

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERRATURE

This chapter, the researcher present the result of reviewing of related literature which covers Definition of interference, Type of interference, Factors that Cause Language Interference, Effects of Language Interference, Definition of Error analysis, Definitions of speaking, Spoken English, and Previous Studies

A. Interference

1. Definition of Interference

Accroding in dictionary state interference is the process in which two or more light, sound, or electromagnetic waves of the same frequency combine to reinforce or cancel each other, the amplitude of the resulting wave being equal to the sum of the amplitudes of the combining waves.

Interference or language transfer is closely associated with behaviourist theories of L2 (second language) learning. Commonly it is widely accepted that it occurs because of the influence of the learners' native language (L1). The use of first language has influenced the speakers conduct interactions using L2 or L3 in classroom (El-dali, 2012; Alhammad, 2017). As consequently, it brings an impediment to L3 learning. As multilinguals, Indonesian people could not avoid language transfer or interference. They speak Javanese as L1 or mother tongue, Indonesian as L2 or standard

language (Nurhayati, 2014c), English as foreign language or L3 (Nurhayati, 2016d). Javanese as one dialect is used from generation to generation in a society in Indonesia (2016e). Using dialect is a part of speaking and it is defined as a process of using verbal and non verbal symbols in any contexts (Nurhayati, 2016c, 2016f).

According to Dulay et al (1982, p.98) interference is the automatic transfer, due to habit, of the surface structure of the first language onto the surface of the target language. Interference is the deviation of target language as a result of their familiarity with more than one language. They differentiate interference into two parts, the psychological and sociolinguistic. The psychological refers to the influence of old habits when new ones are being learned, whereas sociolinguistic refers to interactions of language when two language communities are in contact. Therefore students will find it difficult in mastering the second language due to the interference, which is influenced by old habit, familiar with mother tongue and interaction of two languages in the communities.

When an individual's understanding of one language has an impact on his or her understanding of another language, that individual is experiencing language transfer. There can be negative transfers, otherwise known as interference, when the understanding of one language complicates the understanding of another language. Alternatively, there can be positive

transfers such that knowing one language can aid in developing skills for a second language. Language interference is the effect of language learners' first language on their production of the language they are learning. It means that the speaker's first language influences his/her second or and his/her foreign language.

According to Nurhayati, (2017) stated that interference as influence of one grammar language could arise in teaching learning process. It is well known that in large number settings, including Indonesia, teaching English are associated with using grammar correctly. This is because it is the core element of language teaching and must be attained by foreign language learners. However, the notion of grammar itself is complicated and abstract to conceptualize. Once, it was regarded as 'the science of language' in its broadest understanding. In contrast, it can also, in its narrowest sense, be defined as the combination of words to form phrases and sentences.

2. Types of interference

Interference just can occur in all languages speech and it can be divided into several types. Interference has many aspects of language, such as phonology, morphology, syntax, and lexicon.

According to Weinreich (1953: 14-47) divides interference into three kinds; they are phonological, grammatical and lexical interference.

Grammatical interference covers morphological interference and syntactical interference.

1. Phonological Aspect

A mother tongue may assist learners in learning the target language when both languages have similar patterns, which make them easily transferrable and hence able to apply the patterns into the target language. Justice (2004:15) asserts “there is not a perfect correspondence between spelling and sounds in English”. This logic or illogic of English is truly distinctive from Indonesian, which always has a similar way to pronounce phonemes which are usually pronounced as they are written. In reality, Indonesian students often imitate this practice when they pronounce or read English words.

One of the most important elements is the segmental sounds of English, which for many Indonesian students are complicated to pronounce well. Although the segmental sounds or so called consonants and vowels exist in all languages in the world, they have distinctive and variations when comparing one to another. These fundamental sounds need to be pronounced accurately to accomplish the correct sounds of the English language to achieve exact meanings and comprehension. Justice in Chaira (2015: 471) strongly recommends that to be like a native speaker, every student should learn to hear and pronounce English well.

Phonological interference happens when bilingual speaker perceives and reproduce a phoneme of one language in terms of another language (Chaer and Agustina, 2004: 122). In phonological level, the problem of interference concerns 15 the manner in which a speaker perceives and reproduces the sounds of one language in terms of another. This interference occurs in the speech of bilingual as a result of the fact that there are different elements in sound system between one language and another, or between native and foreign language. In some cases, the native and foreign languages have the similarity in sound system and in grammatical system. However, in most cases, both languages have difference either in sound system or in grammatical system. Different elements in sound system between both languages may be of several kinds.

First, it is the existence of a given sound in the latter, which is not found in the former. Second, both languages have the same phonetic features but they are different in their distribution, namely: when and where they may occur in an utterance. Third, both have similar sounds that have different variants or allophones. Interference arises when a bilingual speaker identifies a phoneme of one language with that in another. For instance, an Indonesian speaking English may pronounce bag as [bæk] instead of [bæg]. This interference occurs because of the fact that /g/ never

arises in the final position of Indonesian language words; so, /g/ is identified as /k/ in that position. In addition, he may replace /v/ with /p/, /f/ with /p/; he may not use a /p/ with aspiration.

2. Grammatical Aspect

Nowadays, the study of grammar plays a significant role to form good sentences. Without grammar, the spoken and the written language will be useless and difficult to comprehend. In other words, grammar facilitates the learners to understand what people said or written both in native and in target language communication.

Every language has its own distinct grammar. Either Indonesia or English has its own unique grammar. Both languages have different patterns, for instance word order phrase, which word defines and which word is defined. This pattern is “to show which of two collected substantives in secondary and which in primary” (Jespersen, 1981: 376). In Bahasa Indonesia, the defined word (primary) of a nominal sentence is put in the first position, but it is placed in the second on English.

In Bahasa Indonesia:	<u>rumah</u>	<u>baru</u>
	primary	secondary
In English:	<u>new</u>	<u>house</u>
	Secondary	primary

However, both languages also have a common pattern in sentence structure, for example, Subject-Predicate-Object in:

Human	needs	water
Manusia	butuh	air
S	P	O

According to the structuralism point of view, grammar is the study of the rules governing the use of a language. “For British linguist, such study is called syntax, but for American linguist, it is named as a grammar” (Farkhan, 2006: 71). The word grammar is used in many different senses. Most people are familiar with grammar both as a subject they studied in school and as a kind of language etiquette.

The smallest unit in syntax is sentence. According to Frank, “a sentence consists of a subject and a predicate” (Frank, 1972: 1). This definition is more 18 satisfactory, because it is possible to identify the structural functions of subject and predicate in a sentence.

As stated before, grammar is not only about syntax but also morphology. Morphology is how people form words. Carstair-McCarty states, “The area of grammar concerned with the structure of words and with relationship between words, involving the morphemes that compose them is technically called morphology” (Carstair-McCarty, 2002: 16).

Two basic divisions in morphology are lexical morphology (word formation) and inflectional morphology (conjugation and declination).

People ability to arrange words in different ways allow them to produce on infinity of grammatical sentences, but since not all arrangements are grammatical, their grammar must consist of rules to arrange them. Violations of the rules result in ungrammatical sentences. From the statement above, grammar plays a significant role to make someone clearly understand what people said or wrote. Grammar helps a person to speak and to write well because it enables people to comprehend and produce language.

When using target language, learners sometimes gets influence from their native language, for instance, when Indonesians speak in English, they tend to transfer the structure of Bahasa into English. It is shown that Bahasa interference their English. If these two language structures were same, it would not be an important problem, because it is helpful based on alignment and similarity. This transfer is called as positive transfer. However, the opposite case would happen if 19 the two systems were different then the chaos begins, and this confused transfer is known as negative transfer (Tarigan, 1988: 14).

Negative transfer occurs when a speaker adopts the system of his/her native language on the target language that was not the same language, for example, Indonesian language has defined-define (DM) pattern, but in contrast English has define-defined (MD) pattern. Therefore, when they translated a phrase new house into English, their translation would be house new that should be new house. Bilingual speakers, aware or not, often do this kind of transfer that more recognized as language interference.

Language interference commonly occurs in an open society, either in bilingual or multilingual countries, such as Indonesia. At a glance, language interference is similar to code mixing or code switching, but actually these two language problems have their own different perspective.

Grammatical interference occurs when the language learners identify the grammatical pattern from their first language and applied in the target language. Interference on morphology and syntax is called grammatical interference. The grammatical interference happens when a bilingual speaker transfers his/her source language system gradually into his/her target language at many linguistics parts, such as word order, subject-verb agreement, and so on. Yusuf (1994: 71) decided grammatical interference in morphological and syntactical interference.

a) Morphological interference

Morphology is study about word formation as Thornbury (1999: 2) says morphology is the system of rules that cover the formation of words.

Interference can occur in this level. For instance, when an Indonesian language speaker uses word *go*, it's not a mistake he use one word *go* but when use it in a simple sentence in Indonesian language *dia pergi* instead of *he goes* or *she goes*. A student learning English may be say *he go*. This is caused of no system of agreement or concord between noun and verb (subject and predicate) in Indonesian language; all the subjects are followed by the same predicate (verb) such as *I go, She go, They go* (Mu'in, 2008: 7).

b) Syntactical interference

Chaer (1994: 206) states that syntax talks about word in relation with the other words; or the other functions as an utterance. He added that syntax discusses the arrangement of words into the larger units, which is called syntax unit (Chaer, 2009: 3).

Syntactical interference happens if one sentence's structure is absorbed by another sentence's structure (Suwito, 1983: 56). It

can be seen from the using of word, phrase and clause in sentence (Chaer and Agustina, 2004: 162).

Interference can be seen in the use of syntactic fragments of words, phrases and clauses in sentences (Chaer and Agustina, 2004: 124). For example, in making a plural noun, Indonesian language shows a different way from English language, when he wants to say “many color” instead of “many colors”. This can be explained that he is influenced by the Indonesian language word-order *banyak warna*. Although, a word *banyak* is a marker of plurality, it is not followed by a plural noun *warna-warna*.

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*” is the translation from the sentence “*Dina membaca puisi dengan indah*”

3. Lexical Aspect

Weinreich (1968: 47) says that lexical interference can occur when one vocabulary interferes with another.

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: 76).

When I came to Bali island I found the people came to the ceremony and menabur bara api on the stage. It has the lexical interference from Indonesian to English language.

3. Factors that Cause Language Interference

Interference is a general problem that occurs in bilingualism. There are many factors that contribute interference (Weinrich, 1970:64-65):

- 1) **Speaker bilingualism background.** Bilingualism is the major factor of interference as the speaker is influenced by both of the source and the target language. Indonesia's student who is Javanese and is studying good Bahasa tends to put his Javanese language into Indonesia. Look the example, 'Andi, apakah kamu bisa mengerjakan soal matematika ini?' tanya guru. Then Andi answered, "Tidak bisa, Bu Guru, *lha wong* itu *angel*." The impression of '*lha wong*' is usual in Javanese cultural insight. The word '*angel*' means difficult in Bahasa, the student should reply his teacher with "Tidak bisa, Bu Guru, soalnya sulit". Regarding this condition, the student is a second grade of elementary school.
- 2) **Disloyalty to target language.** Disloyalty to target language will cause negative attitude. This will lead to disobedience to target language structure and further force the bilingualist to put uncontrolled structure of

his first language elements to output in practicing words utterances both oral and written. Students whose language background of TL is limited tend to put words in sentences or oral in structure and sense of first language. For example is occurred in Facebook status made by an Indonesian, “So must to spirit.” While the correct sentence is “I must keep spirit.”

- 3) **The limited vocabularies of TL mastered by a learner.** Vocabularies of certain language mostly are about words of surroundings connected to life. Thus, a learner who is willing to master another language will meet new words differ from his native words. In order to be able to speak as natives of TL, vocabularies take a big role. The more vocabularies someone has, the better he masters TL. Foreign language learner will try to put deliberately his native word to state some points when he cannot find the best words of TL. For example, when an Indonesian wants to mention ‘rambutan’, he stills mention ‘rambutan’ when he speaks in English. Since there is no English word for ‘rambutan’.
- 4) **Needs of synonym.** Synonym in language usage plays an important role as word chosen variation in order not to repeat similar word during the communication process (redundancy). Implementing synonym in a language contact will contribute to interference in the form of adoption

and borrowing of new words from SL to TL. Thus, need of synonym for certain word from SL to TL is seemingly aimed to intensify meaning.

- 5) **Prestige and style.** Applying unfamiliar words (foreign words) during a communication practice which dominant words are languages of both speaker and receiver is something else. Those unfamiliar words usage is aimed to get a pride. Interference will appear as there are certain words even though the receiver probably cannot catch the real idea of the speech. The usual unfamiliar words usage will become a style of the user. Unfortunately, the user sometimes does not understand the real meaning whether the meaning is denotative or connotative. The common feature is that many language users put derivational affix *-ization* in every word. To note, affix-*ization* is an adopting and borrowing process from English to state nouns.

According to Lott (1983: 258 -259), there are three factors that cause the interference:

- 1) **The interlingual factor**

Interlingual transfer is a significant source for language learners. This concept comes from contrastive analysis of behaviouristic school of learning. It stresses upon the negative interference of mother tongue as the only source of errors. The construction 'I like to read' is uttered as 'I read to like' by many Hindi

speakers. In Hindi, the verb is pre-positioned while in English it is post positioned. This type of error is the result of negative transfer of L1 rules to L2 system.

Commonly, errors are caused by the differences between the first and the second language. Such a contrastive analysis hypothesis occurs where structures in the first language which are different from those in the second language produce the errors reflecting the structure of first language. Such errors were said to be due to the influence of learners' first language habits on second language production (Dulay et. al, 1982: 97).

Cited in Richard (1967: 19) says that errors are the result of interference in learning a second language from the habits of the first language. Because of the difference in system especially grammar, the students will transfer their first language into the second language by using their mother tongue system.

2) **The over extension of analogy**

Usually, a learner has been wrong in using a vocabulary caused by the similarity of the element between first language and second language, e.g. the use of cognate words (the same form of word in two languages with different functions or meanings). The example is the

using of month and moon. Indonesian learners may make a mistake by using month to say moon in the space.

3) **Transfer of structure**

There are two types of transfer according to Dulay et.al (1982: 101), positive transfer and negative transfer. Negative transfer refers to those instances of transfer, which result in error because old habitual behavior is different from the new behavior being learned. On the contrary, positive transfer is the correct utterance, because both the first language and second language have the same structure, while the negative transfer from the native language is called interference.

Interference is the deviation of target language as a result of their familiarity with more than one language. Dulay et.al (1982: 98) differentiates interference into two parts, the psychological and sociolinguistic. The psychological refers to the influence of old habits when new ones are being learned, whereas sociolinguistic refers to interactions of language when two language communities are in contact. Therefore students will find it difficult in mastering the second language due to the interference, which is influenced by old habit, familiar with mother tongue and interaction of two languages in the communities.

4. Effects of Language Interference

The background of L1 for learning L2 has both advantages and disadvantages. The factor of 'language universal' helps in learning. All languages have tense system, number, gender, plural etc. This helps the learner in identifying these areas in the target language. But the interference of L1 in L2 leads to errors. One of the assumptions of the contrastive analysis hypothesis was that learners with different L1s would learn a L2 in different ways, as a result of negative transfer imposing different kinds of difficulty.

Interference may be viewed as the transference of elements of one language to another at various levels including phonological, grammatical, lexical and orthographical (Berthold, Mangubhai & Batorowicz, 1997). Berthold et al (1997) define phonological interference as items including foreign accent such as stress, rhyme, intonation and speech sounds from the first language influencing the second. Grammatical interference is defined as the first language influencing the second in terms of word order, use of pronouns and determinants, tense and mood. Interference at a lexical level provides for the borrowing of words from one language and converting them to sound more natural in another and orthographic interference includes the spelling of one language altering another.

The most common source of error is in the process of learning a foreign language, where the native tongue interferes; but interference may occur in

the other contact situations (as in multilingualism). In learning L1 certain habits of perceiving and performing have to be established and the old habits tend to intrude and interfere with the learning, so that the students may speak L2 (or FL) with the intonation of his L1 or the word order of his L1 and so on.

B. Error Analysis

1. Definition of Error analysis

Richards and Schmidt (2002:184) define error analysis as “the study and analysis of the errors made by second language learners”. EA compares “learner English” with English (L2) itself and judges how learners are “ignorant” (James, 1998:304) about the grammatical and semantic rules of the target language. According to Hasyim (2002:43) 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, and (c) obtain information on common difficulties in language learning, as an aid in teaching or in the preparation of teaching materials. Another view of error analysis is given by Brown (1980, cited by Hasyim, 2002:43), when he defines error analysis as the process of observing, analysing, and classifying the deviations of the rules of the second language and then to reveal the systems operated by a learner. Similarly, Crystal (as cited by Hasyim, 2002:43) proposes that error analysis is a technique for identifying, classifying and systematically interpreting the unacceptable forms produced by someone learning a foreign language.

Alvia (2015) stated that an error analysis is a process to explain the happening of defining errors. The learners' errors are not only inevitable but also a necessary part of language learning process. Some linguists define the term of errors analysis. Dulay et.al (1982: 277) argue, "Error analysis listing and classification of the errors contained in a sample of learner's speech or writing."

The studies in EA continue to contribute in growing knowledge of how people learn language and how it can be applied in teaching foreign language effectively. In addition, the EA has insight into language acquisition process that has been stimulated in teaching practice. Based on definition above, it can be conclude that researcher and language teacher use procedure to analyze the error. In analyzing errors it must be followed by some steps, they are sample collection, identification of errors, explanation of errors classification of errors and evaluation of errors. These five steps must be followed in analyzing errors of students, so their errors could be corrected.

2. Types of Errors

As Dulay, Burt, and Krashen (1982: 146) propose some error classifications as called descriptive taxonomies, they are forth types of Error such as, Linguistic category, surface strategy, Comparative analysis, and communicative effect.

1) Linguistic category.

Linguistic category taxonomies in here, classify errors according to either or both the language component and the particular linguistic constituent the error affect. Language components include phonology (pronunciation), syntax and morphology (grammar), semantic and lexicon (meaning and vocabulary), and discourse (style) (Dulay, Burt, and Krashen 1982:146).

2) Surface strategy.

Surface strategy taxonomy highlights the ways the surface structure are altered (Dulay, Burt, and Krashen 1982:150). This taxonomy is classified into four types: omissions, additions, misformation, and misorderings.

2.1 Omissions are characterized by the absence of an item that must appear in well-formed utterance. Example, “I am reading now” becomes “I reading now”,

2.2 Additions are characterized by the presence of an item that must not appear in a well-formed utterance. For example, “They kill the dog” becomes “They kills the dog”,

2.3 Misformations are characterized by the use of the wrong form of the morpheme or structure. For example, “ He went to work yesterday” becomes “ He goes to work yesterday”,

2.4 Misorderings are characterized by the incorrect placement of a morpheme or group of morphemes in an utterance. Example, “Where are they now?” becomes “Where they are now?”.

3) Comparative analysis

The classification of error in comparative taxonomy is based on comparisons between the structure of second language errors and certain other types of constructions (Dulay, Burt, and Krashen 1982:163). In this taxonomy proposes four errors:

3.1 Development errors are errors similar to those made by children learning the target language as their first language. For example: “dog eat it” instead of “dog eats it”

3.2 Interlingual errors are similar in structure to a semantically equivalent phrase or sentence in the learner’ native language. For example: “ that is a car red” instead of “this is red car”

3.3 Ambiguous errors are those that reflect the learners’ native language structure, and at the same time they are of the type found in speech of the children acquiring a first language. For example: “I no have a car” instead of “I have no car”.

3.4 Other errors, this taxonomy proposes the grab bag errors that don’t fit into those few taxonomies. In this particular type taxonomy, the grab bag errors should be of more than passing interest. Since they are not

similar to those children make during first language development, they must be unique to second language learners. For example in the utterance of native speaker of Spanish: “she do hungry” instead of “she is hungry”. In this case the speaker used neither her native Spanish structure (the use of 21 have of is as she have hungry), nor an L2 developmental form such as She hungry where the auxiliary is omitted altogether. Such as, an error would go into other category.

4) Communicative effect

The communicative effect classification deals with errors from the perspective of their effect on the listener or reader. It focuses on distinguishing between error that seem to cause miscommunication. Dulay (1982) classifies this type of errors into two:

4.1 Global errors

Errors that affect overall sentences organization significantly hinder communication. Burt and Kiparsky (cited in Dulay, Burt, and Krashen, 1982:191) labeled the most systematic global error includes:

- ✓ Wrong order of major constituent. For example: English language use many people.
- ✓ Missing, wrong, or misplace sentence connectors. For example: (if) not take this bus, we late for school.

- ✓ Missing cues to signal obligatory exceptions to pervasive syntactic rules. For example: The students' proposal (was) looked into (by) the principal.
- ✓ Regularization of pervasive syntactic rules to exceptions. For example: We amused that movie very much. (that movie amused us very much).

4.2 Local errors

Errors that affect single elements (constituents) in a sentence do not usually hinder communication significantly. These include errors in noun and verb inflections, articles, auxiliaries, and the formation of quantifiers.

Corder (1974, cited in Ellis 1994:56) distinguishes three types of errors based on their systematicity:

- ✓ Pre-systematic errors occur when the learner is unaware of the existence of a particular rule in the target language. These are random.
- ✓ Systematic errors occur when the learner has discovered a rule but it is the wrong one.
- ✓ Post-systematic errors occur when the learner knows the correct target language rules but uses it inconstantly (makes a mistake).

In order to these different kinds of errors, however, it is necessary to interview the learner. Type (a) occur when the learner cannot give any account of why a particular form is chosen (b) occurs when the learner is unable to correct the errors but can explain the target-language rule that is normally used.

From the four types of errors above, it can be concluded that linguistic category is classified based on the language component and particular linguistic. While surface strategy taxonomies classified into omission, misformation, addition and misordering. Comparative analysis proposes to developmental errors, interlingual error, and ambiguous errors. Communicative effect is classified into global errors and local error.

C. Speaking

1. Definitions of speaking

The definitions of speaking are many variations. According to Mead and Rubin (1985), speaking is an interactive process in which an individual alternately takes the roles of speaker and listener, and which includes both verbal and nonverbal component. Chaney in Kanyi (2006) gives the definition of speaking as the process of building and sharing meaning through the use of verbal and non-verbal symbols, in a variety of contexts. According to Hornby (1990:) defines speaking is make use of words in an ordinary voice. Lawtie (2007) stated that speaking is fundamental to human communication. O'

Malley (1996:59) speaking is negotiating intended meanings and adjusting one's speech to produce the desired effect on the listener.

2. Spoken English

English is one of the foreign languages which is taught in Thailand. It becomes the most important foreign language which is taught from the elementary level up to the university. Oxford Dictionary (2005: 108,) stated daily is meant that something which happens everyday or every weekday. English is the language which is used by people in England and people in the world either as the second language or as the foreign language such as in Indonesia. Based on the definitions, it can be concluded that daily English is English language which is used by people everywhere as their daily language to communicate to each others.

Marwan (2016) stated that applying English as a foreign language means that not every learner will understand native English and be able to receive and reproduce it perfectly. Since, English is not used in-country in daily communications; the competency of English learners varies significantly. They face a great deal of difficulty and many problems to comprehend spoken English especially that of native speakers. Consequently, the native speakers will find comparable difficulty and problems in comprehending the English spoken by Indonesians as long as the capacity of the Indonesians does not reach the level of the English native speakers. From this explanation, it same

with Patani (Thai) students, they are non-native speaker and English is not used in-country in daily communications. So, the competency of English learners varies significantly with Patani (Thai) students.

Speaking English is the most important among the four language skills in an increasingly globalised world, Toda et al. in Suliman (2014: 359). It should be noted that there are four language skills commonly taught in the English Language Syllabus in Indonesian Education System; speaking, writing, reading and listening. On top of that, grammar component is also inevitable in English Language Syllabus. Nair in Suliman (2014: 360) argues that the goal of speaking skill is to develop communicative competence essential in enabling learners to use language in the multiple functions it serves in real life. Adding to this, Ting, Mahadhir and Chang in Suliman (2014: 360) denote that in a non-native English speaking environment, it is difficult for non-native speakers of the target language to be able to speak as accurately and fluently as native speakers. This is prevalent in Indonesia, where students who come from diverse cultures and backgrounds might not be able to acquire English native-like accents since they are not innate with it.

D. Previous Studies

Previous study is the result of research from the researcher before. Some research related the interference of Melayu language on speaking have been conducted by some researcher of the study:

The research that relates to the writer's study has been done by Putri Martanti (2011) with her research paper entitled "An analysis of grammatical interference in article of BERANI newspaper". Related to her research, she describes grammatical interference in article. She found that can be which include the types of grammatical interference in the sentences of BERANI newspaper. There are two types of grammatical interference. They are morphological errors and syntax errors. In this thesis, the writer divides to analyze sentences into morphological error and syntactic error. Morphological errors are subject-verb agreement, singular-plural agreement, passive voice, to infinitive and forms of adjective. As for, syntactic errors are redundancy, misplaced word and parallel structure.

The second research is conducted by Dewi Puspitasari (2013) with her research paper entitled "Grammatical errors made by the second semester students in writing II subject in the English education department of Yogyakarta". She found that are one hundred and ninety two errors in the students' writings. The morphological errors are divided into five components. They are a used for *an* before vowels, failure to attach *-s*, wrong attachment *-s*, omission of *-ed*, and substitution of simple non-past. After all the analysis has been done, the writer found that most errors in morphology occur in the process of failure to attach *-s*. In syntactical area, there are nineteen components. They are omission of the article, use of possessive with the article, use of wrong possessive, simple verb

used instead *-ing*, substitution of singular for plurals, substitution of plurals for singular, omission of the dummy pronoun *it*, omission of object pronoun, subject pronoun used as a redundant element, omission of preposition, misuse of preposition, omission of main verb, omission of *to be*, substitution of the progressive for the simple past, disagreement of subject and verb person, disagreement of subject and number, disagreement of subject and tenses, embedding of a noun-and-verb construction in another noun-and-verb construction, repetition of the object, adjectival modifiers placed after noun.

The difference between this research with previous study is that in this research the researcher focus on the speaking of Patani (Thai) student at English department of IAIN Tulungagung. While the previous research focused on the following result: the first research is focuses on grammatical interference in article of BERANI newspaper. The second research is focuses on Grammatical errors made by the second semester students in writing.