CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

II.1. Definition of Interference

According to Lado (1957: 2), "Individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings and the distribution of forms and meanings of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture."

In a similar way, Odlin (1989: 26) stated that "Transfer.... can still be regarded as padding, or the result of falling back on old knowledge, the L1 rule, when new knowledge .... is lacking."

"Transfer will be *negative*, or in the most common terminology, *interference* if differences between the two languages lead to interference, which may finally result in learning difficulties and the making of errors" (Ellis, 1985: 22). On the contrary, transfer will be *positive* when the first and second language habits are similar. In this case, no errors will occur. In short, transfer is the influence resulting from similarities and differences between the target language and any other language that has been previously acquired.

"In doing a language transfer, a learner has to go through two stages, *interlingual* and *intralingual* transfer" (Littlewood, 1984: 23).

13

Interlingual transfer is identified as the beginning stage of learning a second language, which is characterized by a good deal of transfer from the native language. In this early stage, before the system of the second language is familiar, the native language is the only linguistic system that the learner has. For example, a student would rather compose *"They give me basic principles as a foundation in my life like moral, religion, attitude, etc"* than *"They give me basic principles as a foundation in my life such as moral, religion, attitude, etc."*

On the other hand, **intralingual transfer** is the next stage that a learner has to go through in second language learning. In this stage, the learner has already been familiar with the second language system. The process, thus, will not be much different from the first language acquisition. For instance, a student who has already known about Adjective Clauses unconsciously still composes *"Italy who has Pisa Tower or Coliseum."* In fact, who can only be used for people.

II.2. Definition of English Grammar

Grammar is very indispensable function, which supports a good English proficiency. For this reason, it is better for us to know about grammar. Radford (1997:1) suggested, "Grammar is traditionally concerned with the principles, which determine the formation and interpretation of words, phrases, and sentences."

14

In addition to the previous definition, Lado in *Lingustic Across Cultures* (1957: 51) noted "**Grammar** means a set of absolute rules to which the language must adjust." In this fashion, when a speaker or writer uses language that is not in accordance with these fixed rules, the correctness point of view assumes that he/she has a bad grammar.

Meanwhile, in accordance with Faibairn and Winch in *Reading, Writing, and Reasoning* (1996: 108), "**Grammar** is a set of rules to help you to construct sentences that make sense and are in acceptable English." That is to say, poor grammar will mean that what we have written is unintelligible, but even where the reader can comprehend what we have written; one is unlikely to be pleased by having had to attempt to grasp ungrammatical English.

A variety of formal devices may signal grammatical meanings, and this variety causes many of the learning problems in mastering a foreign language. According to Lado (1984: 53 – 54), the most frequent elements used in various languages to signal grammatical structure are:

❖ *Word order*. For example, pocket watch is not the same as watch pocket since the modifier –head relationship is signaled by position in English: whichever word comes first becomes the modifier.

❖ *Inflection*. For example, the "-s" ending to signal plural as in book: books. The "-ed" ending to signal past time in verbs as in jump: jumped, call: called.

15

❖ *Correlation of form.* For example, the correlation of the inflection "-s" in verbs with a third person singular subject such as he, she, it, John, etc. In particular, I know: he knows: she knows: it knows: John knows.

II.3. Grammatical Errors

Errors are likely to emerge when learners make wrong deductions about the nature of the second language, such as assuming that a pattern is general, when in fact there are exceptions. As stated by Ellis (1997:17): "Errors reflect gaps in a learner's knowledge; they occur because the learner does not know what is correct." Ellis (1997: 19) also points out that errors may have different sources, those are:

❖ *Omission* means leaving out an item that is required for an utterance to be considered grammatical. For instance, a learner who leaves out article 'a' and the –s off plural nouns.

❖ *Overgeneralization* means that learners over generalize forms that they consider to be easy to learn and process. One example of this kind of error is the use of 'eated' in place of 'ate'.

❖ *Misinformation* takes place when learners use one grammatical form in place of another grammatical form.

❖ *Misordering* occurs when learners put the words in an utterance in the wrong order.

16

According to Odlin (1989: 37), in speech and writing, there are three types of errors especially likely to arise from similarities and differences in the native and target language:

□ *Substitutions.* They involve a use of native language forms in the target language.

□ *Calques.* They are errors that reflect very closely a native language structure. Certain word-order errors can also be evidence of calques.

□ *Alterations of structures.*

In accordance with the form, Ellis (1997: 20) distinguished errors as follow:

□ *Global errors.* They violate the overall structure of a sentence and result in misunderstanding or even failure to understand the message being conveyed. For example: misuse of connectives, omission, and unnecessary insertion of relative pronouns.

□ *Local errors.* They cause only minor trouble and confusion in a particular clause or sentence without hindering the reader's comprehension of the sentence. For example: misuse of articles, omission of preposition, and lack of agreement between subject and verb, incorrect position of adverbs.

17

II.4. Contrastive Analysis

Contrastive analysis is the comparison of structure of two languages and the mapping of points of difference. In particular, we begin with an analysis of the second language and compare it structure by structure with the native language. According to Ronald Wardaugh in Littlewood's *Foreign and Second Language Learning* (1984:21), in discussing contrastive analysis, we should distinguish it into strong and weak claims. The **strong form** claims that all second language errors and difficulties can be predicted by identifying the differences between the target language and the learner's first language. Meanwhile, the **weak form** claims that contrastive analysis can be used to identify which errors are the results of interference. In this sense, contrastive analysis may work hand in hand with Error Analysis.

Most of the contrastive studies carried out, however, have been based on surface structure characteristics. In accordance with Ellis (1985: 25), the procedures followed are:

(1) *Description*, a formal description of the two languages is made.

(2) *Selection*, certain item such as the auxiliary system or areas known through error analysis are selected for comparison.

(3) *Comparison* means identifying which aspects of the two languages were similar and which were different.

18

II.5. Interlanguage

The term 'interlanguage' was coined by Larry Selinker in Ellis'

Second Language Acquisition as:

> The construction of a linguistic system that is drawn by second language learners, in part, on the learner's first language, which is different from it and also from the target language, but contains elements from both. (1997: 33).

In other words, the interlanguage system is a unique grammar that does not belong to either the source language or the target language. The concept of interlanguage, according to Ellis (1997:33) involves these following premises about second language acquisition:

□ The learner constructs a system of abstract linguistic rules, which underlies comprehension, and production of the second language. This system of rules is viewed as a 'mental grammar' and is referred to as an interlanguage.

□ The learner's grammar is permeable, which means that the grammar is open to influence from the outside and inside as well. For example, the omission, overgeneralization, and transfer errors.

□ The learner's grammar is transitional. In this sense, learners change their grammar from one time to another by adding rules, deleting rules, and restructuring the whole system.

19

II.6. English Writing

People communicate or receive information by employing various ways such as: speaking, writing, pictures, gestures, facial expressions, etc. As one of the ways of communicating, writing gives us the ability to record and convey our experiences and knowledge. In this sense, the goal of writing is to convey information accurately, effectively, and appropriately (Richards, 1990: 101). However, writing is not just a simple matter of transcribing language into written symbols.

Learning to write well in either a first or second language is one of the most difficult tasks that a learner may encounter. Furthermore, learning to write well is a difficult and prolonged process that may cause anxiety and frustration in many learners since writing involves the processes of moving from concepts, thoughts, and ideas into the written language. As stated by Clark and Clark (cited in Richards, 1990: 101), "A written text represents the product of a series of complicated mental operations."

In particular, after having decided about the idea to be expressed, the writer has to consider the kind of text that is trying to be written. Afterwards, the writer will put the ideas into words.

In second and foreign language programs, the teaching of second language writing has often been identical with the teaching of grammar or sentence structure. That is to say, writing serves to reinforce speech in that stresses mastery of grammatical and syntactic forms (Raimes, cited in Richards, 1990: 106). Moreover, writing helps to solidify the students' grasp

20

of vocabulary and structure; and complements other language skills. Writing can also be used as evidence of successful learning as it leads to a product that can be examined and reviewed immediately. In other words, it provides feedback to the teacher and learner on what has been understood.

"Within the written form of the language, there has been greater reliance on the structural elements" (Byrne, 1988: 15). In fact, there are also other devices employed in assessing a written work, those are:

❖ *Spelling*

Spelling is a problem for many users of the language, either one is a native or non-native speaker. However, mis-spelling rarely interferes communication. To sum up, spelling efficiency and improvement is more likely to relate to reading and this again emphasizes the importance of reading in developing writing ability.

❖ *Punctuation*

Punctuation has never been standardized to the same extent as spelling. As a result, variation in usage is more tolerable. Still, we should admit that there are areas of difficulty for most of us in applying the correct punctuation.

❖ *Logical devices*

Logical devices are words or phrases, which indicate meaning relationships between or within sentences. These include those of addition, comparison, contrast, result, exemplification, and so on. To

21

express addition, we may, for example, use the co-ordinator *and*, *furthermore*, *moreover*, *besides*, *in addition (to ...)*, *what is more*, etc.

Good writing skills are essential to academic success and a requirement for many occupations and professions. In adult life, people's writing needs are both institutional and personal (Davies and Widdowson, cited in Richards, 1990: 100). Institutional writing is writing produced in a professional or institutional role, such as that of businessperson, teacher, or student, etc. Personal writing includes personal letters and creative writing.

II.7. Related Studies

It is similar to the statement proposed by some linguists, *Widiastuti (2001)* found out that foreign language learning is better to be started from childhood because it can maximize the success of its learning. As previously seen, there are two stages of transfer: *interlingual transfer* and *intralingual transfer*. The writer in her study tried to delve stages of transfer experienced by the English Department students in their daily speech.

The study conducted by *Meilyani (1997)* reveals some grammatical problems, which often found on second language writing and why those errors had been made. The objects taken by the writer were the students of Extensive Writing class of the English Department of Airlangga University. By using descriptive analysis method, the writer found out that there were some grammatical features that might constitute errors such as agreement, prepositions, articles, verb to be, tenses, and word order.

22

CHAPTER III

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF THE DATA