CHAPTER II
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

A. Previous Research

The previous research was written by Riki Purwadi (0703520044), a university student of language and culture faculty of Stikubank Semarang. The thesis entitled "Interlanguage in Recounts Made by the Eleventh Graders of SMA Theresiana Weleri". In this thesis, the researcher identified the grammatical errors and problem areas (morphology, syntax and lexicon). This research is qualitative research. The data were analyzed by using four steps: first, copying the recount texts, second, segmenting the texts into error sentences, third, identifying and classifying the interlanguage errors, fourth, explaining the interlanguage errors. There are 68 errors. Based on grammatical error, they are past tense (38,2 %), concord: finite (19,1 %), plural (8,8 %), to infinitive (8,8 %), pronoun (7.4 %), present tense (4,4 %), article (4.4 %), error of meaning (4,4 %), conjunction (2,9 %), and verb phrase (1,5 %). Base on problem area, they are syntax (60,3 %), morphology (35,3 %), and lexicon (4,4 %). The error most frequently realized is past tense (38,8 %). It means in the writing recount text the students often use the simple past tense and the students' knowledge about past tense is not well. They were still confused with the tense.

The second previous research was writen by Muhammad Subhan (073411089), a university student of Tarbiyah faculty of IAIN Walisongo Semarang. The title is "Identifying Grammatical Errors as the Result of Native Language Interference in Students' Composition. (A Study at Writing III Class at ELT Department of IAIN WALISONGO Semarang in the Academic Year of 2010/2011).The purpose of the study was to find out and analyze the grammatical errors as the result of native language interferences. The researcher used descriptive study. The study shows that there are ten types of errors as the result of native language interferences. The errors in the use of: Tenses (3,73%), word order (5,82%), articles (10,30%), Pronouns (3,13%), linking verb (13,58%), plurality (21,04%), preposition (20,90%), subject and verb agreement (20,75%), preference (0,15%), degree of comparison (0,60%)

Both of previous researchs are almost the same as this research. The differences between the previous researchs and this research are that the first previous researcher identified the students' interlanguage errors on recount text and the second previous research identified the students' grammatical errors on writing III, but this research identified the students' interlanguage errors on abstract.

B. Literature Review

1. Discourse

a. Definition of Discourse

Discourse is a general term for examples of language use, i.e. language which has been produced as the result of an act of communication. Whereas grammar refers to the rules a language uses to form grammatical units such as clause, phrase, and sentence. Discourse refers to larger units of language such as paragraphs, conversations, and interviews.[1] Discourse encompasses the use of spoken, written and signed language and multimedia forms of communication, and is not restricted to 'non-fictional' (eg. stylistics) nor verbal (eg. gesture and visual) materials.

It can be concluded that discourse is a general term for the language that has been produced as the result of an act of communication.Discourse can be said as a way to express oneself using words in communication both in oral or writen.

b. Kinds of Discourse

There are two kinds of discourse. They are spoken and written discourse

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[1] Jack Richard, John Platt, Heidi Weber, *Longman Dictionary of applied linguistics*, (NY: Longman, 2009), p.83

1) Spoken Discourse

   Spoken discourse can be said as spoken interaction such as a dinner party conversation, doctor-patient interaction, job interviews etc.

2) Written Discourse

   Written discourse can be called as a writing language. The example of written discourse are a letter to a friend, e-mail, research paper, etc. The written discourse is different from spoken discourse. Richard states that "Spoken discourse is seen as formless and ungrammatical but written discourse is highly structured and organized".[2]

2. Interlanguage

a. Definition of Interlanguage

   According to Jack Richard, Interlanguage is "the type of language produced by second and foreign–language learners who are in the proccess of learning a language".[3] An interlanguage is developed by a learner of a second language who has not become fully proficient yet but is approximating the target language: preserving some

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[2] Norbert Schmitt, *An Introduction to Applied Linguistics,* (NY: Oxford University Press, 2002), p.58

[3] Jack Richard, John Platt, Heidi Weber, *Longman Dictionary of applied linguistics*, (NY: Longman, 2009), p.146

features of their first language, or overgeneralizing target language rules in speaking or writing the target language and creating innovations.

The linguistic system created by someone in the course of learning a foreign language is different from either the speaker's first language or the target language being acquired. It reflects the learners' evolving system of rules, and results from a variety of processes, including the influence of the first language transfer, contrastive interference from the target language, and the overgeneralization of newly encountered rules.[4]

From the definitions above it can be concluded that every language produced by non-native speakers is called interlanguage. If someone wants to learn a foreign language, he will obviously meet with many kinds of learning problems dealing with its sound system, vocabulary, structure, etc. This is understandable since the student learning the foreign language has spoken his own native language, which has been deeply implanted in him as part of his habit. He often transfers his habit into the target language he learns, which perhaps will cause errors. In language learning, learners error are caused by several different proccesses. These include :

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[4] David Crystal, *Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetic* (UK: Blackwell Publishers, 1998), p.200

1) Borrowing pattern from the mother tongue

2) Extending patterns from the target language

3) Expressing meaning using the word an grammar which are already known.[5]

b. Interlanguage Errors

Error is the use of language in a way which a fluent or native speaker of the language regards as faulty or incomplete learning. An error refers to a systematic error of competence, both covert and overt, that deviates from the norms of the target language. Brown differentiates between covert and overt errors. He definesthat "covert errors is grammatically correct but not interpretable within the context of communication, whereas overt errors refer to the obviously ungrammatical utterances".[6]

In learning second or foreign language, students may produce some errors. The errors students make can be because of the interference of native languageor limited knowledge of the target language itself. There are 2 kinds of interlanguage errors:

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[5] Jack Richard, John Platt, Heidi Weber, *Longman Dictionary of applied linguistics*, (NY: Longman, 2009), p.146

[6] H. Douglas Brown, *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching, 4th ed. 2000*(NY: Pearson Education Company, 2001), p. 220

1) Interlingual Error

Interlingual errors can be identified as transfer errors resulted from learners' first language features, for example, grammatical, lexical or pragmatic errors.

> (in error analysis) interlingual error is an error which results from language transfer, that is, which is caused by the learners' native language. For example, the incorrect French sentence *Elle regarde les* ("She sees them"), produced according to the word order of English, instead of the correct French sentence *Elle les regarde* (literally, "She them sees").[7]

It is a popular belief that second language acquisition is strongly influenced by the learners' first language (L1). The clearest support for this belief comes from foreign accent in the second language (L2) speech of learners. When indonesian speaks English, most of their English sound Indonesia.

It is also popular belief that the rule of the L1 in secon language acquisition (SLA) is negative one. That is, the L1 gets in the way or interferes with the learning of the L2. In fact, the process of SLA is often characterized in popular opinion as that overcoming the effect of L1, of slowly replacing the feature of the L1 that intrude into the L2 with those of the target

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[7] Jack Richard, John Platt, Heidi Weber, *Longman Dictionary of applied linguistics*, (NY: Longman, 2009), p.146

language and so of approximating ever closer to native-speaker speech.

2) Intralingual Error

An intralingual error is error which is because of the faulty or partial learning of the target language, rather than from language transfer. Intralingual errors may be able to be because ofthe influence of one target-language item upon another. For example a learner may produce *He is comes,* based on the blend of the English structures *He is coming, He comes.*[8]

"Intralingual errors are overgeneralization in the target language, resulting from ignorance of rule restrictions, incomplete applications of rules, and false concepts hypothesized".[9]It can be because of Incomplete application of rules arises when learners fail to develop a structure fully, or occur when learners do not completely understand a distinction in the target language.

"The native language of learners exerts a strong influence on the acquisition of the target language system. While the native system will exercise both

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[8] Jack Richard, John Platt, Heidi Weber, *Longman Dictionary of applied linguistics*, (NY: longman, 2009), p.146

[9] H. Douglas Brown, *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching, 4th ed. 2000*(NY: Pearson Education Company, 2001), p. 224

facilitating and interfering effects on the production and comprehension of the target language".[10] In learning second or foreign language, learners may produce some errors. And the errors can be influenced by their first language, or because of their lack of target language knowledge.

c. Sources of Errors

There are two possible sources of errors in acquiring second or foreign language. They are:

1) Interlingual Transfer

Interlingual transfer is a significan source of error for all learners. The begining stages of learning a second language are especially vulnerable to interlingual transfer from the native language, or interference. In these early stages, before the system of the second language is familiar, the native language is the only previous linguistic system upon which the learners can draw. For example: learners may say 'sheep' for 'ship' or 'the book of jack' instead of 'jack's book'.[11]

When learning second language, it is natural for students to at first apply their knowledge of their native

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[10] H. DouglasBrown, *Teaching by Principles* (NY: Pearson Education Company, 2001), p. 66

[11] H. Douglas Brown, *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching, 4th ed. 2000*(NY: Pearson EducationCompany, 2001), p. 224

language to the target language. Depending on the similar or contrasting characteristics of these languages. Ellis states 'where the two languages were identical, learning could take place easily through positive transfer of the native language pattern, but where they were different, learning difficulty arose and errors resulting from negative transfer were likely to occur.[12]

2) Intralingual Transfer

Intralingual transfer is that the main factor in second language learning is target language itself. Some researchers have found that the early stages of language learning are characterized by a predominance of interference (interlingual transfer), but once learners have begun to acquire parts of the system, more and more intralingual transfer-generalization within the target language is manifested. This of course follows logically from the tenets of learning theory. As learners progress in the second language, their previous experience and their existing subsumers begin to include structures within the target language itself.[13]

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[12] Rod Ellis, *The Study of Second Language Acquisition* (NY: Oxford University Press, 1994), p.300

[13] H. Douglas Brown, *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching, 4th ed. 2000*(NY: Pearson Education Company, 2001), p. 224

Transfer may also occur on a conceptual level. During first language acquisition, speakers develop a certain concept of time, space, modality, definiteness, and the like. This conceptual imprint may deeply influence the way in which they approach the second language. For example, how they interpret its morphological system, its subordinate conjunction, etc.[14] For a learner to recognize an error due to transfer, he must generally already know a lot about the second language. In other words, the possibilities of transfer increase as knowledge of the second language increase.

When second language learner tries to comprehend or to produce utterance in that language, he sometimes relies on shorts of knowledge that may help him. One component of this knowledge is what he knows about his first language, and application of this knowledge leads to what is called 'transfer'. But one of his possible resource; it always interacts with the other sorts of knowledge he may draw on. It is the interaction of different kinds of knowledge that needs to be considered in order to understand what a learner does,

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[14] Wolfgang Klein, *Second Language Acquisition* (NY: Cambridge University Press, 1990), p.27

and why he does it.[15] It means that a learner may use his first language knowledge to help him in understanding the second language. Because he can apply his first language to second language by using the similarities or even the dissimilarities between his first language and second language.

3. Writing

a. Definition of Writing

"Writing is functional communication, making learners possible to create imagined worlds of their own design."[16] Writing as one of four language skills is considered as a difficult skill because the writer should make some aspects in writing such as content, organization, purpose, vocabulary, punctuation, and spelling in a balance way.

Writing is the activity or occupation of writing, for example books, stories, or articles. We can take more times to think and choose words in order to express our idea, thought, and feeling. We still can make editing or revision if it is not so clear to express what intends to write. Writing is a progressive activity. This means that

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[15] Wolfgang Klein, *Second Language Acquisition* (NY: Cambridge University Press, 1990), p.27-28

[16] Richard Kern, *Literacy and Language Teaching*, (New York: Oxford University Press, 2000), p. 172.

when you first write something down, you have already been thinking about what you are going to say and how you are going to say it. After you have finished writing, you read over what you have written and make changes and corrections. Therefore, writing is never a one step actions; it is a process that has several steps.

Writing is a discovery process that involves discovering ideas, how to organize them and what that you want to put over to your order, so a lot of what a writer does as a writer doesn't actually appear on the page. It is a means of communication. Communication in writing tends to involve a thinking process because writing requires the process of selecting and organizing ideas into coherent and logical whole, so in this case writing is undeniably based in thought. Finnochiaro says that writing has been characterized as written thinking.[17] It means that writing is a way to produce language that comes from our thought. In the writing process, the writer tries to developing their ideas and feelings to produce into a good sentence, in order to inform the other.

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[17] Mary Finocchiaro, *English as a second Language: from Theory to Practice*, (New York: Regents Publishing Company, Inc, 1974), p. 86.

b. Types of Writing

"The type of writing system which exists in the native language is an important factor in determining to easy of speech with which students learn to write".

There are two types of writing:

1. Practical Writing

This type deals with the fact and functional writing. It is purposed to special goal that we can find it in letters, papers, summaries, outlines, essays, etc.

2. Creative or Imaginary Writing

This type usually exists in literature. Such as novel, romance, poem, short story, science fiction, etc.[18]

c. Writing Process

There are three steps in writing process, they are prewriting, writing, and revising. All of those steps are important to make our writing better and systematic.

1. Prewriting

Prewriting is the first step; it is preparation step before writing process. Prewriting gives warming up

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[18] Mary Finocchiaro, *English as a second Language: from Theory to Practice*, (New York: Regents Publishing Company, Inc, 1974), p. 85-86.

the brain to gathering the ideas to write about. There are several ways to warm up before we write.[19]

a. Brainstorming

Brainstorming is a prewriting activity to enlisting the ideas related the topic. In thistechnique, we write down every single thing that passing through or comes into our minds.[20]

b. Clustering

Clustering is another technique to bind ideas. We visualize our ideas using circles and lines which are interconnected one to others. The topic is positioned in the center of blank paper as a core circle, while the ideas are spread around. There are the steps of clustering process:

1. Write our topic in the center of a blank piece of paper and draw a circle around it.

2. Write any ideas that come into our mind about the topic in circles around the main circle.

3. Connect those ideas to the center word with a line.

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[19] Karen Blanchard and Christine Root, *Ready to Write,* (New York: Pearson Education, Inc, 2003), 3rd Ed. p. 41.

[20] Barli Bram, *Write Well Improving Writing Skills*, (Yogyakarta: Penerbit Kanisius, 1995), p.64.

4. Think about each of our new ideas, and then connect them.

5. Repeat this process until you run out of ideas.[21]

2. Writing

The next step is writing process. The result of brainstorming or clustering in prewriting process is guidance for us to write paragraph. As we write, the first draft on your paragraph, use the ideas we generated from prewriting as a guide. As we write, remember to:

a. Begin with a topic sentence that states the main ideas, include several sentences that support the main idea.

b. Stick the topic does not include information that does not directly support the main idea.

c. Arrange the sentences so that the other ideas make sense.

d. Use signal words to help the reader understand how the ideas in your paragraph are connected.[22]

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[21] Karen Blanchard and Christine Root, *Ready to Write,* (New York: Pearson Education, Inc, 2003), 3rd Ed. p. 42.

[22] Karen Blanchard and Christine Root, *Ready to Write,* (New York: Pearson Education, Inc, 2003), 3rd Ed. p. 43.

3. Revising

The last step is revising; it is the important step to do after we have produced a draft. We have to analyze the content of the draft that may be unclear, ambiguous or confusing. We have to ensure that our paragraph is unified and coherent and improve the grammatical accuracy. So, in this step we can enrich our writing content with add new sentence to support others idea, or deleting some sentences those are irrelevant with the topic.[23]

It is almost impossible to write a perfect paragraph on the first try, so it needs to be revised. The steps are:

a. Add new ideas to support the topic.

b. Cross out sentences that do not support the topic.

c. Change the order of the sentences.

d. Using the following checklist to revise your paragraph.

1. Make sure you have a topic sentence.

2. Cross out sentences that do not relate to the main idea.

3. Check to see if the sentences are in the right order.

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[23] Jeremy Harmer, *The Practice of English Teaching*, (Malaysia: Longman, 2002), 3rd, p. 5.

4. Add new ideas if they support the topic sentences.

5. Make sure you have included signal words to help guide the reader.

6. Check the punctuations, spelling and grammar.[24]

d. Purposes of Writing

To think on paper and organize thouthts: people may write things down to help the readers remember them, or to learn new material or to help us think through a problem or issue. Usually this purpose is for personal writing like notes, outlines,free writing, journals, memos. It is useful the writer rather than to another ausience.

To inform: when the writers write to inform, they usually want to make our audience understand a concept, procedure, or fact. they may write to teach our audience (such as writing instructions for a friend who will be taking care of our pets while we are in vacation), to demonstrate our knowledge (such as writing an exam), or to explain how to use a piece of equipment at work.

To persuade: when the writers write to persuade, it means that they want to convince their audiences to act or believe in a certain way like they want them to agree with

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[24] Jeremy Harmer, *The Practice of English Teaching*, (Malaysia: Longman, 2002), 3rd, p. 44

them. They may write personal letter urging a friend to move to a new house, or an evaluation of an employee, asking for higher salary for that person. In college, the students may write an essay arguing that one view of history is more valid than another.

To entertain: writers may write to entertain their audience, to make them laugh, to tell them a story or they want to make their audience enjoy what they have wtitten.[25]

4. Abstract

a. Definition of Abstract

Abstract is a brief summary of research thesis. The abstract is printed at the top of a research article and its function is mainly to encourage the reader to continue reading the article and to facilitate that reading by providing a brief preview.[26]

Abstract is important, because it gives a first impression of the document that follows. It also lets readers decide whether to continue reading or not. The most useful abstract tells the readers more. An abstract should represent as much as possible of the quantitative or

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[25] Nancy M. Kreml, *The User's Guide to College Writing* (US: Pearson Education 2004), p. 17

[26] Hillary Glasman-Deal, *Science Research Writing*, (London:Imperial College Press, 2009), p. 197

qualitative information in the document, and also reflects its reasoning.

b. Generic Structure of Abstract

There are some steps for constructing a written Abstract, they   are;

1)   Introduction   : contains of the title and background.

2)   Methodology   : contains of what the researcher did or used.

3)   Result   : contains of what the researcher found.

4)   Discussion or Conclusion.[27]

In some journals, the type of abstracts has subtitle, i.e. Background/Method/ Result/ Conclusion. If so, the number of words is usually distributed fairly evenly among the different parts, but if not, the distribution is left to the writer and the proportion of the abstract taken by each part varies considerably. If a lot of background is necessary to understand the abstract itself, combine the relevant points and summarize them in a few words as possible.[28] The focus of an abstract is more likely to be on methodology or the results, so limit background information to one or two sentences.

[27] Hillary Glasman-Deal, *Science Research Writing*, (London:Imperial College Press, 2009), p. 198

[28] Hillary Glasman-Deal, *Science Research Writing*, (London:Imperial College Press, 2009), p. 207

Methodology is the main focus of the study. If the important contribution of your work   really is in details of the methodology, you can and should provide those details in the abstract and you can even give those details numerically. It is quite common to find sentences which give temperature, pressures, times, quantities thickness and even light-absorption data.

Results, implication and achievement are often stated quite strongly, which encourage the reader to read the rest of the article favorably and accept the conclusion, including possible restrictions and constraints, can be left to the article itself. However, what we report in abstract should be consistent with what we report in a paper, and if our work represents an early stage in a breakthrough or the implication of our works are still not firm, it is appropriate to communicate this by including modal verb *(could/might/may)* or words such as possible.[29] Result can be said as a research finding. Writers have to explain their research finding clearly in order that the reader can catch it well.

c. The characteristics of Abstract

Because abstract is read first and may be the only part read. So it must be:

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[29] Hillary Glasman-Deal, *Science Research Writing*, (London:Imperial College Press, 2009), p. 211

1) *Accurate,* in order to reflect both the purpose and the content of the paper.
2) *Self-contained,* it:
     a). explains the precise problem and defines terminology.
     b). describes briefly both the methods used and the findings
     c). gives an overview of your concussion
3) *Concise and specific*, in order to remain within a range of 80-150 words
4) *Non-evaluative*, in order to report information, not to appraise or access the value of the work.
5) *Coherent and Readable,* in a style that uses the present tense to describeresult but uses past tense to describe testing procedure.[30]

From the characteristics above, it can be concluded that when writing abstract, writers have to explain or report clearly what they do in the study, how they do it, what they find and what their findings mean. They also have to pay attention to the tenses they use. For example, they should use present tense in describing the result and use past tense to describe testing procedure.

5. Contrastive Analysis

Contrastive analysis is an approach to investigate language. Particularly as carried on in certain areas of applied linguistic, such as foreign language teaching and translation. In a contrastive analysis of two languages, the points of

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[30] James D. Lester, *Writing Research Paper,* (United State: Pearson education,2009), p. 301-302

structural differences are identified, and then studied as areas of potential difficulty (interference or negative transfer) in foreign language learning.[31] From the definition above, contrastive analysis can be defined as the systematic study of a pair of languages with a view to identifying their structural differences and similarities. It means that the function of contrastive analysis is to identify both similarity and dissimilarities of native language to target language or one language to other language. Therefore, the difficulty in mastering certain structures in a second language depends on thedifference between the learners' mother language and the language they are trying to learn.

> The origins of Contrastive analysis, therefore, were pedagogic. This was reflected in comparison of several pairs of languages by scholar in the united states, all directed at establishing the areas of difficulty that were likely to be experienced by English speakers learning other language. In addition to this pedagogically oriented studies carried out in Europe, some of which have not been concerned with SLA at all.[32]

a. The Aspects of Contrastive Analysis

    1) The psychological aspect of contrastive analysis

        There are two forms of contrastive analysis based on the psycological aspect. This exists in a strong and

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[31] David Crystal, *Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetic* (UK: Blackwell Publishers, 1998), p. 90

[32] Rod Ellis, *Understanding Second Language Acquisition,* (NY: Oxford University Press, 1986), p. 23

weak form. The strong form claims that all second language errors can be predicted by identifying the differences between the target language and the learners' first language. While weak form of the hypothesis claims only to be diagnostic. A contrastive analysis can be used to identify which errors are the results of interference. Thus according to the weak hypothesis, contrastive analysis needs to work hand in hand with the error analysis. First actual errors must be identified by analyzing a corpus of learners language. Then a contrastive analysis can be used to establish which errors in the corpus can be put down to differences between the first and the second language. Implicit in the weak version is the assumption that not all errors are the result of interference.[33]

2) The linguistic aspect of contrastive analysis

The differences (among language) are great enough to prevent our setting up any system of classification that would fit all languages. However, most of contrastive studies carried out based on surface structure characteristics, such as those described by the

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[33] Rod Ellis, *Understanding Second Language Acquisition,* (NY: Oxford University Press, 1986), p. 23-24

structuralists. The procedures are: *Description, Selection, Comparison, and Prediction*.[34]

b. The goals of Contrastive Analysis

The goals of Contrastive Analysis can be stated as follows: to make foreign language teaching more effective, and to find out the differences between the first language and the target language based on the assumptions:Foreign language learning is based on the mother tongue, similarities facilitate learning (positive transfer), differences cause problems (negative transfer/Interference), via contrastive analysis, problems can be predicted and considered in the curriculum.

However, not all problems predicted by contrastive analysis always appear to be difficult for the students. On the other hand, many errors that do turn up are not predicted by contrastive analysis.

6. The Comparisons between English and Indonesian Language

To compare both English and Indonesian language, the researcher used contrastive analysis especially from the linguistic aspect based on the assumption ofthe ssimilarities and dissimilarities among language. The similarities may be able to facilitate learning (positive transfer), while differences

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[34] Rod Ellis, *Understanding Second Language Acquisition,* (NY: Oxford University Press, 1986), p. 24-25

may cause the problems or errors (negative transfer/Interference).

a. Tenses

As we know that English is not like Indonesian language. English has tenses. Different times have different forms especially the verb changes. The following are the examples of English and Indonesian sentences.

Indonesia	English
Saya *belajar* b. Inggris setiap hari	I *study* English everyday
Saya *belajar* b. Inggris sekarang	I *am studying* English now
Saya *belajar* b. Inggris kemaren	I *studied* English yesterday
Saya *belajar* b. Inggris besok	I *will study* tomorrow

From the examples above, we can see that in Indonesian sentences, there are no changes of verb. But in English sentences, we can see that different time has different form of verb.

b. Subject – Verb Agreement

The important rule of the language is that every subject and verb have to be in agreement. It means, when the subject is singular, the verb has to be singular also and when the subject is plural, the verb has to be plural also.

1) Singular subject – singular verb

Singular subject are pronoun he, she, and it, or nouns which can be replaced by he, she or it; and singular verbs are verb1+es/s, is/was,has,does.

E.gShe *comes* on time

My *friend lives* in Boston

None of the boys *is* here

2) Plural subject – plural verb

Plural subject are pronouns I, we, you, they, and all plural nouns. And plural verbs are verbs except singular verbs above.

E.g*Those people are* from Canada

There *are some books* on the shelf

My *brother and sister live* in Boston[35]

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[35] Betty Scrampfer Azar, *Understanding and Using English Grammar,* (United State: Pearson Education, 1999), p. 88-90

Here is the description of subject-verb agreement.

S	Verb+s /es	Is,am,are	Was,were	Have,has	Do,does
I		Am	Was		
You	No			have	do
We		Are	Were		
They					
She	S/es	Is	Was	has	does
He					
It					

Examples of subject-verb agreement with the same sentences:

English sentences		
No	*Singular subject-singular verb*	*Plural subject-plural verb*
1	She dances	They dance
2	She is dancing	They are dancing
3	She has just danced	They havejust danced
4	She does not dance	They do not dance
Indonesian sentences		
No	*Singular subject*	*Plural subject*
1	Dia (pr) menari	Mereka menari
2	Dia (pr) sedang menari	Mereka sedang

		menari
3	Dia (pr) baru saja menari	Mereka baru saja menari
4	Dia (pr) tidak menari	Mereka tidak menari

From the examples above, we can see that in Indonesian sentences, there are no changes of verb even they have different subject. But in English sentences, we can see that different subject has different form of verb or auxilary verb.

c. Sentence Structure of Clauses

1) Adjective clause

a) Definition of adjective clause

Adjective clause is a clause which has function as adjective which modify noun. A noun is a subject or an object, so adjectives will always modify subjects or objects. The noun or pronoun being modified is called *antecedent.* And it is always dependent clause.

There are seven words which introduce adjective clauses.They are called relative pronouns because they relate the clause to something in the

sentence.They are:*Who, Whom, Whose, Which, That, When, Where*[36].

b) The fuctions of relative pronoun in adjective clause:

Function	Relative Pronoun	Adjective Clause
Subject	who, that, which	The boy *who sits next to you* is my classmate
Object*	whom, that, which, who	The fruit *which I want to buy* is expensive
Possessive	Whose	The people *whose house has burned down* call the police
Adverb	Where, when, in which, on which	I forget the date *when i receive the gift*

[36] Marcella Frank, *Modern English,* (United State: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1972), p. 276

c) Reducing and omitting of adjective clause

    E.g. The boy *who sits next to you* is my classmate

        The boy *sitting next to you* is my classmate

    E.g. The fruit *which I want to buy* is expensive

        The fruit *I want to buy* is expensive

    E.g. The books *which have been brought by him* are mine

        The books *having been brought by him* are mine

2) Noun clause

    A dependent clause that functions as a noun (that is, as a subject, object, or complement) within a sentence.The following are the types and examples of noun clause.

Types and the examples of noun clause

Types	Conjunction	Examples
Statement	That	I think *that he is a good actor*

Question	W-h question(what, who, when, why, etc) yes/no question(if & whether….or not)	I don't know *whether she will come*
Request	That	I advise *that she comes on time*
Exclamation	What & how	*What an expensive car* it is!

d. Singular/ Plural Noun

1) Singular noun

Singular noun is a noun which is no more than one. E.g. *book, chair, child, car, man, person, television* etc.

E.g.   One chair

A man

That person

2) Plural noun

Plural noun is every noun which is more than one. It can be regular or irregular. If it is regular form, we can just add the singular noun by s/es e.g. *books, cars,*

students, beaches, glasses, jeans, etc. But if it is irregular form,we have to memorize it or at least we open the dictionary to know it, because it has different form. E.g. *child-children, man-men, medium-media*, etc.[37]

E.g. Many children

    Some glasses

    To books

    Unlike English, Indonesian language has no plural form of noun. We can write the word twice or add the word *banyak* before the noun. For example: *anak-anak/ banya kanak, buku-buku/ banyak buku, mobil-mobil/ banyak mobil, etc*

e. Word Order

    Most English word orders are different from Indonesian word orders, especially in noun phrase. The head of English noun phrase is often placed in the final after modifier while the head word of Indonesian noun phrase is often placed at the initial of the phrase.

E.g. Indonesian food (*makanan indonesia*)

    The most popular pop singer (*penyanyi pop yang paling terkenal*)

    Swiming pool (*kolam renang*)

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[37] Raymond Mrphy, *English Grammar in Use,* (United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press, 1998), p. 156

Washington president (*Presiden Washington*)[38]

f. Pronoun

English pronoun is different from indonesian pronoun. In English, different position of pronoun has different form of pronoun.

The following is the description of English pronoun:

Subject	Object	Possessive		Reflexive
		Adjective	Pronoun	
I	Me	My	Mine	Myself
You	You	Your	Yours	Yourself
We	Us	Our	Ours	Ourselves
They	Them	Their	Theirs	Themselves
She	Her	Her	Hers	Herself
He	Him	His	His	Himself
It	It	Its	Its	Itself

E.g   *He* looks at *me*

I invite *my* friends

I did my homework by *myself*

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[38] Marcella Frank, *Modern English,* (United State: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1972), p. 10-11

That is *mine*

John and *his* family come to *my* house[39]

From the example above, it can be concluded that different position ofthe English pronoun has different form of pronoun.While Indonesian pronoun does not have it. For example:

Saya melihat *dia (lk)*

Dia (lk) melihat *saya*

g. Preposition

Indonesian languaage has only a kind of preposition. It is free preposition. For example: *di, di antara, di atas, di bawah, pada, dengan, etc.* Unlike indonesian language, There are two kinds of preposition in English. They are bound preposition and free preposition. Bound preposition is preposition which depends on the word before. For example: *believe in, look after, laugh at, wake up, interested in, worried about, afraid of, aim at*, etc. while free preposition is preposition which does not depends on the word before. For example: *in, on, at, beside, behind, in front of, next to*, etc.

E.g. While we are gone, Grandmother will look *after* the children

What time do you wake *up* in the morning?

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[39]Marcella Frank, *Modern English,* (United State: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1972), p. 21-22

I saw him *on* Saturday

He is *at* school[40]

[40]Marcella Frank, *Modern English,* (United State: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1972), p. 164-176