CHAPTER II
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter presents review of related literature which discusses the ideas and theories underlying the subject matter of the study as follow:

A. Grammar in Teaching and Learning

1. The Definition of Grammar

Generally, Grammar is the rules of a language that show how sentences are formed, or how words are inflected. Grammar is also the rules of the means of language to construct the sentences and it guides people how to speak and write correctly. When someone knows how to construct sentences and utterances in understandable form, he is speaking and writing correctly.

Some experts defined grammar differently but the essence of their definitions are still the same as above. The following are definitions of grammar:

> According to Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary grammar is the rules of a language for changing the form of words and combining them into sentences.[1]

> Moreover, Jack Richards et.al. defined grammar as a description of the structure of a language and the way in which linguistics units such as words and phrases are combined to produce sentences in the language. It usually takes into account the meanings and functions these sentences have in the overall system of the language[2]

Those definitions of grammar have the same essence that Grammar is the study of how meaningful elements (words) within a language can be combined into utterances or sentences. The way in which meaningful elements can be combined within a language is governed by rules. In

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[1] Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary, (USA: Oxford University Press, 2000), p. 517.
[2] Jack Richards et.al., *Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics,* (England: Longman Group U.K Limited, 1985)p. 125.

standard linguistic theory, the rules of the internal structure of words is called morphology. The rules of the internal structure of the phrases and sentences is called syntax. Syntax then, has to do with the order of words in sentences, and specifically how complex sentences are structured by grouping words together in units, called phrases, that can occupy different places in a larger syntactic structure.[3]

2. **Grammar in The Structure of Language**

There are many possible models of the structure of languages stated by linguists. One of them which are popular in linguistic studies was recognized by David Crystal as follows:
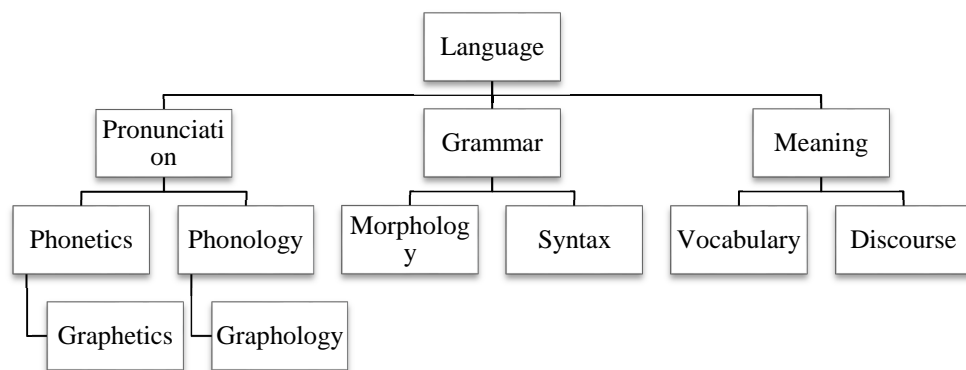

Figure 1: The structure of Language[4]

The model shows that three main components or levels in the structure of language are recognized; pronunciation, grammar, and meaning or semantics. For speech, pronunciation has two aspects in its study: phonetics and phonology. Phonetics studies the properties of human sound-making as such the way in which someone forms, transmits and

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[3] Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary, *op.cit* P.1212.

[4] David Crystal, *Child Language, Learning and Linguistics*, (USA: Cambridge University Press, 1987).p. 15

hears sound. On the other side, phonology studies the sound system of a particular language. A similar distinction might be made for the written medium, represented further down the diagram. Here, we are familiar with the idea of language's spelling and punctuation system. The study of such things, and the analysis if the principle underlying writing system in general, is equivalent to investigating the phonology of speech, and is sometimes called "graphology" accordingly. Besides, "graphetics" which studies the properties of human mark-making and the way in which these marks are usually perceived also becomes a subdivision from pronunciation in written medium.

On the right of the diagram we see the study of meaning or "semantics" which has two subdivisions; vocabulary and discourse. The first is the study of the meaning of words, under the heading of "vocabulary" or "lexis". This is the familiar aspect of the study of meaning as it provides the content of dictionaries. But of course there is far more to meaning than the study of individual words. We may talk about the distribution of meaning in a clause, sentence, paragraph (topic sentences, for instance), in a chapter and so on. Such broader aspects of meaning have been studied in a scientific way which is called "discourse"

Sounds on the left; meaning on the right; "grammar" in the centre of the model, is appropriately placed since it has been viewed as the central, organizing the principle of language, the way in which sounds and meanings are related. On the other words grammar has a central role to relate between sounds and meaning. To have an intended meaning delivered clearly, one is necessary to use the right grammar. That is why; sounds will be meaningful if they are grammatically correct.

As an important aspect of language, grammar has two subdivisions which are referred to as "morphology" and "syntax". Morphology is the study of the structure of words; how they are built up, how the use of roots, prefixes, suffixes and so on. On the other hand, syntax is the study of the way words work in sequences to form larger linguistic units

including phrases, clauses, sentences, and beyond.[5] For most linguists, syntax is the study of sentence structure.

3. **Grammar in Language Teaching**

Language has three major parts: phonology (that is sound or pronunciation), vocabulary (that is words), and grammar. In learning certain language, grammar is part of language components that must be learned by the students. It is essential to avoid misunderstanding when they use the language to communicate. By studying grammar of the target language without neglecting the other components, the learners will understand the language either oral or written language. In teaching English grammar for college students, grammar is one of the language components to be taken into accounting by the lecturer because it is the principle in constructing sentences in a language. Grammar is a central to the teaching and learning of languages. It is also one of the more difficult aspects of language to teach well. Many people including language teachers, hear the word "grammar" and think of a fixed set of word forms and rules of usage. They associate "good" grammar with the prestige forms of the language, such as those used in writing and in formal oral presentations, and "bad" or "no" grammar with the language used in everyday conversation or used by speakers or no prestige forms.

From the explanation above, it can be concluded that grammar is the main components of the language that must be learned and understood because it is very important to communicate with other people properly.

4. **Grammar as Prerequisite for Good Writing**

People tend to acquire spoken language easier than the writing language. This is because people first know the spoken before they know the written one and a human child always speaks a language first before he is accustomed to the writing system of his language.

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[5] *Ibid.* p.15

The explanation above does not imply that writing or written language is less important than the spoken one. The more cultivated and more technologically advanced a man is the more he involved in a written form of a language. It means that writing also plays an important role in a modern society. Writing language is getting more and more essential today. It should be mastered in order to be literate. But, Indonesian students of commonly have only little enthusiasm for their writing tasks. Every time they have writing tasks, they feel it is difficult to do. But, they should have strong foundation for their writing skill before entering a higher level of education. So, it is crucial for them to master this skill.

In composing a good writing, we should notice some aspects. Grammar is one important aspect that should be mastered in order to make a well structured writing. Writing will not be good if the writer does not have good proficiency in grammar. But, writing in different language is not always as easy as writing in our own language since there are some different rules in the writing systems and these differences sometimes cause us to make errors.

B. General Concept of Writing

1. Writing Process

Writing, Particularly academic writing is not easy. It takes study and practice to develop this skill. To make it easier, a writer should follow some stages in his or her writing process. The stages help the writer to work more sistematically.

Richards says that writing process consists of six stages; pre-writing, free-writing, drafting, revising (writing), editing and final phase.[6] These stages can be described at increasing levels of complexity for both younger students and more advanced writers. The six stages, however, are seldom described as fixed steps in a straightforward process. however,

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[6] *Ibid,* p. 17

they tend to be viewed as overlapping parts of a whole process. That is why, for instance, a writer might find that, while editing a text, he/she needs to go back to the draft, or to revise earlier parts of what he/she has written. These are the explanations of every stage in writing proces:

a. Pre-writing

Prewriting is the first stage of the writing process. It is usually followed by free writing, drafting, revision, editing and the final phase. This first stage of the writing process covers everything which has to be done before starting our writing process. As a minimum, prewriting should enable us to come up with an idea.

Prewriting usually begins with motivation and audience awareness: what is the student or writer trying to communicate, why is it important to communicate it well and who is the audience for this communication. Writers usually begin with a clear idea of audience, content and the importance of their communication; sometimes, one of these needs to be clarified for the best communication.

Student writers usually find difficulty to find out motivation because they are writing for finishing an assignment from a teacher or for achieving a particular grade, instead of a real audience. Sometimes, teachers try to find a real audience for students by asking them to read to younger classes or to parents, by posting writing for others to read, by writing a blog, or by writing on real topics, such as a letter to the editor of a local newspaper. This is done by teachers to enhance their students' motivation in writing.

Elements of prewriting may include choosing a topic, narrowing the topic, Brainstorming, and listing.[7] All of those elements are described as follow:

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[7]Alice Oshima, Ann Hogue, *Writing Academic English: A Writing and Sentence Structure Handbook, 2nd ed.,* (USA: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, 1990), p.3-5.

1) Choosing a Topic

      One important task in prewriting is choosing a topic and then narrowing it to a length that can be covered in the space allowed.

      Several methods of choosing a topic overlap with another broad concern of prewriting, that is researching or gathering information. Reading is effective in both choosing and narrowing a topic and in gathering information to include in the writing. As a writer reads other works, it expands ideas, opens possibilities and points toward options for topics and narrowing of topics. It also provides specific content for the eventual writing.

      Besides reading what others have written, writers can also make original observations relating to a topic. This requires on-site visits, experimentation with something, or finding original or primary historical documents. Writers interact with the setting or materials and make observations about their experience. For strong writing, particular attention should be given to sensory details (what the writer hears, tastes, touches, smells and feels).

2) Narrowing the topic

      Narrowing the topic is an important step of prewriting. For example, a personal narrative of five pages could be narrowed to an incident that occurred in a thirty minute time period. This restricted time period means the writer must slow down and tell the event moment by moment with many details. Writers should consider how much space is allowed for the communication and what can be effectively communicated within the space.

3) Brainstorming

      After reading and observing, often writers need to discuss material. They might brainstorm with a group or topics or how to narrow a topic. Or, they might discuss events, ideas, and interpretations with just one other person.

4) Listing

Listing is a brainstorming technique in which a writer thinks about the topic and quickly make a list of wathever words or phrases coming into his/her head. The purpose of this technique is to produce as many ideas as possible in a short time and to find out the specific focus of the topic.

b. Free Writing

Free writing is a way to get some use out of this information, and it may very well give us a focus for the rest of our work on the subject of writing. In this phase, writers use their ideas, information and notes to plan their compositions. During this phase, students write freely on the topic. The focus here is organizing ideas not perfecting grammar and spelling.

Like brainstorming, free writing is done non stop, occurs intensely for a short time, and is done without worrying about the existence of the audience. Althoug free writing will produce much that is unusable, it can also produce much that will be surprisingly important, attesting to the notion that our subconscious minds contain enormous amounts of valuable information.

c. Drafting

Drafting means writing a preliminary version of a work that the writer will later revise.[8] Drafting is the preliminary stage of a written work in which the author begins to develop a more cohesive product. A draft also describes the product the writer creates in the initial stages of the writing process this is a necessary stage for the

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[8] Robert Keith Miller, *Motives for Writing, fifth ed.* (New York: McGraw-Hill Companies, inc., 2006), p. 23.

writer in the writing process. Having created a draft, the author is then able to move onto the revising stage.

d. Revising (writing)

Revising distinguishes speaking from writing. Revising means rewriting a paper, building on what has already been done, in order to make it stronger.[9] Revision affords the writer a second, third, fourth, fifth or tenth chance to get the writing right. Good writer can often be distinguished from poor writers by their sttitude toward revision. A good writer do not expect to get his/ her writing good for the first time. On the other hand, a poor writer assume that his/her writing has been good for the first time.

Revising is the stage in the writing process where the author reviews, alters, and amends her or his message, according to what has been written in the draft. Revising follows drafting and precedes editing. Drafting and revising often form a loop as a work moves back and forth between the two stages. It is common for professional writers to go through many drafts and revisions before successfully creating an essay that is ready for the next stage that is editing.

e. Editing

Editing is the stage in the writing process where the writer makes changes in the text to correct errors (spelling, grammar, or mechanics). Having revised the draft for content, the writer's task is now to make changes that will improve the actual communication with the reader. Depending on the genre, the writer may choose to adhere to the conventions of Standard English.

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[9]John Langan, College Writing Skills, 6th ed., (New York: McGraw-Hill Companies, Inc., 2005). p. 33.

f.   The Final Phase

The final step of the writing process is the final phase. Students need to produce a final copy of their work, in the correct format. This often means adding a bibliography, ensuring that citations are correct, and adding details such as your student reference number.

In line with these stages of writing process, Alice Oshima and Ann Hogue (2006) proposed another sequence of stages in academic writing process including : Creating (prewriting), planning (outlining), writing and polishing.[10] These stages of the writing process are a framework for writing well and easily. These are the stages which are recomended to follow by writers to make their writing process more systematic. However, this is not a must for writers to follow, they may have the other stages and strategies when he/she is dealing with a writing process.

2. **Parts of an Essay/Academic Writing**

There are at least three parts of an essay which is referred to as introductory paragraph, body (supporting paragraph) and concluding paragraph.[11]

a. Introductory Paragraph

The introductory paragraph of an essay should start with several sentences which attract the readers' interest. It should then the central idea, or thesis, that will be developed in the essay. The thesi often includes a plan of development (preview) of the major points that will support the thesis. These supporting points should be listed in the order in which they will appear in the essay. In some cases, the plan of the

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[10]Alice Oshima, Ann Hogue, *Writing Academic English,* 4th ed., (USA: Pearson Education Inc., 2006), p.265-273.

[11] John Langan, *op.cit.*, p. 8.

development is presented in a sentence separate from the thesis; in other cases, it is omitted.

b. Body (Supporting Paragraph)

Most essays have three supporting points, developed at length over three separate paragraphs. Each of the supporting paragraphs should begin with a topic sentence that states the point to be detailed in that paragraph. Just as a thesis provide a focus of an entire essay, a topic sentence provide a focus for a supporting paragraph.

c. Concluding Paragraph

The concluding paragraph often summarizes the essay by briefly restating the thesis and, at times, the main supporting points. In addition, the writer often presents a concluding thought about the subject of the paper.

The following is a diagram of an essay which is helpful when we are writing or evaluating essays.

Title of the essay
Introductory paragraph • Opening remarks to catch readers' interest • Thesis statement • Plan of development (optional)

Body

- Topic sentence 1 (supporting point 1)
- Specific evidence

- Topic sentence 2 (supporting point 2)
- Specific evidence 2

- Topic sentance 3 (supporting point 3)
- Specific evidence 3

Concluding Paragraph

- Summary (optional)
- General closing remarks
- (Or both)

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3. **Parts of a Paragraph**

As has been stated above, an essay is constituted by three parts of paragraph: introductory paragraph, body (supporting paragraph) and concluding paragraph. Just as an essay which is constituted by paragraphs, a paragraph is constituted by sentences. A paragraph has at least three major structural parts: a topic sentence, supporting sentences and a concluding sentence.[12]

a. Topic Sentence

The topic sentence states the main idea of the paragraph. In not only names the topic of the paragraph, but it also limits the topic to one or two areas that can be discussed completely in the space of a single paragraph. The specific area is called the controlling idea.

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[12] Alice Oshima, Ann Hogue, *op.cit.*, p.17

b. Supporting Sentence

Supporting sentences develop the topic sentence. That is, they explain the topic sentence by giving reasons, examples, facts, statistics and quotations.

c. Concluding Sentence

The concluding sentence signals the end of the paragraph and leaves the reader with important points to remember.

4. **Guidance to Have a Good Writing**

There is nothing mysterious about good writing. As the other skills, writing requires practice and the mastery of certain basic elements. To write well, students should master ten basic elements and demonstrate their abilities to use them in all papers they write.[13] Just as a cake would not taste good if several key ingredients were omitted from the batter, student's writing would not be considered good if the several key components were omitted from the paper. Therefore, a good writing can be seen through these following criteria:

a. Organization

A good paper is well organized. It should contain three distinct parts: (1) Introduction, (2) Body, (3) Conclusion. Each part should contain certain elements that are critical to the effectiveness of each respective part.

b. Unity

Unity means that in a paragraph only one main idea is discussed. The main idea is stated in the topic sentence, and then each and every supporting sentence develops that idea.

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[13] S. Fawcett, A. Sandberg., *Business English: Skills for success*, (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1990), p.8.

c. Coherence

Coherence, means the paragraph is easy to read and understand because of the use of appropriate logical order and transition signals.

d. Conciseness

Conciseness refers to the expression of ideas in as few words as possible. It is writing that is free of needless repetition and useless words. Students should eliminate words, phrases, and clauses that do not further the purpose they established in the paper.

e. Clarity

Students sometimes try to give too much information into one sentence. When they do this, they usually create a confusing or unclear sentence. Lack of clarity can also result from faulty grammar or punctuation.

f. Grammar

Grammar is one important aspect that should be mastered in order to make a well structured writing. Writing will not be good if the writer does not have good proficiency in grammar.

g. Usage

The English language is really composed of two languages: formal and informal English.

Formal English is the type used for academic writing and speaking. It is also the type of English required in the world of work. It has strict rules for grammar, spelling, punctuation, mechanics, and usage. This type of English is marked by correct and appropriate vocabulary, and does not allow the use of slang, colloquialisms (informal or casual speech or writing), and contractions.

Informal English refers to any version of our language that deviates from the rules for formal English. This is the type of language used in everyday speech. It is characterized by a more informal and

ordinary vocabulary in which slang, colloquialisms, and contractions are often used.

Usage refers to the various words and word constructions that students choose to use in their writing. The difference between formal and informal English is a matter of usage.

h. Mechanics

Mechanics refers to capital letters, numbers, and abbreviations. The students should use them appropriately to have a good writing

i. Punctuation

Punctuation errors in term papers affect the clarity of the paper. They distort the meaning of sentences for the reader. To be skilled writers, students must learn to punctuate correctly.

j. Spelling

Spelling in the English language is very difficult because the English spelling system is based primarily on meaning rather than on sound. To make matters worse, the spelling rules used in English are complicated, and most of them have several exceptions. Nevertheless,students must strengthen their spelling skills to improve their writing.

5. **Writing Course at ELT Department Based on 2007 Curriculum of IAIN Walisongo Semarang**

In the syllabus of Writing course at ELT department of State Institute for Islamic Studies Walisongo Semarang, Writing course graded classed into four classes; Writing (Intensive Course), Writing I, Writing II and Writing III. This is the sequence of grades which must be followed by all students. It means that before taking the higher grade, the students are obligated to pass the previous grade, for example, if a student wants to take Writing II, he must pass Writing I and Writing (Intensive Course) at first. The following is the explanation of the grades in the Writing Course:

a. Writing (Intensive Course)

This is the preliminary course in the series of writing courses. This is conducted to prepare the students before taking the next stage of writing course.

b. Writing I

Writing I is oriented to provide students with learning experiences in writing English sentences correctly and develop ideas into a short coherent paragraph. This course serves as basic preparation for next writing class. More time will be devoted to build and organize sentences.

c. Writing II

This course emphasizes on students' competency for composing and developing paragraphs. This includes paragraph organization, understanding paragraph, kinds of paragraph, and ways of paragraph development.

d. Writing III

The last grade of structure course is designed to develop students' ability to write good and well-formed paragraph; paragraph in writing descriptive, expository and argumentative types of text.[14]

C. Language Transfer

Language transfer refers to speakers or writers applying knowledge from their native language to a second language.[15] It is most commonly discussed in the context of English language learning and teaching, but it can occur in any situation when someone does not have a native-level command of a language, as when translating into a second language. Rod Elis stated the manifestations of language transfer as: negative transfer (errors), positive transfer (facilitation), conscious and unconscious transfer, avoidance (underproduction), and over-use.[16]

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[14]Compilation of Syllabus 2007, *op.cit* p. 563-569
[15] Jack Richards et.al., *op.cit*., p.160
[16] Rod Elis, *The Study of Second Language Acquisition,* (USA: Oxford University Press, 1994), p.302

1. Positive and Negative Transfer

The different structures between two languages cause the phenomena as the result of language transfer. When the relevant unit or structure of both languages is the same, linguistic interference can result in correct language production called "positive transfer". Note, however, that language interference is most often discussed as a source of errors known as "negative transfer". Negative transfer occurs when speakers and writers transfer items and structures that are not the same in both languages.[17] Within the theory of contrastive analysis (the systematic study of a pair of languages with a view to identifying their structural differences and similarities), the greater the differences between the two languages, the more negative transfer can be expected.

The results of positive transfer (facilitation) go largely unnoticed, and thus are less often discussed. Odlin points out that the facilitative effects can only be observed when learners with different native language are studied and learner comparisons are carried out.[18] Nonetheless, such results can have a large effect. Generally speaking, the more similar the two languages are, the more the learner is aware of the relation between them, the more positive transfer will occur.

2. Conscious and Unconscious Transfer

Transfer may be conscious or unconscious. Consciously, learners or unskilled learners may sometimes guess when producing speech or text in a second language because they have not learned or have forgotten its proper usage. Unconsciously, they may not realize that the structures and internal rules of the languages in question are different. Such users could also be aware of both the structures and internal rules, yet be insufficiently

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[17] Jack Richards et.al., *op.cit*., p.160
[18] Rod Elis, *op.cit*., p.302-303.

skilled to put them into practice, and consequently often fall back on their first language.[19]

3. Avoidance (Underproduction)

Avoidance occurs when learners avoid linguistic structures which they find difficult because of the differences between their native language and the target language. In such cases, the effect of the native language are evident not in what learners do (errors) but in what they do not do (omission). The Identification of avoidance is not an easy task. Seliger (1989) points out that it is only possible to claim that avoidance has taken place if the learner has demonstrated knowledge of the form in question, and if there is evidence available that native speakers of the second language would use the form in the sentence under consideration. In other words, it only makes sense to talk of this phenomenon if the learners know what they are avoiding.[20]

4. Over-use

Over-use or 'over-indulgence' of certain grammatical structure in the second language acquisition can occur as a result of intralingual processes such as: overgeneralization. For example, second language learners have often been accustomed to overgeneralizing the regular past tense inflection to irregular verbs of English (for example: 'taked'). Over-use can also be resulted from language transfer. It is often done by learners as a strategy to improve their mistakes which is shown by underproduction or avoidance.[21]

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[19] *Ibid,* p. 306.
[20] *Ibid,* p. 305.
[21] *Ibid,* p. 305.

D. Language Contact

Language contact occurs especially when at least one of the languages is influenced by the contact. This influence takes place typically when the languages are spoken in the same or adjoining regions and when there is a high degree of communication between the people who are speaking the languages.[22] That is why; the phenomena of language contact are located in the area of sociolinguistics studies. Language contact occurs in a variety of phenomena including code-mixing, code-switching, language, interference, pidgin and creole. Before dealing with those phenomena, we need to consider the existence the dimension of language variation as a theory underlying those phenomena.

Basically, there are three types of variations, due to the historical, social and psychological factors.[23] Historical linguistics describes and explains the facts of language change through time. However, at any point in time, language varies from one social situation to another. There are regional dialects, social dialects, and many other styles. Psycholinguistics is the study of language variation in relation to thinking and to other psychological processes within the individual in particular, to the way in which language development and use is influenced by or influences such factors as memory, attention and perception. Finally, Sociolinguistics is the study of the way languages varies in relation to social situations and is becoming an increasingly important part of the subject as a whole. In this area, phenomena language contact can easily be found as the result of interaction with the other people.

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[22]Jack Richards et.al., *op.cit*., p.156.
[23] David Crystal, *op.cit*., p. 17

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                              │Psychological│      │    Code-    │
                              │  dimension  │      │  switching  │
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              ┌──────────┐    ┌─────────────┐      ┌─────────────┐
              │ Language │────│ Historical  │      │ Code-mixing │
              └──────────┘    │  dimension  │      └─────────────┘
                              └─────────────┘
                              ┌─────────────┐      ┌─────────────┐
                              │Sociological │──────│Interference │
                              │  dimension  │      └─────────────┘
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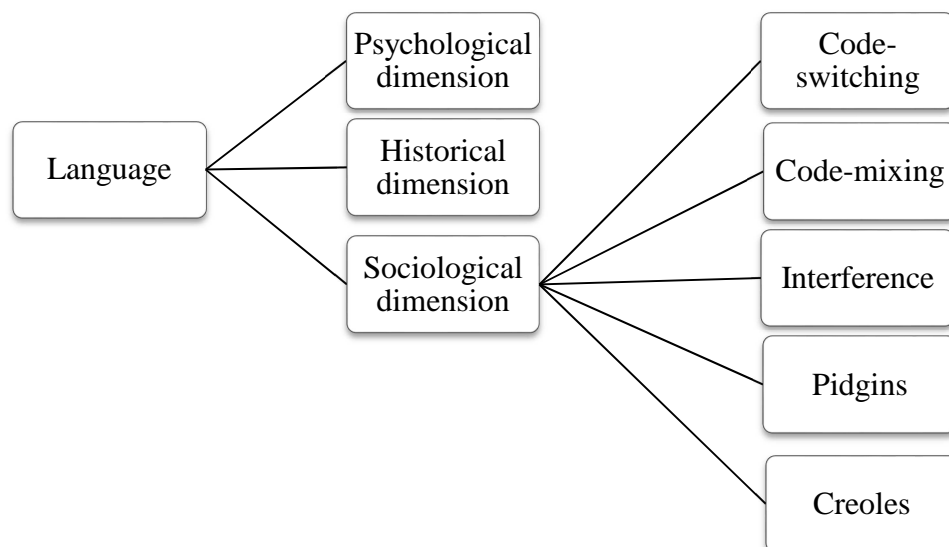
Figure 2: Main dimension of language variation

1. Code-mixing, Code-switching, and Language Interference

Code-mixing, code-switching and language interference are different phenomena resulted from language contact or language interaction.

The question which usually arises relating to those phenomena is; how can a bilingual speaker combine elements from two languages when processing mixed sentences? The term of code-mixing is used. This refers to all cases where lexical items and grammatical features from two languages appear in one sentence. The more commonly used code-switching will be reserved for the rapid succession of several languages in a single speech event for reasons will be made clear. In line with this, Ronald Wardhaugh maintains that "code-switching" (also called code-mixing) can occur in conversation between speaker's turns or within a single speaker's turn.[24] It can occur between sentences (inter-sentential) or within a single sentence (intra-sentential). Different

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[24]Ronald Wardhaugh, *an Introduction to Sociolinguistics,* fifth ed., (Blackwell Publishing LTD: UK, 2006) p. 101.

with Wardhaugh who regard that code-mixing and code-switching is the same, Auer(1995) said that the term of code-mixing and code-switching are different. He used the term of "switching" for language interaction between clauses (inter-clausal) or sentences (inter-sentential) and "mixing" for language interaction within a clause (intra-clausal) and within a sentence (intra-sentential).[25] As a matter of fact, between two perception on code-mixing and code-mixing above, Auer's perception is more widely used in linguistic studies.

Code-switching can arise from individual choice or be used as a major identity marker for a group of speakers who must deal with more than one language in their conversation. As Gal (1998) says, "code switching is a conversational strategy used to established, cross or destroy group boundaries; to create, evoke, or change interpersonal relations with their rights and obligation" [26]

After having a clear understanding on the phenomena of code-mixing and code-switching, we are now dealing with the existence of another phenomenon; "language interference". The term of language interference must be separated with the term of code-mixing and code-switching. If code-mixing and code-switching are mainly used as conversational strategies in bilingual or multilingual conversation, language interference happens when speakers or writers apply their native or first language rules to a second or target language. It happens when speakers or writers transfer items and structures which are not the same in both languages. On the other words, the phenomenon of language interference is as a result of speakers' or writers' weakness in the use of the second or target language. The main cause of language interference is the lack of second or target language proficiency. However, code-mixing (intra-sentential phenomena) may be caused by

[25]Pieter Muysken, *Bilingual Speech: a Typology of Code-Mixing,* (Cambridge University Pers: USA, 1995), p.4.

[26]Ronald Wardhaugh, *op.cit.,* p.101

language interference, as Weinrich stated that intra-sentential code-mixing was a sign of the lack of bilingual proficiency and language interference.[27]

Based on the explanation above, if we see the model of language dimension diagram, we can conclude that code-mixing, code-switching and language interference are involved in sociolinguistic dimension since they are related to the language use in social situation. Code-mixing and code-switching usually happen in the contexts of language learning and bilingual or multilingual conversation as a strategy to have the intended meaning clearly delivered without any misunderstanding. On the other hand, the phenomenon of language interference usually happens as a result of the lack of understanding on the target or second language rules so that one apply his/her native language.

2. Pidgin and Creole

A pidgin is a language developed by speakers who otherwise share no common language.[28] It is most commonly employed in situations such as trade, or where both groups speak languages different from the language of the country in which they reside. It develops here because the opportunities for trade and work attract large numbers of people with different native tongues. Fundamentally, a pidgin is a simplified means of linguistic communication, as it is constructed impromptu, or by convention, between groups of people. it is not the native language of any speech community, but is instead learned as a second language. Hence, a pidgin usually has low prestige with respect to other languages. It is may be built from words, sounds, or body language from multiple other languages and cultures.

The existence of pidgin also has a broader effect which is called creole. A creole, is a stable, natural language that originates from a pidgin that has become nativized (that is, acquired by children as their

[27]Pieter Muysken.*op.cit.,* P.1.
[28]Monica Crabtree and Joyce Powers, *Language Files, Materials for an Introduction to Language,* (Columbus: Ohio State University Press, 1991), p.351

primary language)[29]. The vocabulary of a creole language consists of cognates from the parent languages, though there are often clear phonetic and semantic shifts. On the other hand, the grammar often has original features but may differ substantially from those of the parent languages. Most often, the vocabulary comes from the dominant group and the grammar from the subordinate group, where such stratification exists.

E. Interlanguage Theory

1. The definition of Interlanguage

Interlanguage is the linguistic system created by someone in the course learning a foreign language different from either the speakers' first language or the target language being acquired. It reflects the learners' evolving system of rules, and results from variety of processes, including the influence of the first language (transfer), contrastive interference from the target language, and the overgeneralization of newly encountered rules.[30] In Selinker's original definition, interlanguage is the result of having to use a learning system that is not language-specific, and its features resulted from a combination of language transfer (element of L1 are incorrectly imposed onto L2); overgeneralization (using an L2 rule in inappropriate conditions); transfer of training (an artifact of the teacher's style, creating an apparent rule where there is none); learning strategies (choices made by the learner to achieve short-term learning goals, such as simplifying the verb system); and communication strategies (a focus on getting the message delivered, even at the expense of total accuracy).[31] This definition indicates that interlanguage occurs in the case of second or foreign language learning in which a language learner creates a system of a

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[29]*Ibid*., p.359.
[30]David Crystal, *op.cit*., p.200.
[31] Alison Wray et.al., *Projects in Linguistics, Practical Guide to Researching Lenguage*, (New York: Oxford University Press, 1998), p. 72.

language which is different from his/her first or native language and the target language he/she is learning.

2. Approaches to Interlanguage Study

a. Contrastive Analysis

Closely related to the study of Interlanguage are two traditional approaches: Contrastive Analysis (CA) and Error Analysis (EA). Contrastive Analysis refers to the comparison of the linguistic system or grammatical system. Contrastive Analysis was developed and practiced in the 1950s and 1960s as application of structural linguistics to language teaching, and based on the following assumption:

1) The main difficulties in learning a new language are caused by interference from the first language.
2) The difficulties can be predicted by Contrastive Analysis.
3) Teaching materials can make use of Contrastive Analysis to reduce the effects of interference.[32]

b. Error Analysis

1) The Definition of Error Analysis

Error Analysis is defined as a technique for identifying, classifying and systematically interpreting the unacceptable forms produced by someone who is learning a foreign language, using any of the principles and procedures provided by linguistics.[33] Error Analysis may be used as well as or instead of Contrastive Analysis. Error analysis may be carried out in order to:

a) Find out how well someone knows a language.
b) Find out how a person learns a language.

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[32]Jack Richards et.al., *Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics,* (England: Longman Group U.K Limited, 1985)p. 63.

[33] David Crystal, *A Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics:*fourth Ed (U.S.A.: Blackwell, 1997) p.139.

c) Obtain information on common difficulties in language learning, as an aid in teaching or in the preparation of teaching materials.[34]

2) Types of Errors

The first distinction we should make is mistakes and errors. A mistake refers to performance error that is either a random guess or a "slip", which are caused by the lack of attention, fatigue, carelessness, etc. The latter refers to systematic errors of the target language.

Richards divides types of error into two divisions that are widely agreed which are called interlingual errors and intralingual errors believed by linguists. An error that results from language transfer, which is caused by the learner's native language, is called interlingual errors. Intralingual errors refer to those produced in using the target language in own terms. They result from faulty or partial learning of the target language, rather than from language transfer.[35]

F. The Comparison between Indonesian and English Grammar

Both English and Indonesian grammars have either similarities or differences. In the study of the contrastive analysis, the structural or grammatical similarities will lead to facilitation and differences will cause interferences in the context of second/foreign language learning situations. The following are the similarities and the differences between the two languages:

1. The Similarities between Indonesian and English Grammar

There are many similarities between English and Indonesian grammar. As has been stated above, similarities will lead us to facilitation or positive transfer in learning English. This means that the similarities

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[34] Jack Richards et.al., op.cit., p. 96.
[35] *Ibid*, p.146.

make us easier to learn. These are the similarities between the two languages:

a. Both English and Indonesian language use the same 26 letter alphabet, divided similarly between vowels and consonants. Neither language uses accent marks for any of the twenty six letters.

b. The ways of arranging sentences and paragraphs are similar.

c. Both languages use similar methods of classifying word types into nouns, verbs, adverbs, adjectives, pronouns, etc.

d. Both languages form words in the same way by attaching prefixes and suffixes to root words.

e. Both languages have transitive and intransitive structures.

f. Both languages have passive and active voices – Indonesian language uses prefix " *di-"* to indicate the passive voice while Home uses the suffix"-ed".

g. Both languages use similar numbering systems except that Indonesian language uses a decimal (dot) instead of a comma as three digits separator.

h. Both languages use similar punctuation marks such as commas, periods, parenthesis, question marks, quotation marks, hyphens, etc.

i. Capitalization is nearly the same for both languages.

2. **The Differences between Indonesian and English Grammar**

If the similarities between both languages lead us to facilitation, on the other hand, the differences will cause interference or negative transfer in learning English. There are many differences between English and Indonesian grammar, however, these are the most prominent differences between English and Indonesian grammar which may lead us to Interference in learning English:

a. Tenses

English has tenses for verbs while Indonesian language has no similar concept. There are no verb changes in Indonesian language (to show the tenses). We can understand the tenses from time markers.

Example:

1) I go to school (today).

   Saya pergi ke sekolah (hari ini).

2) I went to the office yesterday.

   Saya pergi ke kantor kemarin.

3) He goes to school everyday.

   Dia pergi ke sekolah setiap hari.

b. Gender

Indonesian language does not have gender (male/female/neuter personal pronouns). On the other hand, English makes use of it.   For instance, the same word is used for *he* and *she* (*dia/ia*) or for *his* and *her* (*dia/ia/-nya*). No real distinction is made between "girlfriend" and "boyfriend".

A majority of Indonesian words that refer to people generally have a form that does not distinguish between the sexes. However, unlike English, distinction is made between older or younger. For example, *adik* refers to a younger sibling of either gender and *kakak* refers to an older sibling, again, either male or female. In order to specify the natural gender of a noun, an adjective must be added. Thus, *adik laki-laki* corresponds to "younger brother" but really means "younger male sibling".

c. Word order

In English, Adjectives, demonstrative pronouns and possessive pronouns precede the noun they modify; however, in Indonesian language it is the other way. The noun position is before those modifiers.[36]

Example:

1) big book   : buku besar

2) my car   : mobil saya

3) this house   : rumah ini

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[36] Endang Rumaningsih, *Mahir Berbahasa Indonesia,* (Semarang: Rasail, 2006) p.44

4) black cat   : kucing hitam

d. Articles

An article is a class of words used to signal nouns and to specify their application.[37] In English, articles are *a, an* and *the.* On the other hand, there are no such articles in Indonesian language, although the se- prefix can act in a similar manner such as in:

1) a bar (of chocolate)   : sebatang (coklat)

2) a piece (of cake)   : sepotong (roti)

3) a piece (of paper)   : secarik (kertas)

4) a pair (of shoes)   : sepasang (sepatu)

e. Pronoun

The difference in this aspect is related to the position of the pronoun in a sentence. In Indonesian, the pronoun does not change although the position changes.

Example:

1) *Saya* mempunyai dua mobil (*saya*: subject);

2) Wanita itu teman *saya* (*saya*: possessive adjective);

3) Laki-laki itu memukul *saya* (*saya*: object).

In English, the pronoun changes if the position changes.

Example:

1) *I* have two cars (*I*: subject);

2) The woman is *my* friend (*my*: possessive adjective);

3) The man hit *me* (*me*: object).

f. Linking verbs

In Indonesian language, there are no linking verbs corresponding to the English words "be; am, is, are, was, were, be, been".

Example:

1) My name is Jane   : Nama saya Jane.

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[37] Barbara Burton, Binsar Sihombing, *English Grammar Comprehension,* (PT Grasindo: Jakarta, 2007) p. 52

2) I am American : Saya orang Amerika.

3) I am a doctor   : Saya seorang dokter

4) He is my husband   : Dia suami saya.

5) They are my children : Mereka anak (-anak) saya.

g.   Plurality

      Plural here refers to the form of a noun or a verb which refers to more than one person or thing. English expresses plural by creating patterns how to use –s and –es for regular nouns and no definite rules for irregular nouns. Indonesian on the other hand expresses plural by reduplicating the word being pluralized.[38]

Example:

1) car (cars)   : mobil (mobil-mobil)

2) box (boxes)   : kotak (kotak-kotak)

3) mouse (mice)   : tikus (tikus-tikus)

4) sheep (sheep)   : domba (domba-domba)

h.   Preposition

      A Preposition is a word or group of words that indicates the relation of a substantive (a word or a group of words that functions as a noun) to another substantive.[39] The uses of English prepositions are different from the Indonesian prepositions. In using English preposition there are many things that must be noticed by the learners. They are concerning with the context. The learners sometimes get many problems caused by the differences of English and Indonesian preposition.

Example:

1) Saya melihat sebuah buku *di atas* meja.

   I see a book *on* the table.

2) Saya menggantung lampu itu *di atas* meja.

   I hang the lamp above the table

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[38] Endang Rumaningsih, *op.cit*., p.46.

[39] Barbara Burton, Binsar Sihombing. *op.cit*., p. 36.

From the examples above, the writer knows that Indonesian prepositional phrase *di atas* can be realized into many prepositions in English. In sentence 1, we have to use English preposition *on* since the book is laid on the table, sentence 2, on the other hand, we have to use above since the lamp is in the higher position than the table but it is not laid.

It is important for the Indonesian learners to know English and Indonesian prepositions, because English has different forms of preposition. *Di atas* in Indonesian preposition can be *on*, *above* or *over* in English prepositions.

i. Subject and verb agreement

In English, the form of a verb must agree with the subject. A singular subject uses a singular verb and a plural subject uses a plural verb. The agreement applies particularly for present tense and the sentences which use be (am, is, are) or (have, has) as a main or a helping verb. A form of tense also modifies the form of a verb.[40] In Indonesian, on the other hand, whatever the subject in a sentence is, the verb remains the same as the examples below:

1) They *eat* fried chicken everyday

   Mereka *makan* ayam goreng setiap hari

2) He *eats* fried chicken everyday

   Dia *makan* ayam goreng setiap hari

3) He *ate* fried chicken this morning

   Dia *makan* ayam goreng tadi pagi

4) He is *eating* fried chicken

   Dia sedang *makan* ayam goreng

5) They have *eaten* fried chicken

   Mereka telah *makan* ayam goreng

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[40] *Ibid*. P. 78

G. Previous Researches

The first previous research was conducted by Teguh Prihati entitled "Interference of Indonesian Syntax in Indonesian Learners' English Writing (A Study at the Third Semester Students of ELT Department at IAIN Walisongo Semarang in the Academic Year of 2009/2010)". The result of the study shows that there are four types of syntactical interference in English writing by the third semester students of ELT Department at IAIN Walisongo Semarangin the academic year of 2009/2010 (word order, inflection, derivation and omission). The percentage of each type of error is: word order (19.76%), inflection (11.63%), derivation (24.42%) and omission (44.19%). The result of the interview shows that factors which cause the syntactical interference are: (1) Linguistic factors (students' understanding towards the second language syntactical structure and vocabulary), (2) Non-linguistic factors (students, teachers, psychological motivation and learning environment)[41]

Another previous research was conducted by Nur Faizah. The title of the thesis is "Some Common Errors in Using Simple Present Tense in Writing a Descriptive Text (A Descriptive Study at Eighth Grade Students of MTs Wahid Hasyim Salafiyah Jekulo, Kudus in the Academic Year of 2008/2009)." In this study, there are ten types of error which can be found, they are: (1) omission of be (33.38%), (2) addition of be (10.77%), (3) omission suffix –s/-es (15.38%), (4) addition of suffix –s/es (3.08%), (5) wrong use of verb (16.92%), (6) wrong use of modal auxiliary (4.62%), (7) wrong form of be (1.54%), (8) double be (1.54%), (9) omission of verb (7.69%), (10) wrong form of negative sentence (3.08%). Students' errors are

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[41] Teguh Prihati, *Interference of Indonesian Syntax in Indonesian Learners' English Writing (A Study at the Third Semester Students of ELT Department at IAIN Walisongo Semarang in the Academic Year of 2009/2010)Year of 2008/2009),* (Semarang: Library of Tarbiyah Faculty IAIN Walisoongo Semarang, 2009), Unpublished Thesis.

caused by the first language of the students (interlingual errors) and the second language being learnt (interlingual errors)[42]

From the two previous researches above, the researcher can draw a conclusion that this thesis has both similarities and differences with the two researches. The similarities are that the approach of the theses is the same. Descriptive-Qualitative is the approach which is used by the three theses. On the other side, the difference is located on the focus of the theses.

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[42] Nur Faizah, *Some Common Errors in Using Simple Present Tense in Writing a Descriptive Text (A Descriptive Study at Eighth Grade Students of MTs Wahid Hasyim Salafiyah Jekulo, Kudus in the Academic Year of 2008/2009),* (Semarang: Library of Tarbiyah Faculty IAIN Walisoongo Semarang, 2009), Unpublished Thesis.