

CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL REVIEW

This chapter presents the review of some related theories concerning a language acquisition, ESL writing instruction, language misconceptions (EA analysis), and English Linguistic system mainly *-ing* form structure.

A. Second Language Acquisition

In Indonesia, English serves as both the second language and foreign language at the same time, which are not broadly practiced and employed in the certain purposes, employment, and education. English is an international language (*lingua franca*) that means every country employs English for economic partnership, politic, bilateral, education, social issue and so forth. English is broadly taught as any of school materials in order to bear upon basic communication and master four fundamental abilities (listening, speaking, reading, and writing). The policy of English learning and teaching in Indonesia has developed in the term of time and it is largely affected by economic and political issues.

English has transformed to be a world language due to great expansion out of the British island throughout the world as the purposes for commerce, colonialism, and continental invasion. The spread began when the English colony occupied North America in seventeenth and eighteenth centuries and competed against the colony of Spain, French, and Dutch all at once. Time has been going on for many years then United stated eventually established its linguistic policy to be contested with superiority of British English. United state government insisted

on citizens' English proficiency for residency acceptance(Barber, et. al, 2009: 239). From the great expansion, English is nowadays used by many people around the world and the measures of spread then agree on a range of English varieties served for specific purposes in the social context.

According to Troike (2006) the scope of second language in accordance with the content of L2 learning. It has to do with the utility in which the L2 will take a role in our lives and influence what is learnt later on. There are several distinctions generally categorized into the following literature;

- a. A second language is characteristically a formal or communally ascendant language which serves in education, employment, and certain basic purposes. It is typically acquired by marginal society or refugees who use another language natively. The previous distinctness obviously differs from the following terms involved in this list.
- b. A foreign language is that is not broadly produced in the learners' direct social circumstance which is possibly used for upcoming journey or other cross-cultural interaction ambience and considered as the one curricular prerequisite or school admittance.
- c. A library language is that behaves particularly as an instrument for advance learning, chiefly when books or journals in a certain field of study are commonly unavailable in the delivery of learners' native tongue.
- d. An auxiliary language is that is required to comprehend for some official purposes in their constant political situation, or purposes of extensive

communication, although it consists of first language terms used as a intellectual means.

Second language is defined as another language acquired following someone's primary language in his social surroundings. The second language is typically regarded as a language officially practiced and utilized for particular purposes; 1) foreign language as a language learnt to meet prerequisite for school admittance, employment and so on but not used in the daily practice, 2) library language and auxiliary language as languages utilized for official means to communicate among people with the same expertise background as academic ground or intellectual support.

English can be employed in a range of language varieties in the world and the English language has represented several regional forms. The practice of English throughout the sub-continent with its 845 distinct languages and dialects obviously serves for administrative purposes Barber, et. al, (2009). Asian countries including Indonesia nowadays apply English as the medium of instruction and it is also practiced as the second language following the national language. As described in advance that English in Indonesia develops to be foreign language and second language. English is indeed produced for daily practice in Indonesia amid globalization and cross-cultural interaction nevertheless English for some people find peculiar, confusing, and difficult. English is therefore established in formal instruction at school.

The field of second language acquisition research is attempted to identify how someone achieves the language proficiency. SLA includes informal learning that

arises in the natural condition and formal learning that arises in the classroom interaction. SLA observation has been conducted based on numerous perspectives for many years. The viewpoint of SLA is much influenced by three pivotal approaches—linguistics, psychology, and social which subsequently develop and account for the second language acquisition Troike, (2006).

Language acquisition is likely performed unconsciously through imitation and habit formation which are perceived in the behaviouristic approach. The approach realizes that the linguistic system of first language is utilized for the second language learning which allows the similarities among two languages. The role of experiences or practice in using the language can influence the constructional schemas in mind as the acquirer prefers to construct a sentence based on what is exposed or accessed to them.

Yet, the linguists of generative approach share the claim that structure is the innate capacity that is already conceptualized in mind. Language is systematic that means language is created based on rules or principles Doughty, C. J., Long, (2005). To realize the rules, the cognition capacity is required to organize inputs within interacting with others. The knowledge of structure thus by means creates a new production of language Troike (2006).

1. The Use Based Theory

This theory shares the claim that structure or abstract knowledge has its origin from the actual experiences in using the language. Thus, the experiences with the language as the sources to stimulate acquirers' behaviour and the development of linguistic representation in producing a sentence and changes (Baybee, 2010;

Bybee & Thompson, 1997; Croft & Cruse, 2004). The complexity of language emerges not only through the individual instinct towards a particular language (innate capability) but also through the cognition interaction and the language use.

(Bybee, 2010: 46) argue that the usage-based theory consider the development of cognition affecting the language use and the ability to construct language structure. The procedures can be practiced as follow (i) categorization; which determines a particular phrase or clause, and certain linguistic features as an instance of the language use (ii) chunking; adaptive system as a process of regularly practicing the language construction (iii) rich memory; memorizing some information from experiences which are regularly practiced (iv) analogy; conceptualizing the available pattern remembered in his mind, and (v) cross-modal association; cognition capacity which connects the language structure with meaning. Therefore, the role of cognition is utilized to understand the linguistic structure and meaning.

a. Constructional Schemas

The level of someone's constructional ability develops at regular intervals; starting from the acquisition of language input in a child's early language up to the level of ability to process a complex language. Early construction of language is acquired and store in the individual's mind. The language construction is acquired from a range of actual experiences with the language which is then conceptualized by the acquirers' cognition capacity for producing a novel expression (Dabrowska, 2004; Schwartz & Causarano, 2007; Langacker, 2008). The representation of individual's language construction or constructional

schemas consists of two; low-level constructional schema and high-level constructional schema(Tomasello, 2003; Croft & Cruse, 2004; Baybee, 2010).

[1] Low-level constructional schema

In this stage, the constructional schema is less complicated and less abstract, much more referring to the meaning of lexical items than the representation of aspectual concept(Tomasello, 2003; Croft & Cruse, 2004; Baybee, 2010). The stages of this construction contain *pre-linguistic communication* in which the level of a human infant is found through his gesture for the means of communication to others. The second stage is *utterance or word* in which child's early communication is produced through the utterance instead of a word as the smallest unit of a baby's intention to communicate with others. The third stage is schema and construction in which a child can comprehend and produce a meaningful speech—combining a word to refer to the related action in general and using the model of expression systematically.

The fourth stage is *item based construction* in which a child already has syntactic marking schemas as a part of construction. Yet, the syntactical pattern is rather basic and special depending on whether or not a number of language inputs are already exposed to a child. And the last but not least, *abstract construction* is the stage in which the construction is more complex with some other lexical items and of course in the context of communication.

[2] high-level constructional schema

In this stage, a child has been able to construct a complicated structure of language and able to understand the language pattern (Tomasello, 2003; Croft

&Cruse, 2004; Baybee, 2010). This stage contains two constructions. It is *complex construction* in which a child has been able to combine a word in the permanent pattern and *constraint construction* in which a child can construct grammatical utterances in a creative way. Many other alternative grammatical utterances can be produced and unrestricted to a fixed pattern.

This theory considers a human infant's acquiring the language that consists of certain stages. Therefore, the language teachers should put closer attention on the development of language proficiency naturally. Teachers do not always emphasize on explicit learning that requires the role of cognition capacity. Cognition capacity is for sure filled with a range of experiences exposed to students. Students should acquire some language inputs and teachers give them feedback that is utilized to correct errors/mistakes and avoid any fossilization.

b. Types of frequency

Since the knowledge of linguistic has its origin from the language use other than the individual generation (innate capability), the language use can therefore affect acquirers' linguistic representation. Routine so called 'frequency' can intensify the acquirers' mental representation of grammar. Additionally, Frequency comprises two; both token frequency and type frequency (Baybee, 2010; Bybee & Thompson, 1997; Croft & Cruse, 2004).

Type frequency is defined as the occurrences of particular lexical category found in a text. Meanwhile, token frequency is defined as the occurrences of particular grammatical function found in a text Baybee (2010). Frequency

consistsof two; low-frequency that particular linguistic elements occurs more rarely and high-frequency occurs more often.

B. ESL Writing Instruction

Some techniques are necessary to develop writing skills; language structures, text functions, themes or topics, creative expression, composing processes, content, and genre and contexts of writing (Hyland, 2004: 2-4). Writing is organized in the form of symbols that are coherent among words, phrases, clauses, and sentences based on the internal linguistic rule. The concept of language structure is meant that writing as product which emphasizes formal text component or grammatical characteristic of texts.

Therefore, learning to write in a foreign language particularly engages in linguistic awareness and the term choices, syntactic arrangement, and cohesive devices. Writing is regarded as a creation composed from the writer's demand of grammatical and lexical comprehension. Learners utilize their comprehension on grammatical pattern to develop writing(Hyland, 2004: 2-4).

C. Language Misconception

Learning makes up a collective activity that students absorb additional experiences which is equivalent to their previous principle. As students' principle is firmly established, they will integrate additional information more easily. Meanwhile, students hardly define additional information if students do not set up everything to cope with it Maigoro, et. al, (2017). If the new information draws a distinction from previous experiences, the students may overlook the novel information till they try to inter-connect to the prior facts.

If new facts are equivalent to the prior experiences, meaningful learning will so happen. Thus, it is important to recognize that students' prior understanding employed in learning pattern can help them develop their own belief Maigoro, et. al, (2017). When teachers deliver particular explanation in a number of learning materials, teachers will precisely explain their students with their pre-instructional knowledge. Students' previous knowledge can be nonetheless mistaken, illogical or misinformed. The deviation is supposed to be alternative conceptions or misconceptions Burgoon, Heddle, & Duran, (2010) in Maigoro, et. al, (2017).

1. The Theory of Error Analysis (EA)

The analysis of language mainly identifying students' deviant production of language, Error Analysis (EA) is commonly associated with a approach to identify students' linguistic proficiency in the target language. EA is first carried out by Corder in 1970 and other partner. EA is designed to explain and identify deviant production of language in learners' interlanguage system Brown (1994). The term *interlanguage* is first introduced by Selinker (1972). Interlanguage constitutes systematic conciseness that persists learners' L1 and L2. Thus, the researcher seeks to identify students' error in composing *-ing* forms.

Deviant production of language is distinguished into error, mistake and lapse. Error refers to learners' language production which emerges owing to lack of knowledge in the target language. Mistake and lapse refer to learner's linguistic performance which emerges since learners are nervous or forget and so on Norrish, (1983).

Error of competence is distinguished into: 1) interlingual error; as two languages contain distinct linguistic systems, it is potential for learners to create so-called interference (negative transfer), 2) intralingual error or developmental error; that refers to students' comprehension in the target language (the way to comprehend language rules) Richards, (1974).

Intralingual or developmental errors comprise; overgeneralization which is a deviant production of target language (e.g. "she can goes to the school alone" wherein English also allows "she can go" and "she goes") Richards, (1974). Ignorance of rule restriction is an error that still refers to over-generalization (e.g. "she enjoysto have a trip" wherein English also allows "she want to visit his mother") Richards, (1974). Incomplete application of rules is an error that refers to inappropriate trial by learners in composing the target language (e.g. "Rudi selling clothes in the market" wherein English also allows "an animal walking under the tree seems like a bear" Richards, (1974).and false-concept hypothesized is an error that refers to learners' faulty conception of distinction in the target language rule (e.g. "i am interesting with her" wherein English also allows "the act is interesting to witness") Richards, (1974).

D. English Linguistic Feature

Word is categorized word into two types; lexical category and functional category. Lexical category is traditionally a word that provides certain meaning in accordance with its own characteristic such as noun, verb, adjective, adverb, and so on. Meanwhile, functional category is considered as a word which is not

meaningful but available for the grammatical function Greenbaum & Nelson, (2002).

A word can be broken down into several parts and conceptually it consists of one or two morphemes Greenbaum & Nelson, (2002). Every morpheme can contribute to the meaning of a word. The word *teacher* actually contains two divisions; *teach* and *er* each of them is respectively considered as a morpheme. In addition, morpheme is divided into categories; 1) free morpheme, which is a morpheme able to stand alone as a word, 2) bound morpheme, which is a morpheme unable to stand alone but attached to another free morpheme.

Morphology does not only examine a set of morphemes. It is tricky when a word, for instance, *subtract* is how to decode. It consists of two morphemes of which are actually abstract to the meaning. Every word is attempted to translate, despite any specific meaning but every fragment does not represent the meaning to the overall merger. The combination actually contributes to the new meaning which is distinct from the genuine one. Many linguists then define *root* as a morpheme that might be potentially substituted with other morphemes. Meanwhile, affix is a morpheme that is restricted to the replacement of other morpheme. The word *express* consists of two morphemes *ex* + *press*. Morpheme *ex* seems to be prefix (prefix, which stands on the early position of a word) due to the restriction of replacement. Morpheme *press* is regarded as root due to the possibility of replacement (exclude, exact, execute).

1. English Morphology

a. Derivational and inflectional suffixes

Why is suffix? There are two types of affix—prefix and suffix. However, English more dominantly provide the production of suffix than that of prefix. Derivation is meant by an affix able to create distinct meaning or new word classes from the initial through affixation process. The following is a list of English derivational suffixes including the description about the category of their base (none of bound roots) and the substitution of a new word. O’grady., et.al,(1996).

Table 1.

Derivational Suffix in English

Suffix	Substitution	Examples
-able	V-A	Fixable, understandable
-(at)ion	V-N	Action, direction
-er	V-N	Teacher, worker
-ing ¹	V-N	The shooting, the dancing
-ing ²	V-A	The sleeping giant, a blazing fire
-ive	V-A	
-al	V-N	Impressive, restrictive
-ment	V-N	Approval, arrival
-ful	N-A	Government, establishment
-(i)al	N-A	Beautiful, hopeful
-(i)an ¹	N-A	Presidential, national
-(i)an ²	N-A	Arabian, Indonesia
-ic	N-A	Chomsky-an, Einstein-ian
-ize ¹	N-V	Optimistic, moronic
-less	N-A	Hospitalize, colonize
-ous	N-A	Brainless, homeless
-ate	A-V	Poisonous, lecherous
-en	A-V	Activate, captivate
-ity	A-N	Deaden, harden
-ize ²	A-V	Sensitivity, priority
-ly ¹	A-Adv	Modernize, familiarize
-ly ²	N-A	Slowly, happily
-ness	A-N	Friendly
-ism	N-N	Brightness, cleanness Materialism, behaviourism

Inflectional is an affix which is not significantly potential to the change either category or meaning (O'Grady, et al, 1996: 144). Inflection is typically last-added; where it is embedded to a word then there is none of suffix able to attach afterwards. In the case of noun, inflection can take a role as the mark of plurality. In the case of verb, inflection can take a role as the mark of singularity on the 3rd pronoun/person, non-past concordance and as the mark of past tense. In the case of adjective, inflection also can take a role as comparison.

Table 2.

Inflectional Suffixes in English

Collocation	Description
Count-Nouns	
Plural –s	The pencils
Possessive -s	Today's assembly
Verbs	
3 rd pronoun/person singular non-past -s	Marry buys a book
Progressive –ing	He is swimming
Past tense –ed	He studied English
Past participle –en/ed	I have eaten/she has studied English
Adjectives	
Comparative -er	The bigger one
Superlative –est	The smallest one

b. -ing Form

From the description above, it can be concluded that English suffixes are distinguished into many categories, including *-ing* affixes. The affix *-ing* is regarded as derivation and inflection. As described in the table above, affix *-ing* is probably noun or adjective that affects the meaning or category (derivation). Affix *-ing* additionally may act for the grammatical function (inflection). The lexical categories of *-ing* form are illustrated in the subsequent table:

Table 3.

Suffix –ing in English

Types	Morphemes	Lexical Category
<i>-ing</i> ¹	Inflection	Verb
<i>-ing</i> ²	Derivation	Noun
<i>-ing</i> ³	Derivation	Adjective

Learners tend to ignore and over-generalize this classification when composing *-ing* forms. Lack of knowledge concerning this structure causes learners produce erroneous language. Teachers therefore necessarily deliver a further material of *-ing* form. *-ing* form is just added to particular verb. However, it is lexically and inflectionally different.

2. English Syntax

a. English Verbal Complement

Constituents of a sentence are different between forms and functions. A word can be the same form (noun, adjective, or verb) but can be different when ordered and grouped (Quirk, et. al, (1985)). Some constituents are formed based on their levels of structure; word, phrase, clause and morpheme.

-ing form can act for giving a mark of grammaticality (inflection) or affecting the meaning or parts of speech (derivation) which takes place in the subsequent word base. The base *sing* which is lexically verb contains numerous forms when combined with *-ing* form (singing as adjective), (singing as noun), and (singing as verb itself). A word can possess the different form but possess the same function. It occurs as the particular form can act for another form based on the fixed-slot in the constituent of sentence.

Linguists explain a number of terms to address *-ing* forms; gerund, *-ing*deverbal noun, verbal noun, participle, verbal adjective, *-ing*deverbal adjective. *-ing* form refers to the actual performance. The *-ing* form construction is in fact neutral to every aspect of tenses. For instance, ‘I enjoy singing religious songs’. The *-ing* clause may be extended to be a definite clause ‘i enjoys that i sings religious songs’ Quirk, et. al, (1985). Gerundive is sometimes the same as verbal noun that behaves as the complement. However, *-ing*deverbal noun is as well complicated to define and makes learners confused to differentiate (Taher, 2015).

1. Many **paintings** are shown off at the front of hall.
2. The **killing** of a woman recently happens in the United States.

In order to distinguish both terms, It is essential to realize that verbal noun contains *-ing*deverbal noun or gerundive. *-ing*deverbal is defined as a construction that enables the pluralized form. The word ‘readings’ is refers to *-ing*deverbal noun owing to its pluralized form. The word ‘readings’ can switch to the concrete noun ‘books’. Additionally, the word ‘killing’ refers to verbal noun owing to none of pluralized marker Taher, (2015). According to Quirk, et. al, (1985)–*ing* form contains numerous functions:

- (1) Subject: *teaching kids* needs extra persistence
- (2) Subject complement: his fist trip is exploring the Sunda strait.
- (3) Direct object: they enjoy *playing* cards till midnight.
- (4) Prepositional complement: i am looking forward to *visiting* the natural villages.

(5) Noun Phrase Modification

- a. Noun Head: the *painting* of animal is beast.
- b. Pre modification: lady have bought 2 *drawing* books

In addition, *-ing* form contains numerous grammatical functions (adjectival, predicative, and adverbial) Greenbaum & Nelson, (2002). For instance, *-ing* form as adjectival so-called verbal adjective, *-ing*deverbal adjective, and *-ing* participle gives further explanation in noun phrases or as object complement Taher, (2015). What makes different between verbal adjective and *-ing*deverbal adjective is that verbal adjective is a verb acting as an adjective (for example, the *crying* baby) meanwhile *-ing*deverbal adjective is originally adjective with the addition of *-ing* suffix (for example, inspiring ideas). *-ing* participle is the other form that probably acts for adjective as well. However, it is distributed in clause constituent meaning that it indicates the force of verb (an action role) besides also taking an object or adverbial afterwards. It is commonly distributed as subject complement and object complement, for example, “my mother likes him singing”.

-ing participle also acts for a predicative or main verb (for example, they have been working in a company) and adverbial (for example, since leaving for the urban area, Garry felt happier).

b. Problematic *-ing* Form Constructions

Second language learners are most likely failed to differentiate the construction containing *-ing* form in a sentence. There are numerous confusions/deviant constructions found:

1. It is hardly to distinguish lexical categories containing *-ing* form; whether it is categorized as noun, verb, or adjective,
2. It is hardly to distinguish a word containing *-ing* form; whether it is acted as a clause or a phrase. Characteristics of *-ing* form when constructed in a sentence as well contain some restrictions. It is based on whether it is a part of phrase or non-finite clause. a) *-ing* clause is typically used with the genitive case despite as the marker of phrase Quirk, et. al, (1985) (e.g. they have no objection to my *giving* speech). In sentence [1], the *-ing* form is not regarded as a verbal noun that is typically found in the phrase form. However, the sentence contains the direct object (speech) that follows *-ing* form, which demonstrates that the *-ing* form is influenced with verbal characteristic. The possessive adjective embedded (which is any of determiners in noun phrases), on the other hand, demonstrates a nominal characteristic (nominal verb).
3. It is hardly to distinguish a range of verbs and adjectives typically embedded by *-ing* form Quirk, et. al, (1985). Some verbs and adjectives are typically followed by *-ing* form construction to state the actual performance or to state the complete performance (e.g. they enjoy eating themselves without me and Reno is busy finishing his task),
4. It is hardly to distinguish either the construction of *-ing* form or infinitive which is preceded by a particle *-to*.
5. It is hardly to interpreted distinct categories among verbal noun, deverbal noun, and nominal verb, when *-ing* form occurs alone or is attached to a genitive that may substitute concrete deverbal nouns or abstract verbal noun

itself Quirk, et. al, (1985). It may be syntactically ambiguous as a product of action (mode interpretation) or an action itself (action interpretation) (e.g. they hate lying and he likes my singing). The genitive is restricted or avoided from the subject which is not personal pronoun, none of personal reference, and lengthy phrases Quirk, et. al, (1985) (e.g. I avoid the ?bike's crashing my younger sister).

E. Review of The Related Studies

Previous investigation was already carried out by (Almulla, 2015) identifying the role of frequency in the language acquisition. The research claimed that the input frequency exposed to students contributed to language learning. The study included 18 English native speakers (as a controlled group) and 41 ESL learners. The ESL learners were further distinguished from 2 proficiency groups.

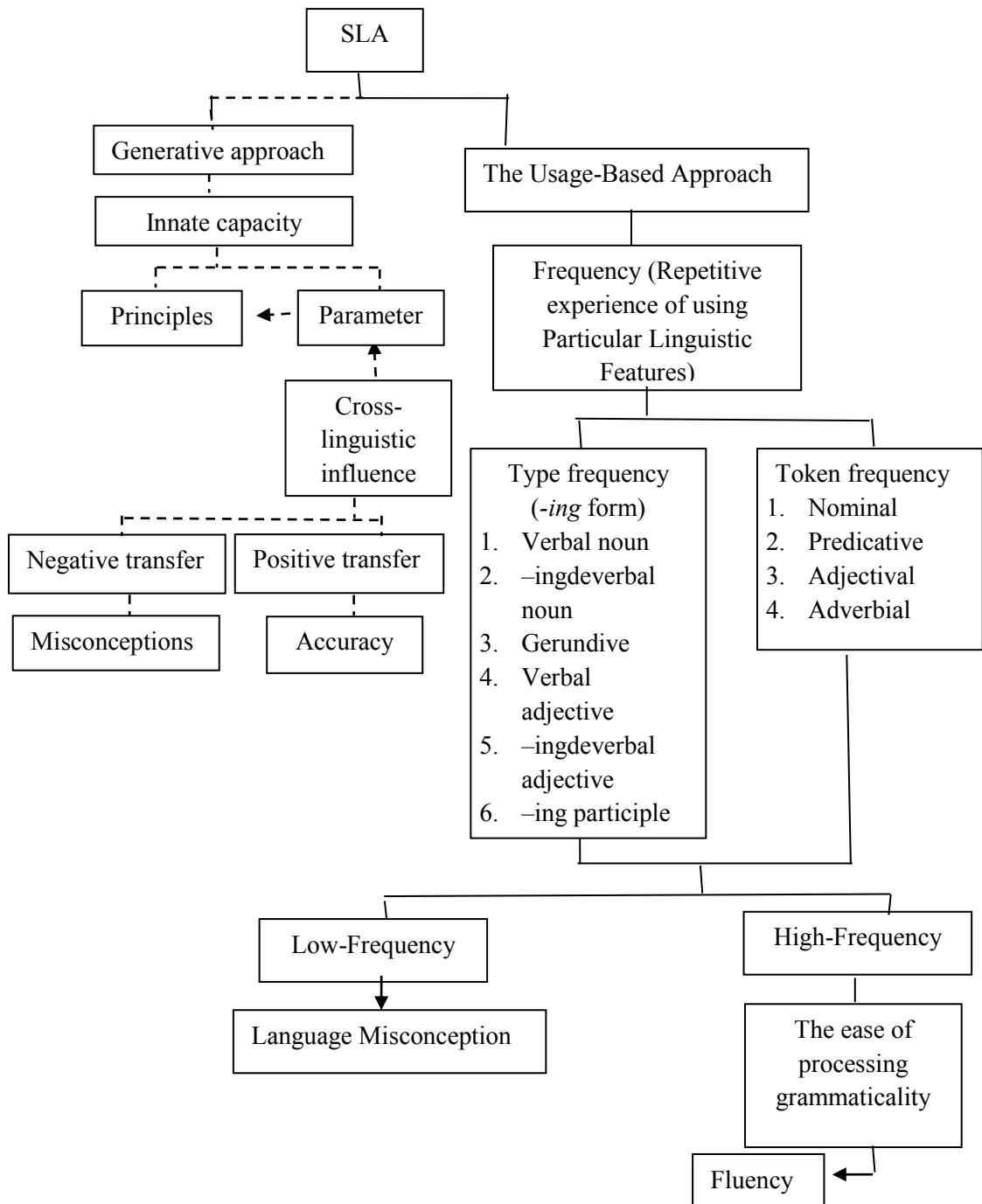
The linguistic structures as the focus of the research were the *infinitive-gerund complement constructions*. In the term of different frequency criteria, 10 verbs that allowed infinitive and gerund structures were selected to compose 20 novel sentences. The results revealed that higher *construction frequency* (i.e., infinitive) allowed ESL learners to acquire it. In addition, *lexical frequency* were more influential on the high level learner groups.

(Keawchaum & Pongpaibroj 2017; Dabrowska, 2004; Langacker, 2008) investigated the role of frequency that affect SLA which focused on the use of gerund and infinitive. Particular verbs and the use of verbal complements were selected based on high frequency of corpus data that confirmed a widely-used construction. The findings then proved that *to* infinitive was acquired earlier and

easier due to the high frequency of the construction. The high frequency also contributed to low-level students' constructional schemes.

The current research addresses the gap of research; [1] the current research just concerned on observing *-ing* form construction at details which is not yet widely observed, [2] the current research employed a writing test to elicit data which is not yet implemented, [3] the current research was carried out in a different nation state precisely in Indonesia with different language system and culture. The researcher had designed writing test with 5 matrix verbs containing *-ing* form as a tool to elicit the required data. The researcher also established attentive observation in the fieldwork. This research is finally managed to assist teachers develop teaching material mainly *-ing* form construction; designing both productive and perceptive tasks which are regularly assigned to learners so as to strengthen students' linguistic representation.

F. Conceptual Framework



G. Hypotheses

This current research was carried out to examine the subsequent hypotheses;

1. In accordance with usage-based perspective, high frequency of particular linguistic feature frequently used corresponded with students' constructional schemas or tendency in using particular linguistic feature (the first research question).
2. In accordance with usage-based perspective, high frequency of particular linguistic feature frequently used corresponded with students' accuracy in the constructions of particular linguistic features (the second research question).