sentence, unlike Indonesia. Unlike English, Indonesian is relatively a flat language since it does not have much melody (Achmad & Yusuf, 2014). Normally, questions, suggestions, and offers are marked with rise endings (Swan & Smith, 2001), whereas statements are usually flat. In the data, intonation reflects the children's attitudes or feelings. The illustration below shows the difference of intonation between Indonesian and Malay on the phrase being discussed.

Malay:



Ajip nak tunggu die ke?

Indonesia:



Ajip mau tunggu dia ya?

Similar to the research conducted by Cenoz (2003) and Ilomaki (2005), the findings of this study suggest that most of the influences occur at the lexical level in the children's language use. They used and mimicked specific Malay words and phrases into their Indonesian. In accordance with Hayashi (1994), the data also showed that the children were also able to incorporate pragmatic substances in their discourse, in which they would use certain Malay expressions to articulate their feelings while conversing in Indonesian.

CONCLUSION

The main purpose of this study was to examine the cross-linguistic influences of Malay from cartoons on Indonesian children's language use. Based on the research findings and discussions, it is concluded that the children who participated in this study switched their discourse between Indonesian and Malay. The cross-linguistic influence that occurred in their conversations was borrowing, phonetic influence, parenthetical remarks, interjection, and intonation. The Malay cartoons seemed to have a massive influence on their language use. That influence was seen in the way they incorporated certain Malay words which were often used by the characters in the cartoons of *Upin dan Ipin*, *Boboiboy*, and *Pada Zaman Dahulu*. Not only the words, but they also mimicked the intonation of the Malay language as said by the cartoon characters. These findings suggest that if the children and others continue to employ the influences in their Indonesian, these influences may be widely established later on within the community and have an effect on the future of the Indonesian language.

Nonetheless, this study was conducted with a number of limitations. First, the number of participants is very small; it is suggested that future research in related studies employ more children who implement the cross-linguistic aspects of Malay into their Indonesian due to the influence of the Malay cartoons favored by the children in Indonesia. Considering the cartoons' popularity among the Indonesian children, it is possible that more children are starting to use and incorporate specific Malay words and phrases into their Indonesian language. Second, the small participant size resulted from time limitation of this research. Therefore, future studies should give more time for data collection and observation to obtain bigger sets of data to add to the initial findings presented in this paper.

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