

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter gives the comprehensive theoretical foundation of the research. It is aimed direct to what extent the research is conducted. Since the research is focused on the students' perception, this chapter likely discusses the students' perception, English lecturer's code switching in English Morphology class to take the framework of research is well.

A Perception

1. The Definition of Perception

Perception is shaped from the information received from the sense. It is more than the individual sensory inputs. It involves some integration and some interpretation of the sensations that people receive. It is not a matter of simply taking in information from the world and creating from it a duplicate internal representation.

According to Blake and Sekuler as cited in Dwi explained that perception follows a deal of activities on the part of the perceiver. It is more than a simply recording of the visual, audio, or world around from a human. Perception is considered to be the result of activity, either mental or physical. People navigate the world, collecting information and searching more information about interesting objects. The perception of human action

depends on the multiple sources of information including sensory, motor, and affective processes.¹

Wilson et al as cited in Dwi proposed that stimulation of perception comes from the external object and internal system of the subject itself.²

a. Stimulation Comes from The External Object

Externally, stimulation possibly comes from visual, auditory, cutaneous, olfactory, and gustatory sense. First, one of the most prominent aspects of visual perception is about how human interpret a stimulus arrays of objects and backgrounds. The light waves are the kinds of visual stimulus that is responded by human. Gestalt in visual perception is famous due to his principles of visual perceptual organization that affect in learning process. Second, human response to the sound wave that has been processed in the brain is called as the auditory perception. It is important for building the communication skill of learner. Third, cutaneous is the stimulation that comes from the pressure, heat, cold, and texture on skin. Olfactory, as the fourth sense, is the kind of response to the volatile substances in nose. The last is gustatory. It is response to the soluble or hard things on the tongue. Simplicity, it is how human taste things as sweet, salty, sour, and bitter flavor. Those tastes can be in combination.

¹ Dwi Erna S, “*The Investigation of Students’ Perception of English Teacher and Their English Learning Motivation*”. Published thesis. (Salatiga: IAIN Salatiga, 2015), 25.

² Ibid., 26.

b. Stimulation comes from the internal system

Internal stimulation is not connected to the external stimulation. The stimulations come from the human themselves. Stimulation comes from proprioceptor and interoceptor. Proprioceptor is one of the deep senses that contain the information about balance and body position. It consists of labyrinth, kinesthetic, and articular stimulation. Labyrinth stimulation is response from human toward semicircular canals to body movement. Kinesthetic is response come from the muscle tension. Articular is response to contact of moving joint surfaces. Interoceptor is information from the organs in the viscera. Vestibular sense is prominent to the interoceptor. It is obtained from changes in the body balance. The perceptions' process is initiated by a sense organ. Perception involves the coding of stimuli, the transmission of coded message via selected neurons. After the message is transmitted, human finally receipt the coded message. The definition of perception can be explained from physical, psychological and physiological perspectives. The description above is summary of perception in physiological perspective. The following section will provide the explanation term perception from the psychological perspective.³

³ Ibid., 28.

2. The Concept of Students' Perception

Psychologically, perception has to do with the following facts. Perception is the psychological ability to process or use information received through the sense organs. As Akandes' statement in his education research, he stated that perception is the cognitive impression that is formed from 'reality'. It influences the individuals' actions and behavior towards an object.⁴ Akande later quoted the Alagbu statement, that perception follows factors, as past experiences, present experiences, personality, and motivation, as crucial to understanding how people perceive events. In part of education, students' perception includes on how students' understanding in facing some experiences, especially past experiences about their studying process. Specifically and physiologically, learner percept on what they see, hear, and touch during in school. On the other hand, it can be psychologically claimed that perception activity of students involves their cognitive impression that is formed by 'process of study'. In this section, the students' cognitive impression is not only focused in their studying process, but also detailed on the environment faced by them. Including in environment, teacher is often interested students to evaluate and to make perception. Further, some previous study found several students' perceptions of teacher's code switching.

⁴Akande, Samson O. (2009). *Knowledge, Perception, and Attitudes of Library Personnel towards Preservation of Information Resources in Nigerian Federal University libraries. Library and Philosophy Practice e-Journal. Paper 303.* Retrieved from <http://digitalcommons.unl.edu/libphilprac/303/>. Accessed at: 11.11, November 28th 2016

3. Factors Influencing Perception

The way individuals view the world around them greatly influences what they focus on and what they ignore.⁵ The stimuli people select to focus on depend on their internal components as well as the external environment.⁶ Viljoen refers to McKenna's description of these individual internal components as preparatory set, orientation, intensity of motives and familiarity of stimuli.⁷

Preparatory set refers to a collection of items that people are more inclined to see according to their internal state. This is more about people's tendencies of what they have already had inside. This internal components that can influence people's perception are already built in their internal state.

Orientation is the perspective to react to certain physical stimuli, which is often based on individuals' history and culture. People would give their perception from what they already experienced before. From what they have experienced, they would have a perspective to give a reaction for certain physical stimuli they got.

Intensity of motives refers to individuals' unfulfilled needs. Familiarity of stimuli refers to exposure to stimuli familiar to individuals. If individuals are exposed to a range of different stimuli, they will be attracted

⁵ Don E. Hamachek, *Psychology in teaching, learning and growth, 5th edition* (Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1999), 199.

⁶ Ibid., 200.

⁷ Viljoen, *The Influence of Source Feedback Perceptions on Motivation* (University of Pretoria: Magister Commercial (Human Resource management), 2003), 6.

to the familiar rather than the unfamiliar. Because, in giving a perception, people have to experience what they want to percept.

The factors that affect perception were important in this research, as the respondents each focused on different stimuli from either external or internal environment. The participants could perceive the evaluation of teaching skills for the teachers or lecturers differently due to factors such as culture, their unfulfilled needs, responses to their own internal states, or choosing to react to familiar rather than unfamiliar stimuli. Moreover, the respondents of this research has their own perceptions and expectations.

Students' perception in the teaching-learning process can be influenced by a number of factors, especially the use of teaching strategies to assist verbal teaching. The factors might come from what the teachers or lecturers' teaching strategies to improve memory and comprehension; the past experience and knowledge on which to build new knowledge; the variety of teaching strategies to stimulate all the senses and increase learning; the active involvement of students in the use of different teaching media, and the teacher's competence and creativity in adapting teaching media and material to the specific situation.⁸

⁸ Tutut Indah W, "*Students' Perception Toward Native and Non-native English Speaking Teacher's Teaching Strategies*". Unpublished thesis. (Kediri: STAIN Kediri, 2015), 12-13.

B. English Lecturer's Code Switching

1. Language and Society

Language reflects society's attitudes and values. "Language may also determines what people notice, what categories they establish, what choices they believe are available, and consequently the way they behave. In other words, language may strongly influence perception and behaviour."⁹

People generally do not hold opinions about languages in a vacuum. They develop attitudes towards languages which reflect their views about those who speak the languages, and the contexts and functions with which they are associated. When people listen to accent or languages they have never heard before, their assessments are totally random. There is no pattern to them. In other words there is no universal concencues about which languages sounds most beautiful and which most ugly, despite people's beliefs that some languages are just inherently more beautiful than others.¹⁰

2. Monolingualism, Bilingualism and Multilingualism

Contact between people living as different communities have been progressing more rapidly since the industrialization. And today, modern advanced technology (Computers, Smartphones and the Internet) is intensifying in the contacts. This situation has kept the importance of having a competence in uderstanding and using more than one language. There used to be communities whose members used one language as a means of

⁹Janet Holmes, *An Introduction to Sociolinguistics 2nd Ed* (England: Pearson Education Limited, 2001), 317.

¹⁰Ibid., 343.

communication. We can call the individuals of such community monolinguals.

Bilingualism means the ability to produce complete meaningful utterances in other languages.¹¹ People may become bilingual either by acquiring two languages at the same time in childhood or by learning a second language sometime after acquiring their first language. It is also possible to learn a second language sometime after early childhood, but the older someone gets, the harder it is to learn to speak a new language as well as a native speaker.

In addition to the concept of bilingual, the term multilinguals is also sometimes used to refer to the people who can use more than two languages. However, it has been now common to use the term bilinguals to include people who are actually more properly identified as multilinguals.¹²

3. Code Switching

a. The Definition of Code-Switching

In the studies of code-switching, there have been various definitions of the term “code-switching”. Gumperz referred to it as “the juxtaposition within the same speech exchange of passages of speech belonging to two different grammatical systems or subsystems”.¹³ Cook came up with the notion that code-switching is the process of “go-ing

¹¹Jeremy Harmer, *The Practice of English Language Teaching* (Edinburgh Gate: Longman, 2001), 75.

¹²Made Iwan Indrawan Jendra, *Sociolinguistics: The Study of Society's Languages* (Yogyakarta: Graha Ilmu, 2010), 68.

¹³Gumperz JJ, *Discourse Strategies* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1982), 59.

from one language to the other in mid-speech when both speakers know the same languages”.¹⁴ As defined by Lightbown, it is “the systematic alternating use of two languages or language varieties within a single conversation or utterance”.¹⁵ To be brief, code-switching is the shift from one language to another within a conversation or utterance. In the context of foreign language classroom, it refers to the alternate use of the first language and the target language, a means of communication by language teachers when the need arises.

b. Types of Code-Switching

Code-switching can be classified in accordance with two different classifications named here grammatical and contextual classification. The grammatical classification is based on where in the sentence or utterance the switching appears while the contextual classification is based on the reasons why a bilingual switches.

The grammatical classification results in three types of code-switching, namely tag-code-switching, inter-sentential code-switching and intra-sentential code-switching.¹⁶

¹⁴Cook V, *Second language learning and language teaching* (Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press and Edward Arnold Publishers, 2000), 83.

¹⁵Lightbown PM. *L2 Instruction: time to teach* (TESOL Q, 2001), 598.

¹⁶Made Iwan Indrawan Jendra, *Sociolinguistics: The Study of Society's Languages* (Yogyakarta: Graha Ilmu, 2010), 75-78.

1) Tag Code-Switching

A tag code-switching happens when a bilingual inserts short expressions (tag) from different language at the end of his/her utterances. Here is the example:

An Indonesian bilingual switches from English to Indonesian.

e.g. It's okay, no problem, *ya nggak?*

2) Inter-sentential Code-Switching

Inter-sentential switching occurs at a clause or sentence boundary, where each clause or sentence is in one language or another. According to Romaine, inter-sentential switching could be considered as requiring greater fluency in both languages than tag-switching since major portions of the utterance must conform to the rules of both languages.¹⁷

3) Intra-sentential Code-Switching

Romaine points out that intrasentential switching involves, arguably, the greatest syntactic risk, and may be avoided by all but the most fluent bilinguals. The intrasentential code switching is switching at the clause, phrase or word level if no morphophonological adaptation occurs. It is the most complex type of code switching, requiring as it does that the speaker be able to control two linguistics systems simultaneously.¹⁸

¹⁷Susan Romaine, *Bilingualism 2nd Ed* (Oxford: Blackwell, 1995).

¹⁸*Ibid.*

Unlike the grammatical classification, which is based on the position of the different codes found in the utterances, the contextual classification is based on the reasons why people switch. The classification divides into two types of code-switching, namely the situational and metaphorical code-switching.

1) Situational Code-Switching

Situational code switching occurs when the languages used change according to the situations in which the conversant find themselves. They speak one language in one situation and another in a different one. No topic change is involved. But when the speakers code switch to signal identities or a change of relations in the roles of the participants in the conversation.

2) Metaphorical Code-Switching

Wardhaugh as cited in Mujiono explains that metaphorical code switching has an affective dimension. He explains it more that the people change the code as they redefine the situation; formal to informal, official to personal, serious to humorous, and politeness to solidarity.¹⁹ However, metaphorical code switching used by the people to show how speakers employ particular language to convey information that goes beyond their actual words, especially to define social situation. And metaphorical code switching occurs when a change of topic requires a change in the language used. But if the

¹⁹Mujiono, "Code Switching in English as Foreign Language Instruction Practiced by the English Lecturers at Universities." *International Journal of Linguistics*, 5(2)(April, 2013), 47-65.

speaker may switch within a single sentence, one sentence is expressed in one variety, and next sentence in another variety.

c. Reasons for Code-Switching

According to Mujiono there were fifteen reasons why lecturers do code-switching from one language to other.²⁰

1) Linguistic Factor

The use of a language code by English lectures from English to the Arabic language on the following data, due to reason of linguistic factors.

For instance, L; I give an example, my experience teaching my daughter; it is because my daughter is in Islamic Primary School. So she studied “*Makhorijul huruf*”.

Code switching was practiced by the English lecturers in English instruction in the classroom because they had difficulty to explain the material related the term that didn’t have a counterpart in English as shown in excerpt.

2) To Continue Speaker’s Pronouncement

English lecturers employed code switching to continue the previous speech. The example of data excerpt was displayed in the following data as shown in italicized forms.

For example, L; So some times the subject is hidden if the subject is hidden, the sentence is imperative. *Kalimat perintah itu subjeknya di*

²⁰Ibid., 56-60.

disembunyikan ('the subject of imperative sentence is hidden'). The subject is always 'you' right. 'you' is already understood, so 'you' is omitted.

Based on data, code switching was practiced by the English lecturer from English to Indonesian in English instruction in the classroom to continue the previous speech as shown in the example.

3) Addressee Specification

English lecturer sometimes practiced code switching from English to Indonesian to involve the addressee. The aim of involving of addressee specification in order that the students focus on his speech.

For instance, L; Where is the predicate? *coba dibaca mana predikatnya?* ('Try to read, where is the predicate?')

S: the predicate is "see" Sir:

Code switching was practiced by the English lecturer in English instruction in the classroom because he wanted to involve the addressee in classroom.

4) Information Clarification

English lecturer often practiced code switching from English to Indonesian to clarify content of a statement being presented. The aim of clarification was to minimize any ambiguous words or sentences leading to incomplete understanding, and to resolve any confusion.

The code switching practices for clarification was displayed in the following data as shown in italicized forms.

For examples, L: Ok, the more marked L1, (.) the more marked L2, sorry, the more marked L2, the more transfer or the more interference will happen from L1. Ok, *semakin sulit l2 semakin anda transfer, itulah pokoknya*. ('the more difficult L2 the more you transfer, it is actually').

Addition example, L: So sentence here is consist of subject and predicate, *pasti memiliki subjek dan predikat ketika itu dikatakan kalimat* ('must have subject and predicate when it is called sentence')

The use of a language code by English lecturers from English to Indonesian language on the above data, due to reason of information clarification. In English Instruction in the classroom, statement of clarification was practiced by English lecturers by a means of switching from English to Indonesian.

5) Intimacy

Code switching was practiced by the English lecturer in order to build intimate interpersonal relationships among English lecturer and students in English instruction in the classroom. The example from data was shown in italicized forms below.

For Instance, L: According to Chomsky, what is A, and what is B, what is competence, what is performance (.) *tidak boleh ngrepek, ayo lupa* ('it not allowed to cite, come on forget it')

As data above, English lecturer applied code switching to build intimate interpersonal relationships. This was carried out by switching from English to Indonesian. The use of English to Indonesian was intended to build intimate interpersonal relationships among English lecturer and students.

6) Affected with the Addressee

The use of code from English to Indonesian by the English lecturer because he was influenced by the languages which was used by the students.

For example, L: What is the different between intransitive and transitive?

S: *Membutuhkan objek dan tidak membutuhkan objek* ('does it need object or not')

L: *Mana yang tidak membutuhkan objek?* ('Which one does not object?')

With regard to the last sentence, code switching was practiced by the English lecturer in English instruction in the classroom because he was influenced by the language practiced by the students.

7) Unpleasant Feeling

The use of a language code by English lecturer from English to Indonesian language on the data below, because the English lecturer wanted to show his unpleasant feeling.

For example, L: what do you sense of oral?

S: ((*ramai*)) ((‘noisy’))

L: hello what is oral? *yang dak baca saya tunjuk* (‘those who do not read it, I point’)

Code switching was practiced by the English lecturer in English instruction in the classroom because he wanted to show their unpleasant feeling due to their students’ occurrence.

8) To Create Humor

Code switching was also intended to create humorous situations in order to reduce students’ tension when they dealt with English lesson. The data obtained through classroom observations showed that English lecturers code switched from English to Indonesian to create humor. The example from data was shown in italicized forms below.

For instance, L: can you see things behind the screen

S: no, Sir

L: I can, you must wear glasses, *makanya hati-hati kalau ngomong dengan orang yang berkaca mata ya?* (‘So, be careful if you spoke with the people who was wearing glasses, yeah’)

As data above, English lecturer applied code switching to create humor. This was carried out by switching from English to Indonesian. The use of Indonesian to create humor was based on the reason that it was emotionally and culturally close to English lecturer language backgrounds.

9) Repetition Used for Clarification Reiteration of a Message

The term reiteration means emphasizing the points by expressing them exactly from one language to another language. This reiteration aims to reinforce intended messages for the students. This can occur in the flow of English to Indonesian.

For example, L: Ok, “was studying”, *siapa bisa bantu jawab?* (‘who can help’) Who can help him?

L: Ok, now please, what the difference, *apa bedanya* (‘what is the difference’) procedur and cronological order.

Two data above showed that English lectures applied code switching to reiterate words, phrases, or sentence in order to assist students to understand the presented utterances. The reiteration can be in the form of English to Indonesian. The reason for this reiteration was to help students understand what their lecturers were talking about.

10) To Strengthen Request or Command

Code switching was practiced by the English lecturer, in order to strengthen the request or command to students in English instruction in the classroom.

For example, L: Come here. Yeah, you read, *baca agak keras!* (‘Read it louder, please!’)

S: Madura is a hot island in East Java.

English lecturer applied code switching to strengthen his request. This was carried out by switching from English to Indonesian as shown in as demonstrated in the example.

11) To Give Question

Code switching was practiced by the English lecturer because he intended to give his questions to students in English instruction in the classroom.

For example, L: Linda makes me bored at any times. If you analyze the lexical categories here, what kinds of lexical categories of “bored” content word or consume word ”bored” here is *disebut apa?* (‘ what is it called’)

The example showed that the occurrence of a code of English to Indonesian was a strategy used by English lecturer in order for the question that was given to the students were easier to be understood by them.

12) To Give Advice

The use of code between English and Indonesian by the English lecturer was intended to advice to the students.

For example, T: ... no more ideas, *mahasiswa sebaiknya (.) saya bangga kepada mahasiswa yang seharusnya membuat lima kesalahan karena menjawab lima kali, daripada mahasiswa yang membuat nol kesalahan karena sama sekali tidak pernah menjawab, ya* (‘the students should (.), I was gladder to the students who should make

five mistakes do to answer five times rather than the students who made no mistakes because they never answer at all, yeah')

Code switching was practiced by the English lecturer in English instruction in the classroom because the English lecturer wanted to advice to the students.

13) To Balance the Addressee's Language Competence

English lecturer employed code switching from English to Indonesian because they wanted to balance his language with his students' language competence. The aim of this reason was to make his students understand from their language that he used.

For example, L: we have what is it time signal subject and then what subject added 's' and what subject of verb that is added 'es' or everything gitu kan? *masih ada yang susah dengan penggunaan* 'es' maupun 's' (.) ('Wasn't it? Was there any difficulty with the use of 'es' or 's' (.)

14. To make it easier to Convey Speaker's Message

The use of a language code by English lecturer from English to Indonesian language on the above data because she wanted to make it easier in conveying meaning.

For example, L: The teacher that's wrong, ok, it's very complex although not grammatically accurate use really understand that. Right. "I no like the play now", Yeah, "I no like.. I no like", Exactly like us,

saya tidak suka bermain sekarang, ya, saya tidak mau bermain sekarang ('I don't like playing now, yeah, I don't want to play now')

15. Discourse Marker

It is very possible for the English lecturers in conveying their subjects use discourse marker interchangeably.

d. Functions of Code-Switching

The functions of teacher code switching are known as topic switch, affective functions, and repetitive functions. In topic switching, the teacher alters his or her language according to the topic being taught. This is mainly seen in grammar instruction, and the student's attention is directed towards the new knowledge. Affective functions are important in the expression of emotions, and building a relationship between the teacher and the student. In repetitive functions, code switching is used to clarify the meaning of a word, and stresses importance on the foreign language content for better comprehension.²¹

²¹Sert, O. (2004). The functions of code-switching in ELT classrooms. Retrieved from <http://iteslj.org/Articles/Sert-CodeSwitching.html>

C. English Morphology²²

1. Basic Terminology

- a. Morphology – the study of internal structure of words
- b. Morpheme – the smallest linguistic unit which has a meaning or grammatical function. Words are composed of morphemes (one or more).

There are some complications with this simple definition.

Sing-er-s, home-work, moon-light, un-kind-ly, talk-s, ten-th, flipp-ed, de-nation-al-iz-ation.

The order of morphemes matters:

*Talk-ed ≠ *ed-talk, re-write ≠ *write-re*

- c. Morph. The term morpheme is used both to refer to an abstract entity its concrete realization(s) in speech or writing. When it is needed to maintain the signified and signifier distinction, the term morph is used to refer to the concrete entity, while the term morpheme is reserved for the abstract entity only.

- d. Allomorphs – morphemes having the same function but different form.

Unlike the synonyms they usually cannot be replaced one by the other.

- 1) a) indefinite article: an orange – a building
- b) plural morpheme: cat-s (s)

²² Jirka Hana, “Intro to Linguistics-Morphology”, <http://ufal.mff.cuni.cz/~hana/teaching/2015wi-ling/05-Morphology.pdf>, October 31, 2011, Accessed at: 11.15, June 14th 2017.

2. Classification Of Morphemes

a. Bound × Free

- 1) bound morpheme is a unit of meaning which cannot stand alone as a word.

e.g. the English word *books* is a noun that is inflected for number, specifically to express the plural; the content morpheme *car* is unbound because it could stand alone as a word, while the suffix *-s* is bound because it cannot stand alone as a word.

- 2) free morpheme can appear as a word by itself.

b. Root × Affix

- 1) root – nucleus of the word that affixes attach too.

In English, most of the roots are free. In some languages that is less common (Lithuanian: *Billas Clintonas*).

Compounds contain more than one root: *home·work*

- 2) affix – a morpheme that is not a root; it is always bound

– suffix: *talk-ing*, *quick-ly*

– prefix: *un-happy*, *pre-existing*

– infix: common in Austronesian and Austroasiatic lgs (Tagalog, Khmer)

Tagalog: *basa* ‘read’ *b·um·asa* ‘read past’ – *sulat* ‘write’ – *s·um·ulat* ‘wrote’ very rare in English: *abso-bloody-lutely*

– circumfix: morpheme having two parts that are placed around a stem

Dutch collectives:

berg 'mountain' *ge-berg-te* 'mountains' **geberg*, **bergte*

vogel 'bird' *ge-vogel-te* 'poultry' **gevogel*, **vogelte*

c. Content × Functional

1) Content morphemes – carry some semantic content *car*, *-able*, *un-*

2) Functional morphemes – provide grammatical information

the, *and*, *-s* (plural), *-s* (3rd sg)

d. Derivation vs. Inflection

1) inflection – creating various forms of the same word

lexeme – an abstract entity; the set of all forms related by inflection

(but not derivation).

table – *table-s*

lemma: A form from a lexeme chosen by convention (e.g., nom.sg.

for nouns, infinitive for verbs) to represent that set.

Also called the canonical/base/dictionary/citation form.

E.g., *break*, *breaks*, *broke*, *broken*, *breaking* have the same lemma

break

ending – inflectional suffix

2) derivation – creating new word

slow – *slow·ly* – *slow·ness*

3. Morphological processes

- a. Concatenation (adding continuous affixes) – the most common process

Often phonological changes on morpheme boundaries.

- b. Reduplication – part of the word or the entire word is doubled:

– Tagalog: *basa* ‘read’ – *ba-basa* ‘will read’; *sulat* ‘write’ – *su-sulat* ‘will write’

– Afrikaans: *amper* ‘nearly’ – *amper-amper* ‘very nearly’; *dik* ‘thick’ – *dik-dik* ‘very thick’

- c. Templates – both root and affix

Both the roots and affixes are discontinuous. Only Semitic lgs (Arabic, Hebrew). A root (3 or 4 consonants, e.g., *l-m-d* – ‘learn’) is interleaved with a (mostly) vocalic pattern

– Hebrew:

lomed ‘learn _{masc} ’	shatak ‘be-quiet _{pres:masc} ’
lamad ‘learnt _{masc:sg:3rd} ’	shatak ‘was-quiet _{masc:sg:3rd} ’
limed ‘taught _{masc:sg:3rd} ’	shitek ‘made-sb-to-be-quiet _{masc:sg:3rd} ’
lumad ‘was-taught _{masc:sg:3rd} ’	shutak ‘was-made-to-be-quiet _{masc:sg:3rd} ’

- d. Morpheme internal changes (apophony, ablaut) – the word changes internally.

– English: *sing* – *sang* – *sung*, *man* – *men*, *goose* – *geese* (not productive anymore)

- German: *Mann* ‘man’ – *M`ann·chen* ‘small man’, *Hund* ‘dog’
H`und·chen ‘small dog’
- e. Subtraction (Deletion): some material is deleted to create another form
 - Papago (a native American language in Arizona) imperfective → perfective
him ‘walking_{imperf}’ → *hi* ‘walking_{perf}’
hihim ‘walking_{pl:imperf}’ → *hihi* ‘walking_{pl:perf}’
 - French, feminine adjective → masculine adj. (much less clear)
grande [gr~Ad] ‘big_f’ → *grand* [gr~A] ‘big_m’
fausse [fos] ‘false_f’ → *faux* [fo] ‘false_m’
- f. Suppletion – ‘irregular’ relation between the words. Hopefully quite rare.
English: *be* – *am* – *is* – *was*, *go* – *went*, *good* – *better*

4. Types of Word formation

Word formation refers to the ways in which new words are made on the basis of other words or morphemes. Word formation can be denote either diachronically (through different periods in history) or synchronically (at one particular period in time). There are some types of word formation as follow:

- a. Affixation – words are formed by adding affixes.

English:

- V + *-able* → Adj: *predict-able*
- V + *-er* → N: *sing-er*
- *un-* + A → A: *un-productive*

- V + *-en* → V: *deep-en, thick-en*
- b. Compounding – words are formed by combining two or more words.
 - Adj + Adj → Adj: *bitter-sweet*
 - N + N → N: *rain-bow, Internet Security Association Key Management Protocol*
 - V + N → V: *pick-pocket*
 - P + V → V: *over-do*
- c. Acronyms – like abbreviations, but acts as a normal word
 - Laser* – *light amplification by simulated emission of radiation*
 - radar* – *radio detecting and ranging*
- d. Blending – parts of two different words are combined
 - breakfast + lunch* → *brunch*
 - motor + hotel* → *motel*
- e. Clipping – longer words are shortened
 - doc(tor), prof(essional), lab(oratory), ad(vertisement), dorm(itory), exam(ination), etc.*

D. The Previous Related Studies

Perception is the set of processes by which an individual becomes aware of and interprets information about the environment.²³ Students' perception is proposed to explain the difference in perception of the students through code-switching that used by the lecturer in EFL classroom.

²³James Scrivener, *Learning Teaching, second edition* (England: McMillan Publiser Limited, 2005), 40.

Numerous studies about code-switching have been conducted in to matter, but few have focused on students' perception. The researcher found some studies on students' perception of their English language teachers that had been conducted by Minfa Yao, Badrul Hisham and Kamaruzaman, and Rasouli and Simin as they conducted the study of code switching in EFL Classroom.

Badrul Hisham and Kamaruzaman performed a study on the learners' perceptions of the teachers' code switching in English language classrooms in Malaysia. Finally, they found that learners perceived code switching as a positive method because of the different capacities it has.²⁴

Mingfa Yao research, the results of his study is between teachers and students have a similar positive attitude to teachers' code-switching in EFL classroom.²⁵ Other finding on Rasouli and Simin's research indicated that students have negative perception to the teacher's persona and mostly positive about the subject access, and mostly negative about the ability of these teachers' ability of class management and also their attitudes were mostly positive towards interpersonal relations.²⁶

²⁴Badrul H. Ahmad and Kamaruzaman Jusoff, "Teachers' Code-Switching in Classroom Instructions for Low English Proficient Learners." *English Language Teaching*, 2(2) (June, 2009), 49-55.

²⁵Yao, "On Attitudes to Teachers' Code-switching in EFL Classes.", 19-28.

²⁶Abdolaziz Rasouli and Shahla Simin, "Teachers and students' perceptions of code switching in aviation language learning courses." *International Journal of Research Studies in Language Learning*, 5(3) (July, 2016), 3-18.