

CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL REVIEW

A. Sociolinguistics

Interference as a main topic in this research is a part of sociolinguistics, so when we are talking about interference, we should know about the term of sociolinguistics first. Holmes, et. al (1972, p. 7) stated that sociolinguistics is the study of the structure and use of language in its social and cultural contexts. Wardhaugh (1986, p. 12) said that sociolinguistics concerns with investigating the relationship between language and society with the goal of a better understanding of the structure and function of language in a society. Rahardi (2001, p. 12-13) added that sociolinguistics examines a language in relation between language and society, especially speech community in that language.

B. Language Use

In bilingual society like in Indonesia, people use their first language and second language in turns. Words of first language and second language usually are used as technical term in language acquisition. First language is language that child learned first time in the circle of his family. First language can be called as mother language. Most of Indonesian children's first language is their vernacular.

According to Ellis (1986, p. 5) as mentioned by Wati (2015), second language is an additional language learned after someone acquired their mother tongue. When Indonesian children go to school and learn Indonesian language after they acquired their mother tongue, their second language is Indonesian language

(Sumarsono, 2007, p. 49). If we are following a concept that bilingual is ranged from fully mastery of two languages to the understanding of second language, it can be concluded that all of Indonesian children in schools are bilinguals (Chaer, 1994, p. 66).

C. Interference

1. Definition of Interference

According to Hanna, (2009, p. 54), interference is language produced by foreign learners/students which is influenced, and even distorted by mother tongue of the learners/students. Meanwhile, Odlin (1997, p. 27) argued that transfer or interference is the influence resulting from similarities and difference between the target language and any other language that has been previously (and perhaps imperfectly) acquired. Interference may be viewed as an adaptive strategy in which the speaker tries to speak the interlocutor's mother tongue although he has little proficiency in it.

According to statements above, interfere or transfer is language produced by the learners which influence on their mother tongue. It is occurs because the difference between native language and target language, because native language and target language have own system. The mother tongue always influences in foreign language.

2. Types of Interference

Jendra (1991, p. 108) as mentioned by Ruriana (2011) distinguished interferences into five aspects of language, Interference in the field of sound

system (phonology), Interference on word formation grammar (morphology), Interference in the syntax (syntax), Interference on vocabulary (lexicon), Interference in the field of administration of meaning (semantics).

Weinreich clarified the term "interference" to pass on "deviations from the norms of either language which *recur* in the speech of bilinguals as a result of language contact" as follows (Poplack, 1983, p. 11). In addition, Suwito (1983, p. 55) as mentioned by Avid (2008, p. 26) suggests that interference can occur in all components of language, namely phonology, morphology, syntax, semantic, and lexical (vocabulary).

According to the explanation above, the types of interference based on components of language divided into four; they are phonic interference, grammatical interference, lexical interference, and semantic interference. Meanwhile the researcher will focus on grammatical interference when speaking that consists of syntactic and morphological interference.

a. Phonic Interference

Phonic interference occurs when the speaker identifies the sound of mother language system used in the target language, after that the speaker pronounces again and regulates the pronunciation using the law of the source language phoneme. It affects the inappropriate pronunciation of phonetic sounds in the second language caused by the existence of different phonetic structures from the point of view of the mother tongue or the first language (Lekova, 2009).

b. Grammatical Interference

It occurs when the language learners identify the grammatical pattern from their first language and applied in the target language, this type occurs in morphological and syntactic interference.

1. Morphological Interference

According to Suwito (1983, p. 55) as mentioned by Avid (2008, p. 27) morphological interference occur if the formation of word in a language absorbs the affixes from other languages. The Affix of a language used to spell a word in another language, while affixes consist of prefix, suffix, inserts, as well as combinations of affixes. For examples, morphological interference from Javanese into Indonesian language. In words *ketrabak/ kebawa* and *kebagusan/ keasinan*

Javanese	Indonesian
<i>Ke-tabrak</i>	<i>Tertabrak</i>
<i>Ke-bawa</i>	<i>Terbawa</i>
<i>Ke-asin-an</i>	<i>Terlalu asin</i>
<i>Ke-bagus-an</i>	<i>Terlalu bagus</i>

2. Syntactic Interference

Interference occurs when the syntactic structure of a language is absorbed by the other language (Suwito, 1983, p. 56) as mentioned by Avid (2008, p. 27). Interference can be seen in the use of syntactic fragments of words, phrases

and clauses in sentences (Chaer, 2004, p. 124). For example, English and Indonesian phrases.

English

Royal Jelita Hotel

Indonesian

Hotel Royal Jelita

The other example can be seen in the sentences, *Dina reads the poetry with beautiful*. In English this sentence is not exist, because the right form is *Dina reads the poetry beautifully*. From this case, the interference can be proved, cause the sentence “*Dina reads the poetry with beautiful*”.

c. Lexical Interference

Interference occurs as the transfer of morpheme or word of first language into second language usage, or it can also occur as the expansion of first language’s simple word, that is expanding the existing meaning so get new word, or it can occur as combination of both (Yusuf, 1994, p. 76). For example in the sentence *semua ini butuh **planning** yang matang*. It has the lexical interference from English to Indonesian language.

d. Semantic Interference

Yusuf, S (1994, p. 82) divided semantic interference into three types; *first*, Expansive interference is the importation of vocabularies elements of language into the other language. for examples are words such as *demokrasi*, *politik*, and *revolusi* are imported from Europe culture and vocabulary into Indonesia culture. *Second*, Additive interference is the addition of new vocabulary with special meaning although the existing word is still used and having complete

meaning. For example is the word **uncle** from English vocabulary besides the word *paman* in Indonesia language. *Third*, Replasive interference is interference which occurs as vocabulary replacement as change of meaning. For example the word *saya* is changed from the old Malay language *sahaya*.

3. Some Factors that Cause the Language Interference

According to the previous descriptive that language interference usually occurs in second language acquisition process. There are some factors which may causes some learners in making on second language acquisition process.

1. Learner's First Language or Mother Tongue

Ellis in Chaer (2003, p. 236) stated that generally mother tongue or the language that firstly acquired has many influences in second language acquisition process. Mother tounge even has believed as trouble in the process. A learner consciously or not transfers the first language elements when he uses the second language and a result, interference will occur.

Constractive theory stated that learning second language depends on linguistics ability which the learner has been acquiring before. Using second language is a transfer process. So, if the structure of language which learner has acquired or the first language equation with the target language, the learner will be easy in the transfer process. Otherwise, if the structure of both languages than many differences, so there will be many difficulties for the learner to acquire the second language.

The influence of first language in transfer action will be over bigger when using the second language if the learner is not practicing the second language

continuously. Theoretically, this influence cannot be avoided, because the first language has a very strong impression for the learner. But by a continuous habituation with the second language, the influence can be decreased (2003, p. 261).

2. Language Social Environment

Language social environment includes all people around language speaker those have a role as the second and the third person in language term. In simple word, language environment also can be narrowed into friends in conversation. Friends in conversation have a great cause in forming language speech for language speaker. If the friend used to speak with language speaker, there will be some troubles for the speaker when he tries to talk in another language at another time.

Tjohno (1984) in Chaer (1995, p. 17) stated that language social environment is everything what language learner hears and sees which is related with the target language. Language social environment can be divided into *formal environment and informal environment*.

Formal environment of language learning which focuses to the acquisition in structures of target language consciously. Krashen in Chaer (2003, p. 263) stated that formal language social environment has some characteristics are: *First*, an artificial situation. *Second*, A part of whole language teaching activity in the class. *Third*, At the environment, the learner is directed to do some language activities as practices of language structures which has gotten, and then

the teacher will give a feedback or correction for the error and mistakes the learners made.

In fact, formal language social environment is not only limited in the class the most important thing in formal environment, the learners acquire target language structures consciously which is either from the teacher, literacyn books, or even from someone else outside class. Meanwhile, Informal environment is natural, not artificial. Language in formal environment is including language which is used in practicing to talk with classmates, parents, or someone else without a pressure in acquisition of target language structure, and there is no correction of errors and mistakes (2003, p. 30).

3. Lack of Second Language Vocabulary Knowledge

Bhela stated that in practicing using secong language, a language learner temporarily will borrow his first language's word to express his mind in speaking, if he does not know the word's meaning in second language. Borrowing words of one language into another language is also called as loanword or calque which means a phrase or word borrowed form another language by literal word-for word tranlation.

Loanword or calque is also one interference variation. So if a language learner does not have many second language vocabulary knowledge, she will have big possibility to make language interference (Chaer, 1995, p. 26).

4. Lack of Knowledge About The Different of Language System Between First Language and Second Language

Bhela (1999, p. 12) stated that the second language learner did not know the correct second language is, she might make interference when practicing it. Involuntarily, she will make some errors and mistakes because of his lack of knowledge about the difference of language system between first language and second language.

It appears to be much more difficult for an adult to learn a second language system that is as well learned as the first language. Typically, a person learns a second language partly in terms of the kinds meaning already in the first language. Baljit Bhela in her journal stated that in learning a second language, first language (L1) responses are grafted on to second language (L2) responses, and both are made to a common set of meaning responses. Other things being equal, the learner is less fluent in L2, and the kinds of expression he/she uses in L2 bear tell tale traces of the structure of L1.

Carroll (1898) in Bhela (1994, p. 4) said that the circumstances of learning a second language are like those of a mother tongue. Sometimes there are interferences and occasionally responses from one language system will intrude into speech in the other language. It appears is most successful when the situation in which the two languages (L1 and L2) are learned, are kept as distinct as possible. To successfully learn L2 requires the L2 to often preclude the L1 structures from the L2 learning process, if the structures of the two languages are distinctly different.

D. Grammatical errors

Grammar exists in every language including English. According to Subasini, et.al (2013, p. 56), all languages have grammar, and each language has its own grammar but grammar of English is more complex and difficult to be taught. According to Shiu (2011, p. 2), English grammar is complex, regardless of how “complexity” is defined, it stands to reason that the more complex a grammar structure is, the more difficult it would be for L2 learners to learn. Therefore, English grammar is commonly not easy and need long process.

Grammar is divided in two aspects called morphology and syntax. As stated by James (1998, p. 154), grammar has traditionally been discussed in terms of morphology and syntax, the former handling word structure, the latter handling structures ‘larger’ than the word. So, these two aspects have different function and need different comprehension. In linguistics, grammar is the set of logical and structural rules that govern the composition of sentences, phrases and words in any given natural language. However, this part only discusses *morphological errors and syntactical errors*.

a. Morphological Error

Morphology is the identification, analysis and description of the structure of words. In English there are five lexical word types: noun, verb, adjective, adverb and preposition. Morphology error is a failure to comply with the norm in supplying any part of any instance of those word classes: six book* and abolish*ment (√tion) are noun morphology errors; *bringed and *drinked (√brught, drunk) are verb morphology errors; visit me soon*ly is an adverb

morphology error. Preposition happens to have no morphology (James, 1998, p. 155)

b. Syntactical Error

Syntax is an arrangement of words in sentences, clauses, and phrases, and the study of the formation of sentences and the relationship of their component parts. Syntax errors “are errors that affect text larger than the word, namely phrase, clause, sentence, and ultimate paragraph.” (James, 1998, p. 156)

In this study language components are limited to morphology and syntax, which follow Politzer and Romirez’ model as a guideline in Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982, p. 146). In this study language components are limited to morphology and syntax, which follow Politzer and Romirez’ model as a guideline in Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982, p. 146).

**Table.2.1:
Classification of Morphological Errors**

Morphology	
1. Indefinite article incorrect <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • a used for <i>an</i> before vowels • <i>an</i> used for a 	2. Possessive case incorrect <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Omission of <i>'s</i>
3. Third person singular incorrect <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Failure to attach <i>-s</i> • Wrong attachment of <i>-s</i> 	4. Simple past tense incorrect <p>a. Regular past tense</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Omission of <i>-ed</i> • Adding <i>-ed</i> to past already formed <p>b. Irregular past tense</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Regularization by adding <i>-ed</i> • Substitution of simple non-past • Substitution of past participle

<p>5. Past participle incorrect</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Omission of <i>-ed</i> 	<p>6. Comparative adjective/ verb incorrect</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Use of <i>more +er</i>
<p>7. Free Morphemes</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • False Friend • Similar in meaning • Similar in form • Literal Translation • Misspelling 	

Source: Politzer & Ramirez's (1973) in Dulay, et. al (1982) & Leacock, et. al (2010)

Table.2.2:
Classification of Syntactical Errors

Syntax	
<p>1. Noun phrase</p> <p>a. Determiners</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Omission of the article • Substitution of definite article for possessive pronoun • Use of possessive with the article • Use of wrong possessive <p>b. Nominalization</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Simple verb used instead <i>-ing</i> • Preposition <i>by</i> omitted <p>c. Number</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Substitution of singular for plurals • Substitution of plurals for singular <p>d. Use of pronouns</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Omission of the subject pronoun • Omission of the <i>dummy</i> pronoun <i>it</i> • Omission of object pronouns 	<p>2. Verb phrase</p> <p>a. Omission of verb</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Omission of main verb • Omission of <i>to be</i> • Use of wrong <i>to be</i> <p>b. Use of progressive tense</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Omission of <i>be</i> • Replacement of <i>-ing</i> by the simple verb form • Substitution of the progressive for the simple past • Substitution of the progressive for the future tense • Substitution of the progressive for the simple present <p>c. Agreement of subject and verb</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Disagreement of subject and verb person • Disagreement of subject and number • Disagreement of subject and tenses

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Subject pronoun used as a redundant element • Alternating use of pronouns by number as well as gender • Use of <i>me</i> as a subject <p>e. Use of preposition</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Omission of preposition • Misuse of preposition 	
<p>3. Verb-and-verb construction</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Embedding of a noun-and-verb construction in another noun-and-verb construction • Omission of <i>to</i> in identical subject construction • Omission of <i>to</i> in the verb-and-verb construction • Attachment of the past marker to the dependent verb 	<p>4. Word order</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Repetition of the object • Adjectival modifiers placed after noun
<p>5. Some transformation</p> <p>a. Negative transformation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Formation of <i>no</i> or <i>not</i> without the auxiliary <i>do</i> • Multiple negation <p>b. Question transformation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Omission of auxiliary • Use of wrong auxiliary <p>c. <i>There</i> transformation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Use of <i>is</i> instead of <i>are</i> • Omission of <i>there</i> • Use of <i>it was</i> instead of <i>there was</i> <p>d. Subordinate clause transformation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Use <i>for</i> for <i>so that</i> • Use of indicative for conditional 	<p>6. Adverb Phrase</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Regularization by adding – <i>ly</i> <p>7. Others</p> <p>a. Perfect Tense</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Substitution of the simple present for the perfect tense <p>b. Passive Voice</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The use of verb 1 instead of verb 3 in passive voice • The use of verb ing instead of verb 3 in passive voice

Source: Politzer & Ramirez's (1973) in Dulay, et. al (1982) & Leacock, et. al (2010)

E. Banjar Dialect

1. History of Banjar Dialect

One of many regional languages is Banjar language. Banjar language is the language that is used by Banjar tribe. Geographically Banjar tribe originally occupied almost the entire region of South Kalimantan province. Many people living in the province of South Kalimantan and in some places in the province of Central Kalimantan and East Kalimantan called Banjar people. Their language is called Banjar language.

Based on Djantera (1986) said that gave information about the two dialects of Banjar, they are Banjar language Kuala and Hulu. Banjar Hulu dialect have a structure in every province. Here are some descriptions about structure of Banjar Hulu dialect.

2. The Structure of Banjar Hulu Dialect

Ayatrohaedi in Djantera, dkk (1981, p. 28-36) describe shortly about phonology and morphology systems in Banjar Hulu dialect.

1. Phonology

1.1 Consonant

Banjar Hulu have 18 consonants, they are /b/, /p/, /t/, /d/, /c/, /j/, /k/, /g/, /s/, /d/, /m/, /n/, /ny/, /ng/, /l/, /v/, /w/, /y/. The variation is not only limited to environmental sounds phonetically similar between /p/ and /b/; /t/ and /d/; /c/ and /j/, /l/ and /v/, but can also occur on two sounds phonetically different as between /p/ and /h/ in *pingkalung* and *hingkalung* meaning 'throw something'.

The variation appear in the letter /l/ and /y/, and also in the letter /l/ and /t/, in the word of '*kalayangan*' with *kalalangan* and also *katayangan*. The variation also can be found between /g/ and /j/ in the word of *galatik* and *jالاتيك*, with means 'the names of bird (gelatik)'. The variation also can be found in the letter /r/, /k/, and /h/ as in the word *pingkur*, which is manifested in the word *pingkuk*.

The variations appear between /d/ and /e/ as in the word *bedudus* besides *balulus* which means 'ceremonial bath-shower'. The variations also can be found in the letter /l/ and /n/ as in the word *palindang* besides *panidangan* which means 'room for relax'.

1.2 Vokal

Vocals are found in Banjar Hulu only three pieces, they are /a/, /i/, /u/. The variations letter could also occur between vowel /a/ with /i/ as in the word *balatuk* varied with *bilatuk*, "a kind of a bird", and also in the word /*pacirin*/ and /*paciran*/ is the name of location where the wash and defecate. The variations letter that are found between letter /a/ to /u/ as in the word *kangkulai*, which means "a kind of owl".

In the script /m/ to the consonant /b/ can be found in the word *balatuk* varied with *ambalatuk*, which means 'kind of bird', and also in the variations letter between /i/ and /u/ can be found in the word *jilatak* be *julatik* which means 'Wren bird'.

Diphthong

Diphthong are found in Banjar Hulu only three vowels, in accordance with the number of vocal. They are /ai, au, ui /. Diphthong manifestation can be found in all areas of Banjar Hulu. In such manifestation there is no variation between / ai / at / au / or with / ui / so it does not show the differences are phonemic and dialectical.

1.3 The Syllable

a. The Form of Syllable

The form of the syllable Banjar Hulu basically shows four types, they are (1) a word consisting of one vowel (u), (2) syllables consisting of a vowel followed by a consonant (v), (3) one word comprise a vowel followed by a consonant (vh), and (4) one word consisting of tribes that preceded and followed by a consonant (kuk).

b. The Syllable in Words

The words of Banjar Hulu can be divided into four types based on the number of syllables into constituent. The words are: (1) one syllable, (2) two syllables (3) three syllables, (4) four syllables.

2. Morphology

2.1 Affixes

The affixes in Banjar Hulu language are *man-*, *ba-*, *di-*, *ta-*, *pan-*, *ka-*, *sa-*, *sing-*, *sapa-*, *tapa-*, *-an*, *-i*, *-akan*, *-nya*; which is in the form of a combination, especially the prefix and suffix are *man-i*, *man-kan*, *ba-an*, *di-i*, *di-akan*, *ta-i*, *ta-akan*, *pan-an*, *pan-nya*, *ka-an*, *sa-an*, *sa-nya*, and *sing-an*.

All kinds of prefixes can be found in all parts of the Banjar Hulu usage. The system of word formation through affixes very effective because it has a great influential on the function and meaning. According to Durasid in Djantera (1981), the affixes *pan-*, *pan-an*, and *sa-an* generally serves to form nouns and the affixes *man-*, *ta-*, *-i*, *-akan*, *-an*, *man-i*, *man-akan*, *ba-an*, *ta-i*, *ta-akan* will serve to form a verb, for example, in the content of *isi - maisiakan* --- which means “to fill up”. The affixes *pan-*, *pan-nya*, *ka-an*, *dan-an* generally also serves to form an adjective, while to form the number of words by using affixes *sa-*, *ba-*, and *man-*.

2.2 Reduplication

In the system of word formation in Banjar Hulu through reduplication process also encountered evenly around the area of usage. All types of nouns, verbs, adjectives and numbers can be processed by a system of reduplication, while in the form of reduplication. They are: In part of reduplication, reduplication with variation of phonemes, and reduplication with affixes. As in words *julung-julung* be *jujulung* which means ‘a kind of fish’, and also in the words *bingkasan* be *bibingkasan* which means ‘gift’.

The form of reduplication that found in the whole of words such as, *rumah-rumah* ---- “home”, *datang-datang* --- “come”, the form of reduplication in part that use vowel prefixed with suffixes *-an*, *ka-an*, *ba-an*, as in the word *anak* -- *-aanakan* --- , *Igal* --- *iigalan* --- , *untung* --- *uuntungan*, *ampih* --- *baampihan*, *ungah* --- *kaungahan*. the form of reduplication in part that use consonant prefixes with suffixes *-an*, *ka-an*, *ba-an*, as in the word, *rumah* --- *rurumahan*, *tarus* --- *batatarusan*, *pintar* --- *kapipintaran*. The system of reduplication in Banjar Hulu generally does not cause the displacement of speech. The part of speech normally remain as the basic of part of speech.

2.3 Compounding

Compounding as a system of word formation in Banjar Hulu also can be found equally in all areas of usage. The system of coalescence can be formed from the type or the same of part of speech and can also in other part of speech. This compounding form generally at least two words.

The meaning that arise as a result of compounding process, usually no longer shows the meaning of each element. The meaning more disposed to rise a new meaning in accordance with its function as a new words. The Compounding it can be a noun with a noun, verb with verb, adjective with adjective, noun with verb, verb with noun, noun with adjective, noun with number. The variation that arise in connection with this compounding was not on the system itself, but in the realization of the compound as a word.

F. Speaking

Speaking is an interactive process of meaning construction that involves producing and receiving and processing information. Its form and meaning are dependent on the context in which it occurs. Including the physical environment and the purpose for speaking it's often spontaneous open-ended and involving. However speech is unpredictable (Thornbury, 2004, p. 4).

With the recent growth of English as an international language of communication, there is a clearly needed for many learners to speak and interact in multiplicity of situation through the language, be it for foreign travel, business or other professional reason. In many contexts speaking is often the skill upon which a person is judged of face value. In other words, people may often form judgment about our language competence from our speaking rather than from any of the other language skills. Here, a speaker should at least pronounce the words well, choose the suit dictions, and try to do grammatically correct though, perhaps in any cases, it is common when a speaker speaks without having good attention at accuracy or fluency.