

AN ANALYSIS OF INTERLANGUAGE PERFORMED BY STUDENTS OF AN ISLAMIC BOARDING SCHOOL IN TASIKMALAYA

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Abstract

This descriptive study aims at: (1) finding out and describe the phonological, lexical, and syntactic forms of English language learners' inter language, and (2) finding out whether there are any differences in the inter language of the learners of different grades. The subjects of this research were 24 learners of the first, second, and third grade of an Islamic boarding school in Tasikmalaya. The data were collected from students' conversations, interviews, and reading aloud. The data were recorded and transcribed. Then, the data were filtered by using Corder's procedure. The results of the research reveal the existence of the following aspects in the learners' inter language: (1) phonological transfers, (2) lexical transfers, (3) syntactic transfers, (4) phonological overgeneralizations, (5) lexical overgeneralizations, and (6) syntactic overgeneralizations. This research also found out some differences in the inter language of the students of different grades.

Keywords: *inter language, pesantren, phonological, lexical, syntactic, language transfers, overgeneralizations*

Introduction

The term IL was first introduced by the American linguist Selinker in 1972 to refer to the linguistic system evidenced when an adult second language (L2) learner attempts to express meanings in the language being learnt. Corder (1981) stated that this temporary and changing grammatical system, which is constructed by the learner, move toward the grammatical system of the TL. In the process of learning a TL, IL improves gradually until it becomes equal, or nearly equal, to the TL. However, IL may reach a phase where its development seems to be apprehended. This permanent discontinuity of progress has been referred to as

fossilization which usually occurs particularly in adult learners' IL system. Based on those definitions, it can be concluded that IL is 'in-between language system', situated between the native language of the learner and the target language being learnt, as seen in the figure below. This system is gradually moving towards the TL as the learning process continues.

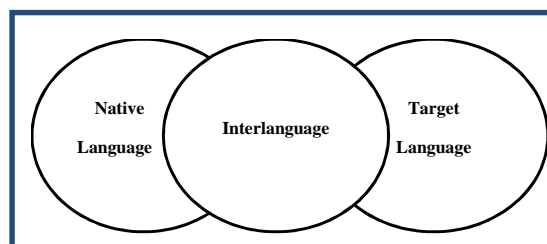


Illustration of Interlanguage

According to Selinker (1972, pp. 216-217), in IL, there are at least five psycholinguistic processes commonly found in a second- or foreign-language learner. These include: (a) borrowing patterns from his/her mother tongue (language transfer), (b) extending patterns from the TL (overgeneralization), and (c) expressing meaning using the words and grammar which are already known by the learner (communication strategy), (d) applying what they have learnt from their instructors or textbooks (transfer of training) and (e) a conscious attempt by the language learners to master the TL (strategies of learning). However, he also pointed out that beyond the five central processes, there exist many other processes which account to some degree for the surface form of IL utterances.

However, this research focuses only on two of those psycholinguistic processes; language transfer and overgeneralization. Selinker (1972) believes that the way in which language transfer happens is that learners make 'inter lingual identifications' in approaching the task of learning a L2: they perceive certain units as the same in their NL, IL, and TL. In other words, they 'stretch' linguistic units by perceiving them as the same in meaning across three systems. Richards and Schmidt (2010, pp. 322-323) added that there are two kinds of transfers. The first kind of transfer is *positive transfer*. Positive transfer is the transfer that makes learning another language easier, and may occur when both the NL and the TL share similar forms. For example, English has the word *transportation*, while in Indonesian

language, it means *transportasi*. This similarity could help English learners or Indonesian learners to learn the word easily. Another example is English and French which share the word *table*, which can have the same meaning in both languages.

The second form is *negative transfer*, also known as *interference*. It is the use of a native-language pattern or rule which leads to an error or inappropriate form in the TL. For example, an Indonesian learner of English may produce the incorrect phrase **a woman beautiful* instead of *a beautiful woman*, because of the transfer of the Indonesian pattern *seorang wanita cantik* (**a woman beautiful*). In another example, an English speaking person who is learning French may produce the incorrect French sentence **Elle regarde les* ("She sees them"), produced according to the word order of English, instead of the correct French sentence *Elle les regarde* (literally, "She them sees"). Although NL to L2 transfer has been studied most widely, it is also generally acknowledged that there can also be a transfer from an L2 to one's NL, as well as L2 to L3 transfer from one second or foreign language to another (Richards and Schmidt, 2010, p. 323).

Related to phonological transfer, according to Tarone (2001, p. 477), when learning the sound system of a new language, learners often categorize sounds in terms of the phonemic systems of their NL, making acquisition of new TL sounds difficult. For instance, a learner may have to decide whether the 'd' sound in the new language is the same or different

from the 'd' sound in his or her NL. This process is called *inter lingual identification*. This confusion sometimes results in the transfer of the NL to the TL. Weinrich (1953, in Major, 2008, p. 67) provides a clearer elaboration on phonological transfer by providing various types of sound transfer, they are: *sound substitution* (a learner uses the nearest L1 equivalent in the L2), *phonological processes* (a learner uses the L1 allophonic variant that does not occur in the same environment in the L2), *under differentiation* (the L1 has distinctions that the L2 does not, e.g., two sounds are separate phonemes in the L1 but are allophones in the L2), *reinterpretation of distinctions* (reinterpreting secondary or concomitant features as primary or distinctive features, e.g., in L1 German/L2 English a learner interpreting English tense/lax distinctions as long and short distinctions), *phonotactic interference* (making the syllable structure in the L2 conform to the L1 syllable structure, e.g., pic [i] nic [i] in L1 Portuguese/L2 English), and *prosodic interference* (e.g. producing falling intonation in utterance final words in L1 English/L2 Mandarin).

The transfer of L1 sounds in L2 learning cannot be separated from the issue of accent of the learners. Scovel (in Ioup, 2008, p. 41) argued that there is a critical period for the acquisition of the pronunciation of L2, because phonological accent was the only part of language that was physical and demanded neuromuscular programming. Scovel (in Bongaerts, 1997, p. 448) predicted that learners who start to learn a second language later than about age 12, will never be able to attain native-speaker

level in phonology. However, he allowed for possibility that there may be some 'super exceptional' foreign language learners who are not bound by critical period constraints.

Beside phonological transfer, the theory of IL also discusses lexical transfer from the first language (L1). By lexical transfer Ro (1994) believed that idiosyncratic properties of L1 lexical items are projected onto the corresponding TL lexical items. Ro added that the word 'corresponding' in this context means translationally related. Tarone (2001, p. 477) gave an example of interlingual identification in lexical transfer. He stated that a learner may perceive NL *table* as exactly the same as TL *mesa*, and develop an IL in which *mesa* can (incorrectly in terms of the TL) be used in expressions like *table of contents*, *table the motion*, and so on.

There has been much debate when it comes to syntactic transfer, and the topic has been controversial (Odlin 1989, p. 85, in Kharitonova, 2013). Yet a great deal of syntactic transfer evidence has been found in studies of word order, relative clauses and negation. It is commonly known that most human languages have either VSO, SVO or SOV as their basic word order. If English and Indonesian are compared, both languages have SVO as their basic word order. However, since Indonesian speaking people use mostly informal language in their daily conversation and the focus of this research is on exploring IL in spoken language. It is interesting to see whether this situation has something to do in the syntactic aspects of the learners' IL.

Beside language transfer, the other psycholinguistic process that becomes the focus of this study is that of overgeneralization of TL rules. This is a process which is also widely observed in child language acquisition: the learner shows evidence of having mastered a general rule, but does not know yet all the exceptions to that rule (Tarone, 2001, p. 477). Richards and Schmidt (2010, p. 416) stated that overgeneralization is indicated when a language learner extends patterns from the TL, e.g. by analogy. It is a process common in both first and L2 learning, in which a learner extends the use of a grammatical rule of linguistic item beyond its accepted uses, usually by making words or structures follow a more regular pattern.

For example, in NL acquisition process, a child may use *ball* to refer to all round objects. Another example of overgeneralization is the use of morpheme *-s* to indicate plural form of a noun, like using the word **mans* instead of *men*. For another example, a learner may use the past tense marker *-ed* for all verbs, regular and irregular alike: *walked, wanted, hugged, laughed, *drinked, *hitted, *goed*.

The overgeneralization error shows clear evidence of progress, in that it shows that the learner has mastered a TL rule, but it also shows what the learner has yet to learn. To the extent that second-language learners make overgeneralization errors, one might argue that they are using the same process as that employed by NL learners. Knowing this situation could help language teachers in sorting out their priority in preparing learning materials.

In Indonesia, English is learnt as a foreign language. In other words, English is not learnt in its natural environment (Abbott, 2001). As the biggest archipelago in the world, Indonesia has 721 different languages and dialects spread throughout the country (Mutzurzikin, 2007). Most people in Indonesia have at least two languages to communicate; a local language and Bahasa Indonesia as their national language. Having already these two languages to communicate, the urge to use English for Indonesian learners is at minimum. Even though English is acknowledged as a foreign language, English is a compulsory subject to be taught in almost all levels of education in Indonesia (Lauder, 2008, p. 13).

One of many forms of educational systems in Indonesia is *Pondok Pesantren* or Islamic boarding school. The term *pondok pesantren*, according to the General Dictionary of Bahasa Indonesia (1996), refers to a place where *santri* (students) learn religious teaching. In contrast with other educational institutions, in *pesantren*, the *santri* usually live near the institution to learn Islamic teaching from the *kiai* or *ustadz*—the teachers (Hidayat, 2007). Despite its reputation as a ‘religious’ institutions, many Islamic boarding schools today have adopted contemporary education system. This results in the adoption of common school subjects including English.

In the *pesantren* where this research was conducted, the students are even obliged to use English and also Arabic in their daily conversation. They

use English and Arabic interchangeably on weekly basis. It means that while other English language learners in Indonesia have problem of lacking the chance to practice, the students in the Islamic boarding school have at least two weeks in a month to speak no language but English. The students in the Islamic boarding school come from different parts of the country. Since the institution is located in West Java Province, *Sundanese* is the NL of most students. The rests have *Javanese* and *Betawi* as their NL and all of them are proficient in Indonesian. Uniquely, the Indonesian language and local languages are not permitted to be spoken in the boarding school area. This creates a 'unique' condition compared to other speech communities that commonly use their NL in their daily communication.

Being required to speak a language that is not their NL and having only limited access to the examples of standard use of the languages in their natural environment, the questions aroused on how they 'survive' to communicate among them. The most possible answer to it is the assumption that IL takes place in this situation. In his 1972 paper on IL, Selinker stated that the relevant data to be used in the study of IL consisted of utterances produced by second-language learners when they were trying to communicate meaning in the TL (Tarone, 2001, p. 478). The relevant data were clearly not learners' utterances produced in response to classroom drills and exercises where the learner was focusing attention on grammar rules or TL form. Just as clearly, the relevant data were not produced with the learner's reflections and awareness about what was

grammatical in the TL; such data, according to Tarone (2001, p. 478), would not provide information about the IL system, but only about the learner's perception of the TL system—and these were different things. Selinker's and Tarone's statements are clearly represented in the situation in this pesantren. Unlike most public schools in Indonesia where English learner's utterance is produced in response to classroom drills and exercises, learners in this pesantren use English in day to day use beside Arabic. This becomes the main reason why this pesantren becomes one of the most ideal places to conduct IL research in Indonesia.

The pesantren where this research was conducted provides two levels of education, *Madrasah Tsanawiyah* (junior high school level) and *Madrasah Aaliyah* (senior high school level). The ages of the learners in the boarding school range between 13-18 years old. However, this research focuses only on the junior high school level. Moreover, fossilization is not discussed in detail here since the learners in the Islamic boarding school are not considered as adult yet and the language learning process was still going on at the time when this research was conducted. Then, it is assumed that the IL system of the learners still has possibility to move towards the TL. However, the different grades of the learners are put into consideration to see whether the English learning process in the pesantren creates different forms of their IL. This is to see the effect of longer exposure of English language learning process in the pesantren to the students' IL.

This research, on the basis of above elaboration, focused on the interlanguage forms of English learners in the pesantren context. As it is described above, the research tried to describe the two of the five psycholinguistic processes of interlanguage, they are the language transfer and overgeneralization. It attempted to describe the learners' interlanguage in phonological, lexical, and syntactic level. Moreover, this research also tried to find out the differences of Interlanguage uttered by the English learners of the junior high school level in the pesantren to see the implication of language learning process that takes place in the institution.

Research Method

This is a descriptive research and to achieve the goals of this research, qualitative approach was employed. This research was conducted in an Islamic boarding school in Tasikmalaya, West Java Province. In this pesantren, the students use both Arabic and English languages as a tool of communication in their everyday life. The research was conducted from February to March 2014.

In total, there were 24 students involved in the research; twelve female students and twelve male students. The subjects' age ranges between 13 to 15 years old. They came from the first grade to the third grade of junior high school. It means each grade was represented by eight subjects.

The data in this research were collected by two main techniques

suggested by Underhill (1987, pp. 28-36). Firstly, twelve research subjects were asked to have conversation in pairs about their activities in the pesantren. Each pair came from the same grade with similar level of English proficiency. Secondly, the data were collected by using direct interview technique. The questions for this interview were semi-structured which allow the students to produce the data required for the purposes of this research. The topic of the interview is about their daily activity in the pesantren. Finally, in addition to those two techniques mentioned above, the techniques suggested by Strange and Shafer (2009, pp. 153-191) to explore the phonological aspect of students' IL are carried out. The students were asked to read aloud a list of words which contains all key sounds in English language. According to Underhill (1987, p. 76), this kind of standardization of what each student should say will result in greater comparability. The sounds symbols reference used in this research is from IPA (International Phonetic Alphabet).

The data collected was transcribed and later filtered by using Corder's procedure (1981) to decide whether a learner's language was an idiosyncrasy or not. Generalization procedure was carried out by presenting the idiosyncratic sentences to the research subjects. If the majority of the students agreed that the sentences are correct, then the forms are certainly considered as an idiosyncrasy.

Once the students' expressions were filtered, the next step was to sort

the data based on the categories of segmental, lexical, and syntactic features. After sorting the data based on those features, the data were subsequently categorized whether they belong to language transfer or overgeneralization.

Findings and Discussion

Phonological Transfers

In this research, it is found out that there are two apparent causes of phonological transfers. They are the unavailability of TL sounds in NL sounds and the transfer of NL typography. Below are shown some examples of the phonological transfers found in the students' utterances.

Table 2. Phonological Overgeneralizations

English word	Pronunciation	IL	Idiosyncrasy	Data Code
busy	/ biz.i/	/ b z.i/	→ ɪ	D46/S1f/Ph/In
introduce	/ in.tr dju s/	/ in.tro d s/	u → → o	D90/S2a/Ph/Co
heat	/hi t/	/he t/	ɪ → e	D52/S1g/Ph/Re
reading	/ ri .dɪ /	/ re .dɪ /	i → e	D112/S2e/Ph/In
finger	/ fɪ . g ʳ/	/ fɪ . d /	g → d	D156/S2h/Ph/Re
hanging	/ hæ .ɪ /	/ hæ n .ɪ /	→ n	D102/S2c/Ph/Co

Firstly, it is found out that most of the students were unable to pronounce these sounds; /æ/, / /, /ð/, / /, / /. For example, the word 'that' is pronounced /det/, instead of /ðæt/, by the students. This is due to the unavailability of the sound /ð/ and the sound /æ/ in the students' NL. Another example is when they try to pronounce / / sound in 'three' and 'nothing'. Instead of / ri / and /n .ɪ /, they pronounce it as /tri / and /n t.ɪ /. The transfer of sound / /, occurs in one case when a student says the word 'before'. Instead of /bɪ f r/, she/he pronounces it as /bɪ po r/. This phenomenon, according to Weinrich (1953, in Major, 2008, p. 67), is called *sound substitution* where a learner uses the nearest L1 equivalent in the L2.

Interestingly, in the last word, there is another sound that is also changed. It is the sound /f/ which is changed into /p/ by the student. The phenomenon is apparently shown by the students from West Java whose NL is Sundanese. It is no secret that some Sundanese-speaking-people have difficulty in pronouncing the fricative sounds /f/ and /v/ and they tend to switch them into the plosive sound /p/. This doesn't mean that they cannot pronounce the sounds, however, they have a tendency to change the sounds into /p/ when they speak naturally. The change from /f/ to /p/, for example, can be found in the words 'friend' and 'different'. Instead of saying /frend/ and /dɪf. r. nt/, they pronounce them as /prend/ and /dɪp. r. nt/. Then, the examples of the

change of sound /v/ into /p/ can be found in when the students try to pronounce the words ‘twelve’ and ‘very’. Instead of pronouncing them as /twelv/ and /ver.i/, they pronounce them as /twelp/ and /per.i/. Only one piece of data shows the reverse change; one student changed the sounds /p/ and /f/ in the word ‘prepare’. Instead of pronouncing it as /pri per/, he/she pronounce it as /fri fer/. This shows the learner’s confusion whether he/she has to use the sound /f/ or /p/ to pronounce the word. According to Fitriandi (2008), this phenomenon happens because Sundanese, originally, doesn’t have the sounds /f/ and /v/ in their language. He believed that the sound /f/ was introduced when Islam religion came to their land in the 13th century.

Some findings of the phonological transfers in this study show some similarity to the findings of the study done by Siregar (2008, p. 27). The similar phonological transfers are the

transfer of / / → /t/, /æ/ → /e/, and / / → /o/. Siregar’s study was done in Medan, therefore the transfers of v/ → /p/, /f/ → /p/, and /p/ → /f/ cannot be found in his study because these transfers, as it was stated before, found where the learners’ NL is Sundanese. In his research, Siregar (2008, p. 29) drew a conclusion that phonological transfers commonly occur because the absence of certain sounds in the learners IL and it is similar to this research.

Phonological Overgeneralizations

All findings of overgeneralization in phonology of students’ IL is presented in the following table. In the table below, it can be seen that there are some sounds which are overgeneralized in the students’ IL. First, some students seem to overgeneralize the letter ‘u’ as / / like in the words ‘bus’ or ‘sun’. They pronounce the word ‘busy’ and ‘introduce’ as / b z.i/ and / introd s/ respectively.

Table 2. Phonological Overgeneralizations

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busy	/ bɪz.i/	/ b z.i/	→ ɪ	D46/S1f/Ph/In
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heat	/hi t/	/he t/	ɪ → e	D52/S1g/Ph/Re
reading	/ ri .dɪ /	/ re .dɪ /	i → e	D112/S2e/Ph/In
finger	/ fɪ . g ɹ /	/ fɪ . d /	g → d	D156/S2h/Ph/Re
hanging	/ hæ .ɪ /	/ hæ n .ɪ /	→ n	D102/S2c/Ph/Co

Secondly, it is found that some of them pronounce letters ‘-ea-’ and overgeneralize it as /e:/ like how it should be pronounced in the words ‘dead’ and ‘head’. They pronounce the words ‘heat’ and ‘reading’ as /he t/ and

/ re .dɪ /. The last, it is found that some of them overgeneralize the sound of letter ‘g’, /d i / in the words ‘finger’ and ‘hanging’ where they pronounce them as / fɪ .d / and / hæ n.j.ɪ / respectively.

Thus, based on the elaboration above, it can be concluded that the learners show evidence of having mastered a general rule of English phonology, but do not yet know all the exceptions to that rule and this confirms Tarone's (2001, p. 477) statement. It is also in line with Richards and Schmidt (2010, p. 416) who stated that overgeneralization is indicated when a language learner extends patterns from the TL, and in this case they extend the phonological patterns of English.

Lexical Transfers

There are some words that are apparently transferred from the subjects' NL to English. Some of the subjects translated the words directly from Indonesian into English without considering the meanings and the functions of the words in English. The first lexical transfer can be seen in the following example.

- NL : Sekarang, di*sekolah* di Universitas Muhammadiyah.
IL : Now, he is *school* in Universitas Muhammadiyah.
TL : Now, he is *studying* in Universitas Muhammadiyah.
(D44/S1e/Le/In)

The word is '*sekolah*' or 'school' in English. According to the General Dictionary of Indonesian Language, '*sekolah*' is a noun which means 'some buildings or institutions where teaching and learning take place', 'a time or a meeting where the students are given some lessons', and 'the effort to gain knowledge'. These meanings are similar to those in English. However, in Indonesian colloquial speech, the word '*sekolah*' can also be used as a verb which means 'to learn/study in a school' or 'to go to school' and some subjects use this last definition in their IL. As it

can be seen from the examples, the students seem to perceive that the word 'school', which is translated from his/her NL '*sekolah*', has the same function as it has in his/her NL colloquial speech.

Similarly, in one finding, one of the learners use the word 'sit' which means '*duduk*' in Indonesian. The general meaning of the word '*duduk*' is 'to sit'. However, the verb '*duduk*' can also be used to show someone's level of education and the learner thinks that this meaning also applies in English. This can be seen from the following sentence.

- NL : Sekarang, di*aduduk* di SMA, di salahsatu SMA di Jakarta, yaitu SMA 11 Yadika.
IL : Now, she is *sit* at senior high school, in one of senior high school in Jakarta, that's SMA 11 Yadika.
TL : Now, she is *studying* in one of the senior high schools in Jakarta, that's SMA 11 Yadika.
(D85/S3e/Sy,Le/In)

The next lexical transfer can be seen from the following examples:

- NL : Kami akan berbicara tentang hidup kita *di sini* dariawal kami datang sampai sekarang.
IL : We will talking about our life *in here* from the first we come here until now.
TL : We will talk about our life *here* from the first we came here until now.
(D1/S1a/Sy,Le/Co)

From that example, it can be seen that the learner perceive that NL adverbial phrase '*di sini*' is the same as 'in here' in English because both have the same preposition, where, actually, the phrase '*di sini*' can simply be translated as 'here' in English. It is, of course, grammatically correct to say 'in here'.

However, this phrase is commonly used to refer to somewhere inside a room or a building e.g. 'It's so cold in here (inside of a room)'. By just using the word 'here', someone can be talking about a general location, not usually inside but it could be inside.

Finally, it can be found that one learner use 'shut up' which means 'to stop talking or making a noise' to replace 'stay' which means 'to not move away from or leave'. This is caused by the transfer of NL 'diam'. The word 'diam' in Indonesian can mean both 'to stop talking or make noises' and 'to not move away'. This can be seen in the following excerpts.

- NL : Kalautidakikutorganisasi...apaya
...apaya...*diam* di mesjid
IL : If not follow organization...what
yes...what yes...*shut up* in the
mosque...what yes...
TL : If not joining organization...*stay*
in the mosque.
(D48/S1f/Le/In)

- NL : Hanyadiam di rumahsaya saja.
IL : Just *shut up* in my home only.
TL : Just stay in my home only.
(D52/S1f/Le/In)

As it can be seen in the above findings and elaboration, the learners apparently translated the words directly from their NL to their TL without considering the real context of the words in the TL. This phenomenon confirms Ro's (1994) statement which argued that, in lexical transfer, the words in the NL and TL are translationally related.

The next form of lexical transfer in the students' IL is the transfer of NL reduplication. Reduplication in Indonesian language is a process of repetition of words or word elements (Chaer, 2007). There are some forms of

reduplication. Phonological reduplication is a reduplication of phonological elements like phoneme or syllable e.g. *pipi*; morphological reduplication is a reduplication of morpheme e.g. *mengobar-ngobarkan*; syntactic reduplication is a reduplication of morpheme which create a clause e.g. *jauh-jauh, diadatang*; idiomatic reduplication is a reduplication of morpheme which create a new meaning which is not related with the original word e.g. *mata-mata/spy* (*mata* =eye). One of the functions of reduplication is to show repeating/intense process (of action). In this research, it is found that some learners use this process in their effort to produce the TL. This can be seen in the following sentences.

- NL : Kami harus*mencari-cari* air.
IL : We must *look for-look for* the
water.
TL : We must *look for* the water.
(D25/S1b/Le/Co)

- NL : Sayamerasasangatkeinginankaren
aacaranyasampaimalem-
malembanget.
IL : I feel so cool and sleepy because
the agenda until *very very night*.
TL : I felt so cold and sleepy because
the agenda was until *very late in*
the night.
(D40/S1d/Sy,Le/Co)

In the first case, it can be seen that the learner uses the reduplication of NL '*mencari-cari*' and produces 'look for-look for' while he/she can simply say 'look for'. There is a difference, however, in the second case. The informal Indonesian phrase '*malem-malembanget*' is translated 'very-very night' by the learner. The reduplicated morpheme in NL is '*malem*' which means 'night' in English. As it can be seen in the phrase,

the reduplicated morpheme in the learner's IL is 'very' and not 'night'. Presumably, this is caused by the NL language system which commonly put the head of a noun phrase before its dependents, while in English, the head of a phrase is commonly put after its dependents. Consequently, instead of reduplicating 'night', the learner naturally reduplicates 'very' which is the first word in the phrase 'very-very night', similar to 'malem' in 'malem-malembanget'.

Then, the next form of lexical transfer found in the students' IL is the transfer of NL hesitation device. In the following excerpt of the learner's IL, it can be seen that the learner translates directly the hesitation device that is commonly used in the NL.

- NL :
Kalautidakikutorganisasi...*apaya*
...*apaya*...diam di mesjid
- IL : If not follow organization...*what*
yes...*what yes*...shut up in the
mosque.
- TL : If I am not joining any
organization activities, I will stay
in the mosque.
- (D48/S1f/Le/In)

It is clear that 'what' is translated from Indonesian 'apa' and 'yes' is translated from 'ya'. 'Apaya' is a hesitation device of the learner's NL that is commonly used when someone is wondering or trying to find a way to express his/her ideas. Therefore, as Ro (1994) had stated, it is translationally related.

Those findings confirm Selinker's (1972) statement that the way a language transfer happens is because learners make 'interlingual identifications'. The subjects perceive certain units in their NL as the same in the TL, and in this case, lexical units.

From the elaboration of the findings above, it can be seen that these learners thought that some lexical units in their NL have the same meaning in their TL. Therefore, the lexical transfers occur.

Lexical Overgeneralizations

The first form of lexical overgeneralization that is commonly found is the form of 'pronoun+ to be'. They are 'I am', 'we are', and 'he is'. It can be seen from the following excerpt.

- IL : *I am* study hard in here to be my
dream is come true.
- TL : I study hard here to make my
dream come true.
- (D40/S1d/Sy,Le/Co)
- IL : *We are* queue up in bathroom.
- TL : We queue up in the bathroom.
- (D22/S1b/Le/Co)

In the analysis process, initially, there is a considerable doubt whether this form should be included in the syntactic or lexical overgeneralization categories. Nonetheless, after looking at some of the students' idiosyncratic sentences which contain this form, it can be seen that some students tend to replace the first-person singular pronoun 'I' with 'I am'; first-person plural pronoun 'we' with 'we are'; and third-person singular pronoun 'he' with 'he is'. Therefore, it can be concluded that this form is included in the lexical overgeneralization.

The second finding of lexical overgeneralization is the overgeneralization of the determiner 'much' in the students' IL which shows that some students are still confused on the use of 'much' and 'many'. 'Much' and 'many' are used in formal positive sentences. However, 'much' is used to refer to uncountable nouns while with nouns that have a plural form, 'many' is used. Here are some examples of

students' IL where they use 'much' instead of 'many'.

IL : The lesson in here is very *much*.

TL : The lessons here are so many.
(D32/S1b/Sy,Le/Co)

Then, pronoun 'other' is used to refer to the second of two things or people, or the thing or person that is left in a group or set of things, while 'another' is used to refer to one more person or thing or an extra amount. However, in this research, it is found that the learners overgeneralized these terms like shown in the following excerpts.

IL : And if we to be to out to other country maybe we to be can speaking to *another*.

TL : And if we go abroad maybe we can speak to others.
(D8/S1a/Sy,Le/Co)

IL : My life in here same with *other*.

TL : My life here is same with the others.
(D9/S1b/Sy,Le/Co)

There, it can be seen that some learners overgeneralized the terms 'other' and 'another' where they should have used 'others' and 'the others' because in their expressions, they actually intended to refer to 'people' which is, of course, consists of more than one individual.

In the following excerpts, some learners show that they overgeneralized the pronoun 'something' when they simply need to say 'thing'. In the second excerpts, the learner says 'nothing' to refer to 'no' which means 'no any' or 'not one'.

IL : Much *something* which make me don't want in here.

TL : Many things which made me don't want to be here.
(D14/S1b/Le/Co)

IL : Maybe *nothing* water.

TL : Maybe no water.
(D23/S1b/Le/Co)

Then, the next is the overgeneralization of adverb 'sometime'. It is found only in one data. It can be seen in the following excerpt:

NL : Then, it's free, but *sometime*, there's activities that like ekstrakurikuler.

TL : Then, it's free, but sometimes, there's activity like extracurricular.
(D89/S3e/Le/In)

The adverb *sometime* is used to refer to 'a time in the future or the past which is not known or not stated'. However, in the learner's expression, 'sometimes' is more appropriate since he/she intended to talk about 'on some occasions but not always or often'.

Besides those findings, there are some words in the learners' utterances which meanings are extended by the learners. The first and the most common word which meaning is extended is 'follow'. This word has many meanings i.e. 'to move behind someone or something and go where they go', 'to happen or come after something', 'to obey or to act as ordered by someone', 'to have interest in something', 'to happen as a result', and 'to understand something being said or done'. However, it can be seen from these examples that the learners use 'follow' to replace 'join' which mean 'to get involved in an activity or journey with another person or group' or 'to become a member of an organization'.

IL : So, we are also *follow* some organization.

TL : So, we also join some organization.
(D30/S1b/Le/Co)

IL : In my elementary school, I *follow* marching band.

TL : In my elementary school, I joined marching band.
(D68/S2e/Le/In)

In the following excerpt, it can be seen that one learner use 'follow' not only to replace 'join' but also to replace 'enroll' which means 'to put yourself or someone else onto the official list of members of a course, college or group'.

IL : Yes I want *follow* to SMA 24 Bandung.

TL : Yes, I want to enroll at SMA 24 Bandung.
(D53/S1f/Le/In)

The last overgeneralization of word meaning can be seen in the following excerpt.

IL : When afternoon teh, (I) *correct* cupboard.

TL : In the afternoon, (I) tidy up (my) cupboard.
(D49/S1f/Le/In)

There, the learner use the verb 'correct' which mean 'to show or tell someone that something is wrong and to make it right' to express 'to make a place or a collection of things tidy'. Therefore, in this context, the most appropriate expression is 'tidy up'.

The other form of lexical overgeneralization is the overgeneralization of the use of nouns as verbs. Examples of overgeneralization of the use of nouns as verbs can be seen in the following excerpt.

IL : We *breakfast* before we go to our class.

TL : We have breakfast before we go to our class.
(D54/S2a/Le/Co)

IL : After that, we *dinner*.

TL : After that, we have dinner.
(D56/S2a/Le/Co)

The words 'breakfast' and 'dinner' are nouns. Therefore the verb 'have' is needed to talk about performing the action mentioned after 'have'. The next noun that experience overgeneralization of use as verb is 'life' as it can be seen below.

IL : So, I feel so happy I can *life* in this boarding.

TL : So, I feel so happy I can live in this boarding.
(D79/S3a/Le/Co)

Instead of using the verb 'live', the learner uses the noun form of it which is 'life'. Then, the last noun is 'job' as it is shown in the following excerpt. The learner uses the noun 'job' to replace 'work' as a verb in his/her utterance.

IL : My mother is *job* in home.

TL : My mother works at home.
(D71/S2f/Sy,Le/In)

Then, the next lexical overgeneralization is the overgeneralization of the use of verb as noun which is found in the learner's IL. It is shown in the following example that the learner uses the verb form 'prepare' instead of 'preparation'.

IL : Yes, that's my *prepare*.

TL : Yes, that's my preparation.
(D82/S3c/Le/Co)

Then, in the following findings, the overgeneralization of adjective form

can be seen. Here, the learner uses the adjective 'good' instead of using its adverb form which is 'well'. The second adjective is 'usual' which is used to refer to 'get used to' as it is shown below.

IL : So, because of we take enjoy, we can do every lesson with *good* one.

TL : So, because we enjoy them, we can do every lesson well.

(D34/S1b/Sy,Le/Co)

IL : I can *usual* to converse about English and Arabic language.

TL : I can get used to have conversation in English and Arabic language.

(D77/S3a/Sy,Le/Co)

The last overgeneralized adjective is 'cold' which is replaced by 'cool'. Both 'cold' and 'cool' are adjectives. However, they both means 'at a low temperature, especially when compared to the temperature of the human body, and not hot or warm'. However, cool refer to 'slightly cold; of a low temperature' or 'slightly cold in a pleasant way'. Since the learner tried to express a high intensity of the low temperature, therefore adjective 'cold' should have been used.

IL : I feel so *cool* and sleepy because the agenda until very very night.

TL : I felt so cold and sleepy because the agenda was until very late in the night.

(D40/S1d/Sy,Le/Co)

The next form of overgeneralization is the overgeneralization of conjunction 'when'. Conjunction 'when' is found to be overgeneralized by some learners to indicate time. It can be seen in the following excerpts that the learners use 'when' to replace 'in' and 'at'.

IL : *When* afternoon teh, correct cupboard.

TL : In the afternoon, I tidy up my cupboard.

(D49/S1f/Le/In)

IL : *When* the first, I'm dislike in here.

TL : At first, I disliked living here.

(D16/S1b/Sy,Le/Co)

In this research, it is also found out that the learners are not aware of the plural forms of nouns. It is probably caused by the unavailability of plural forms of nouns in Indonesian language. In Indonesian language, for instance, one '*angsa*' or 'goose' will remain '*angsa*' even it is more than one while the English word will become 'geese'. In other example, horse is horses in its plural form while in Indonesian language; '*kuda*' will remain the same when it is more than one. Therefore, it can be seen below that the learners overgeneralize singular forms.

IL : The *lesson* in here is very much.

TL : The lessons here are so many.

(D32/S1b/Sy,Le/Co)

IL : We can get many different *culture* but we adapt to be good *friend*, best *friend* cause we life here from about twenty four *hour*...

TL : We can get many different cultures but we adapt to be good friends, best friends, 'cause we live here for about twenty four hours...

(D80/S3a/Le/Co)

From the above elaboration, it can be seen that the findings confirms Trarone's (2001: 477) view which stated that the learner shows evidence of having mastered a general rule, but does not know yet all the exceptions to that rule. They seem to extend some patterns from

the TL and this is in line with Richards and Schmidt's (2010: 416) statement.

Syntactic Transfers

In this research, it is found that there are partial transfers in the students' IL.

- NL : Aktivitassayasamasaja.
IL : My activities *same only*.
TL : My activities are also same.
(D5/S1a/Sy/Co)

There, it can be seen that the phrase 'my activities' is acceptable in the TL rule. However, it can be seen that the verb 'are' is missing and the adjectival phrase 'same only' is identical to its NL 'samasaja'. In other example, similar pattern occurs.

- NL : Mungkin, menurut saya,
membuat kitamenjadibisabahasa.
IL : Maybe, my opinion, *make us to be can language*.
TL : Maybe, in my opinion, (it) can make us able to use the language.
(D7/S1a/Sy/Co)

The phrase 'my opinion' is acceptable in the TL and it is not considered a transfer from the NL since in the NL's pattern, the possessive pronoun comes after the noun being possessed. However, after that, the learner apparently translated directly from his/her NL. In other excerpts, NL's sentence pattern is fully transferred and it can be seen in the following learners IL.

- NL : *Ya, seorang guru bahasa Inggris*.
IL : *Yes, a teacher English*.
TL : Yes, an English teacher.
(D75/S2f/Sy/In)

In this example, it can be seen that the learner translated every word in his/her NL sentence pattern. In other

words, he/she translated it word for word. In Indonesian language, in a noun phrase, head word commonly comes before its dependents and this pattern is transferred in the learner's IL. 'A teacher English', instead of 'an English teacher', occurs apparently because of learner's IL '*seorang guru bahasa Inggris*'.

From the elaboration above, it can be seen that the NL sentence structure posed a negative transfer in the learners' effort to learn English. This confirms Selinker's (1972) view that the learners make 'interlingual identifications' in approaching the task of learning a TL. The learners perceive the sentence structure in their NL as similar to the sentence structure in English as their TL. Therefore, as it was stated by Richards and Schmidt (2010, pp. 322-323), the transfer occur.

Syntactic Overgeneralizations

Syntactic overgeneralization is the overgeneralization of syntactic rules or, in other words, the grammatical arrangement of words in a sentence. The findings of the syntactic overgeneralizations in the learners' IL will be presented below.

One of the most common findings in the learners' IL is the overgeneralization of present tense. It is possible that the cause of this is that English has tenses for verbs while Indonesian language has no similar concept. In the following sentences, it is shown that the learners use present tense instead of past tense. In the context of their conversation, the learners were talking about the past. In this context, the student was asking his/her friend whether the teacher was in the mosque to help him/her memorize the holy book.

- IL : Is there the teacher?
TL : Was the teacher there?
(D42/S1d/Sy/Co)

Secondly, the other form of syntactic overgeneralization is the deletion of 'to be'. In the following examples, it can be seen that the learners do not understand the function of 'to be' in the TL. In the first and the second excerpts, the learner do not use 'to be' in their questions. In the second excerpts, the learners were talking about their past therefore the appropriate 'to be' that is used in the TL is 'was'.

IL : How your life in here?
 TL : How is your life here?
 (D2/S1a/Sy,Le/Co)

IL : What club the winner?
 TL : What club was the winner?
 (D61/S2c/Sy/Co)

The next syntactic overgeneralization is the deletion of determiner 'a'. Determiner 'a' is used before a noun to refer to a single thing or person that has not been mentioned before, especially when someone is not referring to a particular thing or person, or does not expect listeners or readers to know which particular thing or person he/she is referring to. In the following excerpt, the learners do not use it in their utterances.

IL : I just have little brother.
 TL : I just have *a* little brother.
 (D47/S1f/Sy/In)

The next part of syntactic overgeneralization is the deletion of preposition. There are some prepositions that are missing in the learners' IL while it should have been there according to TL rules. The first missing preposition is 'in'. In expressing someone's opinion, expression 'in my opinion' is usually used. However, in the following excerpt,

it is shown that the learner doesn't use the preposition 'in'

IL : Maybe, my opinion, make us to be can language.
 TL : Maybe, *in* my opinion, (it) can make us able to use the language.
 (D7/S1a/Sy/Co)

The next preposition missing is 'to'. Preposition 'to' has many functions. It is used as a locative preposition which shows direction. The other role of 'to' is that it is used before a verb to show that it is in the infinitive as it can be seen in the second excerpt, like in the following excerpt. However, the learner does not use the preposition in his/her IL.

IL : I want study in America.
 TL : I want *to* study in America.
 (D45/S1e/Sy/In)

The last is the deletion of preposition 'at' in the prepositional phrase 'good at' as it can be seen below.

IL : ...to enter to (school name) to be good language.
 TL : ...to enter to (school name) to be good at language.
 (D72/S2f/Sy/In)

There are some prepositions that are overgeneralized by the learners. Firstly, it is the overgeneralization of preposition 'at'. Preposition 'at' is used to point out specific time e.g. hour; to indicate a specific place; to indicate an email address; or to indicate an activity e.g. 'I'm good at drawing'. However, as it can be seen in the following excerpt, the learner uses 'at' before days. To show days, preposition 'on' is used.

IL : And *at* Monday and Friday, after isya prayer, we usually follow public speaking.

TL : And on Monday and Friday, after isya prayer, we usually join public speaking.
(D57/S2a/Sy,Le/Co)

The second preposition which is overgeneralized by the learners is 'to'. In the following excerpts, it is shown that the learners use 'to' after modal verbs 'can't' and 'must'.

IL : Oh sorry man, I can't *to* sing it.
TL : Oh sorry man, I can't sing it.
(D63/S2c/Sy/Co)

IL : Here, we must *to* use well our time.
TL : Here, we must use our time well.
(D76/S3a/Sy/Co)

Next is the overgeneralization of preposition 'with'. It can be seen below that the learner says 'talking with' instead of 'talking to'.

IL : We are talking *with* our friend.
TL : We talk *to* our friends.
(D37/S1b/Sy,Le/Co)

Then, the next preposition being overgeneralized is 'about'. In the following excerpt, the learner uses 'about' when it should have been 'in' because in the context, the learner talks about 'talking in English and Arabic', and not talking about the languages.

IL : I can usual to converse *about* English and Arabic language.
TL : I can get used to have conversation in English and Arabic language.
(D77/S3a/Sy,Le/Co)

The next preposition being overgeneralized is preposition 'from'. It is shown below that the learner overgeneralize preposition 'from' where it should have been 'for'.

IL : ...cause we life here *from* about twenty four hour...
TL : ...cause we live here for about twenty four hour...
(D80/S3a/Le/Co)

Finally, the last preposition being overgeneralized is 'in'. Preposition in is used to indicates a place. However, in this context, the learner indicates a specific place 'home'. Therefore, the appropriate preposition according to the TL rule is 'at'.

IL : My mother is job *in* home.
TL : My mother works at home.
(D71/S2f/Sy,Le/In)

The Interlanguage Differences

The differences in the interlanguage of the learners of different grades provide a picture of the effect of the length of exposure of English learning process in the pesantren. The first grade subjects, at the time of this research, had spent their time in the pesantren for at least 6 to 7 months. The second grade learner, therefore, would have spent about a year more than the first grade, while the third grade subjects would have spent about a year more than the second grade. The results of this research which have been discussed above have shown some differences in the interlanguage of the learners. The differences are based on in which grade a particular interlanguage aspect occurs.

In phonological level, the language transfers phenomena are found in all grades. The phonological transfers in the learners' interlanguage are the transfers of /æ/ → /e/, / / → /t/, /ð/ → /d/, /ð/ → /t/, / / → /o/, and / / → /o/, /v/ → /p/, /f/ → /p/, and /p/ → /f/. However, there is something that distinguishes the transfers of /v/ → /p/, /f/ → /p/, and /p/ → /f/ to other phonological transfers. These transfers are commonly found in some learners whose native language is

Sundanese. This fact shows that the learning process has met an obstruction in eliminating the interference of learners' NL. This is one of the most common issues in second or foreign language learning since the acquisition of the pronunciation of L2 or TL was the only part of language that was physical and demanded neuromuscular programming (Scovel, in Ioup, 2008, p. 41).

In phonological overgeneralization, learners shows evidence of having mastered a general rule of English phonology, but does not know yet all the exceptions to that rule (Tarone, 2001, p. 477). In this research, the phonological overgeneralizations are found only in the first and the second grade learners. They are only found in the expressions of learner S1f, S1g, S2a, S2c, and S2e. This can be an indication that the exposure of the language learning process, to a particular extent, has helped the learners to minimize the phonological overgeneralizations.

Lexical transfers that are found in the learners' IL are: transfer of NL words' meanings: 'sekolah', 'di sini', 'duduk', 'diam'; transfer of NL reduplication; and transfer of NL hesitation device. Lexical transfers are mostly found in the expressions of the first grade learners.

Lexical transfers are only found once each in the second and the third grade. This is probably because the students of the second and the third grade have received more exposure of English and consequently improved their vocabulary..

Lexical overgeneralizations, on the other hand, are found in all grades and it can be seen in the following table. Although the lexical transfers are found mostly in the first grade, which proves that the learners of the second and the third grade have received more exposure

of English vocabulary, most students still overgeneralize the English vocabulary that they have mastered.

The syntactic transfers that are found in the learners' IL are the negative transfers of the learners' native language. The transfer in this level can be found in all grades. Along with the syntactic transfer, the syntactic overgeneralizations can also be found in the expression of the subjects from all grades. This indicates that, although there are some clues of improvement in phonological and lexical level, the learners of all grades still seem to encounter some problems in syntactic level.

Conclusion

One of the significant implications of this research's findings is to give teachers, especially those in the boarding school an insight to their learners' language. Since the interlanguage concept is not only important for the development of the students' grammar system, it will also have consequences of the concept for the teachers and their work in the classroom. By studying learners' IL, language teachers may gain insight into the learner's state of knowledge at any particular moment and also into the strategies of learning that the learner may be using. With this understanding, they will also be in a better position to develop appropriate corrective methods.

Secondly, by understanding the nature of English learners' interlanguage in Indonesia, the policy makers will consider it in developing curriculum or materials especially for English language teaching in Indonesia. Of course, this cannot be done based only on a couple of researches. Numerous studies of interlanguage nature, which is part of second or foreign language acquisition study, needs to be carried out. Revealing

the process of second or foreign language acquisition will require years of labor and need interdisciplinary studies. However, when language acquisition researchers get on with this effort, the results would be rewarding to disclose gradually the real nature of human language acquisition.

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