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A Contrastive Analysis of Morphological and Syntactic Aspects of English and Indonesian Adjectives

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Abstract

This study's main focus was describing adjectives' characteristics in English and Indonesian. It examined the similarities and differences in the features of adjectives in the two languages through a parallel comparison using the contrastive analysis approach. Data were collected from linguistics books from both languages. The results indicated that similarities and differences are found almost in all aspects of adjectives in both languages when analysed from the viewpoint of their classifications according to their forms, formations, meanings, and positions. At the morphological level, the reduplication form found and shared in Indonesian is not found in English. The habits of using Indonesian reduplication adjectives, which denote something done repeatedly and used for emphasis, tend to make Indonesian learners apply this rule to English. Both languages use different systems in terms of affixation as the formation of adjectives. English adjectives only have two kinds of affixes, namely prefix and suffix, while Indonesian ones have four kinds of affixes such as prefix, infix, confix, and suffix. The differences between native and foreign languages in forms, formations, meanings, and positions cause learning and teaching process difficulties. By knowing and understanding similarities and especially differences, teachers and students can solve the problems of learning and teaching English adjectives since these differences are the fundamental aspects of the problems faced by

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Indonesian native speakers when studying the target language. Consequently, having a good understanding of this critical aspect of the English language can reduce problems of learning and teaching English to Indonesian native speakers.

Keywords: Adjectives, contrastive analysis, English, Indonesian language.

1. INTRODUCTION

English, as an international language, is the most important and compulsory language at every level of the study program, from the beginning to university levels, either for admission or graduation (Manan & Azizah, 2016; Manan et al., 2020). Therefore, almost all non-English speaking countries in the world have placed the English language as part of every sphere of an essential requirement to be mastered by their people both in seeking jobs and positions. This has made every job seeker and position placement to not deny learning and mastering English as part of their daily concern (Warschauer, 2000).

However, mastering English as a foreign language is not an easy effort. A student from non-English speaking countries will face various obstacles in mastering English. One of the many factors is caused by the different systems available between English and the learners' native language (Leong & Ahmadi, 2017). This existing difference in the characteristics and system between the first language and the English language, for instance, needs serious attention in finding out some ways to deal with and, as some linguists say, needs to be put into account; it also became a significant problem in translating from English to other languages, such as to Indonesian language (Ulum, 2016). For example, the difficulties in translating Indonesian adjectives into English lay in the existence of repetitive-affixed adjectives in Indonesia, such as '*kemerahmerahan*', which was translated as 'reddish' in English.

To solve the problems that may arise from the two languages, a parallel comparison between the learners' mother tongue and a foreign language being learned is quite helpful in finding out the similarities and differences between both languages. The differences between both languages are the major problems and obstacles that English foreign language students face, while the similarities make them more accessible (Johnson, 2017). In other words, if the two systems of two different languages are different, learning them by speakers of the other language will be difficult. The facts show that new learners of a second and foreign language will be influenced by their native language systems (Yusuf, et al., 2021). They often try to apply their mother tongue to a foreign language system (Leong & Ahmadi, 2017).

The mastery of language features and characteristics is essential in mastering a foreign language, in this case, English. This means that; knowing the differences and similarities between the learners' native language, Indonesian, and the target language, English, thus, helps in understanding the way of transmitting one to another (Apriyanti et al., 2017). This notion was also experienced by the authors personally, who have been lecturing English for more than 30 years.

Regarding Indonesian native speakers, it is needless to say that mastering English as a foreign language inevitably raises various problems morphologically,

phonologically, syntactically, and other related matters to the English language aspects (Mohammed, 2018; Sundari, 2018). This is because both English and Indonesian language have different systems and characteristics almost in every linguistic aspect and part within the two languages.

Learning English as a foreign language, Indonesian native speakers may face several problems. One is interference or the influence of the native language systems when learning a new language. This also can be seen from the characteristics of adjectives according to their forms, formations, meanings, and positions which are different from the English ones (Sneddon et al., 2012). In the context of forms, Indonesian commonly uses reduplicative adjectives, which are not found in English. For instance, English and Indonesian use different systems to form derivational adjectives. From the viewpoint of meaning aspects, English and Indonesian have different concepts. In terms of positions, Indonesian adjectives may function as the predicate of a sentence with no linking verbs, as in English. Besides, Indonesian also has an adjective as a predicative inversion in which it may directly act as the predicate of a sentence. At the same time, in English, this kind of construction needs a specific rule to apply.

Based on the above description, an ample understanding of English and Indonesian adjectives' characteristics, similarities, and diversities will help an Indonesian native English speaker study English. Thus, the teaching of adjectives may influence the success of teaching English (Swan & Smith, 2001). Furthermore, it is undeniable that translating adjectives from the Indonesian language into English and vice versa became a standard error in such cases (Arsiwela, 2019; Cahyani et al., 2015; Sari, 2019); it indicates that adjectives required specific attention, both from learners and teachers in Indonesia, in learning English. Accordingly, this study critically examines all the scopes of adjectives, such as forms, formations, meanings, and positions, by comparing them side by side using the Contrastive Analysis (CA) approach.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

In terms of analysis of two different languages, such as contrasting English and Indonesian adjectives, which are focused on finding out their differences and similarities as the main point of this study, it is inevitably avoidable to hold on to theoretical linguistic aspects which are used as the review tool to support the scientific result of this research. Toward this end, this research adopts the Contrastive Analysis (CA) theory as its primary approach.

2.1 Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis

In the sphere of applied linguistics, various theoretical approaches have been well-known in the second language acquisition research in the linguistic world, such as Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH), Errors Analysis (EA), Transfer Analysis (TA), and Interlanguage (IL) (Richards, 2015). These approaches to second language acquisition share the same concern and constitute evolutionary phases of the linguistic methods used to detect and describe the phenomenon of the performance of second and foreign language learners.

Nevertheless, contrastive analysis theory is used as the focus of this study, which deals with analysing and examining the characteristics of adjectives according to their forms, formations, meanings, and positions in English and Indonesian. It is a linguistic approach dealing with comparative linguistics study to reveal the similarities and differences between two or more languages (Obudikianga & Naomi, 2022). Davies (2005, p. 28) mentions, “contrastive analysis hypothesis is one of the theories of the second language acquisition concerning with the study of two systems and characteristics of languages between first language and target language”. Correspondingly, Raji (2012) and Al-Sobhi (2019) clarify that contrastive linguistics, which is part of a sub-discipline of linguistics, mainly focuses on comparing two or more languages or subsystems of languages to determine both the differences and similarities within the two languages. The basic assumption of contrastive analysis is based on the view that the careful and scientific comparison between the learners’ first language and the target language will reveal similarities and differences between them and thus produce efficient language teaching materials.

Furthermore, contrastive analysis provides a means to compare and find similarities and differences between the two languages so that the exchange of meaning can be done accurately (Gass et al., 2020). This analysis method is needed to explain and describe the similarities and differences between the structures within the two languages. To a great extent, the differences in the characteristics of two different languages make second and foreign-language learners confused and unable to use a target language appropriately. As a result, contrastive analysis is applicable to highlight the difficulties and ease of second language learners by comparing the learners’ first language and the target language (Auni & Manan, 2022). By this approach, we can find out what features are similar or different in the language analysis and the main interferences of the first language toward the foreign language that may occur. Consequently, “errors made by language learners can be predicted by teachers and linguists” (Brown, 2000, p. 208).

This points out that the results of comparing or contrasting two language systems, such as between English and Indonesian adjectives according to their forms, formations, meanings, and positions as the main concerns of this research, may be used as references to determine the area of difficulties faced by language learners and at the same time may be used to identify some challenges faced by language teachers in their teaching and learning programs of the target language.

2.2 Factor and Source of Errors

Several factors promote interference, which is considered a significant source of errors in the linguistics sphere of learning a foreign language by non-native speakers. Commonly, errors are caused by the differences between the first and the second language. The Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis depicts that interference occurs where structures in the first language that are different from those in the second language produce errors reflecting the structure of the first language. Such errors are said to be the result of the influence of learners’ first-language habits on second-language production (Derakhshan & Karimi, 2015). Jeptarus and Ngen (2016) say that errors result from interference in learning a second language from the habits of the first language. Because of the difference in the system, especially grammar, the students will transfer their first language into a foreign language using their mother tongue.

Interference is the deviation of the target language due to the learners' familiarity with more than one language (Aljumah, 2020).

Additionally, Oldin (1989, as cited in Linarsih et al., 2020) explain that there are two types of errors that learners may commit as the result of interference, namely negative transfer and positive transfer. This view depicts that negative transfer reflects those instances of transfer that bring about the error because old habitual behaviour is different from that of being learned. This transfer is called interference. Conversely, the positive transfer is the correct utterance because the first and second languages have the same structure.

2.2.1 *Interference or interlingual transfer*

In the sphere of linguistic acquisition of the second and foreign language, the well-formed first-language habits of the learners, to a great extent, interfere with the learning of the target language. This brings about some main obstacles for a learner to master another language due to the differences between the learner's native language and the target language. Selinker and Gass (2008, as cited in Al-Sobhi, 2019) depict that a language learner must learn the differences and ignore similar linguistic features between the two languages since these aspects are not the difficulties faced by the learners.

Non-native speakers learning a second or foreign language will face a significant phenomenon of difficulties where their native language will significantly influence their second or foreign language (Johnson, 2017). This commonly occurs due to the interference of the first language systems with the learning process of the target language (Al-Khresheh, 2016). This is because the only language system within their minds is that of their mother tongue, and they are not yet familiar with the new systems. In other words, the old habit influences using the first language when contacting another language with different characteristics and systems. As most believe, interference or interlingual transfer has a negative denotation (Mahmud, 2017; Rasulova, 2021; Richards, 2015). This means that the more the native and the target language differences, the more mistakes and errors will occur (Al-Sobhi, 2019; Derakhshan & Karimi, 2015). In terms of its effects, the phenomenon of the interference or interlingual transfer occurs on many aspects of the target language morphologically, phonologically, syntactically, and on other small related parts of the language such as word forms, word formations, and word order of the target language (Richards, 2015).

2.2.2 *Intralingual transfer*

In language acquisition of a foreign language, intralingual transfer plays a vital role as the source of error. Intralingual transfer (within the target language) has been a significant error factor (Heydari & Bagheri, 2012; Salmani Nodoushan, 2018). This points out that interference with the learners' native language is not solely the cause for them to commit the errors. Intralingual errors result from faulty learning of the target language rather than mother tongue interference. Brown (2000, p. 264) depicts that:

Principles of language learning and teaching that...Intra-lingual transfer (within the target language itself) is a major factor in second language learning. The early stages of language learning are characterized by a predominance or interference (interlingual transfer). However, once learners have begun to acquire part of the new system, more and more intra-lingual transfer-generalization within the target language is manifested. (Brown, 2000, p. 264)

In other words, a critical factor as the cause of these intralingual errors is insufficient knowledge of the learners when facing a new and more complex morpheme or structure within the target language. As a result, they tend to generalize one rule to others within the target language.

2.3 Nature of Adjectives in English and Indonesian

In English, adjectives refer to the words used to describe nouns or pronouns (Page, 2011) and provide further descriptions of nouns, pronouns or noun phrases, as in ‘a little boy’, ‘a big house’, etc. Furthermore, they may include the present and past participles when used as ordinary adjectives to modify a noun or noun phrase (Qadha & Al-Wasy, 2022). Furthermore, “adjectives describe or modify—that is, they limit or restrict the meaning of—nouns and pronouns. They may name qualities of all kinds: ‘huge’, ‘red’, ‘angry’, ‘tremendous’, ‘unique’, ‘rare’, etc.” (Merriam-Webster, n.d.). The following are characteristics of adjectives in English.

- Adjectives may freely occur in attributive positions or can premodify a noun, such as ‘happy children’, ‘a bad boy’, and others.
- Adjectives may freely occur in predicative or subject complement, as in ‘the man seems old,’ or as object complement, as in ‘he thought the painting ugly’.
- Adjectives can be premodified by the intensifier ‘very’ as in ‘I am very happy’.
- Adjectives can take comparative and superlative forms, as in ‘happy – happier – happiest’.

In the Indonesian language, the adjective is *kata sifat* or *ajektiva*. It modifies the condition of a noun, gives more information about a noun itself (Chaer, 2002), or gives a specific description of a noun in a sentence (Alwi et al., 2003). The following are characteristics of adjectives in the Indonesian language (Chaer, 2002).

- Adjectives a lexemes that can be modified using comparative and superlative adverbs, as in ‘lebih besar, paling besar’ [bigger, biggest].
- Intensifier as *amat* [very], *sangat* [extremely], *benar-benar* [really], *sekali* [very] and *terlalu* [extremely or too] can be used as modified adjectives.
- Adjectives may be negated using *tidak* as in ‘tidak besar’ [not big].
- Adjectives has repetitive form as in ‘*mangga itu besar-besar*’ [the mangoes are big].
- An affix such as ‘*se-nya*’ may be attached to an adjective as in ‘*sebesar-besarnya*’ [as big as].

3. METHOD

The study used the qualitative descriptive method by exploring and describing the existing phenomenon as a result of a comparative study in two different languages

through bibliographic research. Through contrastive analysis (CA), this study compared English and Indonesian to identify their similarities and differences. CA has frequently been used in practical and educational settings and its goal is to give language learners better descriptions and instructional resources to a language they are learning (Johansson, 2008). In this way, this study was able to draw the aspects of similarities and dissimilarities, which revealed the predicted problems encountered by Indonesian native speakers in understanding English adjectives. Through this process, the differences were highlighted as a part of the procedure to explain the occurrences of problems since many linguists believe those differences should be considered problems of teaching and learning.

The primary sources used to develop this research were English and Indonesian grammar books, dictionaries, journals, and other references related to the focus of this study. The variables selected were English and Indonesian adjectives according to their forms, formations, meanings, and positions which were thoroughly analysed and examined through a comparative and contrastive study. In this way, the differences and similarities in the various aspects of adjectives in both languages are highlighted and depicted through their respective examples (Auni & Manan, 2022). As a result, the characteristics and features of adjectives in English and Indonesian can be revealed to see their phenomenon in both languages.

4. RESULTS

4.1 Comparative Nature between Adjectives in English and Indonesian

The definition of adjectives in English or Indonesian is similar because both languages conclude that an adjective is a word used to modify or describe a noun, pronoun, or other substantive (Börjars & Burridge, 2019; Herring, 2016; Moeliono et al., 2017). Both languages use the same characteristics; that is, adjectives may be modified by intensive and qualifying words such as ‘more’ [*lebih*], ‘quite’ [*agak*] ‘extremely’ [*amat*], or ‘very’ [*sangat*]. However, morphologically, there is a dissimilarity in which English adjectives use suffixes *-er* and *-est* and the addition of ‘more’ and ‘most’ to adjectives of more than two syllables in comparative and superlative degrees (Carstairs-McCarthy, 2002), while the Indonesian language uses words like *lebih* [more] for a comparative degree or *paling* [most] or prefix *ter-* to the base adjectives for showing superlative degree and can be enlarged by *se +* reduplication of base form + *nya* (Chaer, 2009, p. 162).

- (1) English language
e.g., good – better – best
happy – happier – happiest
beautiful – more beautiful – the most beautiful
- (2) Indonesian language
e.g., *baik* – *lebih baik* – *paling baik* or *terbaik* – *sebaik-baiknya*
[good – better – best]
bahagia – *lebih bahagia* – *paling bahagia* or *terbahagia* – *sebahagia-bahagia*
[happy-happier-happiest].
cantik – *lebih cantik* – *paling cantik* or *tercantik* – *secantik-cantik*
[beautiful-more beautiful-most beautiful]

4.2 Classification of Adjectives According to Forms

In classifying adjectives according to their forms, similarities and dissimilarities are found in English and Indonesian. The number of classifications is different. English has two forms, namely simple or base and compound forms (Elliott, 2020; McCarthy, 2002), while Indonesian has three forms base, compound, and reduplication words (Moeliono et al., 2017).

4.2.1 English and Indonesian simple or base adjectives

Both languages use the same concept when dealing with simple or base adjectives. Jackson (2013) says that a base is a morpheme in a word with the principal meaning. Elliott (2020) mentions that a simple adjective is a word that functions as an adjectival. MacNeilage and Davis (2000) write that a base word does not change its original form. From these points of view, a simple or base adjective is a word originally an adjective by its nature.

- (3) English language:
e.g., happy, brave, easy, sad (simple)
- (4) Indonesian language:
e.g., *bahagia, berani, mudah, sedih* (simple)

4.2.2 English and Indonesian compound adjectives

English and Indonesian languages share the same concept about compound adjectives. A compound adjective consists of two parts, each of which can function as separate words. Sometimes, the parts of the compound adjectives are joined by a hyphen (McCarthy, 2002). This can also be related to the views of Indonesian grammarians. Mulyadi et al. (2016) say that compound words are combinations of two or more words that have a new meaning. Further, Suparni (2002) clarifies that a phrase or compound word is syntax construction, formed from smaller free forms as elements of a sentence.

- (5) English language:
e.g., homesick, sunfast, waterproof, cocksure (compound)
- (6) Indonesian language:
e.g., *indah permai* [pretty for scenery], *ringan tangan* [helpful], *lemah lembut* [gentle], *hancur lebur* [destroyed into pieces] (compound)

From the examples in (5) and (6), it can be analysed that in English, compound adjectives may be formed from the combinations of adjectives with adjectives and with other word classes such as nouns, verbs, and adverbs. Meanwhile, in Indonesian, compound adjectives are only formed from adjectives themselves, not from other word classes.

- (7) English language:
An adjective preceded by a noun
e.g., homesick, sunfast, court-martial, cocksure, air-minded, air-sick, ice-cold, gluten-free

- (8) Indonesian language
e.g., (non-existent)
- (9) English language:
An adjective preceded by a verb
e.g., hold-tight, open-wide, slam-shut, lie-quiete, break-loose, stand-still
- (10) Indonesian language
e.g., (non-existent)
- (11) English language:
An adjective preceded by an adverb
e.g., hard-bitten, overdue, overgrown, over-shot, overblown
- (12) Indonesian language
e.g., (non-existent)
- (13) English language:
An adjective preceded by another adjective
e.g., absent-minded, ill-tempered, far-sighted

In terms of a compound adjective formed by combining two adjectives, English and Indonesian are different. Three groups may be distinguished in English, and every group has its own characteristic rule (McCarthy, 2002). First, the compound expresses a combination of two qualities; the two elements are, therefore, coordinated: ‘bitter-sweet’, ‘brown-grey’, and ‘dead-alive’. Second, a particular case of this is the combination of two adjectives, the former of which end in –o: ‘Franco-German’, ‘Anglo-Saxon’. Last, the first adjective, semi-adverbial, qualifies the second and is, therefore, subordinate to it: ‘dark-blue’, ‘red-hot’, ‘reddish-brown’, ‘Roman-Catholic’ (hence also ‘Anglo-Catholic’, which as regards its form belongs to the second group). Meanwhile, compound adjectives are formed in the Indonesian language by combining two adjectives closely related in meaning (Suparni, 2002).

- (14) Indonesian language
e.g., *muda-belia* [young], *ringan tangan* [helpful], *lemah lembut* [gentle], *indah permai* [beautiful (for scenery)], *tua renta* [very old], *hancur lebur* [destroyed]

4.2.3 Reduplication adjectives

As depicted previously, the Indonesian language has reduplication adjectives, formed by repetition, either complete or partial, of a base word, with or without changing the phoneme. In connection to this case, a reduplication is a changing form, either entirely or partially, with a variation of phoneme or not. Further, repetition may occur entirely or partially but does not change the word class when the word is repeated (Chaer, 2008; Suparni, 2002). In short, if the word is an adjective, it remains an adjective after reduplication.

- (15) English language
e.g., (non-existent)
- (16) Indonesian language
e.g., *hitam-hitam* [black], *pandai-pandai* [smart], *compang-camping* [tattered], *besar-besar* [big], *terang-terang* [bright], *kuat-kuat* [strong], *tegap-begap* [sturdy], etc.

4.3 Formations of Adjectives

4.3.1 The uses of affixation

According to Ballard (2001), affixation is a process of forming a new word by adding a bound morpheme that may be placed before or after the stem or root. In English, only two kinds of affixes are used to form adjectives: prefixes of negative meanings and derivational suffixes. While in Indonesian, there are four kinds of affixes: prefixes, infixes, suffixes, and confixes to form new words (Damariswara, 2018).

English adjectives can be formed from adjectives themselves into negative meanings (McCarthy, 2002), by the addition of the following prefixes: *dis-*, *un-*, *in-*, *ir-*, *im-*, and *non-*, while Indonesian adjectives can be formed from adjectives themselves by addition of prefixes, *ter-*, *se-*, *ber-*; infixes *-em-*, *-el-*; suffixes, *-an*, *-nya*, and confixes, *se-nya*, and *ke-an* (Suparni, 2002).

From the explanations above, it is clear that the Indonesian language does not have negative prefixes at all (Auni & Manan, 2022). To express negative, the Indonesian language usually uses 'not' [*tak* or *tidak*] for all. Meanwhile, English does not have any other affixes used to form adjectives from adjectives themselves, except with the prefixes above. To make them more precise, below are some examples.

(17) English language:

Adjectives stems with prefixes *dis-*, *in-*, *im-*, *ir-*, *un-*, *non-*

e.g., *honest* – *dishonest*, *loyal* – *disloyal*, *valid* – *invalid*, *possible* – *impossible*, *regular* – *irregular*, *afraid* – *unafraid*, *wise* – *unwise*, *alcoholic* – *non-alcoholic*, *essential* – *nonessential*

(18) Indonesian language:

Non-existent of negative prefixes. For an equivalent, see the following examples:

e.g., *jujur* – *tidak/tak jujur* [honest – not/ dishonest], *setia* – *tidak/tak setia* [loyal – not/disloyal], *valid* – *tidak/tak valid* [valid – not/invalid], *mungkin* – *tidak/tak mungkin* [possible – not/impossible], *beraturan* – *tidak/tak beraturan* [regular – not/irregular], *takut* – *tidak/tak takut* [afraid – not/unafraid], *bijaksana* – *tidak/tak bijaksana* [wise – not/unwise], *beralkohol* – *tidak/tak beralkohol* [alcoholic – not/non-alcoholic], *penting* – *tidak/tak penting* [essential – not/nonessential]

(19) Indonesian language:

Adjectives with prefixes *ter-*, *se-* and *ber-*

e.g., *tinggi* – *tertinggi* [tall – tallest], *besar* – *terbesar* [big – biggest], *luas* – *terluas* [large – largest]

besar – *sebesar* [big – as big as], *putih* – *seputih* [white – as white as], *pandai* – *sepandai* [clever – as clever as]

sedih – *bersedih* [sad], *dukacita* – *berdukacita* [grief], *putih mata* – *berputih mata* [being embarrassed or resentful]

(20) Indonesian language:

Adjectives with infixes *-em-*, and *-el-*

e.g., *kuning* – *kemuning* [yellow], *getar* – *gemetar* [trembled/shaky], *gilang* – *gemilang* [bright and brilliant]

getar – *geletar* [trembled/shaky], *gembung* – *gelembung* [bloated, bubble]

(21) Indonesian language:

Adjectives with suffixes *-an*, *-nya*

e.g., *luas* – *luasan* [large], *kecil* – *kecilan* [small], *besar* – *besaran* [big]

rajin – *rajinnya* [diligent], *sedih* – *sedihnya* [grief], *pandai* – *pandainya* [clever]

The word *-nya* has two functions in Indonesian words: as the third singular person and as a suffix. In the examples above, the word *-nya* is a suffix.

(22) Indonesian language:

Adjectives with confixes *se-nya*, and *ke-an*

e.g., *tinggi* – *setinggi-tingginya* [high – as high], *jauh* – *sejauh-jauhnya* [far – as far]

dingin – *kedinginannya* [cold], *merah* – *kemerah-merahannya* [red – reddish]

From the examples above, it is clear that in the formation of adjectives from adjectives themselves, English uses only one kind of affix, namely negative prefixes, while the Indonesian language, besides having no negative affixes, uses four kinds of affixes such as prefixes, infixes, suffix, and confix.

4.3.2 Derivational adjectives

English and Indonesian language adjectives can be formed by adding various affixes to verbs and nouns.

a. Adjectives with underlying verb forms

Most English adjectives derived from verbs use various suffixes such as *-able*, *-ible*, *-ent*, *-ant*, *-ing*, *-ed*, *-ive*, *-tive*, *-ative*, *-itive*, and miscellaneous pairs of affixes such as a prefix *a-* and suffixes, *-tory*, *-ful*, *-ary*, *-ery*, *-ous*, *-some*. Meanwhile, Indonesian adjectives derived from verbs use only two kinds of affixes: the prefix *ter-* and the confix *ke-an*.

(23) English language

e.g., *favour* – *favourable*, *sense* – *sensible*, *excel* – *excellent*, *observe* – *observant*, *disappoint* – *disappointing*, *crowd* – *crowded*, *curve* – *curved*, *select* – *selective*, *create* – *creative*, *sense* – *sensitive*, *imagine* – *imaginative*, *wake* – *awake*, *live* – *alive*, *satisfy* – *satisfactory*, *quarrel* – *quarrelsome*, *forget* – *forgetful*, *imagine* – *imaginary*, *slip* – *slippery*, *continue* – *continuous*

(24) Indonesian language

e.g., *buka* – *terbuka* [open, opened], *tidur* – *tertudur* [sleep, asleep], *makan* – *termakan* [eat, eaten accidentally], *panggil* – *terpanggil* [call-called]

lupa – *kelupaan* [forget-forgetful], *tidur* – *ketiduran* [sleep-asleep]

From the examples above, both the English and Indonesian languages refer to different affixes in forming adjectives from verbs. English adjectives may be formed utilizing various suffixes and a prefix to the base form of verbs, while in the Indonesian language, they are formed by adding a prefix and a confix.

b. Adjectives with underlying noun forms

Both English and Indonesian have the features of forming adjectives from nouns. In this respect, English uses one kind of affix, which is composed of various suffixes such as *-y*, *-ly*, *-ful*, *-less*, *-ous*, *-ious*, *-al*, *-tal*, *-tial*, *-etic*, *-ic*, *-atic*, *-ish*, *-like*, *-ed*, *-en* (Adams, 2016), while Swan and Smith (2001) list the following suffixes: *-able*, *-al*, *-centric*, *-ed*, *-ful*, *-ic*, *-ical*, *-ish*, *-ive*, *-like*, *-less*, *-ly*, *-ous*, *-proof*, *-ward*, *-y* and others such as, *-ar*, *-ary*, *-ery*, *-esque*, *-istic*, and *-wide*. Meanwhile, Indonesian

uses three kinds of affixes: *ber-*, and suffixes *-i*, *-wi*, *-ah*, and the confix *ke-an* (Alwi et al., 2003).

(25) English language

e.g., wind – windy, dirt – dirty, sand – sandy; time – timely, love – lovely; wonder – wonderful, law – lawful; end – endless, home – homeless; fame – famous, danger – dangerous; space – spacious; monument – monumental, horizon – horizontal, influence – influential; sympathy sympathetic, artist – artistic, system – systematic; child – childish, man – mannish; life – lifelike, war – warlike; salary – salaried, horn – horned; gold – golden, wool – woolen; element – elementary, circle – circular, family – familiar, fortune – fortunate, satisfaction – satisfactory

(26) Indonesian language:

With prefix, *ber-*

e.g., *angin* – *berangin* [win – windy], *batu* – *berbatu* [stone – stony], *bulu* – *berbulu* [hair – hairy], *air* – *berair* [water-watery], *pasir* – *berpasir* [sand-sandy]

(27) Indonesian language:

With confix, *ke-an*

e.g., *barat* – *kebarat-baratan* [west – westernized], *anak* – *kekanak-kanakan* [child-childish], *dunia* – *keduniaan* [world-worldly]

(28) Indonesian language:

With suffixes *-i*, *-wi*, and *-ah*

e.g., *insan* – *insani* [human – humane], *alam* – *alami* [nature – natural]
manusia – *manusiawi* [human – humane], *surga* – *surgawi* [heaven – heavenly]
alam – *alamiah* [nature – natural], *ilmu* – *ilmiah* [science – scientific]

From the examples above, it is clear that most English adjectives, which are derived from nouns, are formed by the addition of suffixes. While in Indonesian, besides the addition of suffixes, adjectives are formed by adding a prefix or a confix. In other words, the last two kinds of affixes are not found or used to form English noun-derived adjectives.

4.4 Classification of Adjectives According to Meaning

English grammarians have different points of view in classifying adjectives according to their meanings. Page (2011, p. 42) mentions two classes of adjectives: “descriptive and limiting,” while Rossiter (2020, p. 128) proposes “determining and descriptive”. Even though some English grammarians sometimes use different terms in adjectives, as mentioned, the scopes they discuss are the same. Therefore, English adjectives can be divided into descriptive and limiting. Descriptive adjectives modify nouns or pronouns by describing them or expressing their qualities. Limiting adjectives modify nouns or pronouns by restricting them rather than describing their qualities or traits. In other words, a limiting adjective, without expressing any idea of kind or condition, limits the application of the idea expressed by the noun to one or more individuals of the class or parts of a whole. Limiting adjectives include demonstrative, interrogative, qualifying, possessive, articles, proper, and numerals.

Meanwhile, the Indonesian language is not so clear whether they may be divided into what has been stated above because most Indonesian grammarians do not explain them clearly. To depict this, a famous Indonesian grammarian, Chaer (2008), concludes that the word class of adjectives is seen clearly in Western and Arabic

languages because of its specific position following the noun it follows. However, in general, the meaning of adjectives in the Indonesian language refers to quality, quantity, and limitation. An adjective is a word to answer the question ‘how’ or ‘in what state’ a noun is. The following explains descriptive and limiting adjectives.

4.4.1 Descriptive adjectives

Descriptive adjectives can be used to express the size, colour, or shape of a person, a thing, an animal, or a place. They provide more information about a noun by describing or modifying it. In other words, descriptive adjectives are those words that can be used to name a quality, feature, or characteristic of the thing modified.

(29) English language

e.g., The fat boy showed up on the show stage.

The thin girl is my younger sister.

(30) Indonesian language

e.g., Anak gemuk itu muncul di panggung pertunjukkan [The fat boy showed up on the show stage].

Gadis kurus itu adalah adik perempuan saya [The thin girl is my younger sister].

4.4.2 Limiting adjectives

Unlike descriptive adjectives, which cannot be classified, the limiting ones can be divided into groups, and other words cannot precede this kind of adjectives. They mostly give substantive meanings which show the quantity or number. In other words, the limiting adjectives do not function to describe the nouns but rather give limitations to the nouns they modify. These adjectives include demonstrative, interrogative, qualifying, possessive, articles, proper, and numeral.

(31) English language

e.g., That book is his. (Demonstrative)

Which book is yours? (Interrogative)

A few students study English grammar. (Qualifying)

Your pens are expensive. John's mother lives in Ohio. (Possessive)

The selves of the books can easily be found in the main library. (Article)

American car is quite rare in my town. (Proper)

Three beautiful paintings are sold in the exhibition. (Numeral)

(32) Indonesian language

e.g., Buku itu dia punya [That book is his]. (Demonstrative)

Buku mana yang kamu punya [Which book is yours]? (Interrogative)

Beberapa mahasiswa belajar grammar bahasa Inggris [A few students study English grammar]. (Qualifying)

Pulpen-pulpenmu mahal. Ibu si John tinggal di Ohio [Your pens are expensive. John's mother lives in Ohio]. (Possessive)

Rak-rak buku tersebut dengan mudah dapat ditemukan di pustaka induk [The selves of the books can easily be found in the main library]. (Article)

Mobil Amerika agak jarang di kota saya [American car is quite rare in my town]. (Proper)

Tiga lukisan cantik dijual di pameran [Three beautiful paintings are sold in the exhibition]. (Numeral)

4.5 Classification of Adjectives According to Positions

The different points can also be traced in adjectives' positions in English and Indonesian. English adjectives may be classified into four classifications, attributive, predicative (Herring, 2016; Huddleston & Pullum, 2002), appositive and factitive (Fithriani, 2011). An appositive adjective is an adjective that follows a noun it modifies. A factitive adjective is used after a certain verb and its direct object. Meanwhile, the positions of Indonesian adjectives commonly found in Indonesian books are attributive, predicative, and predicative inversion.

Two similar terms are found in both languages: attributive and predicative. The appositive and factitive are only found in English. Meanwhile, the predicative inversion is only found in Indonesian.

4.5.1 Attributive adjectives

The position of attributive adjectives is different in both languages. In English, these adjectives stand before the nouns they qualify or between a determiner and a noun (Hendriani & Kasuma, 2009). While in the Indonesian language, they stand after the nouns they qualify. Some dissimilarities can be described in the following examples.

(33) English language

e.g., blackboards – a small boy – a good-looking girl – smart ladies

(34) Indonesian language

e.g., *papan hitam* [blackboards] – *anak kecil* [a small boy] – *seorang gadis cantik* [a good-looking girl] – *gadis-gadis pandai* [smart ladies]

4.5.2 Predicative adjectives

The English predicative adjectives must stand after the linking verbs such as 'be', 'seem', 'become', 'feel', 'look', etc. (Swan & Walter, 2011, p. 175) since adjectives in English cannot stand or function as predicates of sentences. Meanwhile, Indonesian "predicative adjectives can stand directly as predicates of sentences without any other words as in English" (Moeliono et al., 2017, p. 204). To see their differences, below are the illustrations of predicative adjectives used both in English and Indonesian.

(35) English language

e.g., You are diligent.
She looks angry.
My mother was busy.
The fish tastes delicious.

(36) Indonesian Language

e.g., *Kamu pandai* [You are diligent].
Dia marah [She looks angry].
Ibuku sibuk [My mother was busy].
Ikan itu enak [The fish tastes delicious].

4.5.3 Predicative inversion adjectives

Another difference that can be seen clearly in the position of English and Indonesian adjectives is that the Indonesian adjectives can be placed in front of the subjects of sentences. However, they function as predicates of sentences (Chaer, 2009). For sure, this system in which an adjective stands directly as a predicate in front of a subject is not found in English. In English, such construction needs its particular rule, as in ‘so beautiful was that lady I decided to marry her’. In this regard, the inversion has an emphasis function in English. To make it more straightforward, below are some examples of the position of adjectives in both languages.

(37) English language
e.g., (non-existent)

(38) Indonesian language
e.g., Cemas adiknya.

P S

Marah dia.

P S

Malukah kamu?

P S

(His brother is anxious)

S P C

(He is angry)

S P C

(Are you ashamed?)

P S C

4.5.4 Appositive adjectives

English appositive adjectives may stand after the nouns they qualify by specific rules (Fithriani, 2011). In other words, an appositive adjective usually follows its noun. This kind of position is similar to that of attributive adjectives in Indonesian.

(39) English language
e.g., chapter five
postmaster general
paragraph three

(40) Indonesian language
e.g., bab lima [chapter five]
postmaster umum [postmaster general]
paragraf tiga [paragraph three]

4.5.5 Factitive adjectives

This position of English adjectives seems similar to that of attributive adjectives in the Indonesian language. However, the dissimilarity between these two languages is that in English, this kind of adjective stands after certain verbs and their objects as an object complement. Van Valin (2001) clarifies that a modifier that follows a verb and its direct object is an adjective referring to the object rather than the action of the verb. Meanwhile, in Indonesian, this position of adjectives is seemingly placed as an attributive adjective; however, it is usually used without certainty or certain verbs, as in English. In order to see this matter, some examples of them are depicted below.

(41) English Language
e.g., The storm has made me uneasy.
All his friends considered him intelligent.

The man dug the hole deep.

(42) Indonesian language

e.g., *Badai itu telah membuat saya susah* [The storm has made me uneasy].

Semua temannya menganggap dia pandai [All his friends considered him intelligent].

Orang laki-laki itu menggali lobang dalam [The man dug the hole deep].

5. DISCUSSION

5.1 Morphological Aspect

Even though the nature and characteristics of adjectives between English and Indonesian are almost similar, there are differences in the morphological and syntactical system of adjectives in the two languages. In the morphological system, English had comparative forms, either regular or irregular forms (Carstairs-McCarthy, 2002), e.g., good – better – best and beautiful – more beautiful – most beautiful. These systems are not known in Indonesian structure (Chaer, 2009). On the contrary, the Indonesian language uses adverbs as intensifiers, such as *lebih* [more] for the comparative form and *paling* [most] for the superlative form, such as in *baik* [good] – *lebih baik* [better] – *paling baik* [best]. Here, through the contrastive analysis, it could be inferred that the Indonesian language has a more straightforward way of forming comparative and superlative adjectives.

The following difference in morphological level was the existence of a reduplicative form of the adjective in the Indonesian language, as in the example of *hitam-hitam* (Chaer, 2008; Suparni, 2002). Such a form does not exist in English. Furthermore, the complexity is amplified by adding affixes for a reduplicative form of the adjective, as in *kehitam-hitaman*. Such form does not exist in English, either, yet English has a specific word to express the equivalent meaning, namely ‘blackish’.

Furthermore, a set of prefixes, –dis, un–, ir–, in–, im– and –non, which usually evokes a negative meaning and is used for certain English adjectives, is not found in the Indonesian language (Auni & Manan, 2022). For instance, the prefix dis– is not used with the word ‘possible’, or the prefix un– may not be used with the word ‘honest’, and so forth. In contrast, stating negation in the Indonesian language usually uses ‘not’ [*tidak* or *tak*].

Additionally, many suffixes with various meanings are used to form English adjectives from verbs or nouns (Adams, 2016; Swan & Smith, 2001). These kinds of suffix systems used in various ways are not found in Indonesian. The difficulties in mastering this kind of English adjectives can be seen clearly as many different suffixes are used for certain words. Besides, some similar suffixes are used to form English adjectives either from verbs or from nouns, such as –ful, –ed, –ing, and –ous. Another difficulty Indonesian speakers face is forming adjectives from other word classes, verbs and nouns. Both languages use different kinds of affixes. English uses suffixes (e.g., *hairy*, *interesting*, *closed*), while the Indonesian language uses prefixes, confixes, and suffixes (e.g., *berbatu* [stony], *kekanakan* [childish], *duniawi* [worldly]).

Moreover, in English, according to their meanings, adjectives can be classified clearly into two descriptive and limiting (Rossiter, 2020), but In Indonesian, this aspect of adjectives is not clearly defined. Besides, limiting adjectives in English are divided into several sub-divisions, and every sub-division has several words with their own

characteristics in the English language. For fuller information about this problem, it is well to remember that some English words are not known in the Indonesian language, such as ‘mother’s’, ‘any’, ‘much’, ‘a lot of’, and ‘a few’. In Indonesian, expressing ‘any’, ‘much’, and ‘a lot’ uses the word *banyak* [many] in all statements, and ‘a few’ or ‘few’ uses the word *beberapa* [some]. The phrase ‘*milik ibu*’ [mother’s] is used for possessive.

Based on the comparison of the positions of English and Indonesian adjectives, it is clear that learning English attributive positions is very difficult for Indonesian speakers because these adjectives’ positions in both languages differ.

5.2 Syntactical Aspect

At the syntactical level, the difference lies in the position of adjectives in a phrase. In English, an adjective stands before the noun; it qualifies or is between a determiner and a noun (Hendriani & Kasuma, 2009). Whereas in the Indonesian language, it stands after the noun it qualifies, for example, ‘a black board’ [*sebuah papan tulis hitam*], ‘a large beautiful garden’ [*sepetak kebun luas nan indah*], ‘a stupid narrow-minded boy’ [*seorang anak bodoh yang berpikiran sempit*]. This clearly shows that both languages use contrary positions of this kind of adjective.

In English, syntactically, predicative adjectives must stand after linking verbs (Swan & Walter, 2011). In contrast, in the Indonesian language, they stand directly as predicates of sentences (Moeliono et al., 2017), as in ‘he is happy’ [*dia bahagia*] and ‘his child gets hungry’ [*anaknya lapar*]. Moreover, in English, linking verbs play a critical role in connection with adjectives, and their use depends on time or tenses when something happens. Meanwhile, Indonesian does not recognize this system. For instance, ‘I am happy’, ‘I was happy’, and ‘I will be happy’ indicate a different period of time. At the same time, the Indonesian language is straightforward without any linking verbs, showing the time something is done. In other words, the Indonesian language does not recognize verb conjugations showing tenses. Therefore, this is also one of the serious problems in learning English by Indonesian speakers.

In Indonesian structure, it is commonly found that adjectives precede the subject of sentences, and they directly stand as predicates (Chaer, 2009). This case will cause difficulty for Indonesian speakers studying English because it is not encountered in such a way in English sentence structure. To meet this way, English uses a particular rule that must be applied, such as ‘so + adjective + linking verbs + S that ...’, such as ‘so strong is the wind that we could not go out’, ‘so beautiful was the girl that nobody could talk of anything’, or ‘so delicious was Acehnese food that visitors could eat every day’. However, in Indonesian, this is quite simple in that an adjective may be placed directly in front of the subject and functions directly as a sentence predicate. For example, ‘cemas ibunya’ [his/her mother is anxious], ‘sengsara hidupnya’ [His/her life is grief], and ‘sakitkah engkau?’ [are you sick?].

In addition to the position, English appositive adjectives are quite similar to Indonesian ones under the term attributive (Fithriani, 2011; Hendriani & Kasuma, 2009). Nevertheless, there are some difficulties faced by Indonesian speakers in learning this position because the English appositive adjectives have special rules in English, such as in set phrases coming from old French (e.g., ‘the body politic’, ‘postmaster general’), with a unit of space or time (e.g., ‘a ruler twelve inches long’, ‘two months ago’), place or time words that usually function as adverbs (e.g., ‘the sky

above', 'the day after'), cardinal numbers used for identifying or naming (e.g., 'line four', 'chapter five'), and the adjective 'enough' (e.g., 'I have time enough' or 'I have enough time'). Thus, it is clear that this kind of English adjective makes Indonesian speakers uneasy about studying them. In other words, they must know all the rules of this adjective.

Even though the position of factitive adjectives is also similar to the term attributive adjective in the Indonesian language (Fithriani, 2011; Hendriani & Kasuma, 2009), trouble is also found by Indonesian native speakers in mastering this position of English adjectives. Indonesian speakers must know and memorize certain verbs and their objects in English sentences. It means that several verbs need to be paid into the account by English learners, such as 'the teacher made me uneasy,' 'the news drove the man insane,' and 'she painted the picture red'.

6. CONCLUSION

Based on the contrastive analysis, there are some different features of adjectives in the Indonesian language and English, which may be the source of errors and problems for Indonesian native speakers when learning English. The first lies on the morphological level. The reduplication form found and shared in Indonesian is not found in English. The habits of using Indonesian reduplication adjectives, which denote something done repeatedly and used for emphasis, tend to make Indonesian learners apply this rule to English. Further, both languages use different systems in terms of affixation as the formation of adjectives. English adjectives only have two kinds of affixes, namely prefix and suffix, while Indonesian ones have four kinds of affixes such as prefix, infix, confix, and suffix.

Furthermore, the differences also exist at a syntactical level. Firstly, two similar terms are found in both languages, attributive and predicative adjectives, with very different uses. Secondly, there is a predicative inversion of an adjective directly acting as a predicate in Indonesian, whereas it is not in English. English uses a specific rule to reach this inverted construction. Thirdly, there is another position in English, namely factitive, which has its characteristics and certainties. The factitive is equivalent to attributive in Indonesian but does not have its particular characteristics and certainties as in the case of the English ones. In English, for instance, the factitive adjectives usually stand after certain verbs and their objects as their object complement. From analysing the data and results as depicted above, it can be concluded that the differences between native and foreign languages, in terms of forms, formations, meanings, and positions, can cause difficulty in the teaching and learning process. Hence, the result of this study may be used for further investigation of errors in translating from Indonesian to English and vice versa, particularly in the case of adjective use in both languages. The result also may be used in arranging lessons on the adjective for learners from both languages.

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