SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION BASED ON GRAMMATICAL RULE FOR THE FIRST SEMESTER OF TADRIS BAHASA INGGRIS DEPARTMENT AT STAI MEMPAAWAH

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Abstract Language acquisition is very similar to the process students use in acquiring first and second languages. It requires meaningful interaction in the target language natural communication—in which speakers are concerned not with the form of their utterances but with the messages they are conveying and understanding. Error correction and explicit teaching of rules are not relevant to language acquisition (Brown, 1970), native speakers can modify their utterances addressed to acquirers to help them understand. Grammatical functions are assigned directly to the underlying representation in a more or less across the board fashion, only taking into consideration the language dependent semantic function hierarchy. This approach bypasses a number of constraints on subject assignment that may be gathered from typological data, and observed from the actual behaviour of speakers. We propose a treatment of Subject assignment on the basis of a combination of semantic factors of the relevant referents and other functional aspects of underlying representations. In Subject (and Object) assignment are now located in the daily dialogue, in Mackenzie, J (2004).

Keywords Second language, Grammar rule, English teaching.

INTRODUCTION

Language acquisition is very similar to the process students use in acquiring first and second languages. It requires meaningful interaction in the target language natural communication—in which speakers are concerned not with the form of their utterances but with the messages they are conveying and understanding. Error correction and explicit teaching of rules are not relevant to language acquisition, but caretakers and native speakers can modify their
utterances addressed to acquirers to help them understand, and these modifications are thought to help the acquisition process.

(Krashen, 1975). Acquirers need not have a conscious awareness of the "rules" they possess, and may self-correct only on the basis of a "feel" for grammaticality. Conscious language learning, on the other hand, is thought to be helped a great deal by error correction and the presentation of explicit rules. Error correction it is maintained, helps the learner come to the correct mental representation of the linguistic generalization.

Students in every language and cultural community learn to understand and speak to remarkably early age. They are able to produce a proper and unique language even in infancy but they are not merely mimicking language patterns they hear. They are creating language themselves.

Second language acquisition theory. As developed, second language acquisition theory can be viewed as a part of "theoretical linguistics", it can be studied and developed without regard to practical application. As is the case with any scientific theory, it consists of a set of hypotheses, or generalizations, that are consistent with experimental data. They must, however, be able to predict new data. In other words, hypotheses are not summaries or categories for existing data and observations, but must pass the test of accounting for new data.

Second language attitude refers to acquirers' orientations toward speakers of the target language, as well as personality factors. The second hypothesis is that such factors relate directly to acquisition and only indirectly to conscious learning. Briefly, the "right" attitudinal factors produce two effects: they encourage useful input for language acquisition and they allow the acquirer to be "open" to this input so it can be utilized for acquisition.

DISCUSSION

The Monitor Hypothesis

The acquisition-learning distinction claims that two separate processes coexist in the adult, it does not state how they are used in second language performance. The Monitor hypothesis posits that acquisition and learning are used
in very specific ways. Normally, acquisition "initiates" our utterances in a second language and is responsible for our fluency. Learning has only one function, and that is as a Monitor, or editor. Learning comes into play only to make changes in the form of our utterance, after is has been "produced" by the acquired system. This can happen before we speak or write, or after (self-correction). Models this process.

Acquisition and learning in second language production (Monitor)

Monitor use results in the rise in rank of items that are "lateacquired" in the natural order, items that the performer has learned but has not acquired. Only certain items can rise in rank, however. When Monitor use is heavy, this rise in rank is enough to disturb the natural order.

(Krashen, 1978). It is not easy to encourage noticeable Monitor use. Experimentation has shown that anything less than a real grammar test will not bring out the conscious grammar in any force. Having adult subjects (university level international students) correct their own written output, and still found a natural order for the corrected version.

The Natural Order Hypothesis

Acquirers of a given language tend to acquire certain grammatical structures early, and others later. The agreement among individual acquirers is not always well, but there are clear, statistically significant, similarities.
The hypothesis now is that for most people, even university students, it takes a real discrete-point grammar-type test to meet all three conditions for Monitor use and encourage significant use of the conscious grammar.

**Grammatical rule**

The resulting grammatical focus, places serious constraints on what can be discussed. Too often, it is difficult, if not impossible, to discuss or read anything of real interest if our underlying motive is to practice a particular structure. In other words, a grammatical focus will usually prevent real communication using the second language.

Theoretical linguists see a grammar as an abstract device that characterizes the presumably infinite set of sentences of a language, that is, which differentiates the sentences from other strings which are not sentences. Computational linguists, on the other hand, have usually taken a grammar to be a transducer showing how a meaning comes to be represented as a string of words or, more frequently, how a string of words is analyzed to reveal its meaning.

Functional grammar has both aspects. It can also be said to be a transducer whose input is a more or less incomplete account of the syntactic relations among the parts of a sentence and whose output is one or more accounts which are complete according to the theory. Given a more or less incomplete description, it verifies that it describes a legal grammatical object – a word, phrase, or sentence – and adds such additional detail as the grammar allows. If it is not a legal grammatical object, no output is produced. If it is, one or more descriptions are produced, each an enrichment of the original, but reflecting different grammatical interpretations.

(Nelson (1973), the ideal speaker comes to the syntactic processor wanting a sentence with a certain meaning; the processor’s job is to complete his picture of the sentence by the whole to complete the picture. A more realistic hearer starts with a picture including imperfectly heard words and some notions about what is being said and needs details filled in in a variety of places. In any case, the process consists in applying the grammar to a functional description to yield a
more complete functional description or, if the description does not correspond to a grammatical object, the null functional description.

An individual variation in Monitor use

The individual variation we see in adult second language acquisition and performance can be accounted for in terms of differential use of the conscious Monitor.

There is three basic types of performer (Krashen, 1978) Monitor Over-users. These are people who attempt to Monitor all the time, performers who are constantly checking their output with their conscious knowledge of the second language.

Monitor under-users. These are performers who have not learned, or if they have learned, prefer not to use their conscious knowledge, even when conditions allow it. Underusers are typically uninfluenced by error correction, can self-correct only by using a "feel" for correctness.

The optimal Monitor user. Our pedagogical goal is to produce optimal users, performers who use the Monitor when it is appropriate and when it does not interfere with communication. Now, we see the case 1.

CASE 1

Structure Of Tenses (Present Tense And Past Tense)

An example of the real data in the case 1.

S. all : Buildings
L : Buildings or building ?
S. all : Buildings
L : Buildings. Ya, Buildings
S. all : He
L : He. Orang ke ?
S1 : Tiga
L : Tiga. Jamak atau tunggal ?
S : Tunnggal
L : He builds the house.
S.all : Hometown (Lecturer wrote it in the board)
L : Village, field, house, family, and shop
S. all : Village
L: And house. The use of present tense, language featuren juga langsung to your action.
S and L are as the persons who do the dialog based on their experience, many sentences which they are speaking not correct, but the other ones are corrects in their dialog. We know that second language is created based on the knowledge as long as they know using the second language. Between S and T speaks using the simple present and simple past of real data in the case 1.

Forms simple present (+) ( S + v1 (s/es) + object + (Adverb)

He builds the house..

Forms simple past (+) ( S + V2 + object + (adverb)

The teacher wrote in the white board.

S and L speak in the dialog just express their second language acquisition based on their feeling and whether they know of second language, without using the procedure well. But this is a good process for the students or children who learn the second language in their life, so, as the teachers should give the directed rules when looked students speak incorrect in the classroom learning so that the students can use the second language acquisition well.

RECOUNT

The example of the real data in the case 1

(Zoo)

There is a zoo in my hometown. It is very crowded during the holidays. (sometimes the teacher did some gestures). Look at the picture. Coba perhatikan dulu tidak begitu jelas gambarnya. Dari teks tersebut, dengan tenses yang digunakan, terus ciri-ciri dari bacaan tersebut, itu termasuk teks apa?

It is also related based on the human’s real experience in the past. It can be experienced by the students, teacher, and others. In the text above, the students are learned the form of tenses, the characteristics, and what is the text? some asking from the teacher that should be answered by students.
1. The form of tense is simple present of nominal sentence.
   
   The form:
   
   (+) S. Tobe (is, am, are). 3 complements (Adverb, Adjective, and Noun)
   
   (-) S. Tobe (is, am, are). not. 3 complements (Adverb, Adjective, and Noun)
   
   (? ) Tobe (is, am, are). S. 3 complements (Adverb, Adjective, and Noun)

   Example in the case 1: **It is very crowded during the holidays.**

2. The text is named Recoun text.

   We know that the students are learned complete enough by the teacher.
   
   Students learn of the second language acquisition doesn’t only of they do the 
   dialog but also they are learned of the recoun text, its purpose to involve their 
   speaking of their second language.

**DESCRIPTIVE**

The example of the real data in the case 1. **Topic and the instruction** to the 
students.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FAMILY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| You can describe about person, something, or certain place. Jadi untuk 
| menggambarkan yang bisa kita gambarkan itu bisa keluarga, orang, benda, 
| ataupun binatang, Jadi yang sifatnya khusus. Seperti apa misalnya. Orang. 
| Kalau kalian ingin menggambarkan seseorang, kira-kira yang sudah kalian 
| kenal betul. Yang sudah pernah kalian lihat, yang sudah kalian kenal 
| sifatnya, misalnya Ayah Anda. Jadi Anda tentu tahu dari sifat dan 
| karakternya atau secara fisiknya. |

**Students are requested**

1. **Forms of tenses in this text**;

   **Simple Present and Simple Past.**

   Nominal Simple Present ( S. Tobe (is, am, are ). 3 complements/ 
   adjective, noun, Adverb)
Nominal Simple Past (S was/were. 3 complements)

**Example of the real data in the case 1:**

S5 : The big shops..
L : The big shops (am are-is), be yang sesuai?

S6 : The big shops are
L : The shop. Be yang sesuai?

S7 : The shop is.
L : Good..

2. **First and Second Verb**

Example:

1. (She write the sentence in the board).
   (V1). This is also like eat, climb, have, help, etc.

2. (The teacher wrote in the board)
   (V2).

**CASE 2**

In the case 2 most of the dialog is tended of how the students say the nominal and verbal sentences. We see in the real data

1. Verbal Of Simple Present
   Form:
   (+) S. V1. S/es. O. Adverb
   (-) s. Do/does.not. V1. O. Adverb
   (?) do/does. S. V1. O. Adverb
   
   **T** : What do you say for **Mahasiswa membersihkan kelas**?
   **L+ S** : **The Students Clean This room.** (Verbal Sentence)
   L : Paham Maya? Jelas?
   S : Paham, Pak.
   L : Jika ruangan ini bersih?
   Sz : This class is clean.

2. Nominal Of Simple Present
   Form:
   (+) S. Tobe (is, am, are). 3 Complements
   (-) S. Tobe (is, am, are). 3 Complements
   (?) Tobe (is, am, are). S. 3 Complements
The real data in case 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S</th>
<th>LATE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>L</td>
<td>lalu, gimana ini ?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>I late..</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L</td>
<td>Yes. I late. Jika pronounya (They)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ss</td>
<td>They late.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T</td>
<td>Yes, good.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Perhatikan contoh tadi

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S</th>
<th>I am late → (Nominal Sentence)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>L</td>
<td>Yang ini (nunjuk They)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>They are late → (Nominal sentence)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L</td>
<td>Repeat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ss</td>
<td>I am late, They are late.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Students are learned of the structure in verbal and nominal sentences. In the second language acquisition, they say in the different way, as they say in error form, like I late, so they are laughing together. But this process is natural based on their willingness. So then this correct form is repaired to be right one. It is to be I am late. The process of how improving the second language is interesting because the students do not focused on the second language but they also use with the first language (javaness language).

CASE 3

Repetition Of Sentence

The students repeat an utterance so soon as he/she heard. The utterance must be brief enough to be retained by the ear. Sound is as important as form and order in second language acquisition.

Example real data in the case 3.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>L</th>
<th>Repeat after me, please. What am I?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ss</td>
<td>What am I?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L</td>
<td>What am I? I am a ....</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ss</td>
<td>What am I? I am a university student.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L</td>
<td>Repeat. All of you!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ss</td>
<td>What am I? I am a student.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
S1: What do you do?
L: What do you do? Yagitu. All of you, what do you do? (*The teacher asked the students to repeat what she said*).
Ss: What do you do?
L: I am a lecturer.

L: Coba jawab dengan kalimat yang baik. My father is…
S3: My father is a police.
L: Yak, my father is a police.
And then what is your father? (*The teacher asked one of the students to answer the question*).
S4: Saya ya Miss?
L: Yes, you Fenita.
S4: My father is a wiraswasta.

Apa ya wiraswasta? (*The student asks to her friend*).
L: Ada yang tau bahasa Inggrisnya pengusaha?
S: Entrepreneur
L: Yes, good.
So, your father?
S: My father is a entrepreneur.
L: He is preneur or an entrepreneur?
L: Sorry, an entrepreneur.
L: Repeat, all!
S: My father is an entrepreneur.

This data, students are learned how say the good word and sentence in their speaking. The way is the repetition. Teacher ask students to repeat the word after she/he said it. Because the SLA is not easy to speak perfectly, so they need to practice more with their friend and teacher as learning process. This is ofcourse with the guidance a teacher. so it can be seen in the data above.
CONCLUSION

To conclude this brief, the theorists of SLA may be interested in knowing more about how learners learn (for example how motivation affects learning), they don't necessarily consider how this might be relevant for the practice of additional language learning and teaching. It may be left to decide what the specific implications of the research are for her students.

**Glossary:**

*Contrastive analysis* was used to attempt to identify areas of convergence and divergence between the L1 and the L2 in order to predict elements of the L2 which would be easier or harder for the learner to learn. So, for example, with respect to word order, *Japanese should be easier to learn than English* for Japanese-speaking learners, since the former is subject-verb-object, but the latter is subject-object-verb.

*Error analysis* of learners' spoken and written output involved identifying and explaining mismatches with "native-speaker norms" in order to uncover how learners (failed to) learn. So for example, if an English-speaking learner of Japanese produced sentences with the object after the verb, then one might conclude that their L1 syntax was being (mis-)used to order L2 words.

*Comprehensible input* is language that learners are exposed to which they are able to understand because it is used in contexts which are meaningful to them. It is the key ingredient in Stephen Krashen’s (much challenged) recipe for effective additional learning, which calls for input only slightly ahead of the learner’s current competence.

*Individual differences* between learners are those which potentially account for the wide variety of paths followed and ultimate outcomes achieved in additional language learning. “Don’t Give Up” provides examples of best practice for giving adult language learners motivation, one of the biggest differences between successful and unsuccessful learners.

REFERENCES

Brown a, “Group work and communicative competence in the ESOL classroom.” In M. Burt and H. Dulay (Eds.), *New Directions in Second Language Learning, Teaching, and Bilingual Education*. Washington: 1970


