

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

To do this study, the researcher realizes that the study will not work well if there are not reliable sources of literature. Therefore, in this study, the researcher uses a number of theories, which help the researcher in analyzing the data collected. In the first part of this review of related literatures are related theories, which they are consisted of the explanation of first language acquisition and the stages of child language acquisition.

2.1 Related Theories

2.1.1 First Language Acquisition

First language acquisition is remarkable for the speed with which it takes place. Yule has proposed that long before a child starts school, he or she has become an extremely sophisticated language-user, operating a system for self-expression and communication that no other creature, or computer, comes close to matching. In addition to the speed of acquisition, the fact that it generally occurs, without overt instruction, for all children, regardless of great differences in their circumstances, provides strong support for the idea that there is an innate predisposition in the human infant to acquire language. We can think of this as a special capacity for language with which each newborn child is endowed. By itself, however, this inborn language capacity is not enough (2005:149).

Further, Yule states that during the first two or three years of development, a child requires interaction with other language-users in order to bring this general language capacity into operation with a particular language such as English. Yule also states that that a child who does not hear or is not allowed to use language will learn no language. Yule has also identified the importance of cultural transmission, meaning that the language a child learns is

not genetically inherited, but is acquired in a particular language-using environment (2005:149).

2.1.2 The Stages in Language Acquisition

According to Yule (2005:152), there are several stages of grammatical development, they are:

In stage I, ONE-WORD STAGE, between twelve and eighteen months, children begin to produce a variety of recognizable single-unit utterances. It is characterized by speech in which single terms are uttered for everyday subjects such as ‘milk’, ‘cookie’, ‘cat’, ‘cup’ and ‘spoon’ (usually pronounced [pʌn]). Other forms such as [_s ´ _] may occur in circumstances that suggest the child is producing a version of *What’s that*, so the label ‘one-word’ for this stage may be misleading and a term such as ‘single-unit’ would be more accurate;

In stage II, TWO-WORD STAGE: it begins around eighteen to twenty months, as the child’s vocabulary moves beyond fifty words. By the time the child is two years old, a variety of combinations, similar to *baby chair*, *mommy eat*, *cat bad*, will usually have appeared. The adult interpretation of such combinations is, of course, very much tied to the context of their utterance. The phrase *baby chair* may be taken as an expression of possession (= this is baby’s chair), or as a request (= put baby in chair), or as a statement (= baby is in the chair), depending on different circumstances;

In stage III, TELEGRAPHIC SPEECH, between two and two-and-a-half years old, the child begins producing a large number of utterances that could be classified as ‘multiple-word’ speech. The salient feature of these utterances ceases to be the number of words, but the variation in word-forms that begins to appear. It is characterized by strings of words (lexical morphemes) in phrases or sentences such as *this shoe all wet*, *cat drink milk* and

daddy go bye-bye. The child has clearly developed some sentence-building capacity by this stage and can get the word order correct. While this type of telegram-format speech is being produced, a number of grammatical inflections begin to appear in some of the word-forms and simple prepositions (*in, on*) are also used.

By three, the vocabulary has grown to hundreds of words and pronunciation has become closer to the form of adult language. At this point, it is worth considering what kind of influence, if any, the adults have in the development of the child's speech.

2.1.3 The Stages of Grammatical Development

According to Hartmann (1973), there are several stages of grammatical development, they are: In stage I, 3-6 months **BABBLING** or vocal play: understanding of facial expressions and tones of voice; exercising of organs of speech to produce a wide variety of sounds, but no coherent utterances;

In stage II, 6-9 months **LALLATION**: reaction to gestures and simple commands; continuation of self-stimulated combination of sounds;

In stage III, 12 months **IMITATION**: active response to outside influences; first 'words' (one-word sentences) and repetitive verbal play;

In stage IV, 15 months **JARGON**: incorporating elements of the talk of environment into flow of uncontrolled speech; vocabulary rises to over 20 words; communication through two word phrases;

In stage V, 2 years **TALKING**: full understanding of instructions; beginnings of verbalization of wants in phrases;

In stage VI, 4 years **LOQUACITY**: full understanding of adults' speech directed at him and almost complete mastery of patterns.

In the acquisition of the mother tongue, various factors such as trial-and-error learning, imitation and analogy are at work; the acquisition of a second language may be made more difficult by age, lack of contact with the foreign speech community, interference between the two languages, insufficient motivation, etc.

2.1.4 The Basic Elements of Sentences of Indonesia language

According to Hasan (2000) there are five elements in a sentence; they are predicate, subject, object, complement, and adjunct.

1. Predicate

Predicate is not always a simple word, such as noun, verb, adjective, adverb or numeral, but it can be filled by noun phrase, verb phrase, adjective phrase, or adverb phrase.

For example:

- a. *Ayahnya guru bahasa Inggris* (P = np)

His father is an English teacher.

- b. *Adiknya dua* (P = nmp)

Her sisters are two

- c. *Ibu sedang ke pasar* (P = adv.p)

Mother is going to the market

- d. *Dia sedang tidur* (P = vp)

He is sleeping

- e. *Rumahnya besar sekali* (P = adj.p)

Her house is very big

2. Subject

The subject also important part in a sentence beside the predicate. The subject can be as noun, noun phrase or a clause.

For example:

- a. Harimau binatang liar (S = n)

A tiger is a wild animal

- b. Anak itu takut (S = np)

That kid is afraid

- c. Yang tidak ikut upacara akan ditindak (S = cl)

Who does not join the ceremony will be punished

Subject also can be as verb phrase

For example:

Berjalan kaki menyehatkan badan (S = vp)

Walking is good for health

3. Object

The object can be as noun, noun phrase or a clause. The object is needed in the active sentence which has a transitive verb. In Indonesia language, the transitive verb usually can be seen from the appearance of the suffixes (-kan -i) or prefixes (me-).

For example:

- a. Morten mengambil buku
S P [V tran] O

Morten is taking the book

- b. Pemerintah mengumumkan (bahwa) harga BBM akan naik
S P [V tran] O

The government announces that the price of the oil will be increase.

- c. *Pembantu membersihkan ruangan saya*
S P [V tran] O

The servant is cleaning my room

4. Complement

Complement is the same with the object. Both of them can be as noun or noun phrase and their place in the sentence is the same place (after the predicate). The similarities and the differences of the subject and the complement can be seen from the table below:

Table 2.1
“Object vs Complement”

Object	Complement
1. Can be as noun phrase or clause	1. Can be as a noun phrase, verb phrase, adjective phrase or clause
2. The position is after the predicate	2. The position is after the predicate if there is no subject or after subject if there is subject
3. Can be as subject if the active sentence is changed to passive one	3. Can be as subject if the active sentence is changed to passive one
4. Can be changed by pronoun <i>-nya</i>	4. Cannot be changed by <i>-nya</i> , except it does not combines with <i>di</i> , <i>ke</i> , <i>dari</i> and <i>akan</i>

Example:

- a. *Ia benci pada kebohongan*

He hates with lies

- b. *Dia bertanya kapan kami akan menengoknya*

He is asking when we will visit him

- c. *Dia membeli rumah untuk anaknya*

He bought a house for his son

- d. *Kamu sedang bermain tennis*

You like playing tennis

5. Adjunct/Adverb

The position of the adjunct is in the end, in the middle or in the front of the sentence.

The adjunct can be as noun phrase, adverb phrase, or preposition phrase or a clause.

Examples:

- a. *Dia memotong rambutnya di kamar*

He is cutting his hair in the room

- b. *Dia memotong rambutnya dengan gunting*

He is cutting his hair with scissor

- c. *Dia memotong rambutnya kemarin*

He is cutting his hair yesterday

- d. *Dia memotong rambutnya sebelum dia mendapat peringatan dari sekolah*

He is cutting his hair before he gets warning from school

2.1.5 The Basic Elements of Sentences of Javanese language

According to Sudaryanto (1991:126-132), there are five elements in a sentence; they are Jejer (subject), Wasesa (predicate), Lesan (object), Geganep (complement), and Katrangan (adverb).

1. Jejer (subject)

Jejer is part of sentence which is explained and spoken. Jejer means *ngadeg*, stand, so that's way jejer contains of dependent word that is noun,

Example:

- a. Aku dolan menyang Solo
J W K

I go to solo

b. Panulise kurang cetha

J K

His/her writing is unclear

c. Enggone arep tindak menyang Klaten wurung

J W

His planning to go to Klaten is canceled

d. Kasugihane ora ana kang ngungkuli

J W

His rich is unbeatable

2. *Wasesa* (predicate)

Wasesa, predicate is the word which explain about jejer, subject

Examples:

a. Warna lagi meguru pandhita ing gunung

J W L K

Warna is studying preaching in the mountain

b. Bapak maosaken koran kangge kula sadaya

J W L G

Daddy reads newspaper for us

c. Ibu ndongengaken Brambang-Bawang tumrap putra-putra sadaya

J W L G

Mommy tells about Brambang-bawang for her children

2. *Geganep* (complement)

Geganep, complement complement is different with *lesan*, object. They are almost similar. (Alwi, 2000: 328)

Examples:

- a. Sumono nggawekake geguritan Asri
J W L G

Sumono makes a poem for Asri

- b. Klambine kesiram wedang jae
J W G

His shirt is poured by ginger drink

3. *Lesan* (object)

The word *lesan* derives from Javanese word *di-les*, who does. That's why *lesan* must stand by itself or consist of noun.

Examples:

- a. Tulkiyem nggawa dhuwit
J W L

Tulkiyem brings money

- b. Bambang thuku dolanan
J W L

Bambang buys a toy

4. *Katrangan* (complement)

Katrangan, complement explains and makes a sentence perfect, so there'll be no hesitation and make the meaning clear. The position of *katrangan*, complement can be in the first place of the sentence, in the middle of sentence or may be in the end of the sentence

Examples:

- a. Suk emben aku arep mangan sate
K J W L

Next two days I will eat satay

b. Gareng mlaku menyang pasar
J W K

Gareng goes to market

From the theories above, between The Basic Elements of Sentences of Javanese language and The Basic Elements of the Sentences of Indonesian language have similarity. The Basic Elements of the Sentences of Indonesian language will be necessary and have something to do with this study since it explains the child's sentence patterns structure that begins to produce complex sentences, basic pattern of use sentence and the variety of conjunction.