

# Roles of First Language and Second Language in Acquisition Indonesian Language as the Third Language of BIPA Students

Icha Fadhilasari<sup>1\*</sup>, Bambang Yulianto<sup>2</sup>, Suhartono Suhartono<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Universitas Hasyim Asy'ari Tebuireng, Jombang, Indonesia <sup>2</sup> Universitas Negeri Surabaya, Surabaya, Indonesia <sup>\*</sup>icha.22039@mhs.unesa.ac.id

**Abstract.** This research aims to analyze the role of the first language (L1) and second language (L2) in the acquisition of Indonesian language as a third language (L3) in BIPA (*Bahasa Indonesia bagi Penutur Asing*) students. The subjects in this study were 10 students of the BIPA program at Merdeka University of Malang with different L1 and L2 backgrounds. The BIPA students came from Thailand, India, and the Philippines. The research subjects were chosen based on the criteria stated. The research was conducted using a qualitative approach. The data collection methods in this study were (1) free-involved listening techniques, (2) engaged observed listening techniques, (3) interviews, (4) recording, (5) note-taking, (6) assignments, and (7) documentation techniques. The results indicated that the role of L2 English was as a supplier language for obtaining L3 in Indonesian language, but for Thai students, L1 is more dominant as a supplier language because it has a typological distance from the target language.

Keywords: Roles, Third Language Acquisition, BIPA, Foreign Learners.

### 1 Introduction

Foreign students are increasingly learning Indonesian language as a third language (L3). These Indonesian Language for Foreign Learners (BIPA) are multilingual speakers since they have learned more than one language and have variances in their first language (L1) and second language (L2), as well as their socio-cultural background. The distinction between L1 and L2 raises several problems concerning how their varied language roles interact to impact one another in the acquisition of Indonesian language as a third language (L3).

Language acquisition occurs starting from the acquisition of the first language (L1), second language (L2), and third language (L3). L1 is the language used for the first time when someone starts to speak. In its development, L1 plays an important role in the acquisition of L2 and L3 [1]. Acquisition of the first language occurs at an early age. Meanwhile, the acquisition of a second language occurs after a person acquires a first language. This is in line with Hammarberg's opinion that the language acquired after L1 is called L2. The L2 is a language obtained by studying both formal

and non-formal [2]. Hammarberg [4] also describes the L2 form which has more than one language with the L2(n) form. Using an analogy, we can obtain the form of the L2 formula, namely, L2(1), L2(2), L2(3), and so on. Based on this, L2 can be more than one language and L3 is the last language currently being studied [3].

In the case of L3 acquisition can increase our understanding of the language acquisition process and provide an opportunity to investigate how prior linguistic language knowledge can help us learn a new language [4]. Agreeing with that, Cenoz argues that metalinguistic knowledge of L1 and L2 has been suggested as an influencing factor in the acquisition of L3 [3], [5]. In research on TLA, researchers generally agree that L3 acquisition is influenced by the speaker's L1 and the speaker's L2. Researchers have suggested several potential sources of cross-language influences, including learning age [6], qualitative differences between monolinguals and bilinguals, typological and psychotypological similarities between languages, and so on [3], [7], [8], [9], [10].

In L3 acquisition, a person will encounter deviations in the form of activities that have parts of L1 or L2. L3 can be obtained in two ways: (1) by using L1 to obtain L3, and (2) by using L2 to obtain L3. According to William and Hammarbeg [4], determining the role of L1 or L2 in L3 acquisition investigates how a learner uses his background language in L3 spoken production. It is called non-adapted language translation which words usage is from a background language in the L3 spoken production. The L1 and L2 are indicated to be used in two distinct functions, which [4] refer to as the instrumental role and the supplier role. The involvement of L1 and L2 in the acquisition of L3 is also explained by four characteristics, which will be examined later (cf. [11]; [12]; [13]), namely proficiency, novelty, typology, and L2 status. Other factors include proficiency (i.e., the L2 effect is favored if the learner has a high level of competence in L2, as well as if L2 has already been acquired and used in natural situations), and novelty (i.e., L2 is activated more easily if speakers have recently used it and thus have easy access to it). The L2 state factor is another conditioning element validated in our current study and described more below: there appears to be a general tendency to activate the secondary language earlier in L3 performance than in L1 [4]. However, Bono [14] studied the roles of L1 and L2 in spoken L3 using a slightly modified version of the Williams and Hammarberg model and [14] proposed a special category of lexical insertions in addition to instrumental roles.

There is limited research on third language acquisition (TLA) in Indonesian language, so this research needs to be followed up. In many cases regarding the BIPA program students found that they indirectly used the roles of L1 and L2 in helping to acquire Indonesian language as a third language. The L1 role is used when the typological distance with the target language (L3) is close, and the use of the L2 role in English is because it is the language that is so far involved in the mastery of the third language. The increase and use of English is very high because proficiency in using English promises more material benefits, higher status, and prospects for further mobility [15]

From this description, the purpose of this study is to analyze how the roles of L1 and L2 are in the acquisition of Indonesian language as a third language for BIPA

students, especially the way the first and second languages interact in the acquisition process.

#### 2 Methods

The method used for this research was a descriptive qualitative type of approach because the researcher wanted to describe the phenomenon that exists, namely how the roles of L1 and L2 in acquisition Indonesian language as L3 were carried out by BIPA students at Merdeka University Malang. The informants in this study were 10 students from Thailand, India, and the Philippines.

This study included 10 BIPA students from Merdeka University in Malang, including three from Thailand, four from the Philippines, and three from India. The research subjects were chosen based on the criteria stated. The following criteria were used to determine the subject of this study: (1) overseas students in this study must be able to utilize two or more languages such that their Indonesian language skills are on part with acquisition a L3, and (2) is regarded to be the similar Indonesia language learning time between research subjects. The research subjects are presented to the following table below.

Subject	L1	L2a	L2b	L3
S1	Thai	Malay	English	Indonesian
				Language
S2	Indian	English		Indonesian
				Language
S3	Philippines	English	-	Indonesian
				Language

Table 1. BIPA Learner Language Background.

The data in this study are in the form of negative transfers in the form of words and sentences both in spoken and written language. Sources of research data are conversations or speech and writing of BIPA Merdeka University in Malang students.

The data collection methods in this study were (1) free-involved listening techniques, (2) engaged-observed listening techniques, (3) interviews, (4) recording, (5) note-taking, (6) assignments, and (7) documentation techniques. News texts, discussion material lists, interview guidelines, vocabulary, field note sheets, and work results from documents serve as research instruments. The procedure for collecting research data includes (a) the researcher approaching the subject and determining the time of data collection and; b) collecting data orally. The recordings were then transcribed. (c) At the second meeting, the researcher and the subject sent a list of topics that had been prepared and conversations that were recorded and transcribed. (d) Note at the third meeting that: Briefly, the subjects were assigned to make sentences based on the 50 words provided by the researcher. (e) At the fourth meeting, the researcher conducted interviews by asking several questions to the research participants. Subject responses to research questions were recorded and transcribed. (f) At the next meet-

ing, the researcher collects documents regarding the study of the course from the teaching lecturer.

#### 3 Results and discussion

The results of this study indicated that there were adapted and non-adapted language transfers in the acquisition of L3 Indonesian language. Language transfer in the acquisition of a third language has the biggest contribution in cross-language studies, namely at the lexical level transfer. This result stems from the fact that the knowledge transfer of L3 students includes a discussion of how the target language ability of L1 or L2 students will be affected by the use of the target language at the lexical level. In the L3 case study, there is a negative transfer to the lexical level when the target language learner employs L1 or L2 words in L3 sentences. According to De Angelis [11], there are three categories of adapted-non-adapted lexical transfers when learning a third language. Based on the findings of this study's data analysis, undergraduate students who are learning Indonesian language as a third language adopt a type of negative transfer at the lexical level, as illustrated below.

Unadapted lexical negative transfer to L3

- (1) saya datang ke "java" timur
- (2) saya meng-"cook" ikan
- (3) lebih suka "swimming" daripada belari

In data (1) S1 decides to keep using terms in foreign languages, namely the word "java" in English which is the L2. The same thing is also done in data (2), namely in the word "cook" which means cooking in Indonesian language but has been transferred to English. The word meng-cook is said spontaneously, maybe when saying the word, it does not find an equivalent in Indonesian language. In data (3) S2 also says the word "swimming" without thinking about the equivalent in Indonesian language that must be spoken. The words that are transferred or transferred in English as their L2 are pronounced in their full form except for the word meng-cook. Negative transfers to words of "java" and "swimming" are carried out to provide understanding and alternatives for conveying the sentence as intended if you do not know the equivalent word in Indonesian language. The choice of transferring words into English is possible because the ability of the research subjects in English can be said to be good. The decision to swap terms into English is also made feasible by S1's purposeful decision to use English rather than another language that the communicant might not be able to grasp for them to convey their point. Thai's L1 has a significant typological distance from Indonesian language as L3, which causes S1 to translate into L2b more frequently. Although L2a in S1 is typologically very similar to L3, it is rarely used because of its extremely low competency level.

In contrast to S1 which activates L2b more in acquisition Indonesian language as L3. In the case of S3, the role of L1 is more active than L2 in English. The following is the non-adaptation transfer carried out by S3, shown in data (4) and (5) as follows.

(4) Saya "bili" ikan

### (5) Saya pakai "paying"

In data (4) there is an error in the form of lexical transfer from L1 to L3, namely in the word *beli* which is pronounced *bili* in Tagalog and has the same meaning, namely obtaining or having something by paying. The next negative transfer is also found in data (5), namely in the word *payung* which is pronounced *payong* in L1. In the case of S3 L1, Tagalog is part of the Austronesian language family. In Southeast Asia, Tagalog and other Filipino languages are related to Malay and Indonesian language. Although, they are not mutually understandable, some words have similarities in sound and meaning, such as the words *bili* and *payong*. Based on these findings, S3 activates L1 more often than its L2, because the typological distance of its L1 is closer to Indonesian language as L3.

## 3.1 The Role of L2 in the Acquisition of L3

This study used William and Hambberg's theory [4] in order to find out the way of L1 and L2 in the acquire Indonesian language as L3 that is indicated in language translation which is not adapted using words from a background language in spoken L3 construction.

In the case of S1 and S2, L2 English dominates the transfer role. Briefly, the results show both learners can rely on English in the role of L2 in the acquisition of Indonesian language as L3. The speaker has a mutual access with interlocutor due to recognize English language.

In addition, other L2 (Malay) are also used in this function but are not very active due to a lack of proficiency and knowledge in L2a. Surprisingly, English as an L2 is enabled in this role. It is considered that English is the language spoken by the other person. Also, it is a lingua franca and an established language of communication between students and researchers outside of data collection situations. It can be seen that S1 and S2 insert the English lexical L2 into L3 sentences at times. It supports the study of Bono [14] on the way it investigated the roles of L1 and L2 in spoken L3 using a slightly modified Williams and Hammarberg model, which suggests special categories for lexical insert.

### 3.2 The Role of L1 Typology

L2 is generally more active than L1 in instrumental function, but this does not occur in the case of S3, where L1 has the closest typology to L3. Several studies on L3 grammar acquisition seem to support the idea of a dominant role of the mother tongue (e.g., [16];[17];[18]). That is, the default transfer source or the only possible transfer source is the original language acquired the first time. Even in research that claims to support this with empirical data, there is no clear explanation as to why this should be the case. It is possible, for example, that L1 is privileged for all subsequent language transfers because the original L1 tends to remain the dominant language of successive bilinguals [19]. It could be argued that their common L1, Tagalog, is more 'accessible' when trying to find a solution to a communication problem due to a lack of L3 knowledge.

## 4 Conclusion

The explosion in multilingual research in the last decade is the result of a growing awareness that acquiring L3 is inseparable from knowledge of the roles of L1 and L2. It is concluded that the results of this study can determine the role of L1 and L2 in L3 acquisition by recognizing an unadapted language translation using words from a background language in L3 spoken output as well as a modification of Bono's theory to find out which language role will appear frequently, such as multilingual speakers inserting L1/L2 lexical into L3 acquisition. It can be seen in BIPA students from Thailand and India who often transfer L2 English to acquisition Indonesian language as L3, while BIPA students from the Philippines use the role of L1 knowledge to acquire Bahasa as L3. This is based on the typological closeness between L1 and L3.

# References

- I. Cahyani and D. Hadianto, "Rekonstruksionisme: Metode Komunikatif Dalam Pemerolehan Dan Pembelajaran Bahasa Untuk Mengembangkan Kemampuan Berbahasa," J. KATA, vol. 2, p. 118 (2018). doi: 10.22216/jk.v2i1.3065
- J. Cenoz, B. Hufeisen, and U. Jessner, Cross-linguistic Influence in Third Language Acquisition: Psycholinguistic Perspectives. UK: Multilingual Matters (2001). doi: https://doi.org/10.21832/9781853595509
- 3. J. Cenoz, "The Effect of Linguistic Distance, L2 Status and Age on Cross-linguistic Influence in Third Language Acquisition," in *Cross-Linguistic Influence in Third Language Acquisition*. UK: Multilingual Matters (2001). doi: https://doi.org/10.21832/9781853595509-002
- 4. B. Williams, S. & Hammarberg, B., "Language switches in L3 production: Implications for a polyglot speaking model. Applied Linguistics," vol. 19, pp. 295–333 (1998). doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/applin/19.3.295
- 5. J. Vanhove, "Metalinguistic knowledge about the native language and language transfer in gender assignment," *Stud. Second Lang. Learn. Teach.*, vol. 9, no. 2, pp. 397–419 (2019). doi: 10.14746/ssllt.2019.9.2.7
- Y. R. de Zarobe & R.M.J. Catalan, Content and Language Integrated Learning: Evidence from Research in Europe. UK: Multilingual Matters (2009). doi: https://doi.org/10.21832/9781847691675
- 7. P. Herdina and U. Jessner, *A Dynamic Model of Multilingualism*. UK: Multilingual Matters (2002).
- 8. S. Modirkhamene, "The reading achievement of third language versus second language learners of english in relation to the interdependence hypothesis," *Int. J. Multiling.*, vol. 3, no. 4, pp. 280–295 (2006). doi: 10.2167/ijm043
- 9. E. Kellerman, "Transfer and non-transfer: Whereweare now. Studies in Second Language Acquisition," *J. Am. Chem. Soc.*, vol. 99, no. 7, pp. 2085–2089 (1977). doi: 10.1021/ja00449a013
- J. Cenoz, "The influence of bilingualism on third language acquisition: Focus on multilingualism," Lang. Teach., vol. 46, no. 1, pp. 71–86 (2013). doi: 10.1017/S0261444811000218
- 11. G. De Angelis, "Interlanguage transfer of function words," *Lang. Learn.*, vol. 55, no. 3, pp. 379–414 (2005). doi: 10.1111/j.0023-8333.2005.00310.x

- 12. C. Bardel and Y. Falk, "The role of the second language in third language acquisition: The case of Germanic syntax," *Second Lang. Res.*, vol. 23, no. 4, pp. 459–484 (2007). doi: 10.1177/0267658307080557
- 13. H. Ringbom, *Cross-linguistic Similarity in Foreign Language Learning*. UK: Multilingual Matters (2006). doi: 10.21832/9781853599361
- 14. M. Bono, "Crosslinguistic interaction and metalinguistic awareness in third language acquisition," in *New Trends in Cross-Linguistic Influence and Multilingualism Research* (pp. 25–52). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters (2011).
- 15. C. Hoffman and J. Ytsma, *Trilingualism in Family, School and Community*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters (2004).
- 16. A. Hermas, "Language acquisition as computational resetting: Verb movement in L3 initial state," *Int. J. Multiling.*, vol. 7, no. 4, pp. 343–362 (2010). doi: 10.1080/14790718.2010.487941.
- 17. J. Fufen, "Third language acquisition of Norwegian objects: Interlanguage transfer or L1 influence?," in *Third language acquisition and Universal Grammar* (pp.144-61). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters (2009).
- 18. Y. I. Leung, *Third Language Acquisition and Universal Grammar*. NY: Multilingual Matters (2009).
- 19. A. Lloyd-Smith, H. Gyllstad, and T. Kupisch, "Transfer into L3 English," *Linguist. Approaches to Biling.*, vol. 7, no. 2, pp. 131–162 (2017). doi: 10.1075/lab.15013.llo.

**Open Access** This chapter is licensed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial 4.0 International License (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/4.0/), which permits any noncommercial use, sharing, adaptation, distribution and reproduction in any medium or format, as long as you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons license and indicate if changes were made.

The images or other third party material in this chapter are included in the chapter's Creative Commons license, unless indicated otherwise in a credit line to the material. If material is not included in the chapter's Creative Commons license and your intended use is not permitted by statutory regulation or exceeds the permitted use, you will need to obtain permission directly from the copyright holder.

