

DRS. H.M. SADLI Z.A., MSi.

THE INFLUENCE OF THE INDONESIAN ORDER OF WORDS IN STUDYING ENGLISH

INTRODUCTION

Languages function as means of communication, either through written symbols in the form of various kinds of publications ranging from short, informal letters to complex scientific books or through various types of discourses from simple dialogues to high level international conferences. English is the most widespread language in the world. Leonard Bloomfield stated that '... English is the most widespread of languages.'¹

In connection with this, William W. Gage and Sirarpi Ohanesian write, based on the UNESCO Statistical Yearbook, in the English teaching forum, a journal forum the teacher of English outside the United States, the July 1977 edition as follows:

Few would dispute the importance of English as a world language today or its role as a language of wider communication among speakers of most other languages. In addition to some 275 million speakers for whom it is a native language in the British Isles, Canada, New Zealand, the West Indies, South and Central America, together with the United States, as small communities in some of the 'anglophone' countries of Asia and Africa, there are many millions who have learned to communicate in English in virtually every country in the world.²

While concerning the distribution of those who study English schools, they further write:

The approximate world distribution of those studying English in schools is as follows: Asia (excluding the USSR) 60,000,000; Africa 20,000,000; Western and Central Europe 15,000,000; Soviet 10,000,000; Western Hemisphere

¹ Leonard Bloomfield, *Language*, George Allen & Unwin Ltd., 1961, p. 57.

² William O. Gage and Sirarpi Chanessian, "Esol Enrollments throughout the world", *The English Teaching Forum: a Journal for the Teacher of English outside the United States*, Volume XV, Number 3. 1977, p. 19

10,000,000. The overall total is 115,000,000.³

The Government of the Republic of Indonesia i.e. the Department of Education and Culture, has decided to make English as one of the important subjects at school. Based on the curriculum 1975⁴ English is taught from the level of junior high school up to university.

In studying the English language, most Indonesian students seemed to have difficulties in avoiding the influence of their own language upon the English language. One of their weaknesses is that they are very much influenced by the syntactical structure of their Indonesian language. For example, the structure of the Indonesian sentence *stasiun kereta api* is likely to be rendered into English: *station railway* in stead of *railway station*. This is presumably due to the Indonesian grammatical rule known as "HUKUM D-M"⁵ which puts the modified before the modifier. The word order is a part of

the structure in any language.

Structure, in the English language, is one of the three main linguistic aspects (sound system, vocabulary and structure) that a student has to learn. It has to become an automatic habit student is said to have learned English:

when he has thus first, within a limited vocabulary mastered the sound system (that is, when he can understand the stream of speech and achieve an understandable production of it) and has, second, made the structural devices (that is, the basic arrangement of utterances) matters of automatic habit.⁶

One can draw a conclusion that the emphasis of learning English is to be based upon the said three basic linguistic aspects,

that is, the sound system, vocabulary and structure. Therefore, '... with no basic control of either the sound system or the structure are almost without exception hopeless.'⁷

The order of words may consist of noun-noun, adjective-noun, including its part, numeral-noun. For this reason, the writer would like to discuss the parts of speech

3 *Ibid.*, p.20.

4 Dep. P&K, *Kurikulum SMP: Garis-garis Besar Program Pengajaran*, Balai Pustaka, p. 1.

5 Hukum D-M is one of the Indonesian grammatical rules. D stands for "Diterangkan", i.e. Head and M. for "Menerangkan" i.e. Modifier. The sequence shows that the Head comes before the Modifier.

6 Charles O. Fries, *Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language*, 16th printing, 1962, The University of Michigan Press, p.3.

7 *Ibid.*

of both English and Indonesian.

In the English language, according to R.W.Zandvoort, the eye eight⁸ parts of speech: (1) noun, (2) pronoun, (3) ajective, (4) verb, (5) adverb, (6) preposition, (7) conjunction, (8) interjection, while in the Indonesian language there are ten.⁹ They are different in numbers because the article and numeral in the Indonesian language are separated from the noun and adjective respectively. They are as follows:

1. Kata benda (noun)
2. Kata kerja (verb)
3. Kata ganti (pronoun)
4. Kata bilangan (numeral)
5. Kata sifat (adjective)
6. Kata tambahan (adverb)
7. Kata depan (preposition)
8. Kata sambung (conjunction)
9. Kata sandang (article)
10. Kata seru (interjection).

Some of those parts of speech of either English or Indonesian need more detailed discussion in connection with their functions as noun-modifiers. They are noun,

adjective and numeral.

Firstly, noun is all names of things and is divided into four (4) kinds. They are common, proper, abstract and collective nouns.

Secondly, adjective modifies noun and is divided into six (6) main kinds.¹⁰ They are as follows:

1. Adjective of quality
2. Demonstrative adjective
3. Distributive adjective
4. Quantitative adjective
5. Interrogative adjective
6. Possessive adjective

Thirdly, numeral, as a matter of fact, belongs to the Quantitative adjective and is divided into ordinal and cardinal. Those three parts of speech have the position of noun modifiers. A noun-modifier is any word which modifies a noun. According to W. Nelson Francis:

... the two components of a structure of modification are a head and a modifier, whose meaning serves to broaden, qualify, select, change, describe, or in some other way affect the meaning of the head.¹¹

The structure of modification,

8 R W. Zandvoort, *A Handbook of English Grammar*, 6th ed., Longman Group Ltd., London, 1972, p.265.

9 Tardjan Hadidjaja, *Tata Bahasa Indonesia*, Cet. 2, 1963, Kirana, Jakarta, pp. 36, 50, 63, 75, 82, 89, 94, 100, 103, 106

10 A.J. Thomson and A.V. Martinet, *A Practical English Grammar*, 2nd edition, The ELB. Soiiety and Oxford University Press, 1975, p.12

the writer analyzes, consists of noun, adjective and numeral. They have the position of modifying nouns. In this context, he limits the immediate constituent (I C) on the 'head' and 'modifier'. In the Indonesian language, the word order of the immediate constituent is that the head comes first while the modifier comes later.

The writer would like to compare the structure of modification of the immediate constituent in English and Indonesian so as to detect the structural mistakes that most Indonesian students of English make in everyday usage.

In order to illustrate the comparison, the writer presents the Table 1.

Table 1
The Order of Word

The Indonesian order of word		The English order of word	
Head	Modifier	Head	Modifier
1	2	1	2 ¹²
stasiun	kereta	railway	station
perhentian	bis	bus	terminal
anak	pandai	clever	boy
orang	tinggi	tall	man
anak	ketiga	third	daughter
isteri	kedua	second	wife

The structural mistakes in English caused by the influence of the Indonesian structure should be, as far as they can, avoided. In reaching accuracy and fluency for one who studies a foreign language, the habitual use of the structural patterns is a very important element. Charles C. Fries states that '... accuracy in the habitual use of the structural pattern must precede fluency.'¹³

Because of the Indonesian "HUKUM D-M", the structural mistakes have been unconsciously habitual and so strongly implanted in the minds of the students. This influences most of the Indonesian students of English because they usually learn it through translation. It seems to the writer that they can not get their minds off the way of thinking in the Indonesian language. English has, certainly, its own grammatical rules. So, they are supposed to think about it in the English way of thinking.

The choice of "The Influence of the Indonesian Order of Word in Studying English" as the topic is based on the writer's teaching experiences that such structural

11 W. Nelson Francis, *The Structure of American English*, The Ronald Press Company, New York, 1956, p. 297

12 Note that the figure 1 and 2 denote the sequence of word order. The figures: 1 stands for 'head'; 2 stands for 'modifier'. They will be applied throughout the work.

13 Charles C. Fries, op. cit., p. 34

mistakes have always been encountered from time to time.

Therefore, this topic is aimed at presenting data on the structure of modification whose components consist of the 'head' and 'modifier' in line with the Indonesian grammatical rule known as "Hukum D-M" and giving the solution, as far as the writer can, on how to overcome the complicated problem so as to avoid the confusion, either in the Indonesian or in English usage.

PARTS OF SPEECH

There are parts of speech in English and Indonesian. According to R.W.Zandvoort, the English language has eight parts of speech.¹⁴ They are as follows:

1. Noun
2. Pronoun
3. Adjective
4. Verb
5. Adverb
6. Preposition
7. Conjunction
8. Interjection

1. Noun

¹⁴ See Chapter I

¹⁵ A.J.Thomson and A.V. Martinet, *A Practical English Grammar*, 2nd edition, The ELB, Society and Oxford University Press, 1975, p. 7

¹⁶ *Ibid.* p.12

English nouns are divided into three genders: (1) masculine gender such as *man, boys, lion* ; (2) feminine gender such as *women, girls, hen* ; (3) neuter gender such as *table, chair*, etc. The English gender of a noun affects its pronoun and possessive adjective, for example, *Scotland* lost many of *her* bravest men in two great rebellions.¹⁵ Other divisions of noun are: (1) common noun, (2) proper noun, (3) abstract noun, (4) and collective noun.

2. Pronoun

Pronoun has also divisions. They are the following: (1)personal pronoun: *I, me, you, we, they, them*, etc.; (2) possessive pronoun: *mine, yours, ours, theirs*, etc.; (3) reflexing pronoun and emphasizing pronoun: *myself, yourself, himself, ourselves*, etc.

3. Adjective

The main kinds of adjectives are the following¹⁶

- 1). Adjective of quality: *good, heavy, clever*, etc.
- 2). Demonstrative adjective: *this, that, these, those*, etc.

- 3). Distributive adjective: *each, every*, etc.
- 4). Quantitative adjective: *many, much*, etc.
- 5). Interrogative adjective: *whose, which*, etc.
- 6). Possessive adjective: *my, his, her*, etc.

The quantitative adjective comprises all the numerals which are cardinal: *one, two, three, four, five*, and so forth and ordinal: *the first (1st), the second (2nd), the third (3rd), the fourth (4th), the fifth (5th)* and so forth. All kinds of adjectives modify nouns or pronouns.

4. Verb

In the forms verb is divided into regular which take suffix -ed at the end of each verb preterite and past participle, and irregular which take arbitrary forms in those cases.

Functionally, verbs are divided into (1) auxiliary verbs: *is, am, was, are, were, do, does, did, have, had, has, will, may, would, shall, should, must, might, can, could, need, ought to, dare, used to*; (2) full or ordinary verbs: *go, take, write*, etc., which largely ex-

press '... action or condition ...'¹⁷

5. Adverb

The other large class of modifiers is adverbs. They modify verbs, adjectives and other adverbs or sentences. Characteristically, some adverbs can be constructed by adding the morpheme -ly to some adjectives, for instance, the adjective *proder* becomes *properly*. Besides adjectives, any modifier that expresses how, when, where, whether or not ends in -ly is an adverb. There are seven kinds of adverbs:¹⁸

- 1). Adverb of manner : *well, happily*, etc.
- 2). Adverb of place : *down, here*, etc.
- 3). Adverb of time : *still, now*, etc.
- 4). Adverb of frequency : *twice, often*, etc.
- 5). Adverb of degree : *very, rather*, etc;
- 6). Adverb of interrogative : *when, where*, etc.
- 7). Adverb of relative : *when, where*, etc.

6. Preposition

¹⁷ James A. Gowen, *English Review Manual*, 2nd editions, Mc. Graw- Hill Book Company, New York, 1965, p.9

¹⁸ A.J. Thomson and A.V. Martinet, *op. cit.*, p.28

The preposition is defined as a word that expresses the relationship between a noun or a pronoun and some other word in a sentence. Sometimes, it is attached to a verb and so closely related to it that it usually loses its nature as a preposition and both parts form an idiomatic phrase. For example, when the preposition *for* is attached to the verb *look*, we have the verb phrase *look for*, the meaning of which differs from the original meaning of each word. Compare the two forms in the sentences below:

His pen was lost. He is *looking for* it now.

My father will buy a new shirt *for* me.

There are between *fifty* and *sixty* of them in present day English. Some of them are listed below: on, in, at, into, out of, to, from, through, along, with, without, down, up, above, below, over, under, for, off, beyond, between, among, against, since, about, after, across, behind, except, by, like, till/until, beside, during, inside, outside, of, before

7. Conjunction

The conjunction connects the main clause to other clauses which are called subordinate clauses. The conjunctions such as *since*, *until/till*, *before*, *after* are used

as prepositions, too. For examples:

Preposition

He has been here *since* six o'clock

We work from eight *till (until)* two

It is unwise to bathe immediately *after* a meal

It is unwise to have a meal *before* a bath.

Conjunction

I have done nothing *since* I arrived

Please stay here *until* I come back

I work again *after* I get recovered from my illness

He does not eat *before* his wife comes home

And connects clauses of the same level; *because* joins a main clause to subordinate clauses indicating reason or effect; *but* shows the contradiction between the clauses of a sentence. For example:

He goes to office *and* his wife goes to school.

They did not come to school *because* they were sick.

My daughter did not go to school yesterday *but* my son

did.

8. Interjection

The last part of speech is interjection. According to A.S. Hornby, E.V. Gatenby and H. Wakefield, it is "a word or phrase used is an exclamation and having no grammatical relation to a sentence."¹⁹ Regarding this R.W. Zandvoort writes the following:

'... Interjection, i.e. natural ejaculation(s) viewed as part(s) of speech e.g. Ah!, Whew!.'²⁰

Unlike the division of parts of speech as described above, the writer quotes W. Nelson Francis as writing:

'... we find that we must identify our different parts of speech. We can use the traditional names: noun, verb, adjective and adverb for them.'²¹

The Indonesian language has ten parts of speech. The numeral, which is quantitative adjective in English, and article which belongs to noun in English, stand by themselves separately in Indonesian. They are as follows:

1. Kata benda (noun) such as *hati* (heart), *orang* (people).
2. Kata kerja (verb) such as

duduk (sit), *bangun* (get up).

3. Kata ganti (pronoun) such as *aku* (I), *kami* (we).
4. Kata bilangan (numeral) such as *satu* (one), *kesatu* (first).
5. Kata sifat (adjective) such as *besar* (big), *lebar* (wide).
6. Kata tambahan (adverb) such as *sangat* (very), *tiba-tiba* (suddenly).
7. Kata depan (preposition) such as *di* (in), *ke* (to).
8. Kata penghubung (conjunction) such as *dan* (and), *ketika* (when).
9. Kata sandang (article) such as *se-* (a/an), *itu* (the).
10. Kata seru(interjection) such as *celaka!* (damned it), *Oh!* (Oh!).

Those parts of speech are defined in the same way as those in the English language. Several of them have the function of nounmodifiers.

Gorys Keraf, in "Bahasa Indonesia: Sintaksis II", the 12th volume, published by the Proyek Balai Penataran Guru Tertulis, Departemen Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan 1977 -1978, morphologi-

19 A.S. Hornby; E.V. Gatenby and H. Wakefield, *The Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English*, Oxford University Press, London, 1952, p.658

20 R.W. Zandvoort, *op.cit.*, p. 208

21 W. Nelson Francis, *The Structure of the American English*, The Ronald Press Company, New York, 1958, p. 236

cally, divides the Indonesian parts of speech into the following:

- 1. Kata benda (noun)
- 2. Kata kerja (verb)
- 3. Kata sifat (adjective)
- 4. Kata tugas (function word)²²

Kata benda includes *kata ganti* (pronoun), while *kata bilangan* is included into *kata sifat*. *Kata sambung*, *kata depan*, *kata seru*, *kata sandang* and *kata keterangan* belong to *kata tugas* (function word).

2.1. The Definition of Noun-Modifier.

There are, at least, two components in the structure of modification of the immediate constituent i.e. a head and a modifier. The most common head and modifier are respectively noun and adjective. Some of the Indonesian and English parts of speech can be both heads and modifiers.

The following are the examples of noun-modifiers:

Table 2
a). Noun - modifiers in English

Modifier	H e a d
2	1
hungry working woman lady boy	people hours doctor teacher friend

b). Noun - modifiers in Indonesian

H e a d	Modifier
1	2
anak (boy) guru (teacher) jam (hour) isteri (wife) bab (chapter)	pandai (clever) laki-laki (man) kerja (working) kedua (the second) kelima (the fifth)

So, from the explanation mentioned above, conclusion can be drawn that any word which modifies noun or noun-functioning word is called noun-modifier.

2.2. The Indonesian Noun-Modifier

As a matter of fact, almost all the Indonesian parts of speech can be noun-modifiers as can be seen in the Table 1. The writer, however, limits himself to the dis-

22 Departemen P & K, *Bahasa Indonesia: Sintaksis II*, Jilid 2, Proyek Balai Penataran Guru Tertulis Th. 1977-1978, pp. 11, 12.

cussion of the Indonesian noun, adjective and numeral as noun-modifiers.

2.2.1. The Indonesian Nouns as Noun-Modifiers.

As previously stated that the structure of modification of the immediate constituent consists of, at least, two components: a head and a modifier. The Indonesian noun can be modifier. Therefore, it is called as noun-modifier (see Table 2 c.)

2.2.1.1. The Division of Nouns.

The Indonesian nouns are divided into:

- (1) *Kata benda tak berwujud* (abstract noun) such as *pengetahuan* (knowledge), *janji* (promise), *gagasan* (idea), etc.
- (2) *Kata benda berwujud* (concrete noun) such as *kursi* (chair), *meja* (table), *gelas* (glass), etc. *Kata benda berwujud* (concrete noun) comprises three kinds of noun. They are as follows: (1) *Nama diri* (proper noun) such as *Toni*, *Jakarta*, *Perancis*, etc.; (2) *Nama jenis* (common noun) such as *kursi*,

meja, *gelas* (already mentioned above); (3) *Nama zat* (material noun) such as *emas*, *perak*, *kayu*, etc.

2.2.1.2. The Position of Noun.

The immediate constituent is made up of a head and a modifier. The modifier is, also, a noun. It comes after the head. For example:

Table 2
c). The position of noun

Head	Modifier
1	2
stasiun (station)	kereta api (railway)
guru (teacher)	wanita (lady)
cincin (ring)	emas (gold)
ikan (fish)	laut (sea)
ilmu jiwa (psychology)	anak (child)

The sequence of the word order is the head which is a noun comes first and, then, a modifier which is also a noun. The figures 1 and 2 show the sequence of the said order (see note 12).

2.2.2. The Indonesian Adjective as Noun-Modifiers.

Adjectives are the very common modifiers of nouns. It has the obligations of modifying, qualifying, selecting, changing and de-

scribing nouns.

2.2.2.1. The Division of Adjectives.

The adjectives are divided into, among others, the kind 'jenis' such as *kering*, *kurus*, *jinak* and the meaning 'arti' such as *besar*, *kecil*, *lebar*, *tinggi*.

The division is based on what Tardjan Hadidjaja writes in the book "Tata Bahasa Indonesia"

2.2.2.2. The Position of Adjective.

The most common position of adjective is placed after noun concerned. For example:

Table 2

d). The position of adjective

Head	Modifier
1	2
anak (boy)	pintar (clever)
guru (teacher)	wanita (lady)
anak (son)	kesatu (the first)
orang (man)	kaya (rich)

Pintar (clever) is an adjective qualifying the noun *anak* (boy). *Wanita* (lady), *kesatu* (the first), *kaya* (rich) have the same function as the word *pintar*.

2.2.3. The Indonesian Numerals

as Noun-Modifiers.

The Indonesian numerals have so many divisions. It depends on which point of view one would like at. One can see from the points of form 'bentuk' such as *Kujumpai tujuh ekor ikan terbang di geladak*; of the meaning 'arti' such as *satu* 'one', *dua* 'two', *tiga* 'three', *kesatu* 'the first', *kedua* 'the second', *kesepuluh* 'the tenth'; and of the kind 'jenis' such as *sepuluh* 'ten', *seratus* 'hundred', *seribu* 'thousand'.²³

2.2.3.1. The Division of Numeral.

The writer will present in this sub-chapter the numeral which is based on the meaning 'arti' only. It has two kinds:

1. Cardinal number 'Kata Bilangan Pokok' such as *satu* 'one', *dua* 'two', *tiga* 'three' and so forth.
2. Ordinal number 'Kata Bilangan Tingkat' such as *kesatu* 'the first', *kedua* 'the second' and so forth.²⁴

2.2.3.2. The Position of Numeral.

Cardinal number 'Kata Bilangan Pokok' has the same position as it does in English i.e. it comes before the 'head' and answers the question 'how many or how much'.

²³ Tardjan Hadidjaja, *Tata Bahasa Indonesia*, Cetakan 2, 1963, Kirana, Jakarta, p. 77

²⁴ *Ibid*.

For example:

Table 2

e). The position of numeral
(1). The position of cardinal number

Modifier	Head
2	1
dua 'two' lima 'five' sepuluh 'ten' seribu 'one thousand'	anak laki-laki 'sons' ekor sapi 'cows' rumah 'houses' rupiah 'rupiahs'

The position of Ordinal number 'Kata Bilangan Tingkat' in the Indonesian language is different from that in English i.e. the head comes first. For example:

Table 2

e). The position of numeral
(2). The position of ordinal number

Head	Modifier
1	2
pelajaran 'lesson' isteri 'wife' perang dunia 'world war' halaman 'page'	kesatu 'the first' ketiga 'the third' kedua 'the second' kesepluluh 'the tenth'

2.3.1. The English Nouns as Noun-Modifiers.

It seems to the writer that Common and Abstract nouns can

be noun-modifiers such as, respectively, *man teacher* and *charity bazar* (See Table 2 f.). The writer will present the division of the English noun below.

2.3.1.1. The Division of Noun.

According to A.J.Thomson and A.V. Martinet, noun has four kinds.²⁵ The four kinds of noun are as follows:

1. Common Noun such as *table, man, dog, etc.*
2. Proper Noun such as *Tom, France, Madrid, Mrs. Smith, etc.*
3. Abstract Noun such as *charity, beauty, fear, courage, joy, etc.*
4. Collective Noun such as *swarm, team, crowd, flock, group, etc.*

2.3.1.2. The Position of Noun.

The position of noun as noun-modifier is that the 'modifier' comes before the 'head'.

For example:

25 A.J.Thomson and A.V.Martinet, loc. cit., p.7

Table 2

f). The position of noun

Modifier	H e a d
2	1
man	teacher
gold	ring
boy	friend
beauty	salon
charity	bazar

2.3.2. The English Adjectives as Noun-Modifiers.

It is certain that adjectives modify nouns. In the English language numeral includes in it, while in the Indonesian language it is excluded from it. Therefore, the Indonesian numeral is discussed previously in its own division.

2.3.2.1. The Division of Adjectiveo

As previously discussed on page 9 that the division of adjective is as follows:

1. Adjective of quality such as *clever, golden, dry*, etc.
2. Demonstrative adjective such as *this, those*, etc.
3. Distributiv adjective such as *each, every, either*, etc.
4. Quantitative adject such as *some, any*, etc.
5. Interrogative adjective such as *which, what, whose*, etc.

6. Possessive adjective such as *my, her, your their*, etc.

The quantitative adjective is further divided into two: firstly, the Cardinal Number such as *one, two, three, four, five, six*, and so forth; secondly, the Ordinal Number such as *the first* (1st), *the second* (2nd), *the third* (3rd), *the fourth* (4th), *the eighth* (8th), *the fifteenth* (15th), *the twentieth* (20th), *the twenty-first* (21st) and so forth.

The above-mentioned adjectives can be noun-modifiers.

2.3.2.2. The Position of Adjective.

The position of adjective is commonly placed before the 'head' in conformity with its function as modifier. For example:

Table. 2

g). The position of adjective

Modifier	H e a d
2	1
clever	boy
this	book
every	day
some	money
which	book
her	pen

Table 2

h). The position of quantitative adjective

Modifier	H e a d
2	1
two	boys
three	books
ten	rupiahs
one	pen

with the exception of the adjective position in the Table 2i below:

Table 2

i). The different position of adjective

H e a d	Modifier
1	2
lesson	two
directorat	general
major	general
the world war	two

Table 2

j). The position of adjective

Modifier	H e a d
2	1
the first	world war
the second	wife
the tenth	lesson
the twentieth	birthday

THE COMPARISON BETWEEN THE INDONESIAN AND THE ENGLISH NOUN- MODIFIER

The writer's scope of discussion in this chapter is about the Indonesian order of words which derive from noun and adjective in comparison with that of English. Therefore, the writer intends to compare the similarity and difference of both the Indonesian and English noun-modifiers.

When we see the factor of native language we will see that the most important factor determining ease and difficulty in learning the patterns of a foreign language is the similar or different patterns of the native language. When the patterns in the target language is parallel to one in the native language '... the student merely learns new words.'²⁶

Tata Mc Graw-Hill Publishing Co. Ltd., Bombay-New Delhi, 1976, p.91 but whe, it is not, '... the student tends to revert to his native language patterns through habits.'²⁷

Here, the writer is discussing the patterns of word order in the target language which are similar and different from those in the native language.

²⁶ Robert Lado, *Language Teaching: a Scientific Approach*,

²⁷ *Ibid.* p.92

3.1. The Similarities.

3.1.1. Cardinal Number as Noun-Modifier.

The order of words in the Indonesian language deriving from the cardinal number is similar to that of English. For example:

Table 3

a). The Indonesian and English orders of words

The Indonesian order of word		The English order of word	
Modifier	Head	Modifier	Head
2	1	2	1
dua	anak laki-laki	two	sons
lima	ekor sapi	five	cows
sepuluh	rumah	ten	houses
seribu	rupiah	one thousand	rupiahs
setengah	jam	half	hour
banyak	uang	much	money
beberapa	siswa	few	pupils

3.1.2. Noun as Noun-Modifier.

The English noun, in certain circumstances, has the same order of word as the Indonesian one. Let us have a look at the examples below (Table 3b)

The two tables, mentioned above (Table 3 a, b.) show the similarity of word order in both Indonesian and English. The words in the second group of the said two tables, either the Indo-

Table 3

b). Noun as noun-modifier

The Indonesian order of word		The English order of word	
Head	Modifier	Head	Modifier
1	2	1	2
directorat	jenderal	directorat	genaral
mayor	jenderal	major	genaral
pelajaran	dua	lesson	two
bab	tiga	chapter	three
brigadir	jenderal	brigadier	genaral
letnan	jenderal	lieutenant	genaral

nesian or English orders of word, modify the ones in the first group.

3.2. The differences.

3.2.1. Ordinal Number as Noun-Modifier.

The Indonesian ordinal number being a noun-modifier has the different order of word from the English one. For example: (see Table 3 c)

Table 3

c). Ordinal number as noun-modifier

The Indonesian order of word		The English order of word	
Head	Modifier	Head	Modifier
1	2	1	2
perang dunia	kesatu	the first	world war
isteri	kedua	the second	wife
pelajaran	ketiga	the third	lesson
ulang tahun	keempat	the fourth	birthday

For the order of word the modifier of which is of cardinal number see Table 3 a.

3.2.2. Adjective as Noun-Modifier.

All kinds of English adjectives, except the quantitative adjective, have different order of word from that in the Indonesian language. For example:

Table 3
d). Adjective at noun-modifier

The Indonesian order of word		The English order of word	
Modifier	Head	Modifier	Head
2	1	2	1
anak	pandai	clever	boy
masa	keemasan	golden	time
kemeja	kering	dry	shirt
buku	ini	this	book
murid-murid	itu	those	students
fulpen	siapa	whose	pen
payung-payung	mereka	their	umbrella
kaca mata	saya	my	spectacles

In line with the separation of numeral (See 2.2.3. and 2.3.2.), the writer also separates the numeral or quantitative adjective from the other ones in order to make the comparison easy. The two tables (Table 2 h and Table 2 i) show the difference.

The Indonesian order of word is different from the English one.

In the Indonesian language, the words in the second group modify the ones in the first group, while in English the words in the first group modify the ones in the second group.

It is not a problem for the Indonesian students of English when they find the patterns of word order in the target language similar to those in the Indonesian language. They can easily practice them.

But, if the pattern of word order in the Indonesian language is different from that in the English language, the Indonesian students of English, usually, will return to those of their own Indonesian language. As a matter of fact, they, certainly, have to perform it on the basis of the English patterns concerned. This is really a problem.

HOW TO OVERCOME THE STRUCTURAL MISTAKES MADE BY THE INDONESIAN STUDENTS

In any sentence of more than one word there arises the question of word order. As was discussed in Chapter III there are some similarities and differences. There may not arise any problems in the same word orders of both the

English and Indonesian languages. Due to the different word orders, there will probably arise problems, among others, the tendency to return to the habitual native language patterns. Thus, the habit of the native language patterns influences those of the target language so that a student can habituate with the native language patterns in the target language, as for example: *terminal bus* (Indonesian order of word) instead of *bus terminal* (English order of word). Here, it is the influence of the Indonesian word order in studying English which is a structural mistake. This is the focus of discussion of this thesis. The writer would like to make an attempt to find out how to overcome the said problem.

A language functions as social behaviour. There is no natural language in the world, except artificial, arbitrary, invention of a social group, and as is stated by W. Nelson Francis in his book *The Structure of American English* that '... the nature and form of every language is adapted to the social requirements of the society that uses it.'²⁸ If it were natural,

people would speak the same language.

Furthermore, in line with the principle of language teaching, that patterns have to be established as habit. The habituating must begin from the early stages, because sound system needs habituating. And in addition, '... learning a second language is defined as acquiring the ability to use its structure ...'²⁹ One is said to be able to use the structure of a language when he can perform it in the form of speech automatically. The ability to use the structure automatically and accurately one needs a certain process beforehand. This process will make him internalized with the patterns of the target language he learns.

The writer is of the opinion that pattern practice is of a great help to overcome the structural mistakes in the other of word made by the Indonesian students. According to A.S. Hornby, E.V. Gatenby and H. Wakefield in the *Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English* that 'practice is systematic or regular repetition in order to acquire skill.'³⁰ Robert

28 W.Nelson Francis, *The Structure of American English*, The Ronald Press Company, New York, 1956, p. 10

29 Robert Lado, *Language Teaching: a Scientific Approach*, Tata Mc Graw Hill Publishing Co. Ltd., Bombay-New Delhi, 1976, p.51

30 A. S. Hornby, E.V. Gatenby, H. Wakefield, *The Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current*

Lado writes about the pattern practice as follows:

Pattern practice is rapid oral drill on problem patterns with attention on something other than the problem itself.³¹

And in connection with this, Viney Pal Keur Kirpal, the lecturer of English at the Indian Institute of Technology, Bombay, writes, as follows:

As we all know drill work is a successful method for learning a language as a beginner. A.W. Frisby has stated that 'the learning of a new language is, in the early stages, almost entirely a matter of drill and of forming correct language habits.'³²

The practice requires the activities of, among others, repeating substituting. In the effort to avoid the influence of the Indonesian order of word in studying English, the writer would like to use types of repetition and substitution only.

Through practice, the students' attention is expected to be away gradually from the structural problem of word order. 'On the other hand, the students are forced to use the language exam-

ples that contain the problem concerned. It will involve the habit mechanism and will establish the new habit with new structural patterns of the language that the students learn.

What is practiced (repeated and substituted) here is patterns. Pattern is an arrangement of sounds or words which occurs systematically and which is meaningful. Robert Lado stated about the pattern that 'Sentences express patterns. Each sentence illustrates pattern'.³³

The pattern must be graded from the easy to the difficult one. Therefore, the gradation must be, among others, in the following:

1. Begin with sentences, not words, and order the sequence of materials on the basis of sentence patterns.
2. Introduce sub-sentence elements such as parts of speech, structure words, and modification structures, in connection with full sentence patterns.³⁴

In this practice the students are supposed to repeat the model of the pattern sentences orally. It

English, Oxford University Press, London, 1960, p. 969

31 Robert Lado, *op. cit.*, p. 105

32 Viney Pal Kaur Kirpal, "The Language Laboratory and the Remedial English Learner", *The English Teaching Forum: a Journal for the Teacher of English outside the United States*, Volume XVII, Number 4, October 1979, p. 15

33 Robert Lado, *op. cit.*, p. 105

34 *Ibid.*, p.53

must have some variation in speed, volume and tone. The students generally can grasp the model of the pattern sentences which demonstrate a grammar point.

The types of pattern practice are as follows:

1. Simple oral substitution.

A new word is substituted in the same position with each respective response. The teacher gives the substitution orally and the students repeat individually or in unison.

1.1. The substitution in noun.

For example:

Do you have a lady teacher?

Teacher: man

Student: Do you have a man teacher?

Teacher: math

Student: Do you have a math teacher?

et cetera.

Teacher : cheap

Student : This is a cheap book

et cetera.

1.3. The substitution is cardinal number.

For example:

She has two children

Teacher : three

Student : She has three children

Teacher : four

Student : She has four children

et cetera.

2. Substitution in variable slot

The substitution is done between modifier and head that can fit a different slot in order to direct the attention load away from the problem of sequence.

1.2. The substitution is qualitative adjective.

For example:

This is a good book

Teacher : good

Student : This is a good book

Teacher : bad

Student : This is a bad book

2.1. The head and modifier or substitution is adjective-noun.

For example:

Do you go by fast train?

Teacher : slow

Student : Do you go by slow train?

Teacher : bus

Student : Do you go by slow
bus?

et cetera.

class

Teacher : room

Student : He is in the second
room

et cetera.

2.2. The head and modifier or
substitution is qualitative adjective. For example :

He is a clever boy

Teacher : diligent

Student : He is a diligent boy

Teacher : teacher

Student : He is a diligent
teacher

et cetera.

2.3. The head and modifier or
substitution is cardinal number.
For example:

He has two children

Teacher : three

Student : He has three chil-
dren

Teacher : automobiles

Student : He has three auto-
mobiles

et cetera.

2.4. The head and modifier or
substitution is ordinal number.
For example:

He is in the first class

Teacher : second

Student : He is in the second

3. Multiple substitution

The students, individually or
in unison, have to substitute two
or three cues instead of only one.
The cues must be the combination
of oral, pictured and prompted by
realia.

Examples of substitution with
the combination between oral and
picture cues are the following:

3.1. The substitution is noun-
noun.

For example:

Do you like the gold ring?

Teacher : silver (pointing to
the picture of ashtray)

Student : Do you like the sil-
ver ashtray?

Teacher : name (pointing to
the picture of card)

Student : Do you like the
name card?

et cetera.

3.2. The Substitution is de-
monstrative adjective. For exam-
ple:

I like this pen.

Teacher : that (pointing to
the picture of
calender)

Student : I like that calen-
dar.

Teacher : this (pointine to
the picture of
watch)

Student : I like this watch.
et cetera.

Thus, by those practices, the Indonesian students of English will develop the skills of listening and reproducing in relation with the said patterns. They can achieve the goal of one of the three linguistic aspects. So, at last, they will have made the structural devices matters of automatic habit, and the students, themselves, become habitual in the hew pattern as expected by the pattern practice concerned.

CONCLUSION

Almost in every language there are part of speech. In the Indonesian and English language, there are parts of speech. The number of parts of speech in each language is different.

In the Indonesian language there are ten parts of speech,

while in the English language there are eight parts of speech. Besides both languages have patterns of word order. In certain circumstances, the order of word in English is the some as it is in the Indonesian languages. On the contrary, there are some differences.

As was alraedy discussed in the previous chapters that the influence of the Indonesian order of word has been so deeply internalized in the mind of the Indonesian students of English that it seems to the writer very difficult to find out its solution. This influence of the Indonesian order of words interferes the English order of words. The said Indonesian pattern of word order is known as the grammatical rule which is called "HUKUM DM" (modified-modifier).

So, the writer concludes that the Indonesian students of English will speak English in the Indonesian pattern of word order. This will copfuse when they speak with the native English speakers, thoudh the Indonesian people may understand them. For example:

He goes to the *terminal bus*.
(Indonesian).

He goes to the *bus terminal*.
(English)

In this case, the writer has

made an attempt to find out the solution of the said complicated problem of word order. He is of the opinion that such structural mistake can be corrected through pattern practice. This pattern practice can develop the skills in listening and reproducing. It, also, gradually can form a new automatic habit. Pattern practice can solve the above-mentioned complicated problem of the Indonesian students of English. In addition, he expects that this work will be of some useful contribution for teachers of English, especially those who have encountered with such problems.

Therefore, though the Indonesian students of English speak English in the Indonesian word order - due to the influence of the Indonesian order of word, by this pattern practice, they will be able to avoid the said influence so that they form a new automatic habit.

This belief is based on the statement of Charles C. Fries that one is said to have learned a foreign language when he has mastered the sound system and has made the structural devices matters of automatic habit.

Pattern practice is one of the best means to form the new habit in certain structural devices. The techniques of pattern practice, among others, are through repetition and substitution. But, the

classroom technique in carrying out the pattern practice needs certain requirements. The teacher must be qualified and must be able to motivate the Indonesian students of English. And the pattern practice must be interesting. Otherwise, they get easily bored of repeating and substituting the patterns. For the purpose of controlling the class, the number of student must be limited up to, at the utmost, twenty five students. In this case, visual aids are, also, necessary.

Shortly, the writer can draw simple, short conclusion, as follows:

1. through pattern practice the Indonesian students of English can develop the skills of listening and reproducing which play a very important role in learning a language, beside the skills of reading and writing.
2. through pattern practice the Indonesian students of English can form a new automatic habit, consciously or unconsciously, in the structural device of word order.
3. through pattern practice the Indonesian students of English can achieve recognition and production as well.

4. through pattern practice the Indonesian students of English realize that, in general, each language has its own patterns of structure and that, in particular, the English pattern of word order is different from the Indonesian pattern of word order.
5. through pattern practice the Indonesian students of English can, at last, avoid the influence of the Indonesian order of word that they will never speak English in the Indonesian order of word any more.

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