#### **CHAPTER II**

#### REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

#### A. Previous Studies

There were previous studies that related of this study, as follow:

First, Rini, studied about A Comparative Study on the Ability in Using Simple Present Tense From by the First Year Students of TBI Between MA and SMA Graduates in STAIN Palangka Raya. The results of her research show that: most of students coming from Islamic senior high school and general high school graduates have low mark in structure 1 in which simple present tense have taught by their teacher to students do not understand fully the verbal, the nominal, and how make the sentences in positive, negative, interrogative form. and Second, Riyas studied about Some Problems in Mastering Simple Present Tense Faced by the Second Year Students of SMPN-2 Teweh. She talked about the use simple present tense achieved by the SMP students Muara Teweh. They found the number of students who doesn't master the tense. 16

Third, Sri Wardaningsih studied about *Problems in Applying of the Simple*Present Tense at the First Year Students of Islamic Junior High School of MTs

An-Nur. The result of her research shows that: according to the English teacher

of MTs An-Nur Palangka Raya when she thought about the simple present

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>16</sup>Riyas, Some Problems in Mastering Simple Present Tense Faced by the Second Year Students of SMPN-2 Teweh Timur in Academic Year 2004-2005, thesis, 2005.

tense. The students were still confused when they studied simple present tense and they made sentences. One of the problems is related to simple present tense. The students did not understand fully the verbal and nominal form sentences in positive, negative, and interrogative form.<sup>17</sup>

Based on the previous studies above, the writer does the different study. Rini focused on A Compartive Study on the Ability in Using Simple Present Tense. Sri wardaningsih focused on Problems in Applying of the Simple Present Tense. Riyas focused on Problem in Mastering Simple Present Tense. And the writer focus on analysis of nominal sentences of simple present tense in descriptive text.

#### B. Tense

#### 1. Definition of Tense

Tense means time. The word tense stands for any of the verb that may be used to show the time of the action to state for expressed by the verb. According to Bernand Comrie in Anastasius Layantara states Tense is the grammaticalisation of location in time or it can also be said as grammaticalised expression of location in time. Location in time is the time marker such as now, tomorrow, yesterday.<sup>18</sup>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>17</sup>Sri Wardaningsih, *Problems in Applying of the Simple Present Tense at the First Year Student of Islamic Junior High School of An-Nur Palangka Raya*, thesis, 2009.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>18</sup>Ermaya, Errors on Writing Verbal and Nominal Sentences in Simple Past Tense Made by the Tenth Year Students of MA Hidayatul Insan of Palangka Raya, thesis, 2011,p. 22-23.

Tense is one of at least five qualities, along with moods, voice, aspect, and person, which verb forms may express. Tense is used to express the time when an action takes place. Traditionally there are three primary categories of present: present, past, and future (recent English grammar consider only the present and the past true tense, because only they have distinct grammatical forms). The present is used for an action or state that exists at the present moment (or the moment of speech or writing). This May also include something that began in the past and continues now in the present, and might include something that continues into the future. Classification of tenses:

- a. Absolute tense: indicates time relationship to of the utterance (i.e. now).
   For example, 'I am sitting down", the tenses is indicate in relation to the present moment.
- b. Relative tense: in relationship to some other time, other than the time of utterance, e.g. "While strolling trough the shops, she saw a nice dress in the window". Here, the "saw" is relative to time of the "strolling". The relationship between the time of "strolling" and the time of utterance is not clearly specified.
- c. Absolute-relative: indicates time in relationship to some other even, whose time in turn is relative to time of utterance. (Thus, in absolute-relative tense, the time of verbs is indirectly related to time of utterance: in absolute tense, it is directly related, in relative tense, its relationship to

time of utterance is left unspecified). For example, when instructional walked thought the park, instructional saw a bird, "here, saw" is present relative to the "walked", and "walked" is past relative to the time of utterance, thus" saw" is in absolute-relative tense.

The present tense indicates the present time and the past tense indicates the past time. The two tense are developed by combining them with the simple, continue future, and the perfect form. The following was the kind of the tense which commonly.<sup>19</sup>

### a. The Function of Simple Present Tense

Give the further explanation of Simple Present Tense. He states that simple present tense concerns only state the fact of the action without reference to time.

The simple present tense has two primary functions.

- 1) To talk about 'general truth', that is, to talk about something that was true in the past, is true now, and will be true in he future (e.g., The sun rises in the East. Nurses work hard. Water boils at 100  $^{0}$ C).
- 2) To talk about habits or ritual (e. g., I pay income taxes every year.

  She drinks coffee. We watch TV all time. The Giants always lose.)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>19</sup>Sri Wardaningsih, *Problems in Applying of the Simple Present Tense at the First Year Student of Islamic Junior High School of An-Nur Palangka Raya*, thesis, 2009, p. 46.

The simple present can also indicate the speaker believes that a fact was true before, is true now, and will be true in the future.

Simple present tense is used to expresses or to show perception, feeling, states or actions that exist in the time of speaking; the use of the simple present tense is to describe habitual actions or routine actions and general, the simple present tense that use to be.

The simple present tense indicates the present time and the past tense indicates the past time. The two tense are developed by combining them with the simple, continuous, future, and the perfect form. The following is kinds of the tense which commonly appear in English sentence.

The present tense designates action occurring at the time of speaking or writing: She *lives* in Jakarta. It is used to indicate habitual actions: *I exercise every morning*. It is also used to express general truths (time file) and scientific knowledge (*light* travels *faster than sound*).

### b. The Uses of Simple Present Tense

It can also be something a person often forgets or usually does not do. Use the simple present tense to express the idea that an action is repeated or usually. The action can be a habit, a hobby, a daily event, a scheduled event or something that often happens.

Present tense also has some special uses:

1) To indicate future time when used with time expressions:

We travel to London next week.

2) To describe works of literature and the arts:

Hamlet avoids avenging his father's death for one reason.

There are there uses of simple present. They are explained in the following ways:

a) The simple present expresses daily habits or usual activities.

For examples:

*Verbal sentence: (active)* 

- (+) Habie opens the door every day.
- (-) Habie does not open the door every day.
- (?) Does Habie open the door every day?

Nominal sentence:

- (+) We are here every day.
- (-) We are not here every day.
- (?) Are we here every day?
- b) The simple present expresses general statement of fact. For examples:

*Verbal sentence: (active)* 

(+) They write a letter.

	(?) Do they write a letter?
	Nominal sentence
	(+) She is here.
	(-) She is not here.
	(?) Is she here?
c)	The simple present is used for events or situation that exists
	always, usually, or habitually in the past, present, and future.
	For examples:
	Verbal sentence:
	(+) My mother makes a cake every Sunday.
	(-) My mother does not make a cake every Sunday.
	(?) Does my mother make a cake every Sunday?
	Nominal sentence:
	(+) The sky is blue.
	(-) The sky is not blue.
	(?) Is the sky blue? <sup>20</sup>
<sup>20</sup> <i>Ibid.</i> , p.29.	

(-) They do not write a letter.

# 2. English Tense

There are three tenses in English; they are the present tense, past tense and future tense. The simple present tense expresses events or situations that exist always, usually, habitually; they exist now, have existed in the past, and probably will exist in the future. Simple past tense is at one particular time in the past, this happened. It began and ended in the past. Simple future tense is at one particular time in the future, this will happen.<sup>21</sup> However, in this study the writer focused on analysis of nominal sentence of simple present tense in descriptive text.

# **C.** Simple Present Tense

The description of simple present tense, Hornby in *Oxford Dictionary* who said that the simple present tense is the tense that is given by express an action or a state happening or existing at the time of speaking). <sup>22</sup>

According to Betty Scharampfer Azar in *Fundamentals of English Grammar* said that simple present is "used in express daily habits or usual activities, general statement of fact, and the simple present is used for evens or situations that exist always, usually, or habitually in the past, present, and future.<sup>23</sup>

<sup>22</sup> A.S Hornby, *Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary*, New York: Oxford University Press, 1995, p. 219.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>21</sup>Betty Schrampfer Azar, *Understanding and Using English Grammar 2nd Edtion*, Jakarta: Binarupa Aksara, 1993, p.2.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>23</sup> Betty Schrampfer Azar, *Understanding and Using English Grammar 2nd Editon*, Jakarta: Binarupa Aksara, 1993, p. 3.

According to Rudy, simple present tense is a form of time used to decelerate a job or event conducted or daily (every day) or has to happen event that you talk or in other words, stating the job or event that has become a habit.<sup>24</sup>

Present tense is one form of the present tense and the most to get servings of use. so frequently used, it is not surprising that almost all expires sentences delivered in the form of present tense, although it should have in the past tense or in other forms of group present tense. Of the group we have been hit present tense, present continues tense, present perfect tense, and present perfect.<sup>25</sup>

From the description above, it can summarized that simple present tense is a tense that is used for expressing events or situations that exist always, usually, or habitually in the present, past, and future.

### **D.** Nominal Sentence in Simple Present Tense

Sentence in simple present tense divided into two parts, they are; verbal and nominal sentences. Verbal sentence is a sentence of the verb or activity. Nominal sentence is a sentence which the predicate is not verb sentences, sentences that do not show an activity or sentence that consists of subject and

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>24</sup> Rudy Hariyono, *Easy Way to English*, cet 1, Gita Media Press: 2002, p, 64.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>25</sup> Paradiyo, *Pasti Bisa Bahasa Inggris Communicative Teaching 12 Tense Grammar Materials*, Yogyakarta: CV Andi Offer, 2003, p. 5.

complement.<sup>26</sup> Both of sentences have three form of sentences, they are; positive, negative and interrogative sentences.

Table 2.1 Nominal Sentences into Simple Present Tense

Affirmative	Negative	Interrogative
I am/I'm	I am not/I'm not	Am I?
He is/He's	He is not/He's not	Is he?
She is/She's	She is not/She's not	Is she?
It is/It's	It is not/It's not	Is it?
You are/You're	You are not/You're not	Are you?
We are/We're	We are not/We're not	Are we?
They are/They're	They are not/They're not	Are they?

Brief for the other is negative: you aren't, he isn't, it isn't, we aren't, they aren't. Negative interrogative: am not?/aren't?, are you not?/aren't you?, is he not?/isn't he?, is she not?/is it not?/isn't it?, are they not?/aren't they?, are we not?/aren't we. To be used as a copula between subject and predicate. Predicate a sentence which is connected to be composed of: adjective, adverb, and verb.

Predicate of a sentence which is connected nominal sentences composed of:

a. Predicate sentences consisting of adjectives.

### Examples:

1) I am happy. = Saya gembira.

2) He is handsome. = Ia (laki-laki) tampan.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>26</sup>Arif Yosodipuro, *Buku Pintar Tenses*, Jakarta: PT Gramedia Pustaka Utama, 2010, p, 1.

b. Predicate sentences consisting of noun.

Examples:

- 1) I am a teacher. = Saya adalah seorang guru.
- 2) It is a bag. = Itu (benda) sebuah tas.
- c. Predicate sentences consisting of adverb.

Examples:

- 1) You are in the park. = Kalian berada di taman.
- 2) They are in the zoo. = Mereka berada di kebun binatang.
- d. Predicate sentences consisting of verb.

Examples:

- 1) He is sitting. = Ia sedang duduk.
- 2) She is watching television. = Ia sedang menonton televisi. 27

### **E.** Descriptive Text

According to Sanggam Siahaan and Kisno Shinoda: description is a written English text in which the describes an object. In this text, the object can be a concrete or abstract object. It can be a person, or an animal, or house, or camping. It can be about any topic. Description is a text containing two components,,, identification and description by which a writer describes a person, or an animal, or a house, or camping as his topic.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>27</sup>John S. Hartanto, S. Koentjoro, & Manaf Asmoro Seputro, *Accurate, Brief and Clear English Grammar*, cet 36, Surabaya: Indah Surabaya Anggota IKAPI, 1996, p, 35-36.

The identification is to identify the object to describe. The description describes parts, qualities, and characteristics of the parts of the object.<sup>28</sup> The writer tries to suggest in the readers' mind a picture similar to the picture in his own mind. In description paragraph, the writers are describing the way something looks like. Thus, to describe means to show what something looks like. In order to describe something accurately, a writer just look at, observe, or learn the thing carefully and closely.

The descriptive tells how a person, place or thing is perceived by the five senses. Its purpose is to describe and reveal a particular person, place, or thing in detail. Objective description reports the sensory qualities factually whereas subjective description gives the writers' interpretation of them. A description is a verbal picture of person, a place or object. Description evokes images and impression. It can allow a reader to experience something new, it can renew a readers' appreciation of the familiar.

A description is a type of writing in which the ideas are arranged on the basis of spaces or location, such as in the description of a person, a landscape, a building, and so on. A good descriptive makes the reader see, hear, as otherwise experience something. When we describe something, we try to give the reader a mental picture of it. To create mental picture, we often describe features connected with the five senses. Description can be found in almost any kind of

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>28</sup>Sanggam Siahaan & Kisno Shinoda, *Gebneric Structure*, Yogyakarta: Graha Ilmu, 2008, p.89.

writing, but it is frequently found in books of travel, history books, guide books, geography books, scientific articles, and so on.<sup>29</sup>

The following are useful adjectives for descriptive writing:

For sight

Size: big, small, medium-size, huge, tiny, gigantic, tall, thick, etc.

Shape: round, square, triangular, rectangular, conical, oval, linear, dotted.

Color: red, white, brown, blue, green, orange, pink, violet, gold, silver, etc.

For the other senses

Sound: loud, soft, harmonious, harsh, pleasant, unpleasant, groan.

Touch: sweet, sour, salty, bitter, delicious, tasty, tasteless, cool, warm.

Smell: strong, fragrant, scented, sharp, hard.

The description of a person

Describing a person is different from describing a place or thing. The writer's purpose is to capture the essence of a person by going beyond physical characteristics. The important parts of a description of a person are appearance, background, personality, activities, and interests.

Here, we present a physical description that reveal inner qualities as well.

A description of a person may almost make the readers think that they know that person. When we are describing a person, a progressive arrangement is

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>29</sup> Sabarun, (Dosen TBI STAIN Palangka Raya), *Paragraph Writing II*, 2008, p.13-14.

often the most useful. We can move from the most to least telling feature, or

move from least to most, and on progressively to the next important feature.

The following are some useful words and phrases to describe a person:

Facial Expressions:

Scowl, frown, smirk, worried, pained, vivacious, and peaceful.

Facial Shapes:

Round, broad, narrow, hearth-shaped, moon-shaped, angular, oval.

Eyes:

Beady, smiling, snapping, flashing, empty, staring, bulging.

Voice:

Booming, rasping, squeaky, harsh, growing, deep, melodies.

Mouth:

Full-lipped, thin-lipped, sensuous.

Eyebrows:

Thick, airhead, neatly plucked.

Other expression:

Crow's feet, knitted brow, protruding forehead.

The description of place

When we describe a place, we first focus a specific area, which may be large or small. The description must be organized that the reader can vividly imagine the place being described. A good description of a place can make a reader feel that he is present at the place. Example:

I want to tell about my classroom.

My classroom is next to the school library. It is big and clean classroom. It has two white doors and six brown windows. The walls are green and there are some pictures on them. There are twenty tables and forty chairs.

The following are useful words and phrases for describing a place:

Position:

Above, below, top, bottom, left, right, to, in, in the distance, in front of, to the left.

Direction:

North, south, east, west, northern, southern, western, eastern, southeast, northwest, southwest.

Distance:

Upper, lower, middle, center, border edge, near, nearby, adjacent, facing, close to.<sup>30</sup>

Text function: To describe a particular someone, a place or something.

A descriptive text has two main parts:

Identification

This part identifies a particular thing to be described.

Description

This part describes the parts and characteristics.

Language focus of Descriptive Text:

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>30</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 14-15.

- Using noun (they are found of description: someone, and the parts of someone: jacket and T-shirt.
- Using adjective and compound noun adjective (attractive and welldressed).
- 3. Using verbs (the verb usually used in a description are "have, has" and "to be" *am*, *is*, *are*. The tense is the simple present tense).<sup>31</sup>

For example:

Read the text.

Debby Putri is a model from Surabaya. Now she is a student of State Senior High School 71 Surabaya. Debby is the first daughter of Mr. Fajar Putti and Mrs Karaeng. Debby became a famous model when she won the competition of Teenage Model 2005 and YTV Jrang-Jreng 2004.

Debby is brown-skinned. She is tall and slender. She is 17 years old. Debby has way, short, black hair, a pointed nose and rather big ears. Her face is oval and her checks are dimpled when she smiles.

Debby **is** an attractive girl in her blue jeans. She likes wearing a cotton jacket and T-shirt. She always wants to feel relaxed. She **is** neat and well-dressed.

Debby **is** cheerful and friendly girl. Everybody likes her because she **is** a humorous and creative girl. She gets on well with other people and she never forces her opinions on others. But sometimes Debby **is** short-tempered when she loses her personal things.

Her hobbies **are** cooking Japanese food, shopping and singing. Debby has a beautiful voice and her favorite singer is Krisdayanti.<sup>32</sup>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>31</sup>Sanggam Siahaan & Kisno Shinoda, *Gebneric Structure*, Yogyakarta: Graha Ilmu, 2008, p.89.

A nominal sentence is many used in descriptive text using of adjective to describe the quality of something. It is also used to connect a sentence used of noun. Nominal sentences the basic form *is, am, are.* Nominal sentences clearer see the text above.

### F. Definition of Difficulty

According to Muhibbin Syah in his book entitled "Psikologi Pendidikan Dengan Pendekatan Baru" stated the learning difficulty consists of two kinds. They are students' intern factor and students' extern factor "Faktor intern siswa meliputi gangguan atau kekurang mampuan psiko-fisik siswa". Ketika faktor ekstern siswa meliputi situasi dan kondisi lingkungan sekitar yang tidak mendukung aktivitas belajar siswa. From the students above could be understood that learning difficulty not only from students factor which among others less of intellectual capacity or students inelegancy but also from students extern factor which among other less family economy life and low learning instruments quality.

In teaching learning process, not all of students could be able to understand the material which is taught by the teacher. It could be seen when the teacher gave some exercises or some items, not all of students could be able

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>32</sup> M. Sudarwati and Eudia Grace, *Look A Head An English Course For Senior High School Students Year X*, Jakarta: Erlangga, 2002, p.135.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>33</sup>Muhibbin Syah, *Psikologi Pendidikan dengan Pendekatan Baru*, Bandung: PT. Remaja Rosadakarya, 2001, p. 173.

to, answer the items. It may because of students' inability or students' difficulty in understanding the material which is taught.<sup>34</sup>

In this research, the written did not describe the both of factors that are explained before, but the writer only described difficulties in one of subjects that are English, because an English subject has many materials, the writer only researched difficulties in nominal sentences of simple present tense material. It means, the writer did not research English learning difficulty, but only research in difficulties that happened when the students use nominal sentences of present tense in descriptive text as that have taught by their teacher. It would also to measure the analysis on using nominal sentences of simple present tense in writing descriptive text.

### **G.** Theory of SLA (Second Language Acquisition)

Learning a foreign language means learning to earn some foreign language. There are several theories related to language acquisition first; according to G. Cook & Seidlhofer, Language is a genetic inheritance, a mathematical system, a social fact, expression of individual identity, an expression of cultural identity, an outcome of dialogic interaction, a social semiotic, the intuitions of native speakers, a collection of memorized chunks, the sum of attested data, a rule-based discrete combinatory system, or an

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>34</sup>Ennis William Cosby Foundation (2002) in his article entitled, *Learning-Difficulties or* (*Problem*), in www. Hello friend.org/learning/difficulties. (Online 15<sup>th</sup> October 2011).

electrical activation in a distributed network. We do not have to choose. Language can be all of these things at once.

Next, according to Davis, if language is many things, then so is its acquisition. It is therefore a curious fact that the study of second language acquisition (SLA) has historically been dominated by a single broad approachthat which goes by the name of "cognitive." From this perspective, language may be a "social semiotic," but above all it is a cognitive product. Its development is therefore first and foremost a cognitive process. The dominance of this perspective has been widely acknowledged in SLA studies, as indicated by a sampling of influential statements: Theorists and researchers tend to view SLA as a mental process, that is, to believe that language acquisition resides mostly, if not solely, in the mind. We may describe the central facts of SLA very simply in the following way: On the basis of experience with a particular language, L (that is, linguistic input from L), a learner possessing some capacity for language acquisition develops certain cognitive capacities to use L. There are thus three central cognitive or behavioral problems in the study of SLA: the problems of (a) the cognitive structures and abilities that underlie L2 use, (b) the relevant linguistic input, and (c) the capacity for language acquisition.

SLA has been essentially a psycholinguistic enterprise, dominated by the computational metaphor of acquisition. Most SLA researchers view the object of inquiry as in large part an internal, mental process: *the acquisition of new* (*linguistic*) *knowledge*. And I would say, with good reason. SLA is a process

that (often) takes place in a social setting, of course, but then so do most internal processes-learning, thinking, remembering, sexual arousal, and digestion, for example-and that neither obviates the need for theories of those processes, nor shifts the goal of inquiry to a theory of the settings. It is fair to say that the dominant theoretical influences in SLA have been linguistic and psycholinguistic. While more socially oriented views have been proposed from time to time, they have remained relatively marginal to the field overall.

The basic assumption in SLA research is that learners create a language system. What is important is that the learners themselves impose structure on the available linguistic data and formulate an internalized system. Much current SLA research and theorizing shares a strongly cognitive orientation. The focus is firmly on identifying the nature and sources of the underlying L2 knowledge system, and on explaining developmental success and failure. Performance data are inevitably the researchers' mainstay, but understanding underlying competence, not the external verbal behavior that depends on that competence, is the ultimate goal. Researchers recognize that SLA takes place in a social context, of course, and accept that it can be influenced by that context, both micro and macro. However, they also recognize that language learning, like any other learning, is ultimately a matter of change in an individual's internal mental state. As such, research on SLA is increasingly viewed as a branch of cognitive science. Even in those early days, we believed that we were witnessing the birth of a new field-one that did not see language as behavior, one that no longer ignored the mind, one that put cognitive squarely at the forefront of its explanations. As it turns out, it was a powerful birthright. It is fair to say that a cognitive view has dominated the field ever since.

Specific interests and areas of expertise have led the authors in the volume *Theories I Second Language Acquisition: an Introduction* to the linguistic and cognitive aspects of SLA. Thus, the theories and perspectives taken in the present volume will reflect such orientations. To be sure, there are social perspectives that can be brought to be or on SLA. However, such perspectives tend to focus on the *use* of the second language and only minimally address issues of acquisition that are of concern here. Our intention is to gather those approaches that currently compete to explain the acquisition of a linguistic system.

As these quotations indicate, the "strongly cognitive" or *cognitivits* focus of mainstream SLA studies has resulted in a highly particular understanding, but one that is commonly accepted as natural, normal, and-or many-the only plausible explanation for SLA. The main aim of this book is to go beyond cognitive approaches to SLA by exploring and comparing alternative perspectives, but before doing so cognitive it must be introduced and described volume, and why a volume like this is appearing at this time.<sup>35</sup>

<sup>35</sup>Dwight Atkinson, *Alternative Approaches to Second Acquisition*, London and New York, 2011, p. 1-3.

 Second Language Acquisition, Cognitive, and Alternative Approaches to SLA

In this parts, I have tried to suggest that SLA studies, under the influence of a cognitive world view and cognitive science, has historically adopted a particular perspective on SLA-one that can accurately be called cognitive. In fact, no SLA scholar I know of would disagree: By all accounts, the field has primarily adopted a view of learners as computational systems and of learning as information processing. Yet, while alternatives to this view are actively being explored, they have largely operated in isolation from one another. The current volume attempts to gather a cross-section of scholars together and to place their alternative SLA approaches in a common frame-one that promotes direct comparison across approaches. While it would be naive to assume equivalence or even com -measure ability among these approaches, it seems vital to put them "in play" together at the present time-to encourage active engagement among diverse understandings and forms of inquiry. It is by so doing, I believe, that our knowledge of SLA can best be moved forward. Surely, for such a complex and multifaceted phenomenon as SLA, nothing less will suffice.<sup>36</sup>

2. An Identity Approach to Second Language Acquisition

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>36</sup> *Ibid*, p.3.

The central argument of the identity approach to second language acquisition (SLA) is twofold: First, SLA theorists need a comprehensive theory of identity that integrates the individual language learner and the larger social world; second, SLA theorists need to address how relations of power in the social world affect learners' access to the target language community. In relation to the former, a fully developed theory of identity highlights the multiple positions from which language learners can speak, and how sometimes marginalized learners can appropriate more desirable identities with respect to the target language community. In relation to the latter, identity theorists are concerned about the ways in which opportunities to practice speaking, reading, and writing, acknowledged as central to the SLA process are socially structured in both formal and informal sites of language learning. Identity theorists thus question the view that learners can be defined in binary terms as motivated or unmotivated, introverted or extroverted, inhibited or uninhibited, without considering that such affective factors are frequently socially constructed in inequitable relations of power, changing over time and space, and possibly coexisting in contradictory ways within a single individual.

#### a. Language; an Introduction

Language is so built into the way people live that becomes an axiom of being human. It is attribute that most clearly distinguishes our species from all others; it is what makes possible much of what we do,

and perhaps even what we think. Without language we could not specify our wishes, our needs, and the practical instructions that make possible cooperative endeavor 'you hold it while I hit it'. Without language we have grunt and gesture and touch rather than tell. And through writing systems or word of mouth we are in touch with distant places we will never visit, people we will rinse. Without Language we would live in isolation only from our own experiences and to take our knowledge to grave. Of course other species communicate too, sometimes in way that seem almost human.<sup>37</sup>

# b. The Acquisition of Language

An adult who finds herself in a group of people speaking an unfamiliar foreign language may feel quite uncomfortable. The strange language sounds like gibberish; mysterious strings of sound, rising and falling in unpredictable patterns. Each person speaking the language knows when to speak, how to construct the strings and how to interpret other people strings, but the individual who does not know anything about the language cannot pick out separate words or sounds, let alone discern meanings. She may feel overwhelmed, ignorant and even childlike. It is possible that she is returning to a vague memory from her

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>37</sup> Virginia P. Clark, friends, *Language Introductory Readings*, New York: ST. Martin's Press, 1981, p. 3.

very early childhood, because the experience of an adult listening to a foreign language comes close to duplicating the experience of an infant listening to the 'foreign' language spoken by everyone around her. Like the adult, the child is confronted with the task of learning a language about which she knows nothing.

The task of acquiring language is one for which the adult has lost most of her aptitude but one the child will perform with remarkable skill. Within a short span of time and with almost no direction the child will analyze the language completely. In fact, although many subtle refinements are added between the ages of five and ten, most children have completed the greater part of the basic language acquisition process by the age of five. By the time a child will have dissected the language into its minimal separable units of sound and meaning; she will have discovered the rules for recombining sounds into words, the meanings of individual words and the rules for recombining words into meaningful sentences, and she will have internalized the intricate patterns of taking turns in dialogue. All in all she a social community, informed about the most subtle details of her native language as it is spoken in a wide variety of situations.

The speed with which children accomplish the complex process of language acquisition is particularly impressive. Ten linguists working full time for ten years to analyze the structure of the English language could not program a computer with the ability for language acquired by an average child in the first then or even five years of life. In spite of the scale of the task and even in spite of adverse conditions-emotional instability, physical disability and so on-children learn to speak.<sup>38</sup>

### c. The Role of the First Language

The first language has long been considered the villain in second language learning, the major cause of learner's problems with the new language. In recent years, however, data have accumulated that place the L2 learner's first language in a more respectable, sometimes even valuable, place in the schema of things. The first language is no longer considered an annoying 'interference' in a learner's efforts to acquire a second language, and when an individual finally becomes bilingual, the availability of both the first and second language id recognized as an enrichment of the individual communicative repertoire.

To a large extent, controversies over the role of the first language in second language acquisition have resulted from vague and varying uses of the terms 'interference' and transfer. When the terms are clarified and when empirical data assembled, there appears to be a convergence of opinion on the role of the first language in be second language

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>38</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 78-79.

acquisition. Despite a long history of assumption to the contrary, present research results suggest that the major impact the first language has second language acquisition may have to do with accent, not with grammar or syntax.<sup>39</sup>

In order to understand how language is learned it is necessary to understand what language is. The issue confused by two factors. First language is learned in early childhood and adults have few memories of the intense effort that went into the learning process just as they do not remember the process of learning to walk. Second, adults do have conscious memories of being taught the few grammatical rules that are prescribed as 'correct usage' or the norms of 'standard' language. It is difficult for adults to dissociate their memories of school lesson are only the conventions of an educated society. They are arbitrary touches of embroidery on a thick fabric of language that each child weaves for herself before arriving in the English teacher's classroom.<sup>40</sup>

### H. Frame of Thinking

In linguist, analysis is a study carried on a language to search that language structure deeply, the concept of this study is an analysis of nominal sentences of simple present tense in descriptive text written for the eleventh grade students of senior high school.

<sup>39</sup> Heidi Dulai, friends, *Language Two*, New York Oxford: University Press, 1982, p. 96.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>40</sup> Virginia P, friends, *Language Introductory Readings*, New York: ST. Martin's Press, 1981, p. 77.

The tenth grade students of MA Muslimat NU have studied about simple present tense, but there were many students had some difficulties. The difficulties of students were, they didn't understand nominal sentences, still confuse to use it.

To handle the problem of course it is needed extra work from the teacher can give pressure and better teaching to the students especially for the discussion that are still difficult for the students and can prepare plan better teaching programmed to improve the quality of educational.

Meanwhile, the writer wanted to know how far the ability of students using nominal sentences in descriptive text. Further, it can be seem in the frame of thinking below:

