

heads as far as language is concerned. His claim to understand language is based on his work with rats and pigeons.

According to Skinner, no complicated innate or mental mechanisms are needed to acquire language. Skinner argues that verbal language has some controlling variables which will enable people to predict specific utterances. All stimuli which control particular verbal responses are of this sort. A special feature of the mind is that its form is not controlled by any stimulus acting prior to the emission. The response is functionally related to a drive, and we control it through any operation which will change the drive (Skinner, 1957: 37). They are not eliciting stimuli, either conditioned or unconditioned. The close temporal and intensive relation between stimulus and response which obtains in elicited behaviour is lacking. A stimulus simply makes a verbal response more likely to occur (Skinner, 1957: 43).

Avram Noam Chomsky, well known as Noam Chomsky, was born in 1928; he is one of the great American linguists and philosophers until present. Chomsky is famous with his innateness hypothesis; he believes that humans are genetically imprinted with knowledge about language. His hypothesis looks like the opposite of Skinner's theory. Chomsky writes a devastating and witty review of Skinner's book *Verbal Behaviour* in 1959. He underlines Skinner's argument about controlling variables. If Skinner argues that verbal behaviour has controlling variables which will enable people to predict specific utterances, Chomsky argues that there are no

statements, if devoid of a serious effort at some learning-theoretic account of how this is achieved, reveal irresponsibility rather than ignorance (Lenneberg, 1967: 5). Children must pass some process to acquire their language. Chomsky says that language acquisition is the process in which the learner forms an internalized knowledge (in his mind), and I-language. In general, Language acquisition is the study of the processes through which learners acquire language. By itself, language acquisition refers to first language acquisition, which studies infants' acquisition of their native language, whereas second language acquisition deals with acquisition of additional languages in both children and adults.

There are two general theories about language acquisition, they are learning theory and nativism theory. The first theory is learning theory (behaviourism theory), its theory belongs to the behaviourist B.F Skinner. According to this theory, language is learned from experience alone. Children acquire language based of general learning mechanisms that are also involved in learning many other phenomena. These general learning mechanisms are crucially driven by the input. The input itself refers to the controlling variables which have been mentioned before. No innate tendency to read has been seriously proposed but the parallel between textual and echoic behaviour is quite close. Both the auditory and visual stimuli have the same kind of controlling effect over the form of response. The difference which arises because echoic behaviour is formally similar

to the stimulus involves two relatively unimportant points, so far as the nature of the relation is concerned (Skinner, 1957: 45).

The second theory is nativism theory (Innateness theory), it belongs to the American linguist Noam Chomsky. Specifically, the proponents of this approach argue that children do not receive enough information in the input to learn the intricate rules of grammar. Children are only able to acquire grammar because of innate grammatical knowledge. A person who knows English has attained a certain mental state, different from that of someone who knows Japanese. Abstracting from possible individual differences, there is some innate mental state common to the species that provides the basis for acquisition of knowledge of grammar, a characteristic that distinguishes humans from birds or apes (Chomsky, 1981: 3). Chomsky argues that language acquisition holds that at least some linguistic knowledge exist in humans at birth and humans have automatic grammatizator or humans use grammar innately.

Language acquisition cannot be separated with the theory of Chomsky about Universal Grammar (UG) and Language Acquisition Device (LAD). Chomsky, in various places, has described the theory of language as one which consists of a set of principles (UG) that underlie language; what we expect to find, then, is a highly structured theory of UG based on a number of fundamental principles that sharply restrict the class of attainable grammars and narrowly constrain their form, but with

parameters that have to be fixed by experience (Chomsky, 1981: 4). A central aspect of the theory of UG is that it views the human language faculty as comprising a priori knowledge about the structure of language. Importantly, knowledge of language is understood as being internal to the human mind/brain, and the object of linguistic theory is therefore the mental grammar or competence of individual which Chomsky refers to as I-language, an internal entity of the individual, as opposed to E-language, 'E' suggesting 'external', that is, the overt products in language use (Meisel, 2011: 15).

While LAD, Language Acquisition Device, the nature of the language capacity common to all humans. Based on Chomsky, LAD makes humans have possibility to learn language, especially first language acquisition. The idea according to which UG as the theory of the human language faculty not only defines the initial state of first language development, but also determines essential properties of developing grammars at every moment of the acquisition process. In this sense, UG is a crucial part of the Language Acquisition Device. In fact, as becomes obvious from the above quote from Chomsky, UG is frequently equated with LAD (Meisel, 2011: 15).

When we talk about language acquisition, it cannot be separated with the discussion about child itself. The theory of acquisition will have two distinct components. One will be the set of principles that lead to the construction of the grammar, i.e. those that concern the child's grammar or

linguistics competence. These principles will deal with how the child constructs a rule of grammar and changes it over time. The focus is on the nature of the child's rule system; it is concerned with competence factors. The second component looks at the psychological processes the child uses in learning the language. These are what we shall call performance factors. Performance factors enter into the child's comprehension and production language. In comprehension, performance factors deal with how the child establishes meaning in the language input, as well as with the cognitive restrictions that temporarily retard development. In production, these factors describe the reasons why the child's spoken language may not reflect its linguistics competence (Ingram, 1999: 65).

2.1.3 Process of Language Acquisition

All children seem to pass through a series of similar 'stages' as they acquire language. The age at which different children reach stage or 'milestone' varies considerably, but the relative chronology remains the same (Aitchison, 2007: 79). The milestones are normally reached in the same order, though they may be nearer together for some children and farther apart for others. Children differ, for the example, in how much time they need in order to advance from one milestone to the next and also in the overall length of time they take to proceed through the entire sequence of acquisition events (Meisel, 2011: 24). Generally, language development can be divided into a number of approximate phases or language stage.

what is encountered in their linguistics environment. This development begins probably already before the age of six months, but certainly soon afterwards, and at around twelve months they typically produce their first words (Meisel, 2011: 26).

By the end of the second month, infants begin to do a lot of cooing. Coos are acoustically more varied than cries, as infants exercise some control over their articulatory organs to produce a greater variety of sounds. Coos tend to be made in the back of the mouth and are similar to back vowels and velar consonants. A little later, by about 6 to 7 months, babbling begins. Infants' first use reduplicated babbling, in which they repeat a consonant-vowel sequence, such as *babababa*. By 11 to 12 months, infants use variegated babbling, in which syllable strings consist of varying consonants and vowels, such as *bigodabu* (Carrol, 1998: 259). The consonants were often made with lips, or the teeth, so that the sequences sounded like MAMA, DIDIDI, PAPAPA. On hearing these sounds, parents confidently but wrongly assumed that infants were addressing them (Aitchison, 2007: 82).

Children usually utter their first words at around 12 months of age, and for the next few months most of their utterances consist of single words produced in isolation (Carrol, 1998: 262). At this period, several developments begin to take shape at once. Children come to master certain words as labels for regular features of their environment, such as common toys, members of the family, and favourite events. In short, the child

begins to acquire the lexicon of the language. The number of single words acquired at around this time varies from child to child. Some have only four or five, others have around fifty (Aitchison, 2007: 84).

Children begin to speak in word combinations by about 2 years of age, and over the course of the next few years they make impressive advances in grasping the grammar of their native language (Carroll, 1998: 269). Researchers have developed two measures of syntactic development. The best known and most widely used is to measure the mean length of utterances in morphemes (MLU). The method, as discussed by Brown (1973), consists of taking 100 of the child's spontaneous utterances and counting the number of morphemes (meaningful units) per utterances. The MLU is a conservative index of the child's ability to combine morphemes in a productive manner. Brown has indicated that these MLU-defined stages provide a global view of what aspects of language the child is currently mastering. Children at stage I are putting words together. At stage II, they are learning to modulate the meaning of their utterances by the use of grammatical morphemes. Stage III and IV are devoted to learning more complex constructions, such as questions and negatives.

By the age of 3 ½, most children were able to form most grammatical constructions, and their speech was reasonably intelligible to strangers. By the age of 5, children gave the superficial impression of having acquired language more or less perfectly. But this was an illusion. Language acquisition was still continuing, though more slowly. By the

age of about 11, children exhibited a command of the structure of their language comparable to that of adult. At the age of puberty, their language development was essentially complete, apart from vocabulary. They would continue to accumulate lexical items throughout their life (Aitchison, 2007: 89).

2.1.4 Golden Age/ Critical Period of Language Acquisition

Lenneberg argued that humans have a narrow 'critical period' set aside by nature for the acquisition of language. Between the ages of two and three years language is an interaction in maturation and self-programmed learning. Between the ages of three and the early teens the possibility for primary language acquisition continues to be good. After puberty, the ability for self-organization and adjustment to the physiological demands of verbal behaviour quickly declines. The brain behaves as if it had become set in its ways and primary, basic skills not acquired by that time usually remain deficient for life (Lenneberg, 1967: 158). At one time, Lenneberg's views were widely accepted. Children clearly start talking at about the age of 2 and it seemed plausible that language ability ceased at around 13 (Aitchison, 2007: 90).

The case of four socially isolated children, Victor, Isabelle, Genie and Chelsea, provide superficial support for the view that language come to a shuddering halt around adolescence. They are consistent with the notion that children must be exposed to language early in life to develop

Between these two studies are going to through have the similarity of the using some theories, such as behaviourism by Skinner and Nativism by Chomsky. Both these studies is the same, its take focus on first language acquisition. The other theories that were used in this study are social cognition theory and social interaction theory. The writer was focused on one-word stage (12-18 months babies), two-words stage (18-28 months babies) and three-words stage (28-42 months babies).

This study concluded a fact that there is a strong correlation between successful language acquisition and a stimulating social environment provided by caregiver. The writer got this fact as the result of her research to language stages which should be passed by children, especially the stages which were analysed.

2.2.3 Echa: Kisah Pemerolehan Bahasa Anak Indonesia (2000)

This study was written by Soenjono Darjowidjojo in his book which was published in 2000. The study tried to find out the acquisition of a first language of Indonesian child. The writer realized that there had been no longitudinal study about Indonesian acquisition especially as long as five years. Thus, he was interested in conducting study about first language acquisition of his grandchild, named Echa.

In doing his research, the writer used the behaviourism theory by Noam Chomsky, that language is inherited and human can acquire it through language acquisition device. Other theories that he used were

